

**ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION: A
QUANTITATIVE STUDY AT THE DURBAN OFFICE OF THE DEPARTMENT
OF LABOUR**

BY

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DECLARATION

I declare that this treatise is my own unaided work. All citations, references and borrowed ideas have been duly acknowledged. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Social Sciences (Psychology) in the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa. None of the present work has been submitted previously for any degree or examination in any other University.

Dennis Johannes Van der zee

Date

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ABSTRACT

This study used a quantitative, correlational survey method to examine the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and between organisational commitment and each of the five facets of job satisfaction (work, pay, promotion, supervision and co workers). A biographical questionnaire, the Job Descriptive Index and the Occupational Commitment Questionnaire were administered to 56 employees at the Department of Labour in Durban to gather the data. Descriptive statistics revealed that while levels of job satisfaction were above average for this sample, organisational commitment was above average. Inferential statistics using the Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient showed that organisational commitment was correlated at the 99% level of confidence ($p < 0.01$) with job satisfaction, and with the facets of work, supervision and co-workers; it was also correlated with promotion at the 95% level of confidence ($P < 0.05$). There was no correlation between organisational commitment and pay. The results have implications for the retention of skilled workers in the public sector.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Organisations face strong pressures to be efficient and at the same time produce value-added outputs. Through workers, organisations can garner a competitive advantage. Committed employees take pride in organisational membership, believe in the goals and values of the organisation, and therefore display higher levels of performance and productivity (Steinhaus & Perry, 1996). Because low productivity, absenteeism, and turnover are costly for organisations, it is important for organisations to determine what affects organisational commitment and to nurture it (Nasurdin, Ramayah & Hemdi, 2005). Organisational commitment is a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

Many managers have little understanding of how to satisfy their employees and how these employees' satisfaction levels influence their intention to leave their positions (Feinstein, 2000). In fact, because of this limited understanding, managers' efforts towards employee satisfaction can sometimes create more dissonance than cohesion between employees and management, leading to decreased performance and excessive employee turnover (Locke, 1969).

According to Luthans (1989), high or low employee turnover rates, absenteeism and grievances lodged are factors that indicate whether job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction exists within organisations. Job satisfaction is the positive emotional response to a job situation resulting from attaining what the employee wants and values from the job (Locke, 1969). Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) have suggested that job satisfaction has five facets that are important to consider: satisfaction with work itself, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, satisfaction with supervision, and satisfaction with co workers. However, Hackman and Oldham (1976) maintain, that it is important to measure job satisfaction as a general concept separate from its facets.

There is a vast array of literature related to antecedents and consequences of both job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Aamodt, 1999; Bagraim, 2003; Buitendach & de Witte, 2005). This is due to the general recognition that these variables can be major determinants of organisational performance (Angle, 1981; Riketta, 2002) and effectiveness (Laschinger, 2001; Miller, 1978). Studies have reported strong correlations between organisational commitment and job satisfaction on the one hand, and labour turnover on the other, where job satisfaction and organisational commitment are the independent variables and labour turnover is the dependent variable (Benkhoff, 1997). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment have both been found to be inversely related to such withdrawal behaviours as tardiness, high absenteeism, low productivity, labour unrest, industrial action and high labour turnover (Yousef, 2000; Meyer, 1999). They have also been linked to increased productivity and organisational effectiveness (Buitendach & de Witte, 2005). Researchers have established that job satisfaction and

organisational commitment are negatively related to the intention to leave, and to turnover (DeConinck & Stilwel, 2002; Griffeth, Hom & Geatner, 2000, Porter, Steers & Mowday, 1974; Price & Mueller, 1986). When employees are dissatisfied at work, they are less committed and will look for opportunities elsewhere (Lok & Crawford, 2001). If opportunities are unavailable, they may emotionally or mentally “withdraw” from the organisation. Thus it is important for managers to understand the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2001).

Satisfaction with the job as a significant contributor to organisational commitment has been well documented (e.g. Eby & Freeman, 1999; Flynn & Solomon, 1985; Knoop, 1995; Morrison, 1997; Mottaz, 1988; Nasurdin et al., 2005; Nasurdin, Ramayah & Mohamed, 2001; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996; Testa, 2001; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992; Young, Worchel & Woehr, 1998). However, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) concluded that the direction of causation was undecided, and opted for the neutral description of satisfaction as being a correlate of commitment. The vast majority of research indicates a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Aranya, Lachman, & Amernic, 1982; Boshoff & Mels, 1995; Bull, 2005; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell & Black, 1990; Knoop, 1995; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992; Morrison, 1997; Norris & Niebuhr, 1984; Ting, 1997).

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The literature suggests increasing employee commitment and satisfaction in organisations impacts positively on employee productivity and performance (Luthans, 1998). With

increasing speed of change in the workplace in South Africa, the need to develop more effective public service institutions is paramount and it is imperative that these institutions attempt to seek ways to generate greater job satisfaction and organisational commitment for their employees.

According to Meyer (1999), most South African employees experience a lack of job satisfaction resulting in a low level of employee commitment that, in turn, impacts on performance and the achievement of organisational goals. The results, such as absenteeism and employee turnover, is costing South African companies millions of Rands per annum due to disruptions in business operations resulting in lost productivity, decreased efficiency, and increased benefit payments (Nel, van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2004; Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003).

Public sector employees are faced with a multitude of factors that impact on effective and efficient service delivery. Not only are poor salaries blamed, but other factors that have been identified as contributing to job dissatisfaction have been the work environment and poor management (Cullinan, 2005), and low pay, limited flexibility and limited opportunities for promotion (Barrows & Watson, n.d.). This results in the most competent and qualified public sector employees leaving to climb the corporate ladder, leading to a loss in productivity and a lack of continuity in the public sector (Luddy, 2005).

Considering the above and in light of the vision of the Department of Labour “to play a significant role in reducing unemployment, poverty and inequality through a set of

policies and programmes”, it is imperative that employees maintain satisfactory job satisfaction and performance levels, to ensure a service that aids in South Africa’s development (Department of Labour, 2008, Internet). Boggie (2005) maintains that in order to provide good service, the quality of employees is critical to ensure success. It is for this reason that it is essential that the area of job satisfaction be explored in order to gain a better insight thereof. This will provide managers with important information to enable them to stimulate greater job satisfaction amongst employees.

This study therefore explored the constructs of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a South African public sector organisation. The intention is to expose the public sector leadership to better understand the employment relationship and improve the management of employees. Knowledge of the concepts discussed in this paper can assist decision making regarding employees and improving productivity, and this could improve the vital service delivery that ensures a fair country to work in.

The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the employees at the Department of Labour in Durban, and to establish if there is a relationship between organisational commitment and the five job satisfaction facets of work, supervision, co-workers, pay and promotion.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The question that the current study attempted to answer was whether there was a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment among employees in the Department of Labour, a public sector organisation.

The following research questions were addressed:

- What is the level of job satisfaction among employees in the Department of Labour?
- What is the level of organisational commitment among employees in the Department of Labour?
- What is the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment?
- What is the relationship between organisational commitment and each of the five facets of job satisfaction i.e. work, promotion, supervision, co-workers and pay?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The research objectives were:

- To determine the level of job satisfaction amongst employees at the Department of Labour.
- To determine the level of organisational commitment amongst employees at the Department of Labour.
- To determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

- To establish if there is a relationship between organisational commitment and each of the five job satisfaction facets, namely: work, supervision, co-workers, pay and promotion.

The following has been hypothesised:

H1. Job satisfaction has no statistically significant correlation with organisational commitment amongst employees at the Department of Labour.

H2. No statistically significant correlation exists between pay and organisational commitment amongst employees at the Department of Labour.

H3. No statistically significant correlation exists between promotion and organisational commitment amongst employees at the Department of Labour.

H4. No statistically significant correlation exists between work and organisational commitment amongst employees at the Department of Labour.

H5. No statistically significant correlation exists between supervisors and organisational commitment amongst employees at the Department of Labour.

H6. No statistically significant correlation exists between co-workers and organisational commitment amongst employees at the Department of Labour.

1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- A primary limitation of the study relates to the use of a non-probability sample. The results, therefore, cannot be generalised, as circumstances in other environments may differ.
- The research limits its focus to the Department of Labour in Durban only. It would have been desirable to administer the questionnaires to the satellite offices of the Department of Labour, but due to time constraints and work pressures it was not possible to administer the questionnaire to every employee of the Department of Labour in the wider KwaZulu Natal region.
- Another limitation of the study is the relatively small sample size.
- Self-administered questionnaires allow for too much interpretation of the items by the participants. It is also possible that data collected from the questionnaires do not capture the complexity of employees' perceptions of their workplace conditions.
- Since a quantitative design was used, qualitative data could have added value to the research.
- Pay scales were not disclosed by the organisation due to recent wage negotiations, therefore no questions were asked about what individuals were earning.

1.6 STRUCTURE OF THE TREATISE

This report consists of the following chapters:

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the foundations of the study and includes the background to the study, the research question, objectives and hypotheses.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter comprises definitions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, a review of the research on job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and a theoretical framework which includes the theories of need, motivation and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter explains the method of research, research design, sampling theory and design, data gathering and analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

This chapter presents results of the research, and the methods of data interpretation and analysis that were used. The results are presented in the form of tables.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter Five discusses the most salient results emanating from the study. Conclusions are drawn and integrated with existing literature. Some reflections on the limitations of the study are presented.

1.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has introduced the topic. Critical questions to be answered and the aims of the study have been expressed. The objective of this study was to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the employees at

the Department of Labour in Durban, and to establish if there is a relationship between organisational commitment and the five job satisfaction facets of work, supervision, co-workers, pay and promotion. The next chapter presents definitions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, a review of the research on job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and a theoretical framework which includes the theories of need, motivation and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is one of the most researched areas of organisational behaviour. Researchers contend that job satisfaction is possibly the most significant yet elusive factor in understanding worker motivation, performance, effectiveness, recruitment and retention (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). While people need jobs to pay their accounts, a large segment of the workforce places job satisfaction as the top reason for staying with or leaving companies (Smith, 1998). Job satisfaction has been correlated with enhanced job performance, positive work values, high levels of employee motivation, and lower rates of absenteeism, turnover and burnout (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Tharenou, 1993). Therefore managers should be concerned with the level of satisfaction in their organisation, and the ultimate aim for those who organise and control workers is to provide an opportunity for job satisfaction to take place (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Closely tied to productivity are those factors of human relations that have a negative impact on the organisational production output (Hamner & Organ, 1978). Dissatisfied employees may cause undesirable job outcomes by stealing, moonlighting and demonstrating high rates of absenteeism. Consequently, these employees may withdraw from the job psychologically, as manifested in such behaviour as not being punctual, not attending meetings or wandering about trying to look busy. Dissatisfied employees also tend to practise behavioural withdrawal from the job such as in turnover or early

retirement (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992). Mobley (1977) suggests there are several thought processes of interest that add to the withdrawal decision, namely intention to search and intention to quit. Dissatisfaction produces a series of withdrawal cognitions in which employees examine the costs and benefits associated with leaving their jobs. The more dissatisfied employees become, the more likely they are to consider other employment opportunities (Hellman, 1997).

An individual's principal choice of employment can help shape their view of themselves, broaden their daily life, and help to give meaning to their existence. So, if there is poor satisfaction with work, the individual questions him/herself in more aspects than just work factors (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Furthermore, apart from the obvious importance of job satisfaction, it has been demonstrated that satisfied employees have better health and live longer, and satisfaction on the job carries over to the employee's life outside the job. For management a satisfied workforce translates into higher productivity due to fewer interruptions caused by absenteeism or good employees quitting, as well as into lower medical costs. There are benefits for society as a whole: satisfaction on the job carries over to employees' off the job hours, so the goal of high job satisfaction for employees can be explained in terms of both financial and social responsibility (Robbins, 1998).

The question has been raised as to whether the impact of job satisfaction has been blown out of proportion; there are questions regarding consistency of the satisfaction-productivity relationship. It would be imprudent to say that satisfaction alone causes poor

productivity, turnover and absenteeism. Certainly a number of other factors have an equal or even greater impact, such as other employment opportunities and the employee's financial situation to mention just two (Robbins 1998).

2.1.1 Definitions of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been defined in a number of ways. Vroom (1964) defined job satisfaction as the positive orientation of an individual towards the role which he/she is presently occupying, while Hackman and Oldham (1975) define it as "the degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy with his job" (cited in Kamfer, 1989, p.15). Job satisfaction can also be defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values, providing these values are compatible with one's physical and psychological needs" (McPhee & Townsend, 1992, p.117). Beers (1964, cited in Visser, Breed & van Breda, 1997, p. 19) defines job satisfaction as "...the attitude of workers toward the company, their jobs, their fellow workers and other psychological objects in the work environment."

Schermerhorn (1993) defines job satisfaction as an affective or emotional response towards various aspects of an employee's work. The author expounds further that likely causes of job satisfaction include status, supervision, co-worker relationships, job content, remuneration and extrinsic rewards, promotion and physical conditions of the work environment, as well as organisational structure (Schermerhorn (1993). Similarly, McNamara (n.d.) points out that job satisfaction refers to an individual's feeling or state

of mind, giving heed to the nature of the individual's work. Explaining further that job satisfaction can be influenced by a diversity of job dimensions, *inter alia*, the quality of the employee's relationship with their supervisor, the status of the physical environment in which the individual works, and the degree of fulfillment in work (McNamara, n.d.). Rue and Byars (1992) refer to job satisfaction as an individual's mental state about the job. Robbins et al., (2003) add that an individual with high job satisfaction will display a positive attitude towards their job, and the individual who is dissatisfied will have a negative attitude about the job. This definition is expanded by Greenberg and Baron (1995) who define job satisfaction as an individual's cognitive, affective and evaluative reactions toward their job. Sempane, Rieger and Roodt (2002) describe that job satisfaction is an individual's personal assessment of conditions prevalent in the job, thus evaluation occurs on the basis of factors which they regard as important to them.

Evans (2001) maintains that there are four levels of understanding represented by work in job-related attitudes such as job satisfaction. The first level has its basis in conventional wisdom and common sense, but is characterised by over simplistic reasoning. On this level, job satisfaction is usually equated with centrally initiated policy and conditions of service, such as pay. At the other end of the scale, the fourth level is characterised by in-depth analysis and recognition for the need of conceptual clarity and precision. On this level, individualism is recognised, and although there is still a search for commonalities and generalities, these are accurate as they are free from contextual specificity. Evans (2001) argues that this level has contributed not only to an understanding of what job satisfaction is, but also to what its determinants are, such as individual needs fulfillment,

expectations fulfillment or values congruence. In accordance with this argument, Evans' (2001) definition of job satisfaction is "a state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which the individual perceives her/his job-related needs to be being met" (p.12).

According to Cherrington (1994), research on job satisfaction has identified two aspects to understanding the concept of job satisfaction, namely, facet satisfaction and overall satisfaction. These two concepts are explained as follows:

Facet Satisfaction

Facet satisfaction refers to the tendency for an employee to be more or less satisfied with various facets or aspects of the job (Johns, 1988). Cherrington (1994) refers to the various aspects or facets of the job as the individual's attitude about their pay, the work itself - whether it is challenging, stimulating and attractive, and the supervisors - whether they possess the softer managerial skills as well as being competent in their jobs. Factors such as pay, the work itself, supervision, relationships with co-workers and opportunities for promotions have been found to contribute to job satisfaction (Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield. 2002; Johns, 1996; Nel et al., 2004; Robbins et al., 2003). Coster (1992) in a South African study found job satisfaction is more strongly related to specific job domains than overall job satisfaction.

Overall Satisfaction

Overall satisfaction focuses on the general internal state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction within the individual. Positive experiences in terms of friendly colleagues, good remuneration, compassionate supervisors and attractive jobs create a positive internal state. Negative experiences emanating from low pay, less stimulating jobs and criticism create a negative internal state. Therefore, the feeling of overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a holistic feeling that is dependent on the intensity and frequency of positive and negative experiences (Cherrington, 1994).

2.1.2 Research on Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction as a formal area of research did not exist until the mid-1930s but has become a much-researched area of inquiry over the last thirty years (Landy, 1989). Many authors cite Locke (1976) who estimated that about 3 350 articles or dissertations had been written on this topic by 1972 with Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992) suggesting that more than 5000 studies of job satisfaction had been published.

According to Kh Metle (2003), job satisfaction has been a popular topic for researchers in a wide area of fields including industrial psychology, public administration, business and higher education. The principal reason as to why job satisfaction is so extensively researched is that it relates to significant associations with several variables (Yousef, 2000). For example, it has a positive association with life satisfaction, organisational commitment and job performance as pointed out by numerous researchers (Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994; Fletcher & Williams, 1996; Babin & Boles 1996, cited in

Buitendach & De Witte, 2005). Cherrington (1994) found that employees experiencing high satisfaction levels contribute to organisational commitment, job involvement, improved physical and mental health, and improved quality of life both on and off the job. Job dissatisfaction on the other hand, culminates in higher absenteeism, turnover, labour problems, labour grievances, attempts to organise labour unions and a negative organisational climate.

Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction have been found to impact on the individual and on the organisation in a variety of ways. While a positive relationship has been found between job satisfaction and mental health, job dissatisfaction has been linked with physical symptoms of headaches, loss of appetite, indigestion and nausea and with organisational behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover (Widrich & Ortlepp, 1994; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Terborg, Lee, Smith, Davis, & Turbin, 1982; Vroom, 1964).

2.1.3 Research on Job Satisfaction in South Africa

Josias (2005) study of job satisfaction and absenteeism in a selected field service with in an Western Cape electricity unity, found average to below average levels of job satisfaction with the various dimensions assessed. The respondents appear to be more satisfied with the nature of their work, the supervision they receive, their co-workers, communication and operating procedures. They however experienced lower levels of satisfaction with their compensation and opportunities for promotion. The results

indicated a low level of employee satisfaction is associated with an increase in the number and frequency of sick leave days amongst the selected sample of employee.

Hoole and Vermeulen (2003) found South African pilots experience a relatively high level of job satisfaction when working for larger airlines because of the promotion opportunities and high pay. Pilots involved in the area of passenger transportation and working for national airlines experience a higher level of job satisfaction. Pilots who make a living out of commercial flying (freight transport, crop dusting, aerial survey, construction and so forth), experience less job satisfaction. This may be due to the nature of their work environment. They earn less, have less job security, work mainly on their own and operate in a less structured environment.

The empirical findings from a study of the employees at a public health institution in the Western Cape, found that job satisfaction correlations were statistically significant at a 95% level with their co-workers, followed by the nature of the work itself and the supervision they receive. However, no significant relationship was examined between job satisfaction and promotional opportunities and with the pay they receive (Luddy, 2005).

In a study of job satisfaction and commitment between academic staff and support staff of a higher academic institution in the Western Cape, Mcwatts (2005) found that job satisfaction is higher in the academic group than for their support staff counterparts. Furthermore, academic staff in the sample were relatively satisfied with the nature of the work that they perform, as well as with their co-workers and opportunities for promotion,

but were less satisfied the supervision and compensation they receive. Support staff in the sample were most satisfied with their co-workers, followed by their supervision and the nature of their jobs. They appear to be less satisfied with their opportunities for promotion and less satisfied with the compensation they receive. The results of the study demonstrate that there is no significant difference in organisational commitment between academic and support staff. The implication is that the relative strength of the academic and support staffs identification with and involvement in the higher education institution under investigation are similar. Despite job satisfaction being low average in the support staff group, their commitment remains high. Mcwatts (2005) assumes that both academic and support staff will act in similar manner to meet the institution's goals and interests. It can be concluded that both groups have similar psychological states that would either bind them to the institution or increase the likelihood of turnover.

Research in South Africa on job satisfaction has helped organisations identify the areas in which employees are not satisfied with. These areas can then be addressed in the most appropriate and creative manner. The theme of the above studies is that the majority of employees in South Africa are not satisfied with the two variables of compensation and promotional opportunities. This can have dire consequences since research findings in the literature suggest that compensation policies and amounts influence the level of absenteeism, turnover decisions and employee decisions on productivity (Oshagbemi, 1997).

2.1.4 Theoretical background

Theories of need, motivation, and satisfaction such as Maslow's (1970) Need Theory and Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factor Theory form the theoretical foundation to explain and contextualise the construct of job satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1966, cited in Spector, 2003), factors leading to satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to dissatisfaction. Therefore, managers who seek to eliminate factors which may bring about dissatisfaction may bring neutrality but not necessarily motivation. It is insufficient if only hygiene factors (extrinsic) or only motivator factors (intrinsic) are present to produce satisfied or motivated individuals; this will only lead to employees with no satisfaction or no dissatisfaction (Spector, 2003). Spector, (2003) explains that there must be a combination of the two-factors. Abraham Maslow (1970) developed one of the best-known theories of motivation: the Needs Hierarchy Theory. It states that within each individual there exists a hierarchy of five need levels. The needs range from basic or lower level needs to higher level needs. In addition to these two theories, a host of other relevant theories that help to explain job satisfaction will be closely examined.

2.2 THEORIES OF NEED, MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTION

There are many theories regarding need, motivation and satisfaction of employees. Some believe that only one motivational theory is enough to create an approach to generate productive employees. Others may argue that no method works the best because each employee is different and none are born either achievers or loafers. Something can be learnt from each theory to apply to a host of situations. No single theory will address all motivational problems (Bull, 2005).

In order to understand job satisfaction, it is important to understand what motivates people at work. Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weik (1970 cited in Smucker & Kent, 2004) categorized job satisfaction theories into either content theories or process theories. Content theories are based on various factors which influence job satisfaction (Maslow's need hierarchy theory, Aderfer's ERG theory and Herzberg's two-factor theory). Process theories, in contrast, take into account the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values, and comparisons interact with the job to produce job satisfaction (Expectancy theory and Adam's Equity theory) (Smucker & Kent, 2004).

2.2.1 MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY THEORY (1970)

According to A. H. Maslow, "motivation comes from within the individual and cannot be imposed upon him, and although it is directed at external goals, motivation is always an internal process" (Walters, 1975, p.28).

Maslow has viewed humankind as perpetually wanting beings who are continually striving to find ways to satisfy their needs. A person is motivated to reach a particular goal because he or she has an internally generated need to reach it. When a need occurs, motivational tension develops and is directed toward satisfaction of the felt need. The intensity of the effort is a function of how strong the need is. Needs, are however, not static. Once a need is satisfied it can no longer serve as a motivator of behaviour. Other needs then take precedence and behaviour is directed towards satisfying those needs. Maslow identified five basic sets of needs which he arranged into a hierarchy. These

needs are ranked from the most basic survival level needs to self-actualisation, the pinnacle of human existence (Walters, 1975).

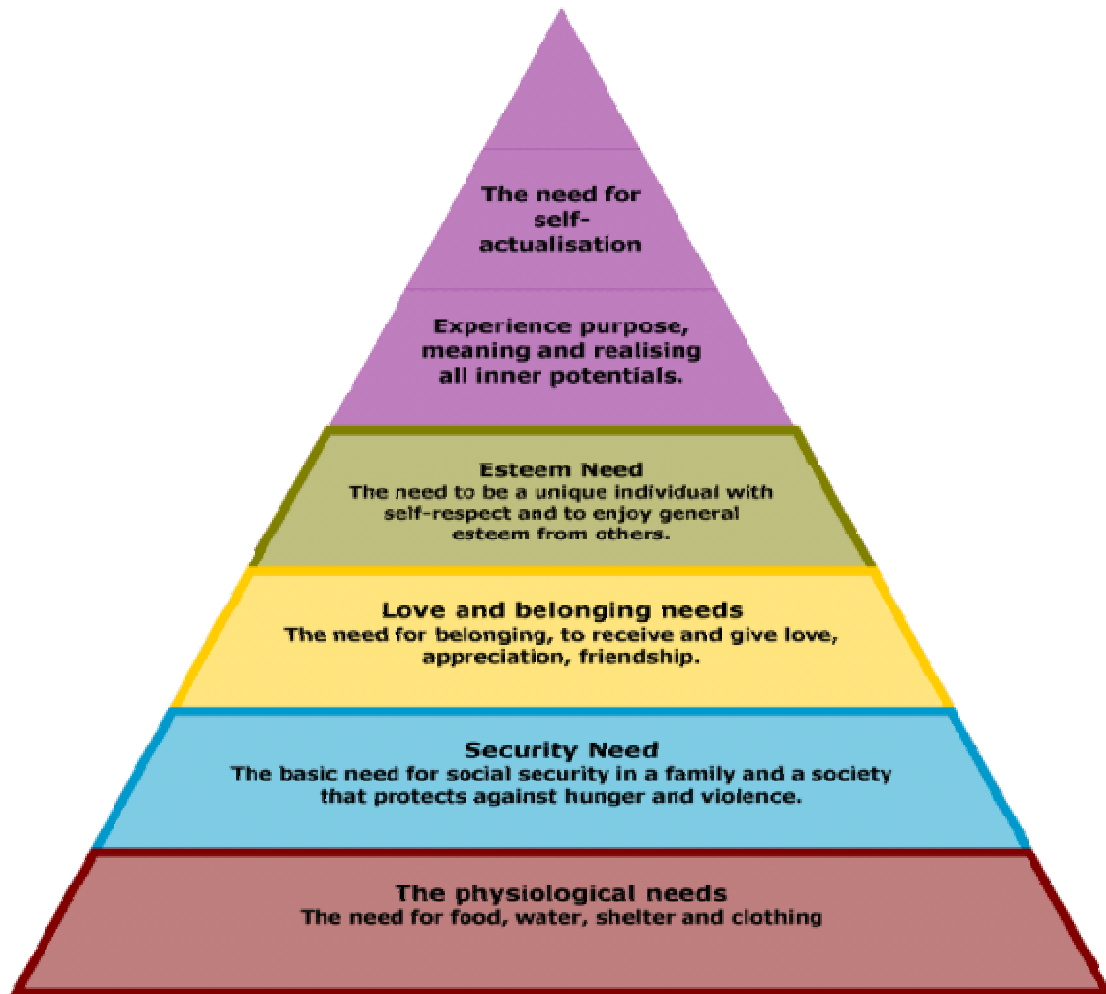


Figure 2.1: Maslow's Need Theory (1970) (Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx, & Van der Schyf, 1998).

Physiological needs

Physiological needs are the primary needs. They include food, warmth, shelter, clothing water, sexual fulfilment, and an almost endless list of other bodily requirements (Walters, 1975). These needs can be directly satisfied by compensation. Employees who are adequately paid can provide for their basic needs. Furthermore, to satisfy these needs of employees, employers can furnish their employees with a pleasant and comfortable environment, make provision for ample leisure and a comfortable salary (Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx, & Van der Schyf, 1998).

Safety Needs

After the physiological needs are gratified, the safety needs emerge. Satisfaction of these requires actual physical safety as well as a sense of being safe from both physical and emotional harm (Walters, 1975).

Many employees' most important security need is job security. Other security factors include increase in salary and benefits. Human resource practices that ensure that these needs are met, can be the following: adhering to protective rules and regulations, minimising risk-taking requirements, providing strong directive leadership and following chain of command policy, providing well-defined job descriptions, minimising negative stroking and threatening behaviour, providing information about the firm's financial status and projections, and providing "just" compensation and supportive fringe benefits (Carrell et al., 1998).

Need for belongingness and love or social needs

Once the physiological and safety needs are satisfied, the first social needs emerge, that is, the need for belongingness and love. At this stage, the individual is motivated towards securing his or her place in a particular group and towards the development of close emotional relationships with others, including the giving and receiving of love (Walters, 1975).

At this level, employees desire social relationships inside and outside the organisation. Peer group acceptance within the workforce is often an important psychological need for employees. Managers can fulfil social needs by encouraging the team concept, systematically using organisation-wide feedback surveys, using task groups to execute projects, providing for firm and/or office business and social meetings, providing close personal leadership, encouraging professional-group participation, encouraging community-group participation, and compensating on the basis of total team performance (Carrell et al., 1998).

Need for esteem

These include not only the need for self-respect or self-esteem and a high evaluation of oneself, but also for the respect or esteem of others. Firmly based self-esteem is soundly based upon real capacity, achievement and respect from others. Needs for esteem may be classified into two subsets. First, there is a need or desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for independence and freedom, and for a personal sense of confidence in

one's competence in dealing with the world. Second, there is a desire for reputation or prestige, that is, respect or esteem from other people. The individual wants his/her competence recognised and appreciated by others (Walters, 1975).

Satisfaction of the self-esteem need leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and adequacy, and of being useful and necessary in the world. However, thwarting of these needs produces feelings of inferiority, weakness and helplessness. These feelings may give rise to basic discouragement or neurotic trends (Vroom, 1964).

Once employees have formed friendships within the organisation and feel a part of the peer group, the need for self-esteem takes precedence. Organisational factors like job title, status items within the organisation such as office size, office location or parking spaces, and level of responsibility become important to the employee. To provide for self-esteem needs, managers should include employees in goal-setting and decision-making processes, provide opportunities to display skills and talents, provide recognition symbols, for example, name on stationery, assign associates and support staff for coaching and development, provide a personal secretary to associates, use positive-reinforcement programs, institute mentor systems, and compensate as recognition of growth (Carrell et al., 1998).

Need for self-actualisation

When all other needs are satisfied, the final and highest one to emerge is the need for self-actualisation. Self-actualisation is not so much a state or a stage of being, like

hunger, to be satisfied by periodic gratification. Rather it is a process of being in which one strives to become all that one is capable of becoming (Walters, 1975).

According to Maslow (1970), the physiological, safety, love and esteem needs are all deficit needs, whereas the self-actualisation need is a growth need. The first four needs are termed deficit because they emerge as a result of the lack of food, safety, love or esteem. The self-actualising person, however, is freed from deficit needs, and is engaged in the process of realising his/her capabilities, and of experimenting with his/her concept of self. Each person is unique and must seek his/her own way to fulfilment. It is therefore, an entirely internal process and gratification of the need. The sense of fulfilment comes about through the experience of doing things that fulfil one's potential. Self-actualisation is a growth need because it is a self-perpetuating, ongoing process. Each new development of the self produces an exploration for further development (Walters, 1975).

At this level, employees seek a fulfilling, useful life in the organisation and in society. Employees seek challenging and creative jobs to achieve self-actualisation. Maslow contends that individuals will climb the ladder of need fulfilment until they have become self-actualised. If any need is not fulfilled, the individual will continually strive to fulfil that need; that is, the need becomes a motivational factor. At any level, needs may be fulfilled outside the organisation as well as within the organisation. To fulfil this need within the organisation, managers should provide for participation in goal-setting and decision making processes, provide opportunity and support for career-development

plans, provide staff job rotation to broaden experience and exposure, offer optimum innovative and risk-taking opportunities, encourage direct-access communication to clients, customers, suppliers, etc., provide challenging internal and external professional development opportunities, provide supportive leadership that encourages a high degree of self-control, and compensate for exceptional performance (Carrell et al., 1998).

2.2.1.1 EVALUATION OF MASLOW'S THEORY

Maslow's (1970) Need Hierarchy Theory has received little clear or consistent support from the available research findings. Some of Maslow's propositions have been totally rejected, while others received mixed and questionable support at best. The descriptive validity of Maslow's Need Classification Scheme is not established, although there are some indications that low-order and high-order needs may form some kind of hierarchy (Steers & Porter, 1991). An evaluation of the theory is inclined to lead one to dismiss its substance for its lack of empirical support. There are, however, issues that need consideration. First, Maslow's (1970) Need Hierarchy Theory is not a "theory" in the usual sense as he did not propose any testable hypothesis. Wahba and Bridwell (1976, p. 234) in their evaluation of the theory, have noted the nature of the theory as follows: "...defies empirical testing..." and it "...is almost a non-testable theory". This is because "Maslow's theory is based upon the causal logic..." and is a "...clinical derived theory..." with its unit of analysis the individual. Maslow, in addition, did not discuss any guidelines for empirical tests of his theory, hence the way the theory is tested is open to interpretation. Maslow's theory is a highly abstract conception of mankind. It is thus more philosophical than empirical. His ideas of self-actualisation, for instance, are

ingrained in the way people conceive their mission in life. While his theory is deficient in many aspects, its contribution to the sphere of understanding human behaviour in general, and at work in particular, cannot be discarded (Moola, 1998). Some of the problems related to Maslow's theory of motivation include the difficulty in determining the level of need at which workers are functioning; the difficulty in determining what may be an appropriate reward once a worker's level has been identified; a lack of scientific evidence that the levels of Maslow's hierarchy exist; and the assumption, common to all psychological need theories, that the Hypothesised needs are universal across cultures. Despite these shortcomings, Maslow's theory remains popular among managers (Smither, 1998, cited in Moola, 1998).

While Maslow's model provides a hierarchy of needs and suggests behaviours that will help fulfil these needs, it provides less complete information about the origins of needs. It implies higher level needs are present in most people even if people do not recognize them or act to meet these needs (Hellriegel, Slocum & Woodman, 1998).

2.2.2 ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY (1972)

Alderfer (1972) proposed a modified version of Maslow's (1970) need hierarchy theory which reorganises Maslow's five hierarchical levels into three. This theory addresses some but not all of the criticisms raised against Maslow's theory.

Alderfer's (1972) model, termed ERG theory, suggests the following three basic needs levels:

- Existence Needs: These are needs concerned with the physical existence of the organism. They are material existence needs and are satisfied by environmental factors. They include basics such as food, clothing and shelter, and the means provided by work organisations to attain these factors, e.g. pay, fringe benefits, safe working conditions and job security.
- Relatedness Needs: These needs concern how people relate to their surrounding social environment and deal with maintaining interpersonal relatedness with significant others, both on and off the job, such as co-workers, superiors, subordinates, family, friends and enemies.
- Growth Needs: These needs are thought to be the highest in the need category and include the needs for personal development and improvement, and are met by developing whatever abilities and capabilities are important to the individual. They comprise all needs that involve making creative or productive effects on the individual and the environment.

Alderfer (1972) suggests that individuals move up the hierarchy from existence needs to relatedness needs to growth needs, as the lower level needs become satisfied. In this respect his theory is similar to Maslow's (1970) conceptualisation.

Alderfer's (1972) theory, however, differs in two major areas. Firstly, in terms of the "process" of how people move from one level to the next, and secondly in "content" or the number of need levels in the hierarchy. Maslow's model may be expressed as one of "fulfilment-progression" only, i.e. an individual must satisfy a lower-level need before

moving on to the next higher level. Alderfer differs in that he has added a “frustration-regression” dimension. This means that if an individual is continually frustrated in his/her attempts to satisfy a higher order need (e.g. growth needs), then relatedness needs (lower-order needs) may re-emerge as primary ones and the individual may re-direct his/her efforts toward these lower-order needs (Hellriegel et al., 1998).

Alderfer (1972) assumes that existence, relatedness, and growth vary on a continuum of concreteness, with existence needs being the most concrete, relatedness needs being moderately concrete, and the growth needs being least concrete. When the less concrete needs are not met, more concrete need fulfilment is sought.

The second major difference is that Alderfer’s (1972) model suggests more than one need may be operative or achieved at the same point in time. This assumption suggests a less rigid model of the motivational process. For example, employees who are continually frustrated in their attempts to self-actualise on routine jobs might cope with this frustration by placing increasing importance on relatedness, and channelling increasing amounts of energy into socializing and other behaviours that fulfil these needs. If their relatedness needs are also frustrated, they may move an additional step down on the hierarchy and place more importance on basic existence needs.

Wanous and Zwany (1977) found support for the existence of the three categories suggested by Alderfer: good for the growth category, moderate for the existence category and weak for the relatedness category. They also found that the three levels were

relatively independent of one another and could be measured reliably. Support for the proposal that people progress through the three need levels was also found. In comparison to Maslow's (1970) statement that "...today's successful motivator becomes obsolete tomorrow", Wanous and Zwanoy (1977) found a contrasting situation. They found both relatedness and growth needs can become more, not less, important when highly satisfied. Alderfer (1972) himself has reported mixed research support for his model. The validity of the crux of the model, namely, the systematic progression or regression of need importance along hierarchical lines, remains in doubt.

2.2.2.1 EVALUATION OF ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY

An evaluation of Alderfer's (1972) theory points to issues similar to Maslow's need hierarchy. These constitute tests of the propensity mechanism in longitudinal studies. Another issue affecting research is the definition of growth needs. Just exactly what they constitute is unclear especially from a psychological basis. Campbell & Pritchard (1976) state that the definition of growth needs is as slippery as ever, and Alderfer presents no conceptual breakthrough. With such vagueness in mind, growth needs provide an unclear basis for investigation. Miner and Dachler (1973) are of the opinion that Alderfer's (1972) theory appears to be the most promising version of need hierarchy theory available. On the other hand, Wanous and Zwanoy (1977) conclude that need theories may be of little value in day-to-day management practices. According to Carrell, Jennings and Heavrin, (1997), general acceptance of the theory's propositions has led to its adoption as a more realistic approach to understanding human needs and as an amendment to Maslow's hierarchy theory. From the confusion of the views about the ERG model,

Ivencevich and Matteson (1996) encapsulate its value in the work environment by explaining that need models such as Maslow's and Alderfer's have become popular because they attribute freedom to individuals. The idea that individuals shape their actions to satisfy unfulfilled needs gives purpose and direction to individual activity. Furthermore, need explanations are so popular, despite little research or verification, because they are simple and easily expressed views of human behaviour (Ivencevich and Matteson, 1996)

2.2.3 HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY (1966)

One of the most interesting and controversial theories is Frederick Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factor theory which is that of motivator-hygiene factors. Whereas Maslow applied the hierarchy of needs theory to motivation in general, Herzberg applied his specifically to the workplace and job design (Carrell et al., 1998). The key to understanding Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory is to recognize that he believes that satisfaction is not the opposite of dissatisfaction. Herzberg concludes that the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but rather no job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no dissatisfaction. Herzberg thus asserts that the dissatisfaction-satisfaction continuum contains a zero point, midway between dissatisfaction and satisfaction, where neither is present (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002).

A pioneering study on factors affecting work motivation was carried out by Herzberg. An analysis of the experiences and feelings of two hundred accountants and engineers in nine

different companies was done. Structured interviews sought to establish experiences which made them feel “exceptionally good” or “exceptionally bad” about their jobs. Data collected from this project and from a prior review of the literature on the subject of job satisfaction led to the development of Herzberg’s (1966) theory of motivation (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959).

Herzberg’s (1966) theory is based on the same foundations as the other need theories; namely, the assumption that individuals are born with certain needs that must be satisfied. However, it differs from Maslow’s (1970) five factor theory and Alderfer’s (1972) three-factor theory in that it proposes all individuals have two basic sets of needs, hygiene needs and motivator needs:

- Hygiene needs are maintenance needs and may resemble those elements that provide a healthy environment. In the work environment they include pay, security, good supervision, general working conditions and company policies. They are extrinsic to the job itself.
- Motivator needs are higher order or growth needs, unique to humans and distinguishable from other animals. They seem to be related to some innate characteristics of individuals that require them to seek challenge, stimulation and autonomy and are satisfied by things like responsible work, independence and recognition. These needs are satisfied by things that are part of the work itself (intrinsic), rather than the context in which the work gets done.

According to Herzberg (1966), hygiene factors are responsible for dissatisfaction when they are absent and can reduce dissatisfaction when they are present. He also theorises that when provided, motivators can simultaneously increase job satisfaction and job motivation.

Herzberg (1966) suggests two levels of functioning, i.e. motivation-seeking and hygiene-seeking. Motivation-seeking is preferable as it yields productive activity on the part of the worker and few problems of control for management. The theory suggests that if individuals can be moved from hygiene-seeking levels to motivation-seeking levels, they will become self-motivated and consequently relieve a manager of his problems. Herzberg (1966) argues that if managers want to motivate their employees they can do so only through factors associated with the job itself that draw on motivator needs. To motivate subordinates, managers should make work more interesting and less routine, recognize work that is well done, allow employees autonomy in performing their tasks, and promote those who work well. In general, jobs should be restructured so they become more meaningful, challenging and intrinsically rewarding, i.e. jobs should be enriched.

The Two-factor Theory has generally neither been supported fully nor refuted in its entirety by empirical research. Research results have been contradictory, to say the least (Moorhead & Griffen, 1995). Methodologically it is unsound in that face-to-face interviews introduce bias as people act defensively and will be unwilling to admit to an interviewer that a bad experience was their own fault. They will also tend to give socially desirable responses. As a result, they will attribute the cause of a dissatisfaction to

someone or something other than themselves (e.g. supervisor, peers, company policy) but will be more likely to take personal responsibility for good events (e.g. finishing a difficult task, recognition for meeting targets). The model has been constructed using a “method bound” approach, i.e. the method Herzberg used to measure the factors determined the results: he asked two questions requiring self reports of favourable and unfavourable job experiences. This means his approach only produces the two factor model (Newstorm & Davis, 1997).

Because of this apparently weak study design, researchers have tried to replicate Herzberg’s (1959, cited in Landy & Trumbo, 1980) findings using methods other than face-to-face interviews. In most cases they did not find the same results as Herzberg. According to Larwood (1984), both the interpretation made, and the methodology by which the data are obtained and analysed, appear to be crucial to successful replication of the original results. Spector (1996) is more forthright in his evaluation by stating that Herzberg’s (1966) theory is considered by most researchers to be invalid. The major problem with the theory is that the two-factor structure of job satisfaction versus dissatisfaction has not been supported by research. The research conducted by Herzberg is considered flawed because it relied on employee descriptions of satisfying and dissatisfying events.

From a conceptual perspective King (1970) identified five different possible theoretical interpretations of the theory. This clearly suggests that the theory lacks specificity. In examining the studies that applied to the various versions, King (1970) concluded that

there was little evidence to support any of them (Landy, 1989). According to Steers and Porter (1991), a number of scholars believe that the model does not give sufficient attention to individual differences and assumes that job enrichment benefits all employees. Research evidence suggests that individual differences are an important moderator of the effects of job enrichment. The theory, however, has been partly supported among Greek managers, Israeli Kibbutz workers, poor black workers and supervisors in state government (Larwood, 1984).

2.2.3.1 EVALUATION OF HERZBERG'S THEORY

Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnely (1994) evaluated Herzberg's (1966) theory fairly critically by raising several issues. Questions have been raised as to whether his limited sample can justify generalization to other occupational groupings. Secondly, his oversimplification of the nature of job satisfaction leads to the assumption that managers can easily help produce job satisfaction. Smith and Cronje (1992) say that the two-factor theory fails to explain why the various intrinsic and extrinsic factors affect performance.

According to McCormick and Ilgen (1985) the two-factor theory has impacted on the area of motivation to work by stimulating research in "job enrichment" and in intrinsic motivation although the theory itself did not develop the latter (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985). Steers and Porter (1991) contend that Herzberg (1966) forced organisations to examine possible misconceptions relating to motivation. His argument that "context" factors such as more money should not be expected to affect motivation markedly without giving considerable attention to "content" factors such as opportunities for

achievement, recognition, and achievement. In other words one cannot design interventions that are only content driven and expect a change in the employee's motivation and behaviour. Content and contextual factors must be used simultaneously.

Landy (1989, p. 377) evaluates Herzberg's (1966) theory rather vaguely when he says "Herzberg leaves us in the dark concerning where these needs come from. The implication is these needs are a part of the defining characteristics of homo sapiens, those things that distinguish us in the most basic sense from other species and, as a result, do not have to be explained". Consequently, "...there has been some reluctance to accept Herzberg's propositions on faith" (Landy, 1989, p. 378). He later states: "as a result of Herzberg's theory, variables are more clearly understood, the operations involved in measuring important variables are more reasonable, and people are thinking more flexibly about the meaning of job satisfaction than they did before his theory appeared (Landy, 1989, p. 455). The validity of the theory, to the extent determined, provides more of an explanation of job satisfaction than of a theory of motivation, based on the fact that Herzberg (1966) used the critical incident technique in recording people's feelings and experiences (Caston & Braito, 1985; House & Wigdor, 1967; Schwab & Cummings, 1970). Steers and Porter (1991) hold the view that Herzberg's "controversial" theory ought to enable researchers to learn from it what will help develop better models, rather than accept or reject it totally. In this regard Spector (1996) mentions that Herzberg's (1966) theory served as the basis for Hackman and Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Theory which is based on the presumption that people can be motivated by the intrinsic nature of job tasks.

2.2.4 JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL (JCM) OF HACKMAN AND OLDHAM (1980)

The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) of work motivation has been a dominant theoretical framework for understanding an employee's reaction to the core dimensions of the job.

The core job dimensions of the model are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The critical psychological states experienced include experienced meaningfulness of work, experienced responsibility for outcomes and knowledge of the actual results of the work activities. Included in the personal and work outcomes are high internal work motivation, high quality work performance, high satisfaction with work and low absenteeism and turnover (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

The following figure is an illustration of the model:

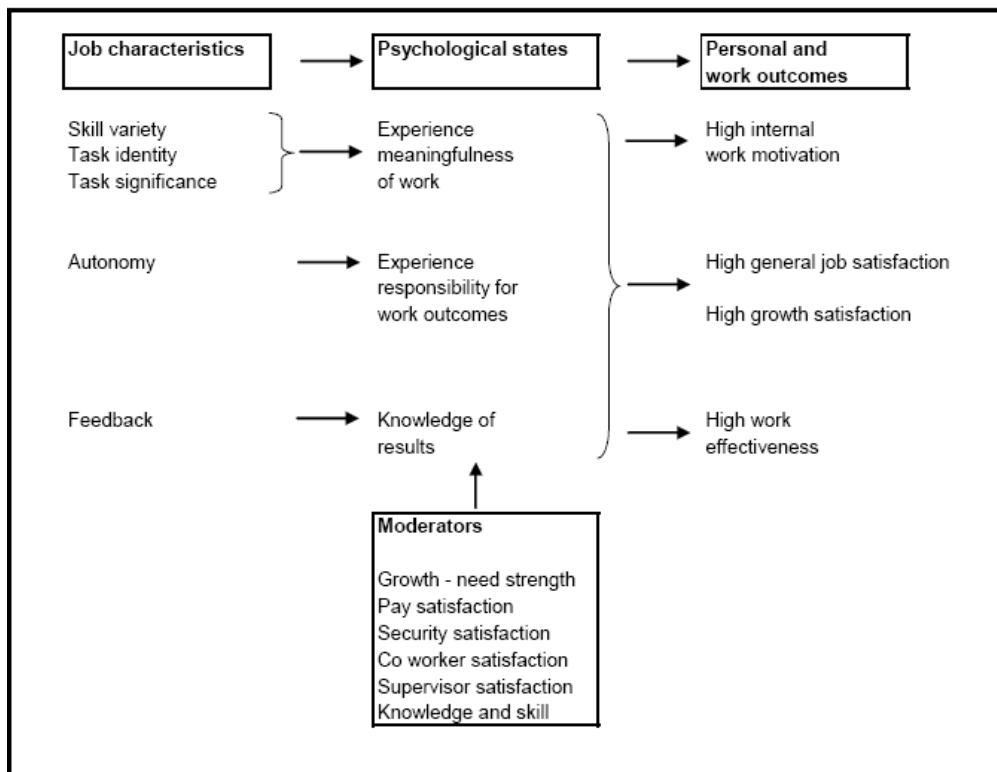


Figure 2.2 Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Model (Spector, 2003)

The JCM posits that a high level of internal motivation is dependent on the presence of three critical psychological states, namely, experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility and knowledge of results. Although of lesser importance, other work related outcomes influenced by the psychological states include overall job satisfaction and growth satisfaction (that is, satisfaction with opportunities for self-enhancement).

The development of each of the psychological states is fostered by one or more core characteristics of the job. It is proposed that experienced meaningfulness arises from the compensatory relationship among skill variety, task identity and task significance. Autonomy and job feedback are the antecedents of experienced responsibility and

knowledge of results, respectively. Following Hackman and Lawler (1971), Hackman and Oldham (1976) stipulate that it is perceptions of the core job characteristics that are directly antecedent to the critical psychological states, rather than the objective job properties. However, convergence between the objective properties of the job and perception of those properties is expected because the objective properties are specified as influencing one's perception of job dimension (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Finally, the most recent version of JCM (Hackman & Oldham, 1980) postulates that individuals' reactions to job characteristics and to psychological states are moderated by the strength of their needs for personal growth and accomplishment at work, and satisfaction with certain contextual aspects of their work environment (namely: pay, job security, co-workers and supervision).

2.2.4.1 EVALUATION OF HACKMAN AND OLDHAM 'S (1980) MODEL

Hackman and Oldham tested their model on 658 employees in 62 jobs in 7 organisations. Their model was generally supported. Exceptions were that results were weak for the feedback dimension and the link between autonomy and experienced responsibility did not operate as specified. The job dimensions have practical implications for the redesign of jobs. The limitations of the model are as follows:

- The model does not address interpersonal technique or situational moderators of how people react to their work. This may be problematic because Hackman and Oldham (1980) found that interpersonal relationships were a critical moderator between job characteristics and internal motivation.

- The model applies only to jobs that are carried out independently, and cannot be directly used to design work to be conducted by teams, although it may be of some use (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

2.2.5 EXPECTANCY THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Expectancy Theory holds that people are motivated to behave in ways that produce desired combinations of expected outcomes. Perception plays a central role in Expectancy Theory because it emphasizes cognitive ability to anticipate consequences of behaviour. Generally, Expectancy Theory can be used to predict behaviour in any situation in which a choice between two or more alternatives must be made. For example, it can be used to predict whether to quit or stay at a job, whether to exert substantial or minimal effort at a task, and whether to major in management or accounting (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002).

Victor Vroom formulated a mathematical model of expectancy theory in his 1964 book *Work and Motivation*. Vroom's (1964) theory is summarized as follows: the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of expectancy that the act will be followed by a given consequence (or outcome), and on the value or attractiveness of that consequence (or outcome) to the actor. Motivation, according to Vroom, boils down to the decision of how much effort to exert in a specific task situation. This choice is based on a two-stage sequence of expectations (effort-performance and performance-outcome). First, motivation is affected by an individual's expectation that a certain level of effort will produce the intended performance goal. For example, if you do not believe

increasing the amount of time you spend studying will significantly raise your marks in an exam, you will probably not study any harder than usual. Motivation is also influenced by the employee's perceived chances of getting various outcomes as a result of accomplishing his or her performance goal. Finally, individuals are motivated to the extent that they value the outcomes received (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002).

Expectancy

Expectancy, according to Vroom's terminology, represents an individual's belief that a particular degree of effort will be followed by a particular level of performance. In other words, it is an effort-performance expectation. Expectancies take the form of subjective probabilities. Probabilities range from zero to one. An expectancy of zero indicates effort has no anticipated impact on performance. For example, suppose you do not know how to use a typewriter. No matter how much effort you exert, your perceived probability of typing 30 error-free words per minute are likely to be zero. An expectancy of 'one' suggests that performance is totally dependent on effort. If you decided to take a typing course as well as practice a couple of hours a day for a few weeks (high effort), you should be able to type 30 words per minute without any errors. In contrast, if you do not take a typing course and only practice an hour or two per week (low effort), there is very low probability of being able to type 30 words per minute without any errors (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002).

Instrumentality

Instrumentality is a performance-outcome perception. It represents a person's belief that a particular outcome is contingent on accomplishing a specific level of performance. Performance is instrumental when it leads to something else.

Instrumentalities range from -1.0 to +1.0. An instrumentality of +1.0 indicates that attainment of a particular outcome is totally dependent on task performance. An instrumentality of zero indicates that there is no relationship between performance and outcome. For example, most companies link the number of vacation days to seniority, not job performance. Finally, an instrumentality of -1.0 reveals that high performance reduces the chance of obtaining an outcome while low performance increases the chance. For example, the more time you spend studying to get a high grade on an exam (high performance), the less time you will have for enjoying leisure activities. Similarly, as you lower the amount of time spent studying (low performance), you increase the amount of time that may be devoted to leisure activities. The concept of instrumentality is applied very clearly in the concept of performance-related pay (PRP). In this system, an employee's pay varies with the amount and the quality of work s/he carries out. According to a survey by the British Institute of Personnel and Development, 59 per cent of British companies introduced some performance-related pay schemes between 1995 and 2000. Advocates of this approach claim that variable pay schemes like PRP make employees better understand the connection between their performance and the rewards they receive (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002).

Valence

As Vroom used the term, valence refers to the positive or negative value people place on outcomes. Valence mirrors our personal preferences. For example, most employees have a positive valence for receiving additional money or recognition. In contrast, job stress and redundancy would be likely to be negatively valued by most individuals. In Vroom's (1964) expectancy model, outcomes refer to different consequences that are contingent on performance, such as pay, promotions or recognition. An outcome's valence depends on an individual's needs and can be measured for research purposes with scales ranging from a negative to a positive value. For example, an individual's valence toward more recognition can be assessed on a scale ranging from -12 (very undesirable) to 0 (neutral) to 12 (very desirable) (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002).

2.2.5.1 EVALUATION OF EXPECTANCY THEORY

Theorists, researchers and practitioners continue to work on defining, measuring and applying expectancy concepts. Many difficulties are encountered when testing the model. One problem involves the issue of effort or motivation itself. The theory attempts to predict choice or effort. But without a clear specification of the meaning of effort, the variable can't be adequately measured. Typically, self, peer, or supervisor ratings of effort are used. Unfortunately, each study seems to have its own definition, measurement and research design. The issue of the first-level performance outcomes presents another difficulty. Expectancy theory, as a process theory, doesn't specify which outcomes are relevant to a particular individual in a situation. Each researcher addresses this issue in a

unique way (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 1994). Consequently, no systematic approach is being used across investigations. Furthermore, the expectancy approach contains an implicit assumption that all motivation is conscious. Individuals are assumed to consciously calculate the pleasure or pain they expect to attain or avoid, and then make a choice. Although it's generally accepted that individuals aren't always conscious of their motives, expectancies and perceptual processes, expectancy theory says nothing about subconscious motivation. For the most part, this point has been neglected in the theory. Thus, although research has been promising, there are some major problems with the theory, research, and application of expectancy motivation (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 1994).

2.2.6 ADAMS' EQUITY THEORY (1965)

Adams' (1965) equity theory is one type of balance theory based on the premise that individuals' behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained by the need to maintain equilibrium or an internal balance of psychological tension (Huffman, Vernoy & Vernoy, 1997). Industrial versions of balance theories are based on the cognitive-dissonance theory of Festinger (1957, cited in Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002). According to Festinger's theory, people are motivated to maintain consistency between their cognitive beliefs and their behaviour. Perceived inconsistencies create cognitive dissonance which, in turn, motivates corrective action. For example, a cigarette smoker who sees a heavy smoking relative die of lung cancer would probably be motivated to quit smoking if he or she attributes the death to smoking. Accordingly, when victimised by unfair social exchanges, our resulting cognitive dissonance prompts us to correct the situation.

Corrective action may range from a slight change in attitude or behaviour, through to stealing or, in an extreme case, trying to harm someone (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002).

According to Adams (1965), perceived equity is a cognitive state in which the ratio of a person's work investment (inputs) to return on that investment (outcomes) is consonant with some norm (a hypothetical or real person). Investments, also called inputs, include work experience, education, effort, on the job training, age and beauty. Outcomes include pay, supervisory treatment, job assignments, fringe benefits and status symbols.

Fairness is defined by comparing input-output ratios. According to Spector (1996) people compare what they are getting for their effort against what they think some reference person is getting for his or her effort. To the extent that a person sees his/her input-output ratio deviating from that of the other, a state of inequity arises. Deviation could be in either direction, that is people could see themselves as being overpaid (over-compensated) or underpaid (under-compensated). In either case the resulting motive state would prompt individuals to act in a way designed to reduce tension and restore equity, i.e. fair treatment in their estimation. They may decide to work less, complain more, or ask for a raise; or they may decide that they are not really as valuable to the company as they originally thought.

Equity theory has four major components (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002)

- Person: the individual for whom equity or inequity is perceived.

- Comparison other: any individual(s) or group used by Person as a referent regarding the ratio of inputs and outcomes.
- Inputs: the individual characteristics brought by Person to the job. These may be achieved or ascribed.
- Outcomes: what Person received from the job collectively.

Based on these components, Adams' (1965) formulae for defining states of equity and inequity are:

State of equity: $\frac{O_p}{I_p} = \frac{O_o}{I_o}$

State of inequity: $\frac{O_p}{I_p} < \frac{O_o}{I_o}$ and/or $\frac{O_p}{I_p} > \frac{O_o}{I_o}$

Where p is the person, and o the other or others against whom they compare the ratio of their Inputs (I) and Outcomes (O).

Adams (1965) identified several things Person can do to reduce or avoid inequity:

- Act to alter his/her own inputs.
- Act to alter his/her own outcomes.
- Cognitively distort his/her inputs and outcomes.
- Act on the comparison other to change his/her inputs or outputs.
- Cease comparing inputs and outcomes with the other and shift to another reference.
- Leave the field.

Adams (1965) notes that all these modes of inequality reduction are not equally available to Person either behaviourally or cognitively. He suggests Person will seek to maximise positive outcomes, minimise effortful or costly inputs, and resist both behavioural and cognitive changes in those inputs and outcomes which are most central to his or her self-esteem and self-concept. In addition, Person will be more resistant to altering cognitions about his or her own inputs and outcomes of Other. Leaving the field or retreating from the exchange relationship is viewed as a last resort, occurring only when inequality is great and other means of reducing it seem to be unavailable. Finally, Person will be highly resistant to changing comparison persons if comparisons with a particular Other have stabilized over time.

According to Spector (1996) and Ivancevich and Matteson (1996) most of the research testing Equity Theory has been of the laboratory variety. Empirical tests of the theory have focused primarily on financial compensation as an outcome. Mowday's (1991) review of at least 17 studies suggests general support for Equity Theory predictions. A review of the literature by Campbell and Pritchard (1976) led them to conclude that the effects of underpayment inequity have consistently been supported.

2.2.6.1 EVALUATION OF EQUITY THEORY

Most of the research on Equity Theory has focused on pay as the basic outcome. One study incorporated workplace elements into an Equity Theory framework (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002). Employees reassigned to offices of workers two levels above them in the

management hierarchy were expected to perform at a higher level than employees reassigned to offices of more modestly overpaid workers one level above them. Similarly, employees reassigned to offices of workers two levels below them would be expected to perform at a lower level than employees reassigned to offices of more modestly underpaid workers one level below them. The findings indicated that employees assigned to higher-status offices increased their performance (a response to overpayment inequity) while those reassigned to lower-status offices lowered their performance (a response to underpayment inequity). The study supported Equity Theory's predictions that the reaction to an inequity will be proportional to the magnitude of the inequity experienced. It is also important to note that the workplace environment (not pay inequity) was the forced point in the study (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2002).

A review of the research reveals that the comparison Other isn't always clarified. A typical research procedure is to ask a person to compare their inputs and outcomes with those of a specific person. Two issues to consider are whether comparison others are within the organisation and whether they change during a person's work career. Several individuals have questioned the extent to which inequity that results from overpayment (rewards) leads to perceived inequity. Locke (1976) argues that employees are seldom told that they are overpaid. He believes that individuals are likely to adjust their idea of what constitutes an equitable payment to justify their pay. Because employer-employee exchange relationships are highly impersonal when compared to exchanges between friends, perceived overpayment inequity may be more likely when friends are involved. Thus, individuals probably react to overpayment inequity only when they believe that

their actions have led to a friend's being treated unfairly. The individual receives few signals from the organisation that s/he is being treated unfairly.

Most equity research focuses on short term comparisons. What are needed are longitudinal studies that examine inequity over a period of time. What happens over time as the inequity remains, or is increased or decreased? These questions, and research to answer them, could provide insight into the dynamic character of Equity Theory and individual responses. Another interesting criticism of the Equity Theory is that it ignores reactions to inequities in terms of decision making. Is it not likely that two people will react somewhat differently to the same magnitude of inequity if they believe different things caused the inequity? (Gibson et al., 1994).

Folger (cited in Gibson et al., 1994) has introduced the notion of referent cognition theory to explore decision-making procedures' role in shaping perceptions of inequity. In a work situation, suppose a manager allocates merit raises on the basis of a performance appraisal review. One employee may resent the manager, believing that another approach based on critical incidents and work on difficult assignments should have been used to allocate the merit raises. Referent cognitive theory predicts resentment of unfair treatment when procedures yield poor outcomes for a person. A study of manufacturing plant employees found that individuals care a great deal about the justice, commitment and trust in the organisations which are impacted by procedural decision making (Gibson et al., 1994). The researchers concluded that, in the allocation of pay raises, concerns other than the distributive issues need to be seriously considered. They thus implied that an

Equity Theory explanation of motivation is too restricted and incomplete (Gibson et al., 1994).

The decision of using Herzbergs (1966) two factor motivator and hygiene theory is because the researcher is of the opinion the theory is applicable to the current research and research question(s).

2.3 DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

The idea of a job satisfaction is very complicated (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985). Locke (1976) presented a summary of job dimensions that have been established to contribute significantly to employees' job satisfaction. The particular dimensions represent characteristics associated with job satisfaction. The dimensions are work itself, pay, promotions, working conditions, supervision and co-workers. This is postulated to influence employees' opinion of "how interesting the work is, how routine, how well they are doing, and, in general, how much they enjoy doing it" (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985, p. 309).

2.3.1 The work itself

The nature of the work performed by employees has a significant impact on their level of job satisfaction (Landy, 1989; Larwood, 1984; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992). According to Luthans (1992), employees derive satisfaction from work that is interesting and challenging, and a job that provides them with status. Landy (1989) advocates that work that is personally interesting to employees is likely to contribute to

job satisfaction. Similarly, research suggests that task variety may facilitate job satisfaction (Eby & Freeman, 1999). This is based on the view that skill variety has strong effects on job satisfaction, implying that the greater the variety of skills that employees are able to utilize in their jobs, the higher their level of satisfaction (Ting, 1997). Sharma and Bhaskar (1991) postulate that the single most important influence on a person's job satisfaction experience comes from the nature of the work assigned to him/her by the organisation. They claim that if the job entails adequate variety, challenge, discretion and scope for using one's own abilities and skills, the employee doing the job is likely to experience job satisfaction. Khaleque and Choudhary (1984) found in their study of Indian managers, that the nature of work was the most important factor in determining job satisfaction for top managers, and job security as the most important factor in job satisfaction for managers at the bottom.

Similarly, Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe's (2000) research involving 337 employees and their supervisors found that desirable job characteristics increased work satisfaction.

Using a sample of medical technologists, Blau (1999) concluded that increased task responsibilities are related to overall job satisfaction. Aamodt (1999) posits the view that job satisfaction is influenced by opportunities for challenge and growth as well as by the opportunity to accept responsibility. Mentally challenging work that the individual can successfully accomplish is satisfying and that employees prefer jobs that provide them with opportunities to use their skills and abilities that offer a variety of tasks, freedom, and feedback regarding performance, is valued by most employees (Larwood, 1984; Luthans, 1992; Robbins, 1998, Tziner & Latham, 1989). Accordingly, Robbins

(1998, p. 152) argues that “under conditions of moderate challenge, most employees will experience pleasure and satisfaction.”

2.3.2 Pay

Pay refers to the amount of financial compensation that an individual receives as well as the extent to which such compensation is perceived to be equitable. Remuneration and earnings are a cognitively complex and multidimensional factor in job satisfaction. According to Luthans (1998), salaries not only assist people to attain their basic needs, but are also instrumental in satisfying the higher level needs of people.

Previous research (Voydanoff, 1980) has shown that monetary compensation is one of the most significant variables in explaining job satisfaction. In their study of public sector managers, Taylor and West (1992, cited in Bull, 2005) found that pay levels affect job satisfaction, reporting that those public employees that compared their salaries with those of private sector employees experienced lower levels of job satisfaction. According to Boone and Kuntz (1992), offering employees fair and reasonable compensation, which relates to the input the employee offers the organisation, should be the main objective of any compensation system. Included in the category of compensation are such items as medical aid schemes, pension schemes, bonuses, paid leave and travel allowances. Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001) found financial rewards to have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Such findings are largely consistent with the idea that most employees are socialized in a society where money, benefits, and security are generally sought after and are often used to gauge the importance or the worth of a

person. Thus, the greater the financial reward, the less worry employees have concerning their financial state, thereby enhancing their impression of their self-worth to the organisation. Groot and Maassen van den Brink (2000) provide contradictory evidence for the relationship between pay and job satisfaction. In their earlier research they did not find evidence for a relationship between compensation and job satisfaction, however, their subsequent research revealed the opposite. However, Hamermesh (2001) found that changes in compensation (increases or decreases) have concomitant impact on job satisfaction levels of employees. Several other authors maintain that the key in linking pay to satisfaction is not the absolute amount that is paid, but rather, the perception of fairness (Aamodt, 1999; Landy, 1989; Robbins, 1998). According to Robbins et al., (2003), employees seek pay systems that are perceived as just, unambiguous, and in line with their expectations. When pay is perceived as equitable, is commensurate with job demands, individual skill level, and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to be the result.

2.3.3 Supervision

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

Research appears to be vague since most research indicates that individuals are likely to have high levels of job satisfaction if supervisors provide them with support and co-

operation in completing their tasks (Ting, 1997). Similar results were reported by Billingsley and Cross (1992) as well as Cramer (1993). These researchers generally hold that dissatisfaction with management supervision is a significant predictor of job dissatisfaction. The above findings are corroborated by Staudt's (1997) research based on social workers in which it was found that respondents who reported satisfaction with supervision, were also more likely to be satisfied with their jobs in general. Chieffo (1991) maintains that supervisors who allow their employees to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs will, in doing so, stimulate higher levels of employee satisfaction.

2.3.4 Promotion

An employee's opportunities for promotion are also likely to exert an influence on job satisfaction (Landy, 1989; Larwood, 1984; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994). Robbins (1998) maintains that promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, increased responsibility, and increased social status (Robbins, 1998). Bull, (2005) postulate that many people experience satisfaction when they believe that their future prospects are good. This may translate into opportunities for advancement and growth in their current workplace, or enhance the chance of finding alternative employment. They maintain that if people feel they have limited opportunities for career advancement, their job satisfaction may decrease. According to McCormick and Ilgen (1985), employees' satisfaction with promotional opportunities will depend on a number of factors, including the probability that employees will be promoted, as well as the basis and the fairness of such promotions. Visser (1990) indicates that such an individual's

standards for promotion is contingent on personal and career aspirations. Moreover, not all employees wish to be promoted. The reason therefore is related to the fact that promotion entails greater responsibility and tasks of a more complex nature, for which the individuals may consider themselves unprepared. If employees perceive the promotion policy as unfair, but do not desire to be promoted, they may still be satisfied. Nonetheless, opportunities for promotion appear to have a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction (Staudt, 1997). Staudt (1997) reports on a study that indicates the opportunity for promotion was found to be the best and only common predictor of job satisfaction in child welfare, community mental health, and family services agencies. Luthans (1992) further maintains that promotions may take a variety of different forms and are generally accompanied by different rewards. Promotional opportunities therefore have differential effects on job satisfaction, and it is essential that this be taken into account in cases where promotion policies are designed to enhance employee satisfaction.

2.3.5 Co-workers

There is empirical evidence that co-worker relations are an antecedent of job satisfaction (Morrison, 2004). Research (Mowday & Sutton, 1993), suggests that job satisfaction is related to employees' opportunities for interaction with others on the job.

An individual's level of job satisfaction might be a function of personal characteristics and the characteristics of the group to which he or she belongs. The social context of work is also likely to have a significant impact on a worker's attitude and behaviour (Marks, 1994). Relationships with both co-workers and supervisors are important. Some

studies have shown that the better the relationship, the greater the level of job satisfaction (Wharton & Baron, 1991). According to Staudt (1997), such social relations constitute an important part of the “social climate” within the workplace and provide a setting within which employees can experience meaning and identity. When cohesion is evident within a work group it usually leads to effectiveness within a group and the job becoming more enjoyable. However, if the opposite situation exists and colleagues are difficult to work with, this may have a negative impact on job satisfaction. The impact of friendship on workplace outcomes is shown by results that indicate that friendship opportunities were associated with increases in job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment, and with a significant decrease in intention to turnover (Luddy, 2005).

2.3.6 Working conditions

Working conditions is another factor that has a moderate impact on the employee’s job satisfaction (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992). According to Luthans (1998), if people work in a clean, friendly environment they will find it easier to come to work. If the opposite should happen, they will find it difficult to accomplish tasks. Vorster (1992) maintains that working conditions are only likely to have a significant impact on job satisfaction when, for example, the working conditions are either extremely good or extremely poor. Moreover, employee complaints regarding working conditions are frequently related to manifestations of underlying problems (Luthans, 1992; Visser, 1990; Vorster, 1992).

2.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment has emerged as an important construct in organisational research owing to its relationship with work-related constructs such as absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, job-involvement and leader-subordinate relations (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Bagraim, 2003; Buck & Watson, 2002; Eby & Freeman, 1999; Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Lance, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Wasti, 2003; cited in Bull, 2005). The success of an organisation and the pursuit of quality depend not only on how the organisation makes the most of human competences, but also on how it stimulates commitment to an organisation (Beukhof, de Jon & Nijhof, 1998).

Organisational commitment has been related to valuable outcomes for both employees and employers. Greater commitment can result in enhanced feelings of belonging, security, efficacy, greater career advancement, increased compensation and increased intrinsic rewards for the individual (Rowden, 2000). For the organisation, the rewards of commitment can mean increased employee tenure, limited turnover, reduced training costs, greater job satisfaction, acceptance of the organisation's demands, and the meeting of organisational goals such as high quality (Mowday, et al., 1982).

According to Mowday, et al., (1982), people who are committed are more likely to stay in an organisation and work towards the organisation's goals. Steers (1977) indicates that organisational commitment is a useful tool to measure organisational effectiveness. According to Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 12) "organisational commitment is a

multidimensional construct that has the potential to predict outcomes such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure and organisational goals.”

Interest in organisational commitment and job performance has been sparked by its potential benefits to individuals and to organisations. This is because committed employees are normally high performers and are highly productive (Hunt, Chonko & Wood, 1985; Porter et al., 1974), and identify with organisational goals and values (Buchanan, 1974). A person who does not feel committed to his or her employing organisation is more likely to want leave it, than a person who does. Intention to leave the organisation is the strongest and most often reported correlate of low organisational commitment. However, intention to leave does not necessarily translate into actually leaving (Arnold, Silvester, Patterson, Robertson, Cooper & Burnes, 2005).

2.4.1 Definitions of organisational commitment

Construed as an individual’s identification and involvement with a particular organisation, organisational commitment is represented by “(a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation” (Hart & Willower, 2001, p. 175).

Buchanan (1974, p.534) defines commitment as “a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organisation, to one’s role in relation to goals and values of an

organisation, and to the organisation for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth.”

Organisational commitment can be defined as the strength of an individual’s identification with, and involvement in the organisation (Levy, 2003). Organisational commitment is distinguished from job satisfaction in that organisational commitment is “an affective response to the whole organisation, while job satisfaction is an affective response to specific aspects of the job” (Morrison, 1997, p. 116). Researchers have also viewed commitment as involving an exchange of behaviour in return for valued rewards. According to Scarpello and Ledvinka (1987), for example, organisational commitment is the outcome of a matching process between the individual’s job-related and vocational needs on the one hand and the organisation’s ability to satisfy these needs on the other.

2.5 TYPES OF EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

Bussing (2002) identifies three sources of commitment: the continuance, attitudinal and normative source. Attitudinal commitment emphasizes attachment to the organisation; individuals put all their energy into their work, which is not expected of them. According to Bussing (2002), continuance commitment focuses on the idea of exchange and continuance. Normative commitment focuses on an employee’s feelings of obligation to stay with an organisation. Bagraim (2003) states that although various multidimensional models of organisational commitment exist, the three models, which are proposed by Allen and Meyer (1990) are widely accepted in organisational research.

2.5.1 Attitudinal commitment

The attitudinal approach to organisational commitment defines organisational commitment as an attitude, and attitudinal commitment is seen to exist when the identity of the person is linked to the organisation or when the goals of the organisation and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent (Mowday et al., 1979). Thus attitudinal commitment occurs when the individual identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation in order to achieve these goals (Mowday et al., 1979). In terms of this attitudinal approach, organisational commitment is defined as: (i) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (ii) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; (iii) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Mowday et al., 1979). The attitudinal approach to organisational commitment is clearly concerned largely with the psychological state reflected in commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990), or more specifically, with individuals' psychological attachment to the organisation (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Three forms of psychological attachment (namely identification, internalisation and compliance) form the basis for organisational commitment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Due to the emphasis of this approach on identification with the organisation, involvement in the work role, and the individual's warm, affective regard for, or loyalty to, the organisation, this approach has also been called a "moral" approach to organisational commitment (Ferris & Aranya, 1987).

Organisational commitment is seen to involve an active relationship between the employee and the organisation, in contrast to passive loyalty (Mowday et al., 1979). It is

implied that organisational commitment is observable not only in the expression of the attitudes of employees, but also in their actions, in that committed employees will exhibit their belief in, and acceptance of, organisational goals, will exert effort on behalf of the organisation, and will actively maintain membership in the organisation (Mowday et al., 1979). Kamfer writes that “although it is known that attitudes do not relate directly to behaviour, outputs of commitment are likely to be growing investment and involvement which individuals would make in the organisation” (Kamfer, 1989, p. 13).

2.5.2 Continuance commitment

The behavioural approach to organisational commitment focuses on commitment-related behaviours, or on the overt manifestations of commitment (Mowday et al., 1979). In terms of this approach, individuals may not be attitudinally committed to the organisation, but may exhibit commitment-related behaviours, such as maintenance of membership in the organisation through low turnover. These commitment-related behaviours are seen to be due to “sunk costs” in the organisation (Mowday et al., 1979) where the employee, despite alternatives, chooses to remain in the organisation. Becker (1960) viewed commitment as a tendency to engage in consistent lines of activity (cited in Allen & Meyer, 1990). These “consistent lines of activity” were seen to be based on an evaluation of costs of leaving the organisation or of discontinuing the commitment-related behaviour (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 4).

Becker’s approach to organisational commitment has been known as the “side-bet theory” (Meyer & Allen, 1984) of organisational commitment, due to this evaluation of

costs of changing behaviour. The individual is seen to accumulate “side bets”, or investments in the organisation, such as time, effort or money. Specifically these side bets may be contributions to the pension plan, the development of organisation-specific skills or status, or the use of organisational benefits such as reduced mortgage rates (Meyer & Allen, 1984). These side bets are valuable to the individual, and would be lost or worthless if the individual left the organisation, or altered his/her course of action (Meyer & Allen, 1984). It is clear that in terms of this behavioural approach, organisational commitment is seen to be based on an economic rationale and an assessment of costs and rewards to the employee (Meyer & Allen, 1984). The costs assessed by the individual may, however, not only be monetary costs, but include social, psychological and other costs associated with a change in behaviour (Kamfer, Venter & Boshoff, 1994).

In terms of this behavioural approach, organisational commitment is referred to as “cognitive-continuance commitment” (Kanter, 1989), “calculative commitment”, “behavioural commitment” (Kamfer et al., 1994) or “continuance commitment” (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Continuance commitment can be seen to be an outcome of the exchange relationship between the employee and the organisation, and the level of continuance commitment depends on the extent to which this exchange relationship favours the employee (Kamfer et al., 1994).

It is furthermore assumed that commitment will increase as the number of side bets and the employee’s age increase, resulting in employees becoming increasingly “locked in” to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1984). It has been suggested that, in addition to this

increasing level of continuance commitment, affective commitment may increase with longer tenure, as employees come to understand and appreciate the goals and values of the organisation, developing an identification or pride in the organisation (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Furthermore, in order to cope with the tendency to become locked into the organisation, it has been suggested that employees may justify their continuance commitment in affective terms, reporting feelings of commitment and satisfaction as psychological "coping devices" in order to justify their being locked into the organisation (Kamfer, 1989).

2.5.3 Normative commitment

A third, less common approach to organisational commitment is one based on obligation or responsibility to the organisation, sometimes known as "normative commitment". In terms of this approach, Wiener (1982) defines commitment as the "totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests" (cited in Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 3). Thus it is suggested that individuals exhibit commitment-related behaviour because it is expected of them and they believe it is right and the moral thing to do (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Normative commitment clearly depends on the employee's identification with organisational authority in order for organisational norms to be internalised (Kamfer et al., 1994).

2.6 JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Past research has found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Williams and Hazer (1986) found a direct link

between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, whereby job satisfaction is an antecedent of organisational commitment. This thought process assumes that an employee's orientation toward a specific job precedes his or her orientation toward the entire organisation.

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been shown to be positively related to performance (Benkhoff, 1997; Klein & Ritti, 1984), and negatively related to turnover (Clugston, 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and turnover intent (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid & Sirola, 1998). The vast majority of research indicates a positive relationship between satisfaction and commitment (Aranya, Kushnir & Valency, 1986; Boshoff & Mels, 1995; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Johnston et al., 1990; Knoop, 1995; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992; Morrison, 1997; Norris & Niebuhr, 1984; Ting, 1997) and their relationship has an influence on performance and turnover intent (Benkhoff, 1997; Clugston, 2000; Klein & Ritti, 1984; Lum, et al., 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Job satisfaction is one of the attitudinal constructs that has been shown to be related to organisational commitment (Steers, 1977), but its treatment as an independent construct should be emphasized. A number of factors distinguish job satisfaction from organisational commitment. Mowday et al., (1979, p.226) argue that organisational commitment is "more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organisation as a whole" while job satisfaction "reflects one's response either to one's job or to certain aspects of one's job" (p.226). Thus organisational commitment focuses on attachment to the employing organisation as a whole, including the organisation's goals and values,

while job satisfaction focuses on the specific task environment where an employee performs his or her duties (Mowday et al., 1979). Organisational commitment is less influenced by daily events than job satisfaction; it develops more slowly but consistently over time, and therefore is seen to be a more complex and enduring construct (Mowday et al., 1979). Furthermore, job satisfaction and organisational commitment do not necessarily occur simultaneously: it is possible that an employee may exhibit high levels of job satisfaction without having a sense of attachment to, or obligation to remain in, the organisation. Similarly, a highly committed employee may dislike the job he/she is doing (exhibiting low levels of job satisfaction) (McPhee & Townsend, 1992).

While research generally supports a positive association between commitment and satisfaction, the causal ordering between these two variables remains both controversial and contradictory (Martin & Bennett, 1996). Kalleberg and Mastekaasa (2001) found that previous research on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has not shown any consistent and easily reconcilable findings. Accordingly, Lincoln & Kalleberg (1990), Porter et al. (1974), and Tett and Meyer (1993) maintain that a satisfaction-to-commitment model assumes that satisfaction is a cause of commitment. A second commitment-to-satisfaction model holds that commitment contributes to an overall positive attitude toward the job (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992).

Although there is certainly a topical debate over issues regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, several researchers have made the case

that job satisfaction is a predictor of organisational commitment (Porter et al., 1974; Price, 1977; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Rose, 1991).

However, an argument also exists that suggests that organisational commitment may cause, rather than result from job satisfaction (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) and Bateman and Strasser (1984, p.97) report that “commitment to a course of action may determine subsequent attitudes” and that “commitment initiates a rationalizing process through which individuals ‘make sense’ of their current situation by developing attitudes that are consistent with their commitment”. Longitudinal research undertaken by Bateman and Strasser (1984) supports this claim. Their findings “suggest that commitment may be a construct that is neither simultaneous with, nor a consequence of, job satisfaction. Rather, organisational commitment appears to be one of the many causes of satisfaction” (Bateman & Strasser, 1984, p.109). An implication of Bateman and Strasser’s research is that interventions aimed at improving levels of organisational commitment in an organisation, may succeed only in improving levels of job satisfaction amongst staff without any change to levels of organisational commitment, and may therefore prove to be costly but ineffective (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Alternatively, interventions aimed at improving levels of organisational commitment may indirectly lead to increased job satisfaction amongst employees (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

Although a majority of writers have adopted job satisfaction as an antecedent of organisational commitment (e.g. Price & Mueller 1981; Williams & Hazer 1986), there are others who have questioned this assumption (Vandenberg & Lance 1992). In their

review of the antecedents and consequences of organisational commitment, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) concluded that the direction of causation was undecided, and opted for the neutral description of satisfaction as being a correlate of commitment. Although the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has received a great deal of attention in past research (Lok & Crawford, 1999; Yousef, 2002), the investigations into the causal relationship between these constructs have yielded contradictory findings (Elangoven, 2001; Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001; Testa, 2001).

The controversy surrounding the relationship between the two variables is best illustrated by the following:

“...Porter et al. (1974) suggested that satisfaction represents one specific component of commitment. Later, Steers (1977) proposed that satisfaction would probably influence commitment more than would job characteristics. Meanwhile, Williams and Hazer (1986) found that satisfaction causally affects commitment, while a study by Bateman and Strasser (1984) showed that commitment is causally antecedent to satisfaction. In contrast, Curry, Wakefield, Price, and Mueller (1986) found no support for either of the Hypothesised causal linkages between job satisfaction and commitment (i.e. neither causally affected the other). To add to the controversy, a study by Farkas and Tetrick (1989) suggests that the two variables may be either cyclically or reciprocally related” (Elangoven, 2001, p.159).

Vandenberg and Lance (1992) argue that commitment and satisfaction are not causally related to each other, but are correlated because they are both determined by similar causal variables, such as organisational or task characteristics. Porter et al., (1974) maintain that commitment requires employees to think more universally and it takes longer to develop and is not sensitive to short-term variations in, for example, work conditions. Job satisfaction on the other hand, represents the employee's more current reactions to the specifics of the work situation and employment conditions. Porter et al., (1974) are of the opinion that commitment takes longer and is a more stable, less transitory work attitude than job satisfaction. Although day-to-day events in the work place may affect an employee's level of job satisfaction, such transitory events should not cause an employee to re-evaluate seriously his or her attachment to the overall organisation (Mowday et al., 1982).

Although Kalleberg and Mastekaasa (2001) found that previous research on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has not shown any consistent and easily reconcilable findings, the majority of research investigating this relationship indicates that there is a significant relationship between satisfaction and commitment (Aranya et al., 1986; Boshoff & Mels, 1995; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Johnston, Parasuraman et al., 1990; Knoop, 1995; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992; Morrison, 1997; Norris & Niebuhr, 1984; Ting, 1997). In line with the current findings, Buitendach and de Witte (2005) found evidence of the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction based on their research amongst 178 maintenance workers in a parastatal in South Africa.

2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter explored the definitions and some of the research related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment, as well as the theoretical background to the study. The next chapter focuses on the research methodology and design used to execute the research.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter highlights how the research problem was explored, with specific reference made to how the participants were selected and the procedure followed to gather the data. Furthermore, ethical considerations are addressed; the measuring instruments and their psychometric properties are discussed. The chapter concludes with the statistical techniques utilized for the data analysis.

The quantitative survey method was adopted in this research. This approach has implications for the choice of method of data collection, data analyses and inference (Mouton & Marais, 1990). These methods will be discussed further in this chapter.

The approach adopted in a specific research project is influenced by certain factors. Mouton and Marais (1990) use a systems theoretical model to integrate and explain the interaction of three subsystems with each other and the research domain in a specific discipline. These subsystems are the intellectual climate of a specific discipline, the market of intellectual resources within a discipline, and the research process itself (Mouton & Marais, 1990).

The **intellectual climate** refers to the meta-theoretical values or beliefs held by those practising within a specific discipline at a given time. Due to the nature of the social

science discipline, these beliefs, values and assumptions relate generally to the nature of social reality, and more specifically to issues such as society, labour, education, history, etc. An example of such beliefs is that in positive thought, where humans are seen to be passive and reactive rather than active beings (Mouton & Marais, 1990). These beliefs and assumptions, that constitute the intellectual climate within which research is undertaken, can clearly influence the approach adopted in research as well as the research process used.

The **market of intellectual resources** is another subsystem which according to Mouton and Marais' (1990) model, interacts with the research domain. The market of intellectual resources is defined as the theoretical and methodological beliefs which influence the epistemic status of scientific statements (Mouton & Marais, 1990). Theoretical beliefs describe and interpret human behaviour and include testable statements, while methodological beliefs concern the nature of social science and include traditions such as positivism, realism and phenomenology (Mouton & Marais, 1990).

The third subsystem to interact with the research domain is the **research process**. Through the research process, the researcher selectively internalizes beliefs, values and assumptions as influenced by the intellectual climate and the market of intellectual resources; these beliefs, values and assumptions then influence the choice of research goal and research problem. The strength of the influence of the intellectual climate and the market of intellectual resources is demonstrated by researchers who employ a single research model throughout their careers (Mouton & Marais, 1990).

It is important to note that the existing study should not be seen in isolation, but rather a product of a particular paradigm, influenced by the intellectual climate and market of intellectual resources. The review of theory provided in the literature review should not be seen as complete or absolute, but should be seen to comprise theoretical beliefs which are incorporated in the market of intellectual resources. The method and process of this research as well as the research design must be seen to be influenced to a certain degree by the intellectual climate and market of intellectual resources within which this research is found (Mouton & Marais, 1990).

3.2 RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN

Questionnaires with established reliability and validity were used to obtain quantitative data using a correlational survey method.

3.3 RESEARCH SAMPLE THEORY

Sampling is based on two premises. One is that there is enough similarity among the elements in a population and that a few of these elements will adequately represent the characteristics of the population. The second premise is that while some elements in a sample underestimate a population value, others overestimate this value. The result of these tendencies is that a sample statistic such as the arithmetic mean is generally a good estimate of a population mean (Sekaran, 2003).

A good sample has both accuracy and precision. An accurate sample is one in which there is little or no bias or systematic variance. A sample with adequate precision is one that has a sampling error that is within acceptable limits for the study's purpose (Sekaran, 2003).

A variety of sampling techniques is available, such as probability and non-probability sampling. They may be classified by their representation and element selection techniques. Probability sampling is based on random selection – a controlled procedure that ensures that each population element is given a known non-zero chance of selection. In contrast, non-probability selection is not random. When each sample element is drawn individually from the population at large, it is unrestricted sampling. Restricted sampling covers those forms of sampling in which the selection process follows more complex rules (Sekaran, 2003).

3.3.1 CONVENIENCE SAMPLING

A non-probability convenience sample was used in the current study. Non-probability sampling does not involve elements of randomisation and not each potential respondent has an equal chance of participating in the research. Some of the advantages of utilising a non-probability sample lie in the fact that it is cost-effective and less time consuming. However, its associated shortcomings relate to its restricted generalisability, particularly in lieu of the higher chances of sampling errors (Sekaran, 2003). However, to overcome restrictions with respect to generalisability, Sekaran (2003) maintains that it is advisable to use larger samples. Accordingly, since multivariate data analysis, in the form of

multiple regression analysis, was to be conducted, it was necessary that the sample be several times as large as the number of variables involved (Sekaran, 2003).

Non-probability sampling also has some compelling practical advantages that account for its widespread use. Probability sampling is often not feasible because the population is not available. Furthermore, frequent breakdowns in the application of probability sampling discount its technical advantages. Also, a true cross section is often not the aim of the researcher. Here, the goal may be the discovery of the range or extent of conditions. Finally, non-probability sampling is usually less expensive to conduct than is probability sampling (Cooper & Schindler, 1998).

3.3.2 PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE

One hundred and sixty questionnaires were sent to the Department of Labour, with 56 completed questionnaires being returned. The final sample comprised male and female employees of all races, from levels 1 to 10 from the Department of Labour in Durban. Years of employment at the Department of Labour ranged from one year to over ten years. Seventy nine percent of the employees had a tertiary education. The following table examines the biographical information:

Table 3: Biographical information

Type	Category	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	26	46.4%
	Female	30	53.6%
Academic Qualifications	High school	11	20.4%
	University graduate	7	13%
	Post graduate degree	5	9.3%
	Diploma	27	50%
	Other	5	7.4%
Experience	Less than 1 year	5	8.9%
	1-3 yrs	18	32.1%
	4-9 yrs	14	25%
	Over 10 yrs	19	33.9%
Race	Black	37	66.1%
	White	6	10.7%
	Indian	5	8.9%
	Coloured	8	14.3%
	Other	0	0%
Level of Employment	1-6 L	30	55.6%
	6-8 L	22	40.7%
	9-10 L	2	3.7%
	11-12 L	0	0%
	13+	0	0%

3.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Two questionnaires were identified as the primary data collection tools and were used to collect quantitative data. In addition, a biographical questionnaire was administered to obtain information on participants' gender, educational level, length of employment at the Department of Labour, level of employment, and race.

3.4.1 JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI)

Roznowski and Hulin (1992) maintain that, in organisational psychology, well constructed and validated scales of job satisfaction are the most informative source for predicting organisationally relevant behaviour in individuals. The most commonly used measure of job satisfaction is the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith et al., 1969). The scale provides a faceted approach to the measurement of satisfaction in terms of specific identifiable characteristics related to the job (Luthans, 1998). It measures five aspects of an employee's satisfaction in respect of: satisfaction with work itself, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, satisfaction with supervision, and satisfaction with co workers (Smith et al., 1969).

The JDI consists of 72 items: 9 items each for the facets of promotions and pay; and 18 items each for work, supervision and co-workers (Smucker & Kent, 2004). According to McCormick and Ilgen (1985), the questionnaire has a series of statements for each of the categories, each one of which respondents are required to mark with a yes (Y), no (N) or cannot decide (?) as it relates to the person's job. However, it is also possible to combine the five facet measures to obtain a global measure (Saal & Knight, 1988).

In computing the score for the two 9-item scales, the raw total is doubled, so that the resulting score will be comparable to the 18-item scales. The highest possible score is 54 and the lowest possible score is 0 (Pennington & Vincent, n.d.). The level of satisfaction is computed in the following way: Since the maximum score on each JDI scale is 54, the

mid-point of 27 is taken as the cut-off point for indicating basic satisfaction with the job. Thus, a score of 27 or below is considered “dissatisfied” and one above 27 considered “satisfied.” In addition, each half of the possible range of scores is itself divided in half to give a rough indication of the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. By this procedure, a score of 13.5 or below is considered to indicate a “highly dissatisfied” response, while one above 13.5, but at or below the mid-point of 27, represents a “moderately dissatisfied” response. On the other side of the median, scores up to 40.5 are evaluated as “moderately satisfied” responses, while those above 40.5 are assessed as “highly satisfied” (Pennington & Vincent, n.d.).

3.4.1.1 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE JDI

According to Sekaran (2003), reliability refers to whether an instrument is consistent, stable and free from error despite fluctuations in test taker, administrator or conditions under which the test is administered.

The JDI’s internal consistency reliability for 80 men ranged from .80 to .88 for the five separate scales (Smith et al., 1969). Schreider and Dachler (1978) found that the reliabilities of the subscales were good ($r = .57$) in a large utility company over a period of 16 months. Nagy (2002) reports the internal consistency of the JDI for the five facets as ranging from .83 to .90. The minimum reliability estimates for the single-item measures ranged from .52 to .76, with a mean minimum reliability estimate of .63 (Nagy, 2002).

Saal & Knight (1988) reported test-retest coefficients ranging between 0.68 and 0.88. Smith et al. (1969) indicate that the split-half reliability coefficients range from 0.80 to 0.87.

Validity, according to Sekaran (2003), refers to whether an instrument measures what it is supposed to, and is justified by the evidence. Smith et al. (1969) have provided evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of the JDI, consistently recording validity coefficients for the JDI that vary between 0.5 and 0.7.

3.4.1.2 RATIONALE FOR INCLUSION

The JDI has demonstrated reliability and validity, and is based on a facet as well as global rating of job satisfaction. Moreover, Vorster (1992) cites the work of Conradie (1990), in which it is reported that the JDI has been standardized and found suitable for use in the South African context.

3.4.2 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (OCQ)

The OCQ was developed on the basis of Mowday et al.'s (1982, p. 27) definition of organisational commitment. It consists of 15 items that tap an employee's belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, their willingness to be part of the organisation, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. Responses to the 15 items (for example, "I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this Organisation be successful") were captured on a 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). In an attempt to reduce

response bias six of the fifteen items are negatively phrased and reverse scored. Results were then summed and divided by 15 to arrive at a summary indicator of an employee's organisational commitment. Higher mean scores are indicative of greater organisational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982). On the 7-point Likert scale, a mean score of 4 indicates a average level of commitment, mean scores above 4 indicate higher organisational commitment. Where mean scores are below 4, organisational commitment is seen as low.

3.4.2.1 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE OCQ

The OCQ has been correlated with affective measures, such as the Job Satisfaction Index, with an average of $r = 0.70$. Its reliability has ranged from 0.82 to 0.93, with a median value of 0.90. This instrument has been tested with several groups such as public employees and university employees, and appears to yield consistent results across different types of organisations (Reyes & Pounder, 1993).

Homogeneity correlates for the OCQ range between .36 and .72, with a median of .64. Furthermore, test-retest reliabilities demonstrated acceptable levels (from $r = .53$ to $r = .75$) over periods ranging from two to four months (Mowday et al., 1982). Mowday et al.'s (1982) research indicates that the OCQ is correlated with the Organisational Attachment Questionnaire, with convergent validities across six diverse samples ranging from 0.63 to 0.70. In addition, Mowday et al., (1982) demonstrated convergent validity by indicating that OCQ scores were positively correlated with work-oriented life interest and supervisor ratings of subordinates' commitment. They also demonstrated evidence of

discriminant validity, reporting low correlations between scores on the OCQ and measures of job involvement, career satisfaction, and job satisfaction. Finally, they indicated that the OCQ has predictive validity based on its correlates with voluntary turnover, absenteeism, and job performance.

3.4.2.2 RATIONALE FOR INCLUSION

The rationale for the use of the OCQ is that it is a reliable and valid instrument for the measurement of organisational commitment, and it is standardized for the South African situation (Kacmar, Carlson & Brymer, 1999; Mowday et al., 1982).

3.5 PROCEDURE

The questionnaires were accompanied by a covering letter and a consent form explaining the nature and purpose of the research and assuring respondents of absolute confidentiality. The rationale behind providing clear instructions and assuring confidentiality of information is based on the fact that this significantly reduces the likelihood of obtaining biased responses (Sekaran, 2003). Administrative staff members, who had been enlightened about the purpose of the study, were assigned to distribute and collect the questionnaires. The process of distribution and collection of the questionnaires was conducted over two weeks. A total of 160 questionnaires were distributed to all employees, with 56 fully completed questionnaires being returned, thereby constituting a 35% return rate. This is higher than the 30% anticipated in most research (Sekaran, 2003). Moreover, Sekaran (2003) maintains that sample sizes of between thirty and five hundred subjects are appropriate for most research.

3.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Permission was granted from the Department of Labour to conduct a research study on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at their Durban offices. The agreement in conducting the research study is that the results would be available to the Departments leadership only and would not be made public. Attached to the questionnaires that were distributed was a consent form that informed participants of the purpose of the research, the fact that their names remain anonymous and participants are allowed to withdraw their information at any time.

3.7 STATISTICAL METHODS

For the purposes of testing the research hypotheses, a number of statistical techniques were employed. These included both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques.

The data were analysed with the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS version 11.0).

3.7.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics describe the phenomena of interest (Sekaran, 2003) and is used to analyse data for classifying and summarising numerical data. It includes the analysis of data using frequencies, dispersions of dependent and independent variables and measures of central tendency and variability, and helps the researcher to obtain a feel for the data (Sekaran, 2003). The mean and standard deviation were primarily used to describe the data obtained from the JDI and the OCQ.

3.7.2 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Inferential statistics allow the researcher to present the data obtained in research in statistical format to facilitate the identification of important patterns and to make data analysis more meaningful (Bull, 2005). According to Sekaran (2003), inferential statistics is employed when generalisations are made from a sample to a population. The statistical methods used in this research included the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

3.7.2.1 THE PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION

For the purposes of determining whether a statistically significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used. It provides an index of the strength, magnitude and direction of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Sekaran, 2003). The product-moment correlation coefficient is, therefore, suitable for the purposes of the present study, since the study attempted to describe the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.8 SUMMARY

This chapter described the research design, instruments used to gather data, the sample and the statistical techniques used to analyse the data.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the results obtained from the statistical analyses of the data obtained. The descriptive and inferential statistics generated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

4.2.1 RESULTS OF THE JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Table 4.1: Job Satisfaction

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Work	56	1	52	30.79	14.341
Pay	56	0	21	10.39	8.639
Promotion	56	0	27	14.89	14.883
Supervision	56	0	54	30.63	16.761
Co-workers	56	0	54	27.02	15.160
JIG	56	7	54	33.39	12.673
Valid N (listwise)	56				

The level of total job satisfaction as well as for the facets of job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Satisfaction Index (JDI) amongst the sample of 56 employees from the Department of Labour in Durban are depicted in Table 4.1. The mean for total job satisfaction (JIG) was 33.39 with a standard deviation of 12.673. Given that a mean above 27 and below 40 is considered to indicate moderate satisfaction, one may conclude that, as a group, this sample was moderately satisfied. The means for the facets of job

satisfaction also indicate a moderate level of satisfaction with work, supervision and co-workers. The employees in the sample were, however, moderately dissatisfied with promotion and highly dissatisfied with pay.

4.3.2 RESULTS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Table 4.2: Organisational Commitment

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Organisational Commitment	56	3.6	5.8	4.5	1.30
Valid N (listwise)	56				

The results in Table 4.2 indicate that the mean and standard deviation for the organisational commitment were 4.5 and 1.30, respectively. The mean score is slightly above the midpoint on the 7-point Likert scale, which indicates a moderate level of organisational commitment for the employees at the Department Labour in Durban. Moreover, standard deviation indicates an acceptable distribution of responses within samples.

4.4 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Table 4.3: Pearson correlations between Job Satisfaction, Job Satisfaction facets and Organisational Commitment.

	Organisational commitment		
	Pearson Correlation	p	N
Work	.410**	.002	56
Pay	.139	.306	56
Promotion	.272*	.043	56
Supervision	.379**	.004	56
Co-workers	.366**	.005	56
JIG	.342**	.010	56

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

To determine the correlation between the variables, Pearson correlation tests were conducted. The results (Table 4.3) show that organisational commitment was significantly positively correlated with job satisfaction and the job satisfaction facets of supervision, work and co-workers ($p < 0.01$). The correlation between organisational commitment and promotion was also significant ($p < 0.05$). The hypotheses H1, H3, H4, H5, and H6 are therefore rejected. There was no correlation between organisational commitment and pay.

Table 4.4: Reliability Statistics for the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
.707	15

Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the Organisational Commitment questionnaire. The value of Cronbach's alpha was 0.7 indicating a high degree of internal consistency amongst the items.

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	61.05	135.867	.571	.666
Q2	62.25	135.934	.516	.669
Q3	62.69	153.106	.047	.726
Q4	62.75	136.897	.377	.684
Q5	62.31	141.514	.294	.694
Q6	61.98	126.314	.688	.644
Q7	62.91	159.306	-.054	.732
Q8	62.87	123.965	.692	.641
Q9	63.04	171.147	-.288	.758
Q10	62.44	140.028	.385	.684
Q11	63.22	144.840	.235	.701
Q12	62.64	156.310	.012	.724
Q13	61.58	140.877	.425	.681
Q14	62.65	135.415	.553	.666
Q15	61.33	135.780	.469	.673

Table 4.5: Reliability Statistics for the Job Satisfaction Index

Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
.710	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale if Mean Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correction	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Work	116.3214	2125.0584	.4744	.6571
Pay	136.7143	2772.4623	.1002	.7420
Promotion	132.2143	2069.8805	.4441	.6678
Supervision	116.4821	1998.7633	.4525	.6667
Co-workers	120.0893	1945.5373	.5851	.6179
JIG	113.7143	2133.6260	.5669	.6331

Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the Job Satisfaction Index. The value of Cronbach's alpha was 0.71 indicating a high degree of internal consistency amongst the items.

Table 4.6: Normality tests

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	N	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	p
Work	56	1.182	.123
Pay	56	1.280	.075
Promotion	56	1.440	.032
Supervision	56	.945	.333
Co-workers	56	.970	.303
JIG	56	.687	.733
Organisational Commitment	56	.414	.996

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

The table above provides the result of the Normality test. All facets with the exception of Promotion were normally distributed.

4.5 SUMMARY

The results show moderate levels of organisational commitment and moderate levels of job satisfaction. Organisational commitment was found to correlate, at the 99% level of confidence ($P < 0.01$), with job satisfaction and the three job satisfaction facets of work, supervision and co-workers. There was a correlation, at the 95% level of confidence ($P < 0.05$), between organisational commitment and the job satisfaction facet of promotion, but no correlation between organisational commitment and pay.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a discussion of salient research findings emanating from the research. In order to contextualise the research, comparisons are drawn with available literature on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The chapter provides conclusions that can be drawn from the research and offers suggestions for future research into job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

In line with numerous other studies (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1983; Knoop, 1995; Morrison, 1997; Young et al., 1998; Eby & Freeman, 1999; Testa, 2001; Buitendach & de Witte, 2005) and despite Kalleberg and Mastekaasa's (2001) assertion that previous research on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has not shown any consistent and easily reconcilable findings, the current study found a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. These findings suggest, therefore, that the greater the job satisfaction among the employees at the Department of Labour, the more committed they will be to the organisation. As the findings of the study show, employees were only moderately satisfied with their jobs. For human resources officers, the implication is that, to improve organisational commitment, they would need to improve job satisfaction. To do this, one needs to examine the findings obtained for the facets of job satisfaction.

While the findings showed that the job satisfaction facets of work, supervision and co-workers were at moderate levels, employees were not satisfied with promotion and pay. Of the last two, only the facet of promotion was positively correlated with organisational commitment, with no correlation between pay and organisational commitment.

The job satisfaction facet of promotion can be understood from the perspective of Herzberg's (1966) 'motivator factors': a lack of stimulation and recognition in an employee's current position, where he/she seeks to be promoted into a more intrinsically rewarding position and is not promoted, then he/she can become dissatisfied, leading to lower levels of commitment to the organisation. According to Adams' (1965) Equity Theory, it is possible that when employees judge an organisation to be unfair and unsupportive in their treatment, particularly with regard to the availability and frequency of promotional opportunities, their satisfaction and commitment levels will not be at a high level. The current findings of a low level of satisfaction with promotion, and a strong positive correlation between promotion and organisational commitment, suggest that improving this facet could lead to an improvement in organisational commitment in this sample.

By working to improve the other facets of job satisfaction (i.e. work, supervision and co-workers), which indicated moderate levels of satisfaction, but which were also positively correlated with organisational commitment, human resources officers could also achieve greater organisational commitment.

Studies by Heechan, Michael, and Lenore (2001) and Sibbald and dan Hugh (2003) showed that diversity of duties and staff-work ratio play an important role in increasing the level of job satisfaction.

Another aspect that can be improved in order to promote organisational commitment is supervision. By establishing effective relationships and communication between employees and top level management, higher levels of job satisfaction, and consequently better organisational commitment, among employees, can be achieved. Abullah, Shuib, Muhammed, Khalid, Nor and Jauhar (2007) maintain that with effective supervisory elements and open communication, commitment and loyalty towards the organisation will be improved

With regard to the co-worker facet of job satisfaction, a number of studies have shown that positive relationships with co-workers enhance job satisfaction (Johns, 1996; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001; Luthans, 1989; Ting, 1997). Making the work environment conducive to better co-worker relationships can have a positive return on organisational commitment.

The study found that this sample of employees at the Department of Labour in Durban were highly dissatisfied with their remuneration. Herzberg (1966) classified pay as a 'hygiene factor' in the work environment and maintained that pay can only lead to feelings of dissatisfaction, but not to satisfaction. One surprising finding was that, despite

low levels of satisfaction with the facet of pay, there was no correlation with organisational commitment. In other words, although these employees were highly dissatisfied with their remuneration, this did not necessarily mean that they were not committed to the organisation. This finding is at odds with Maslow's (1970) assertion that if employees are dissatisfied with current compensation from their employment relationship, they will be less committed to the organisation. Oshagbemi & Hickson (2003) maintain that satisfaction with pay affects the overall level of a worker's job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Oshagbemi (1997) cites research findings that suggest that compensation policies and amounts influence level of absenteeism (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979), turnover decisions and employee decisions on productivity (Oshagbemi 1997). While the finding from the present study is difficult to explain, one possibility is, that in the current climate of unemployment in South Africa, those who are employed are so grateful that despite being dissatisfied with their remuneration, they remain committed to the organisation.

5.3 CONCLUSION

The central objective of this study was to explore the relationship between job satisfaction and the job satisfaction facets of work, pay, supervision, promotion and relationships with co-workers, and organisational commitment at a public sector institution, namely the Durban offices of Department of Labour.

The results obtained in this study showed that job satisfaction had a significant positive correlation with organisational commitment.

The findings indicate that employees at the Department of Labour were moderately satisfied with the nature of the work itself, the supervision they receive and their co-workers. They were less satisfied with promotional opportunities and least satisfied with the pay they receive. There was also a positive correlation between work, supervision, co-workers and promotion, but no relationship between pay and organisational commitment.

The results of the study should be interpreted with caution as a non-probability sample convenience sample was utilised in the study. Therefore, the results obtained from the research may be specific to the sample that was selected for the investigation, and cannot be generalised with confidence to other regional sectors of the Department of Labour or other public sector entities.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this research indicate that public authorities need to develop strategies to deal with the needs of those employees who experience less job satisfaction and commitment.

Given that the present findings cannot be generalised to other public sector institutions and occupations, it is suggested that for future research a proportionate stratified random sample be used to compare several public sector institutions using a larger and more representative sample. Various authors maintain that stratified random sampling is the

most suitable technique in that it presents greater reliability and validity (Anastasi, 1990; Huysamen, 1983; Murphy & Davidshofer, 1988; Welman & Kruger, 2001).

The public sector is experiencing an exodus of professional skilled employees to other sectors and countries. It is recommended that management accord significant attention to future studies of this nature in order to identify those variables having a major impact on job satisfaction in order to retain particular, high quality, scarce skills in line with the human resource development strategy of the Department of Labour. According to Marx (1995), offering competitive salaries and opportunity for upward mobility enhances the chances of employee retention. Meyer, Mabaso and Lancaster (2002) maintain that it is imperative to secure the supply of scarce skills in order to meet with societal needs.

Finally, future research of this nature may assist personnel managers and operational managers on all levels to be aware of the importance of job satisfaction and allow them to pro-actively put mechanisms in place to enhance job satisfaction of employees and ultimately, improve service delivery. Schneider and Vaught (1993) contend that being aware of the job satisfaction of employees affords personnel managers the opportunity to be proactive and decide on interventions that will ensure commitment and involvement from employees (Luddy, 2005).

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APPENDIX A

LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I give my informed consent to participate in this study which investigates the underlying factors influencing Job satisfaction and Organisational commitment. This study is being conducted by the investigator for the completion of his Psychology Masters Degree at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. I consent to publication of study results so long as the information is anonymous and that no identification can be made. Personal information will not be used in any way in the reports to ensure respondents' anonymity and confidentiality.

1. I have been informed that my participation in this study will involve me completing a questionnaire and results will be kept confidential.
2. I have been informed that there are no known expected discomforts or risks involved in my participation in this study, and have been asked about any medical conditions which might create a risk for me when I participate.
3. I have been informed that the investigator will explain before the study commences the precise aims, and will answer any questions regarding the procedures of this study.
4. I have been informed that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty of any kind.
5. I have been informed that the study will help generate information that will help employers better understand motivational aspects with regards to their employees which will be beneficial for both employers and employees.
6. I have been informed that all information generated from this research will be presented honestly and without any distortion.

Contact Details:

Supervisor:

A.MOOLA

031 260 1087

Researcher:

D.J. Van der zee

0844005012

PARTICIPANT.....

RESEARCHER.....

DATE.....

APPENDIX B

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION (Information about yourself)

a. What is your gender?

Male	Female
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b. How long have you been working at the Department of Labour?

Less than 1	1 – 3 years	4 – 9 years	Over 10 years
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c. Education

High school	Graduate	Post graduate	Diploma	Other
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d. Please indicate your employment level:

1 - 6	6 – 8	9 – 10	11 – 12	13 +
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e. Race

Black	White	Coloured	Indian	Other
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APPENDIX C

JOB SATISFACTION INDEX

SAMPLE



The Job Satisfaction Index (JDI)

Bowling Green State University

Work on Present Job

Think of the work you do at present.

How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your work
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Fascinating | <input type="checkbox"/> Challenging |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Routine | <input type="checkbox"/> Simple |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Satisfying | <input type="checkbox"/> Repetitive |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Boring | <input type="checkbox"/> Creative |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Good | <input type="checkbox"/> Dull |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Gives sense of accomplishment | <input type="checkbox"/> Uninteresting |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Respected | <input type="checkbox"/> Can see results |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Uncomfortable | <input type="checkbox"/> Uses my abilities |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Pleasant | <input type="checkbox"/> Useful |

Pay

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your pay
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Income adequate for normal expenses | <input type="checkbox"/> Less than I deserve |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Fair | <input type="checkbox"/> Well paid |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Barely live on income | <input type="checkbox"/> Insecure |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bad | <input type="checkbox"/> Underpaid |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Income provides luxuries | |

The Job In General Scale
Bowling Green State University 1982,198

Used with permission from Bowling Green State University

APPENDIX D

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

SAMPLE

Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Instructions

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organisation for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the Department of Labour, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by checking one of the seven alternatives below each statement.

(1) strongly disagree; (2) moderately disagree; (3) slightly disagree; (4) neither disagree nor agree; (5) slightly agree; (6) moderately agree; (7) strongly agree.

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. I feel very little loyalty to this organisation. (R)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. I find that my values and the organisation's values are very similar.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Source: Mowday, Steers, and Porter. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 1979, 14, 224-247.
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