ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION AS ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AT THE WATER UTILITY COMPANY IN GAUTENG

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DECLARATION

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

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This dissertation is being submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Magister Technologiae: Business Administration.

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The dissertation is the result of my own independent work/investigation, except where otherwise stated. Other sources are acknowledged by giving explicit references. A bibliography is appended.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Mr and Mrs Mtimkulu, who had faith in my abilities throughout my academic journey and financially supported my dream. Finally, I dedicate this dissertation to my husband whom God entrusted with my life; he is my pillar of strength, my critic and supporter.

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ABSTRACT

Key words: organisational commitment, job satisfaction; organisational citizenship behaviour

Organisations need employees who are willing to go beyond the requirements of the job to contribute to the organisation's effectiveness. An evolving trend in the organisational behaviour literature indicates that job satisfaction (JS) and organisational commitment (OC) are attitudes that have a major impact on organisational outcomes such as productivity, job performance, turnover intentions and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Although the relationship between the aforementioned constructs is considered important, there is a paucity of research about the relationship between these constructs in the context of the water utility company. The primary objective of this study was to investigate the impact of organisational commitment and job satisfaction on organisational citizenship behaviour at the water utility company in Gauteng.

A quantitative research approach and a survey-based descriptive research method were used to achieve the primary objective. A structured questionnaire was issued to 400 randomly sampled respondents. Furthermore, means and factor analysis were performed to determine the level of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour of employees and to establish the underlying factors of the constructs respectively. Additionally, a correlation analysis was conducted to establish the strength and direction of the relationship between the factors. Finally, a regression analysis was performed to confirm the predictive relationship between factors.

The findings of this study showed a positive correlation between affective commitment, indebted obligation and moral imperative; JS and OCB; and no predictive relationship was observed between continuance commitment and OCB. Based on the findings, it was recommended that JS should be improved through mechanisms such as job-fit, job enrichment and career advancement. Furthermore, performance-related pay and mentorship programmes should be introduced to improve employees' organisational commitment. Finally, recognition should be given to employees to encourage them to maintain their willingness to display citizenship behaviours.

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OC:	Organisational commitment
JS:	Job satisfaction
OCB:	Organisational citizenship behaviour
SET:	Social exchange theory
MBO:	Management-by-objective

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Organisations determine the necessary priorities, procedures and operations that will allow for a greater sustainable competitive advantage and organisational performance. Added to this are the ever-changing demands in the world of business, influenced by both internal factors (growth, productivity level and employee skills) and external factors (government legislations, policies, technology, global economic and political factors). It is imperative for employees (workforce) to invest their time, skills, energy and commitment to keep abreast with the demanding and competitive world (Grobler, Wärnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield 2011:74). Organisations should aim to attract employees that exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

Modassir and Singh (2008:10) state that although numerous forms of OCB have been identified, it was only recently grouped into seven dimensions, namely helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development. Other researchers have identified five OCB dimensions, altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue (Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino & Rosner 2005:305; Omar, Zainal, Omar & Khairudin 2009:198; Polat 2009:1592; Zeinabadi 2010:998; & Kaur 2011:87).

Smith, Organ and Near (1983:654) describe OCB as "behaviour that lubricates the social machinery of the organisation". It allows employees to anticipate future activities and plan solutions. Recently, Batool (2012:284) defined OCB as an "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and in aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation". Bragger *et al.* (2005:304) define this behaviour as "a discretionary behaviour in organisations that is not enforceable by threat of sanctions or termination". Mamman, Kamoche and Bakuwa (2011:289) add to the above definitions by pointing out that the behaviour is "a constructive behaviour that is not rewarded explicitly and which falls outside the employee's job description".

The above-mentioned definitions suggest three essential characteristics. First, that employees are a crucial facet of the organisation, without their performance and commitment, the organisation is likely to fail. Secondly, OCB is a discretionary behaviour that cannot be enforced through threatening an employee. Thirdly, helping others, or going beyond the call of duty, is voluntary in nature and the individual does not expect any rewards. Even though employees are not rewarded for their good behaviour, when employees are satisfied with their jobs, they are likely to be committed to the values and goals of the organisation and develop eagerness to assist others for the advancement of both the individuals in the organisation and the organisation itself.

Organisational commitment (OC) refers to "the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation" (Güleryüz, Güney, Aydin & Asan 2008:1627). It is evident from the literature that when an employee identifies with the organisation, s/he accepts the values and goals of the organisation. In addition, employees with a high level of involvement with the organisation's processes and procedures demonstrate the willingness to invest effort in the organisation's activities (Bogler & Somech 2004:279), even when that effort will not lead to any form of reward. According to Chong and Eggleton (2007:318), and Iun and Huang (2007:797), employees with a higher OC put organisational interests before their individual interests. This will result in positive organisational performance in terms of profitability, productivity level and competitiveness (Law & Ngai 2008:2344).

Organisational commitment is of paramount importance to organisations, as it has been shown to discourage negative behaviour such as tardiness, absenteeism and employee turnover (Felfe, Schmook, Schyns & Six 2008:82; Manetje & Martins 2009:93; Neininger, Lehmann-Willenbrock, Kauffeld & Henschel 2010:567). Organisational commitment provides a sense of direction and draws an individual to a course of action. Evidence suggests that unless employees are committed to the strategic goals of the organisation, chances of organisational effectiveness and competitiveness are minimal (Lesabe & Nkosi 2007:35).

Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993:539) identify three main components of OC, namely affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Affective commitment is defined as "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation" (Buitendach & De Witte 2005:29). Mamman *et al.*

(2011:294) define affective commitment as "the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belonging, fondness, happiness, pleasure and so on". The definitions suggest that employees with affective commitment will stay with the organisations and reciprocate to the organisation through engaging in OCB (Ng & Feldman 2011:530).

Continuance commitment is "the extent to which employees perceive that they have to stay with their employers because the costs of leaving are too high" (Ng & Feldman 2011:529). The employee remains with the organisation because s/he has to do so (Neininger, *et al.* 2010:568). With regard to normative commitment, an employee does not stay with the organisation because s/he feels it is the right thing to do, rather s/he remains with an organisation because s/he feels compelled to do so (Neininger *et al.* 2010:568). Thus, it is defined as "the perceived obligation to stay, with some connotations of moral imperatives to do so" (Ng & Feldman 2011:529).

It is evident that an employee's commitment to the organisation and satisfaction with the job cannot be separated (Pepe 2010:100). According to Altinoz, Cakiroglu and Cop (2012: 324), a satisfied employee is an inspired and committed employee. Kim, Leong and Lee (2005:174) refer to job satisfaction (JS) as "the employee's general affective evaluation of their job." It is "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Pepe 2010:100). High satisfaction with one's job results in better performance and higher productivity levels, which makes employees valuable assets to the organisation (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane & Ferreira 2011:102). When employees are made to feel important and encouraged to be involved in important decisions that affect the livelihood and sustainability of the organisation, the probability is that employees may exert a high level of OC.

Although there is growing evidence that suggests positive correlation between JS and OC, there has been relatively little research on the relationship between JS and OC and their effect on OCB in the context of water utility companies.

1.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Social exchange theory, which expresses how individuals participate in social activities and are propelled to respond in a particular manner when they benefit from the organisation, will influence the formation of OCB (Chaitanya & Tripathi 2001:218).

Social exchange theory "comprise actions contingent on the rewarding reactions of others, which over time provide for mutually and rewarding transactions and relationships" (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005:890). Frazier, Johnson, Gavin, Gooty and Snow (2010:43) mention that both parties to the exchange relationship need to trust that the other will honour the obligation of the transaction. It is evident that when the managers honour their part of the obligation and treat employees fairly, they in turn develop trust and reciprocate in a manner that benefits the organisation (Chinomona 2012:10004), leading to the formation of OCB where employees "exchange social rewards" (Karriker & Williams 2009:114).

Social exchange theory can be linked to the expectancy theory, which proposes that employees strongly believe that there is a positive relationship between the effort they put into their respective work, the performance they achieve from that effort, and the rewards they receive from their effort (Lunenburg 2011:1). Employees will be motivated to exert effort if they believe that the effort will be rewarded. The rewarded behaviour is likely to be repeated and increases the possibility of JS and OC (Grobler *et al.* 2011:239). The two theories, the social-exchange theory and the expectancy theory, underpin this study.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The underlying concerns in today's success-seeking organisations are whether high or low levels of OCB affect the competitive edge and success of the organisation, and whether these behaviours are discretionary or obligatory (Finkelstein 2013:58). The water utility company shares these concerns, which is the subject of this research. In addition, it is not clear if the lack of information-sharing, in-depth knowledge of the organisational standing, and trust are some of the barriers that can contribute to the low employee OC and JS (Almahamid, Mcadams & Kalaldeh 2010:334). Although there is evidence that there is a positive relationship between OC and JS (Buitendach & De Witte 2005:29; Zeinabadi 2010:999), there seems to be little literature on whether OC influences JS, or vice versa, and whether JS affects the formation of OCB. Lumley *et al.* (2011:103) and Chinomona (2012:10007) also suggest that communication and trust affect the formation of OCB, but not much has been published on the influence of these factors on the formation of OCB.

The consistent challenge of meeting the growing demand for high quality water requires the company to maintain the satisfaction and commitment of its employees. It also requires the company to realise that the discriminatory withholding of OCB or discretionary gestures may be affected by the level of JS and OC. The effective functioning of the company is dependent on the employees' JS and OC, thus a willingness to display OCB. Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual framework of the possible relationship between OC and JS as antecedents of OCB.

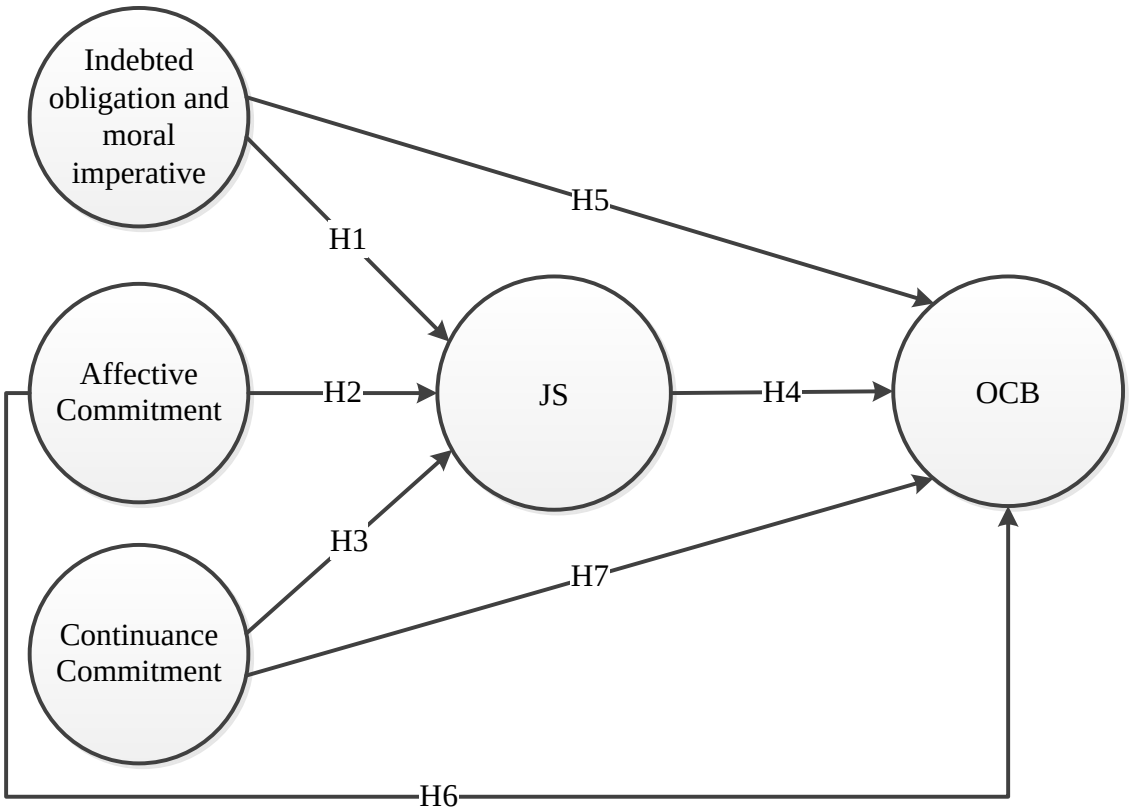

Figure 1: Conceptual framework of OC and JS as antecendents of OCB

According to the proposed model, the dimensions of OC and JS influence one another to a certain extent. There may be underlying factors that affect both OC and JS. One way to react to perceptions of satisfaction in the job and OC may be to display OCB. The model also suggests that both JS and OC are antecedents of OCB. This study will empirically test this hypothesised relationship.

1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Based on the above conceptual framework, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H_1 There is a positive relationship between indebted obligation and moral imperative with JS.

H_2 There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and JS.

H_3 There is a positive relationship between continuance commitment and JS.

H_4 JS mediates the relationship between affective commitment and OCB.

H_5 There is a positive relationship between indebted obligation and moral imperative with OCB.

H_6 There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and OCB.

H_7 There is a positive relationship between continuance commitment and OCB.

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.5.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of the study was to investigate the impact of OC and JS on OCB at the water utility company in Gauteng.

1.5.2 Theoretical objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives were formulated for the study:

- To conduct a review of the literature on OC and its dimensions
- To review the literature on the nature and antecedents of JS
- To conduct a literature review on OCB
- To review the literature on the relationship between OC, JS and OCB
- To review the literature on the influence of OC and JS on OCB.

1.5.3 Empirical objectives

To achieve the primary objective, the following empirical objectives which are based on the relationships between JS, OC and OCB at the water utility company in Gauteng, were formulated:

- To assess the level of JS, OC and OCB among employees at the water utility company

- To determine the relationship between indebted obligation and moral imperative with JS
- To determine the relationship between affective commitment and JS
- To examine the relationship between continuance commitment and JS
- To determine the extent to which JS mediates the relationship between affective commitment and OCB
- To examine the relationship between indebted obligation and moral imperative with OCB
- To determine the extent to which affective commitment affects the formation of OCB
- To determine the extent to which continuance commitment relates with OCB.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data and subsequently indicates which research methods are appropriate (Walliman 2011:182). The research design that was utilised for this study was a quantitative survey design, making use of a structured questionnaire. The quantitative design was used because it was the most appropriate for investigating the properties of data. It assisted in studying the attitudes and perceptions of employees towards OC, JS and OCB (Vogt 2007:112).

1.6.1 Literature review

The review focused on the analysis of factors that affect OCB, JS, and OC. A review of theories was undertaken to form a base for theoretical background. Secondary sources included relevant textbooks, journal articles, company reports, and the Internet.

1.6.2 Empirical study

The empirical portion of this study comprised the following methodology dimensions:

1.6.2.1 Target population

A population is defined as "the category of people (or animals or objects) about whom you intend to write in your report and from which you plan to draw your sample" (Davies 2007:55). For this study, the target population comprised of all employees (N=± 3500) at

the water utility company. These employees consisted of general employees, supervisors, managers, officials and support staff.

1.6.2.2 Sampling frame

The population comprised of permanent, temporary and contract employees at the water utility company in Gauteng. A sampling frame is "a list of the whole group to be sampled" (Moore 2006:116). A list of employees was obtained from the human resource department database and included managers, supervisors, officials, support staff, and general workers at the water utility company in Gauteng.

1.6.2.3 Sampling technique

A probability sampling technique was used. Probability sampling technique provides all the elements in the population the equal opportunity to be selected as a unit of the sample (Wiid & Diggines 2009:199). A simple random sampling design was used in this study (Singh & Bajpai 2007:15). The technique was chosen because it allowed each member of the population to have a known, non-zero probability of being selected (Maree & Pietersen 2007:172), and sampling error can be calculated (Manoharan 2010:21).

1.6.2.4 Sample size

According to Singh and Nath (2009:179), the size of the sample is an important aspect for the representativeness of the population. The larger samples will represent the population far better than the smaller samples, and the findings are likely to be more accurate and precise (Maree & Pietersen 2007:178). The target population for this study was ±3500 (N= ±3500), thus 400 (*n*= 400) sample size was considered appropriate as recommended by Leedy and Ormrod (2014:216).

1.6.2.5 Method of data collection

For the purpose of this study, data were collected through the distribution of a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into four sections:

Section A - Demographic variables: The first section of the questionnaire focused on obtaining demographic information such as age, gender, race, marital status, current position, educational background, job status and years of service in the organisation.

Section B - Measurement of independent variable (JS): This part of the questionnaire was adapted from the overall job satisfaction scale designed by Breyfield and Rothe in 1951. The overall job satisfaction scale is a rating scale of various levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. It consisted of five items describing JS. A five-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree was used. Respondents were given multiple options of responses from which to choose.

Section C - Measurement of independent variable (OC): The questionnaire on organisational commitment was adopted from the revised commitment scale items designed by Jaros (2007:23). The scale consisted of 20 items that were designed to measure affective, continuance and normative commitment (indebted obligation dimension and moral imperative dimension). Respondents were asked to respond to each item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.

Section D - Measurement of dependent variable (OCB): This part of the questionnaire was adopted from the work of Jung and Yoon (2012:371), consisting of five items. There were five dimensions in the scale: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue. A five-point Likert scale was used ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree (Somech & Ron 2007:48).

1.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical techniques were utilised to analyse the results. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse data. Descriptive statistics allow for quantitative description of variables (Sarantokos 2013:417) whereas, inferential statistics assists in drawing conclusions about the population on the basis of information about a sample that has been drawn from the population (Vogt 2007:57) and reporting findings (Gray 2009:458). Finally, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 23.0 for Windows, was utilised to process the data obtained from the questionnaires.

1.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ANALYSIS

Collis and Hussey (2014:53) define reliability as “the accuracy and precision of the measurement and absence of differences in the results if the reseach were repeated”. Cronbach’s alpha reliability technique was used to establish the reliability of the instrument.

Validity is the extent to which the instrument measures what it is claimed to measure (Punch 2014:239). The validity of the instruments was examined using different types of validity, namely face, content, construct, convergent and predictive validity (Thyer 2010:54).

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics refer to the principles and guidelines that help the researcher to adopt a responsible conduct. DeCenzo and Robbins (2005:23) define ethics as "a set of rules or principles that define right and wrong conduct". The following ethical issues, relevant for this study, were adhered to:

- The researcher obtained permission from the water utility company to conduct the study
- The researcher obtained permission to administer the questionnaire
- The researcher informed each respondent about the purpose of the survey
- Participation in the study was voluntary because respondents were not forced to participate in the study and could withdraw at any stage of the study
- Personal data of the respondents was processed fairly and used only for the purpose of the study
- The researcher did not mislead any respondent who participated in the study
- Respondents were not required to supply their names in the questionnaire, thus maintaining anonymity in the research process
- Confidentiality was ensured by not revealing responses pertinent to individual respondents.

1.10 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

This chapter encompassed a brief background and theoretical underpinning of the study, the problem statement and the research objectives. Furthermore, the chapter outlined the research designed used in the study and finally described how the ethical issues were applied. The remainder of the chapters were classified as follows:

Chapter 2: Job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour

This chapter provided a review of the literature relevant to the study and an overview of OC, JS and OCB, and the correlation between OC, JS and OCB.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

The focus of this chapter was on the research design and the research method, together with sampling and methods of collecting data, including data analysis.

Chapter 4: Results and findings

This chapter dealt with the analysis, interpretation and evaluation of the research findings.

Chapter 5: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This chapter presented the conclusion drawn from the research findings based on the research objectives. Limitations of the study, recommendations and further research opportunities were also discussed.

CHAPTER 2

JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a background to the study. It highlighted the problem statement, research hypotheses and research objectives. Furthermore, it briefly highlighted the importance of reliability, validity and ethical considerations and classified the chapters.

This chapter reviews the literature and the theoretical framework from which JS is premised. It provides various theories of JS in an attempt to explain factors that affect individual decision-making, behavioural patterns and their motivation. Whereas a number of theories propound that employees are motivated by various factors such as motives, goals and individual needs that they need to fulfil in order to positively influence their behaviour (Parsons & Broadbridge 2006:122), Vroom's expectancy theory argues that employees are motivated to the degree that they believe their behaviour will lead to desired performance and valued outcomes (Lunenburg 2011:2).

The literature on OC is explored, drawing upon Becker's side-bet theory to provide a deeper understanding of the concept and how it affects employees' decisions to remain with the organisation. Furthermore, Allen and Meyer's three-component model provides a structured overview of OC in relation to work behaviour, attitudes, development of employees' commitment to the organisation and whether or not their specific commitment incites them to remain with the organisation.

The chapter also provides background on the dimensions of OCB and how this can be used for individual benefit as well as organisational effectiveness and well-being. The focus of this literature review includes prior studies on the possible relationships that may exist between JS and OC as well as how these two concepts affect OCB amongst employees.

2.2 THE NATURE OF JOB SATISFACTION

The concept of JS has been investigated in many disciplines such as psychology and management (Gazioglu & Tansel 2006:1163). The concept has also been defined in various forms over decades in an effort to capture the accurate meaning and underlying factors associated with it. Some of the most commonly cited definitions on JS include "the extent of positive emotional response to the job resulting from an employee's appraisal of the job as fulfilling or congruent with the individual's values" (Morris & Venkatesh 2010:145); and "the degree to which employees have a positive affective orientation towards employment by the organisation" (Gaertner 1999:479). The definitions essentially are consistent with Locke's definition, which considers JS as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke 1969:316).

Although there may be variations in the definitions of JS, there seem to be consensus that JS has three components: the degree of an employee's emotional or affective response to the job (affective component), the employee's evaluation of the job (attitude component), and the employee's desire and quest to achieve job values (expectations component). Job satisfaction as an affective response describes an employee's emotional reaction towards and behavioural expression to various facets of the job (Kasemsap 2013:199). For example, how an employee feels about job autonomy or supervision affects his/her satisfaction. Job satisfaction is also identified as an attitude where an employee's positive or negative attitude towards his/her job may determine the level of satisfaction (Wright 2006:268). As an expectation, JS is an evaluative judgement of one's job and an assessment of the contribution the organisation makes to achieve one's job values (Ravari, Mirzaei, Kazemi & Jamalizadeh 2012:97).

Generally, when employee's expectations are greater than what s/he receives, dissatisfaction can be expected. However, when expectations are comparable to what the employee receives, the likelihood is that s/he will be greatly satisfied (Khan, Nawaz & Jan 2012:36). Job satisfaction is, in essence, an employee's active view and assessment of the job that is influenced by the individual needs, expectations and aspects of the work environment (Buitendach & Rothmann 2009:1; Khan *et al*. 2012:36).

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF JOB SATISFACTION

The current study is premised on Vroom's expectancy theory, which holds that employees are motivated to the degree that they believe the behaviour will lead to desired performance and valued outcomes. Vroom's expectancy theory is one of the process theories, which are concerned with analysing and describing relationships amongst the dynamic factors that influence how employees initiate, rationalise and direct behaviour in order to satisfy their needs and/or even avoid the feeling of dissatisfaction (Oyedele 2010:182). Three major process theories include Adams' equity theory (1963), Locke's goal setting theory (1976) and Vroom's expectancy theory (1964).

In addition to process theories of motivation, there are content theories of motivation. These include Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943), McClelland's theory of needs (1961), Herzberg's two-Factor theory (1966) and Alderfer's existence, relatedness and growth (ERG) theory (1967). Content theories are based on the premise that people in general have goals and needs that they need to fulfil and that the fulfilment of these needs will positively influence their actions and/or behaviour in the organisation (Parsons & Broadbridge 2006:122). However, these theories will not be discussed in this study. The next section will expound Vroom's expectancy theory together with other process theories such as Adams' equity theory (1963) and Locke's goal setting theory (1976).

2.3.1 Vroom's expectancy theory (1964)

Numerous theories have been developed to aid in explaining the factors that affect individual's decisions, behavioural patterns and the drive behind their motivation (Vernadakis, Kouli, Tsitskari, Gioftsidou & Antoniou 2014:150). One of the widely accepted theories of motivation was developed by Vroom in 1964 and became known as the expectancy theory of motivation. The theory presents a conventional framework for assessing, interpreting, and evaluating how employees behave in learning, decision-making, attitude formation, and motivation (Chianga & Jang 2008:313).

The primary emphasis in Vroom's expectancy theory is the relationship between effort, performance and rewards. Following Vroom's expectancy theory, a number of scholars (Chen, Gupta & Hoshower 2006:180; Kominis & Emmanuel 2007:69; Pool & Pool 2007:356 & Holland 2011:337) advocate and attest to the fact that an employee's

decision to expend effort is considerably influenced by the expectation that desired behavioural action will lead to valued outcomes. The more an employee believes that his/her work in a specific task will be rewarded and that the reward will have value to the employee, the greater the chances that the employee will exert greater effort to his/her performance (Johnson 2010:534).

Expectancy theory postulates that an employee is motivated to the degree that s/he believes that (a) an amount of effort s/he desires to expend will lead to acceptable performance (expectancy); (b) the acceptable performance will lead to an outcome (instrumentality); and (c) the value of the outcome (rewards) will be highly valued (valence) (Lunenburg 2011:2). In other words, employees choose to behave in a particular manner as a result of a cognitive process of assessing three main components: expectancy, instrumentality and valence (Sun, Wang, Yin & Che 2012:2). Figure 2 illustrates the expectancy model utilised in this study.

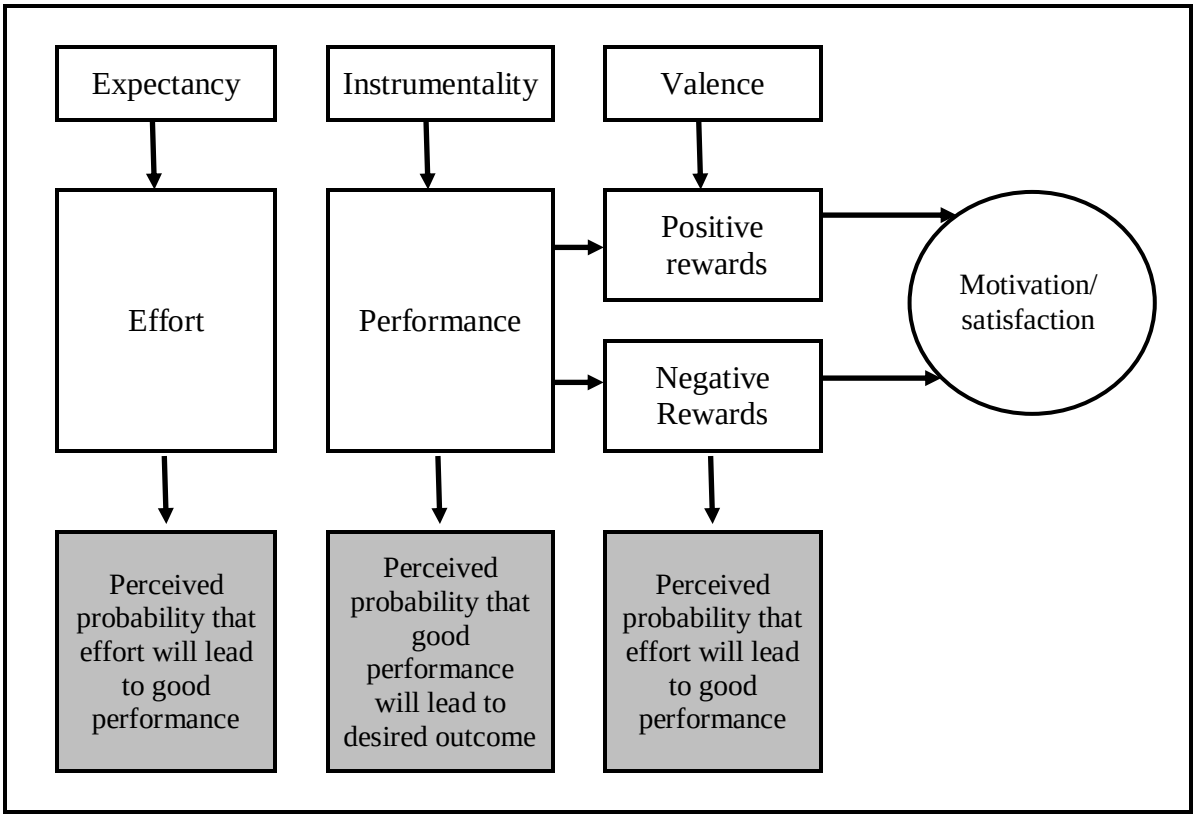

Figure 2: Expectancy model of motivation

Source: Adapted from Pool and Pool (2007:356)

The next sub-section revolves around three components of the expectancy theory, which play an integral role in employee motivation.

2.3.1.1 Expectancy

Consistent with Vroom's (1964) theory, expectancy is defined as "an individual's belief of the probability that effort will lead to acceptable performance" (Lee 2007:789). An employee who exerts effort into performance is said to exhibit effort-performance expectancy (also referred to as E-P expectancy). Effort-performance expectancy is the first component embedded in expectancy theory of motivation and is based on an individual's belief that effort is positively related to performance (Sloof & Van Praag 2008:798). It is argued that higher effort-performance expectancy increases the likelihood of employees exerting effort into their job (Holland 2011:337).

In addition, effort-performance expectancy notion holds that employees ought to possess the necessary capabilities or be afforded an opportunity to perform the required task if they are to be successful. In other words, employees should have the skills, knowledge and experience to produce the expected performance (Johnson 2010:535).

2.3.1.2 Instrumentality

The second component of expectancy theory is performance-outcome (P-O) expectancy (referred to as instrumentality). Instrumentality is defined as "the belief that performance will lead to the attainment of a particular outcome" (Buch & Tolentino 2006:358). It is concerned with an individual's expectation that the rewards such as salary, bonus, promotion and recognition an employee receives will be equal to performance (Kominis & Emmanuel 2007:51).

An employee whose job is commission-based will have high levels of instrumentality, whereas an employee whose job is not affected by attachment of incentives to performance nor has any prospects of receiving rewards for their performance will have a low level of instrumentality. In order for employees to exhibit high levels of instrumentality, employers ought to fulfil employees' performance-outcome (P-O expectation and ensure that employees see value in the rewards (valence). Employees' expectations of rewards may be in the form of intrinsic rewards such as autonomy, recognition and growth (Bhatti, Battour, Sundram & Othman 2012:280) and/or extrinsic

rewards such as remuneration increase and promotions. These rewards are said to motivate employees to perform their tasks/activities effectively (Roche & Haar 2013:3398).

The instrumentality-expectancy component holds that employees ought to know and understand which behaviours are acceptable to their employers, and will serve as instruments to attaining desired rewards (Johnson 2010:534). Chianga and Jang (2008:314) reiterate that an employee's instrumentality perception is influenced largely by variables such as trust in management and job control. Trust plays a crucial role in the relationship between the employee and the organisation. For example, if an employer promises to reward an employee for arriving on time at work, the employee needs to trust that the employer (reward provider) will keep to their end of the promise (reward), thereby increasing instrumentality (Sun *et al.* 2012:2). Frazier *et al*. (2010:43) mention that both the employee and the organisation need to trust that the other will honour the obligation of the transaction. It is evident that when the organisation honours its obligation and treats employees fairly, or rewards them accordingly, they in turn trust their superiors and reciprocate in a manner that benefits the organisation (Chinomona 2012:10004). When employees trust that their efforts will be rewarded, they will be motivated to exert effort for the well-being of the organisation.

In a similar manner, job control influences the instrumentality perception of employees (Chianga & Jang 2008:314). Job control is "the degree to which an individual perceives that s/he has control where, when and how s/he works" (Kossek, Lautsch & Eaton 2006:350). It allows employees to use their discretion in carrying out tasks, managing time schedules and resources necessary to perform their job effectively (Keller & Semmer 2013:89). Job control is used interchangeably with autonomy. Autonomy is "the amount of job-related independence, initiative, and freedom either permitted or required in daily work activities" (Jin & Lee 2012:20). Other authors (Basak & Ghosh 2011:1200; Vijayashreea & Jagdischchandra 2011:195; Islam, Mohajan & Datta 2012:152; Hans, Mubeen & Ghabshi 2013:94) refer to job control as locus of control, which denotes "the extent to which individuals believe that they can control events that affect them" (Basak & Ghosh 2011:1200).

What has been established through research is that the type of locus of control (internal or external) an individual holds, influences the level of performance and JS (Basak & Ghosh

2011:1200; Vijayashreea & Jagdischchandra 2011:195). Employees with high internal locus of control tend to be aware of their environment and opportunities, seek to achieve goals and involve themselves in activities that improve their chances of achieving goals (Vijayashreea & Jagdischchandra 2011:195). Generally higher internal locus of control influences JS (Benţea 2013:396).

2.3.1.3 Valence

The third component of expectancy theory is valence, which is defined as "the strength of an individual's preference (or value, incentive, attitude, and expected utility) for a particular output" (Saif, Nawaz, Jan, & Khan 2012:1389). It is "the affective orientations towards particular outcome" (Vroom 1964:15). Research indicates that valence for rewards concerns the weight an employee attaches to the outcome (reward) (Hellriegel, Slocum, Jackson, Louw, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw, Oosthuizen, Perks, & Zindiye 2013:426). Thus, it is important for managers to recognise the value that employees attach to any form of reward such as salary increases, promotion, recognition by supervisors, or any other reward. Valences are subjective and can be positive or negative depending on employees' needs and preferences.

Depending on employees' preference, an outcome or reward may result in high and positive valence for some employees and simultaneously result in low and/or negative valence for other employees (Hellriegel *et al.* 2013:426; Lunenburg 2011:4).

Expectancy theory advances that the willingness to exert effort in one's performance is reliant on the intensity of the incentive (reward) an employee will receive (Kominis & Emmanuel 2007:51). A positive relationship between expectancy and valence suggests that the attractiveness to exert effort will increase as expectancy increases. However, valence will need to be at a higher level (Holland 2011:337). Ultimately, making use of Vroom's formula (Motivation = expectancy x instrumentality x valence) to predict and maintain employees' JS may possibly yield favourable results to both employees' job satisfaction and an organisation's profitability and well-being.

2.3.2 Adams' equity theory (1963)

Within the context of Adams' theory, equity refers "to a process of social or interpersonal comparison in which one's own ratio of inputs and outcomes is compared to that of

others" (Hu, Schaufeli & Taris 2013:359). Equity theory provides a theoretical framework on how to treat employees equally and compare their inputs with outcomes. The theory postulates that employees form ratios to compare their individual inputs and outcomes against others in order to determine fairness of the relationship (Oyedele 2010:182; Till & Karren 2011:43).

When individual employees perceive a balance between their inputs and outcomes ratio in comparison to other's ratios, they experience equity (Disley, Hatton & Dagnan 2009:57). However, if there is no balance, then inequity is experienced. Generally, inequity results in a number of negative outcomes such as grievances, employee turnover, absenteeism, and low productivity (Schniederjans, Schniederjans & Levy 2012:225). Given the negative outcomes associated with inequity, a number of behavioural alternatives have been proposed to reduce employees' feeling of inequity and/or restore equity (Hellriegel *et al*. 2013:420). These alternative behaviours include:

- Increase their inputs to justify higher rewards when they feel that they are over-rewarded in comparison with others
- Decrease their input to compensate for lower rewards when they feel under-rewarded
- Change the compensation they receive through legal or other actions (e.g. leave days, half day)
- Modify their comparison by choosing other people with whom to compare themselves
- Distort reality by rationalising that the inequities are justified
- Leave their situations (resign from their jobs) if the inequity cannot be resolved.

According to Wagner, Eggert and Lindemann (2010:841), equity theory (Adam 1965) considers inputs and outcomes as perceived rather than objective, and that the fairness and justice is subjective to the employee's perception. What the theory advocates is that the outcomes employees receive should be awarded consistently with their inputs. Inputs include educational level, age, time, loyalty, commitment and effort, whilst outcomes include salary, benefits, growth opportunities, recognition and management support (Van Schalkwyk & Rothmann 2010:111; Hofmans 2012:474). Satisfaction with the job, therefore, is a result of a positive comparison of own inputs and outcomes against that of others (Hofmans 2012:474). If employees do not sense fairness in their work

environment, they will either withdraw their input or leave the situation that causes inequity. Conversely, if they experience fairness, they will feel compelled to invest their inputs for the effective functioning of the organisation (Van Schalkwyk & Rothmann 2010:111).

Equity theory promotes the administration of fairness and justice in a work environment. However, the theory has been criticised as not providing enough explanation of the processes involved in the selection of both comparison with others and methods of equity resolution (Disley *et al.* 2009:57).

2.3.3 Locke's goal setting theory (1976)

In the 1970s, Edwin Locke developed the goal-setting theory based on the premise that identifiable goals affect action (Locke & Latham 2002:705). Locke's goal-setting theory holds that managers need to direct employees' job performance by providing clear, specific and measurable goals (Grobler *et al*. 2011:239). Providing employees with clear feedback is also important as it allows employees to measure their own performance and helps them to determine required changes to improve performance (Lunenburg 2011:3). Goal-setting theory advocates for dependent and dependable employees who are capable of controlling their own behaviour to achieve set goals (Hellriegel *et al.* 2013:423). Ultimately, setting goals affects employee motivation in a number of ways, it increases the level of effort people choose to exert into performance and it directs effort.

Goal-setting theory has been studied in a number of disciplines including organisational psychology. The studies indicate that setting specific and challenging goals lead to higher levels of employee performance and that goals motivate people to desire to achieve valued outcomes (Locke & Latham 2006:265). However, a number of moderators, such as the degree of employees' commitment to goals, self-efficacy, managers' feedback on performance and the complexity of the tasks to be performed are key to a successful goal-setting process (Bronkhorst, Steijn & Vermeeren 2013:4).

In addition, goal-setting can be more effective if it is applied in conjunction with the principles of management by objective (MBO), the theory developed by Drucker (1954). MBO is a review system in which subordinates and their superiors jointly determine specific performance objectives; progress toward objectives is reviewed periodically and rewards are allocated based on this progress (Lindberg & Wilson 2011:64). According to

Lindberg and Wilson (2011:64), the MBO process translates organisational objectives into specific unit objectives, making it easy for employees to participate in decision-making (goal setting) and implementing those decisions. Generally, employees' participation in the goal-setting process increases the probability that they will accept goals and pursue them for the organisation's well-being (Porter & Latham 2013:62).

2.4 ANTECEDENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Various empirical studies have contributed immensely to the knowledge of JS. Amongst these studies is Abeka-Donker (2013:4) who studied the demographic influences on JS and the effects of the attitude towards work. Numerous studies reported socio-demographics (Gazioglu & Tansel 2006:1164; Altinoz *et al*. 2012:323) as contributing to JS. These socio-demographics were categorised into two distinct characteristics, namely the individual characteristics and job characteristics. The past literature on JS shows that employees' attitudes towards various aspects of their jobs (job characteristics such as pay, supervision, work content, promotion, opportunities, environment, relationship with co-workers), and individual characteristics (age, education, marital status and gender), are the main contributing factors to JS (Gazioglu & Tansel 2006:1164; Chen & Johantgen 2010:1003; Aziri 2011:78; Altinoz *et al*. 2012:323; Khan *et al*. 2012:36; Sattar, Nawaz & Khan 2012:137).

In this sense, employees who are happy with such aspects of their jobs are more likely to reach higher levels of satisfaction, whilst in the same breath organisations benefit from retaining these employees and reducing employee turnover (Gathungu & Wachira 2013:3).

As indicated above, socio-demographics influence to a great degree JS and is reported to affect the attitudes employees display towards their work. To this end, the next sub-section will expand considerably on these socio-demographics, which are categorised as personal and organisational characteristics.

2.4.1 Personal characteristics

2.4.1.1 Age

The literature on JS reveals that there is a causal relationship between age and JS. The significant impact of age on JS is supported by a number of studies (Furnham, Eracleous & Chamorro-Premuzic 2009:768; Islam, Rasul & Ullah 2012:37), which advance that older employees show higher levels of satisfaction with their jobs than their younger counterparts do. This may be attributed to the congruence of values of older employees and those of the organisation (Furnham *et al*. 2009:768). A more recent study by Abeka-Donkor (2013:5) reported a significant relation between age and JS.

2.4.1.2 Gender

Gender has been identified to influence employees' level of satisfaction. A study conducted by Gazioglu and Tansel (2006:1165) established that women were more satisfied with different characteristics of their jobs as compared to men. They further explain that men and women have different experiences of meaningfulness, responsibility and expectations from their jobs and the types of jobs they do vary giving them different experiences. The findings of Seston, Hassell, Ferguson and Hann (2009:127) indicate that male pharmacists expressed lower levels of satisfaction with their main job than women pharmacists did. Contrary to these findings, Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2007:897) is of the view that there is no significant gender difference in JS. They argued that JS is determined by intrinsic factors of the job rather than gender.

Other studies reveal that men and women are motivated by varying factors. For example, men are motivated by pay and promotions, whilst women are motivated by work itself and relations with co-workers (Bellou 2010:7). These findings are supported by Kifle and Desta (2012:335) who testify to significant gender differences that men are more satisfied with intrinsic factors of the job (opportunity for career advancement, satisfaction with workload and hours worked), whilst women are more satisfied with extrinsic aspects of the job (contribution to society and relationship with co-workers and pay).

2.4.1.3 Educational level

Among the personal characteristics, educational level is reported as a key aspect of JS. There are conflicting views on the effect of educational qualifications on JS. Fabra and

Camisón (2009:601) point out a statistical significance between educational levels and JS. Employees with higher educational levels expect promotion opportunities, autonomy, prestige, growth and better salaries, all of which are factors determining employee JS and their intention to leave the organisation. Tanova and Holtom (2008:1557) opine that higher levels of education increase the likelihood of employee turnover; this may be caused by increasing job opportunities for educated employees outside the organisation. In the nursing domain, Dimattio, Roe-prior and Carpenter (2010:279) reported no significant difference between nurses with bachelor degrees (higher educational qualifications) and nurses with lower educational qualifications.

In a study involving police officers in Turkey, Balci (2011:282) found that police officers with higher educational levels showed low levels of JS compared to police officers with lower levels of education. Research presupposes that career-driven employees usually risk shifting jobs and organisations for the purpose of promotion, achievement and career development (Coomber & Barriball 2007:307; Tanova & Holtom 2008:1557).

2.4.2 Organisational characteristics

Organisational characteristics are also reported as strong factors that affect the level of JS. This section elaborates on work environment, pay and job-related factors as factors that make up organisational characteristics.

2.4.2.1 Work environment

Among a variety of factors affecting JS are work content and work environment. Chen and Johantgen (2010:1003) classify work content and work environment as the strongest and dominating determinants of JS. Piko (2006:312) postulates that lack of consistent expectations and demands from co-workers and management in the workplace can have a negative effect on the psychological state of employees and consequently reduce JS.

Ultimately, organisations should strive to modify work environments to suit employees' needs and expectations because research has proven that employees who are positioned in work environments that gratify their work needs and expectations are more likely to intrinsically enjoy their work (JS) than those who are placed in work environments outside their scope of interest (Westerman & Yamamura 2007:152). Work content includes aspects such as autonomy, role ambiguity, task variety and routine, whilst work

environment includes structural factors such as growth opportunities, supervision and participation (Kutney-Lee, Wu, Sloane & Aiken 2013:199).

2.4.2.2 Pay

According to Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw and Rich (2010:157) when employees are asked why they are working, their likely response is money associated with work. Their study made a comparison between ordinary employees and wealthy employees, and subsequently concluded that the latter are less satisfied with the jobs that offer the possibility of addressing the basic needs of employees such as shelter, food and security (Judge *et al.* 2010:162). This is attributed to the fact that wealthy employees can afford the basic needs that ordinary employees cannot afford.

2.4.2.3 Job-related factors

Kim *et al*. (2005:175) assert that employees who are not satisfied with their respective jobs, regardless of the level or the position held, are more prone to leaving the organisation for better jobs. Employees are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs and be more productive once their managers afford them an opportunity to make decisions about aspects that affect their jobs. Work-related factors may include but not be limited to autonomy, role ambiguity and routine.

Autonomy is extremely important in the lives of employees (Toode, Routasalo & Suominen 2011:253). Autonomy refers to "the experience of behaviour as volitional and reflectively self-endorsed" (Niemiec & Ryan 2009:135). By implication, employees who are not provided the authority to make decisions about their daily work activities tend to be dissatisfied with their jobs.

Employees, particularly those who are career-driven, tend to be frustrated with routine jobs; thus, they pursue much more satisfying jobs with a variety of activities (Toode, *et al*. 2011:253). Focus in organisations should be directed towards designing jobs that require employees to perform various work activities and motivating them to utilise a variety of skills in their work activities.

As mentioned, job-related factors may also include role ambiguity, which is one stressor that negatively affects employee JS (Yang 2010:611). Employees who are unsure of what

is expected of them and whose roles are not clearly defined find it challenging to carry out work activities, thus opening up a door for employee turnover (Yang 2010:616).

To this effect, managers should direct efforts to meet employees' valuable needs through other means such as recognition, praise, trust, etc. Ultimately, the organisation's success depends on employees' efforts and realisation that employees' JS increases as their valuable needs and expectations are met (Lumley *et al.* 2011:102). The absence or lack of these efforts may affect an organisation's effectiveness and outcomes such as profitability, turnover intentions, overall success and ultimately employees' satisfaction (Grobler *et al*. 2011:237).

Thus, cultivating employees' satisfaction through attractive organisational characteristics may yield favourable results for the organisation. Furthermore, the literature indicates that when employees are satisfied with some aspects of their job they tend to develop emotional reaction towards the organisation, which might affect or predict OC (Lumley *et al.* 2011:101).

For the purpose of understanding OC in totality, the next section provides a detailed description of the concept.

2.5 DESCRIPTION OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment is a psychological state (frame of mind), which reflects an employee's connection with the organisation and the decision s/he makes to remain a member of the organisation (Azeem 2010:295). Kargar (2012:5017) defines OC as "employees' loyalty to the organisation and a consistent process in which people's cooperation with organisational decisions depicts their attention to the organisation and its success". It is a psychological link between an employee and his/her organisation, making it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organisation (Gelade, Dobson & Auer 2008:600). Such a link could be considered an emotional response to the organisational goals and values, and an employee could therefore demonstrate a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Kim *et al.* 2005:175; Falkenburg & Schyns 2007:709). Although a number of emerging definitions of the construct is found in the literature, the definition of Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979:226) of OC, that is, "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation", will be adopted for the purpose of this study, because the definition

encapsulates three related factors: 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 *et al.* 1979:226; Mattila 2006:175; Eslami & Gharakhani 2012:86). Commitment of employees to the organisation is an important tool for achieving improved performance and organisational effectiveness (Alimohammadi & Neyshabor 2013:2). A lack of OC on the part of employees may lead to unfavourable outcomes to the organisation, such as employee turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, and ultimately, organisational ineffectiveness (Güleryüz *et al.* 2008:1627).

2.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment in this study is premised on the side-bet theory developed by Becker in 1960. The side-bet theory provides a systematic view of employees' relationships with the organisation and how employees' commitment is influenced (Lam & Rahma 2014:11). The theory advances the notion that employees' commitment to the organisation is not only influenced by their behaviour/actions, but by a sequence of "side-bets" (Martinez 2009:20). Side-bets refer to "the accumulation of investments valued by the individual" (Weibo, Kaur & Jun 2010:013), which would be lost should the individual decide to leave the organisation or occupation (Griffin 2007:5).

Side-bets may be in the form of time, effort employees exert onto their work, benefits, job security, education, tenure, and perception of fairness (Brum 2007:3; Rothrauff, Abraham, Bride & Roman 2011:69). The greater the magnitude of a side-bet, the greater the probability that the employee will commit to the organisation (Brum 2007:3). For example, an employee might maintain membership with the organisation because the organisation offers free educational benefits, which might be beneficial to the employee's improvement of qualifications. In this example the cost of leaving the organisation might be prohibitively high, thus the employee would choose to remain committed to the organisation (Keskes 2013:36). Griffin (2007:3) affirms that committed employees are simply committed because they have concealed investments or side-bets they significantly accrued and enjoy from their organisations. Alongside the fear of losing the investment is a pre-conceived idea of lack of employment alternatives should one leave the current organisation (Cohen 2014:262).

Becker (1960:35) further postulates that in order for OC to be realised through a series of side-bets, a number of factors need to be present. First, the individual employee needs to realise that s/he has made a side-bet and that his/her decision has consequences. Secondly, that his/her decision regarding a particular line of action has an effect on other extraneous interests and activities. Thirdly, the individual's prior side-bet has put him/her in that position. Drawing upon Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, several researchers reported a direct relationship between the level of employee commitment and a series of conscious and unconscious side-bets (Rothrauff *et al*. 2011:68; Keskes 2013:36).

Although Becker (1960) presented an interesting approach to OC, it has been subjected to great empirical examination. As research in the area of OC progressed, the recent literature reveals limitations to Becker's approach to commitment (Weibo *et al*. 2010:012). As a result, Meyer and Allen (1991) advanced a different approach to the concept, namely that it is a multidimensional framework comprising of three distinct yet comparable components (Somers 2009:76). Meyer and Allen's three-component model is discussed in the next section.

2.7 MEYER AND ALLEN'S THREE-COMPONENT MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

A number of researchers have explored the concept of OC in relation to work attitudes and behaviours (Becker 1960:32; Mowday *et al.* 1979:442; Allen & Meyer 1990:1; Meyer & Allen 1991:61). Although OC has been conceptualised and measured in various ways, Meyer and Allen's (1991) model is the most commonly used approach to date.

The model of Meyer and Allen (1991) illustrates OC as a construct that is characterised by three distinct yet related components: emotional attachment to the organisation (affective component), perceived costs of leaving the organisation (continuance component) and obligation to maintain membership (indebted and moral imperative component) (Solinger, Van Olffen & Roe 2008:70). Figure 3 (Meijen 2007:53) represents the three-component model of OC.

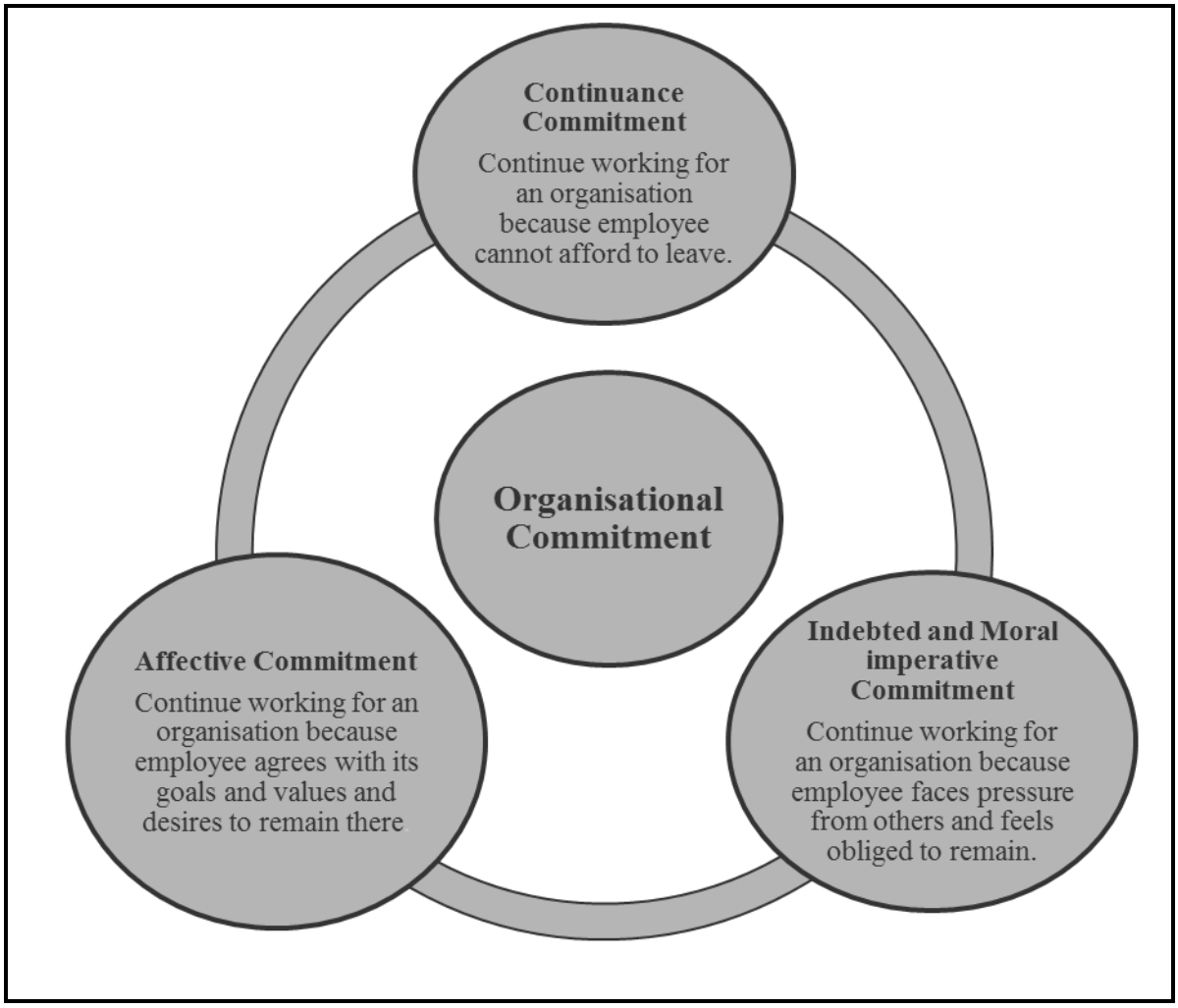

Figure 3: Three-component model of Organisational commitment

Source: Meijen (2007:53)

This model theorises employees' commitment as a psychological state that describes their relationship with the organisation and determines their future action in relation to the organisation (Meyer & Allen 1991:67). Meyer and Allen's purpose for developing this model was to contribute to the behavioural studies and provide a framework from which further research can be grounded (Tojari, Esmaeilli & Majedi 2013:165).

2.7.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment refers to employees' emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation (Meyer & Allen 1991:67). Employees that are affectively committed to an organisation continue working for the organisation because they want to stay with that organisation (Ganu 2014:149). Furthermore, they stay with the

organisation because they identify and accept the organisation's culture, goals and primary values (Park & Rainey 2007:199). Affective commitment can also be defined as "a positive feeling of attachment, which triggers positive behavioural intentions such as less absenteeism, high performance and less intentions to leave the organisation" (Dean 2007:163). Emotional attachment to the organisation naturally stimulates positive work attitudes and behaviours (Ahmad, Ather & Hussain 2014:573), leading to positive outcomes such as job performance (Abdullah, Omar & Rashid 2013:761). Organisations have recognised the importance of employee retention by ensuring good fit between employee values and those of the organisation.

Employees with a strong emotional attachment towards the organisation tend to be less likely to absent themselves from work, less likely to have intentions to leave the organisation (Hussain & Asif 2012:03; Van Dyk, Coetzee & Tebele 2013:61) and typically strive to contribute enormously to the organisation's wellbeing (Morrow 2011:20). Employees with this type of commitment stay with the organisation because they want to (Ismail 2012:27), generally identify with, involve themselves in, and appreciate maintaining membership with the organisation (Allen & Meyer 1990:2).

Additionally, Döckel, Basson and Coetzee (2006:21) point out that individuals develop affective commitment when they are conscious of the value-relevance of, and/or derive their identity from involvement with the organisation or its course of action. In consideration of the variety of behaviours that arise as a result of different dimensions of commitment that employee lean towards, a number of researchers agree that affective commitment produces positive relationship with a wide range of organisation-relevant outcomes such as lower turnover, reduced absenteeism, job performance and OCB, as compared to normative and continuance commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky 2002:21; Elias 2007:4; Lesabe & Nkosi 2007:35; Morrow 2011:20; Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, McInnis, Maltin & Sheppard 2012:226). The rationality accompanying this view is that emotions are attached to the organisation, making it difficult for employees to leave the organisation.

2.7.2 Continuance commitment

The second form of commitment is continuance commitment. Continuance commitment can be described as the awareness of costs associated with leaving the organisation

(Meyer *et al*. 2012:226). Because this form of commitment reflects the cost involved in leaving the organisation, any factors that increase perceived costs is regarded as side-bets or investments (Meyer & Allen 1991:71). Such costs may include reduction in pay, pension, benefits, tenure, status or facilities (Iqbal 2010:17).

Although the literature indicates that affective commitment yields significant correlation with a wider range of organisational outcomes as compared to normative and continuance commitment (Elias 2007:4; Lesabe & Nkosi 2007:3; Morrow 2011:20), another group of researchers regard continuance commitment as a significant component of OC (Allen and Meyer 1990:2). The basis of this school of thought is that continuance commitment builds from an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation, employees tend to assess their opportunities, experience and/or perception of the organisation, activities they engage in and their investments (Ismail 2012:28), thus making it difficult for them to disengage from the organisation.

Unlike affective commitment, where employees engage in a long-term relationship with the organisation because of their sincere desire to do so, continuance commitment is based on employees' realisation of the non-existence of comparable employment alternatives and/or perceived high costs of leaving the organisation (Evanschitzky, Iyer, Plassmann, Niessing & Meffert 2006:1208). Döckel *et al.* (2006:21) present continuance commitment as associated with employees' opinions around possible transference of their skills (education, knowledge, abilities) to other organisations. Employees who asses their skills and find them to be less transferable tend to exhibit strong continuance commitment to their current organisation (Meyer & Allen 1997:59; Döckel *et al.* 2006:21). Ozag (2006:871) concurs that employees with high level of continuance commitment stay with the organisation not because of their affection or loyalty, instead they remain because they have assessed their opportunities and realised they either have no employment alternatives or have too much invested in the current organisation to leave.

Continuance commitment symbolises employees' consciousness of the costs that are associated with leaving the organisation (Meyer, Stanley & Parfyonova 2011:1) and consequently anything that can be established to increase employees' perceived costs could be considered a predecessor of continuance commitment (Meijen 2007:63). Such predecessors of continuance commitment may range from loss of potential promotion, loss of benefits to lack of alternative employment outside the current organisation (Meyer

& Allen 1991:71). Employees whose commitment is centred on continuance commitment stay with the organisation simply because they believe they have to do so (Ismail 2012:28, Keskes 2013:36). These employees do not associate with the organisation; they do not link their skills, abilities and capabilities to the desired outcomes of the organisation, thus cannot be expected to have a strong desire to contribute to the organisational effectiveness and success (Döckel *et al.* 2006:21).

Chien-Hung and Wen-Cheng (2012:89) reiterate that employees who exhibit high continuance commitment stay with the organisation, not because of their emotional attachment to the organisation, instead their commitment results from achieving different personal investments or side-bets, namely pension, promotion and status.

2.7.3 Normative (indebted and moral imperative) commitment

A third form of commitment is normative commitment, which is characterised by employees' feelings of staying with the organisation because they feel they ought to do so (Khattak & Sethi 2013:102). An array of researchers report this form of commitment as the perceived obligation to maintain membership in the organisation due to such reasons as the culture of the organisation (Meyer *et al*. 2002:21; Cohen & Keren 2008:428; Iqbal 2010:17). The culture of the organisation explicitly prescribes appropriate and acceptable behaviour or conduct (Messner 2013:80). Organisational culture encompasses the unique pattern of shared values, beliefs, assumptions, traditions, and standards that influence how organisational members behave in an organisation (Robbins & Coulter 2009: 62). Simosi and Xenikou (2010:1602) identified two distinct organisational cultures: the destructive and constructive culture.

Destructive culture is characterised by leaders or supervisors who display negative behaviours towards subordinates such as bullying, manipulation, harassment and lack of subordinate support (Einarsen, Aasland, Skogstad 2007:208). This type of organisational culture has a negative impact on organisational effectiveness and employee morale (Shaw, Erickson & Harvey 2011:575). Employees who find themselves in organisations with destructive organisational culture suffer from job tension, emotional exhaustion, display of resistance behaviours and intentions to leave the organisation (Schyns & Schilling 2013:139).

On the other hand, constructive culture denotes a situation where employees have sufficient knowledge of their work, possess behavioural expectations and norms, participate in decision-making and express willingness to assist other employees to achieve high order satisfaction (Shim 2010:848). Organisations with constructive culture encourage information sharing among colleagues, employee involvement and promote goal achievement in order for employees to experience high levels of satisfaction (Simosi & Xenikou 2010:1602). In organisations where constructive culture is prevalent, employees are likely to maintain membership with those organisations (Acar 2012:230).

Meyer and Allen (1991:72) advance that the feeling of obligation to remain with an organisation may emanate from employees' internalisation of the obligatory pressures. Leung (2005:42) contends that the obligatory pressures are associated with the acquisition of professional qualifications, identification with the organisation and acceptance of the organisation's values and goals, involvement with the organisation, centralisation of authority and organisational support. In other instances, employees may feel obliged to stay and repay the organisation because the organisation may have invested their resources in training these employees (Tojari *et al*. 2013:165). Such obligatory pressures motivate employees to act appropriately in order to meet organisational goals.

Yao and Wang (2006:1060) believe that cultural socialisation or upbringing of employees shape their behavioural pattern, their attitude and their general perception of loyalty to the organisation. As such, employees may decide to remain with the organisation that espouses values that are congruent with the morals ingrained during their socialisation process (Yao & Wang 2006:1070; Krishna 2009:554). Employees with a strong normative commitment remain with the organisation because of their belief that it is the right and moral thing to do regardless of the availability of alternative employment (Hussain & Asif 2012:3).

Meyer and Parfyonova (2010:284) describe this form of commitment as the internalised obligatory pressures to act in a way that advances organisational goals and interests. Organisations may also boost the development of normative commitment by making available incentives in advance and/or provides other costly benefits such as training programmes to the employee (Meyer & Allen 1991:72).

According to Meyer and Allen (1991:68), it is possible for employees to experience all three forms of commitment at different levels. For example, it is possible for one employee to feel a less affective desire to stay with the organisation but at the same time feel obliged to maintain membership because of the lack of employment alternatives and/or fear of losing side-bets.

2.8 FACTORS THAT PREDICT ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisations place value and worth on OC amongst their employees because it is perceived as an attitude that promotes organisational productivity and reduces withdrawal behaviours such as tardiness, absenteeism and turnover (Camilleri 2006:63). Chughtai and Zafar (2006:42) propound distinguishable factors that may predict OC. These are categorised into two main characteristics, namely demographic and job characteristics. Demographic characteristics include factors such as age, tenure (length of service in a particular organisation) and education (Salami 2008:32). Job characteristics include factors such as wage and salary, autonomy, empowerment and co-worker support. These characteristics are discussed in the following sub-section.

2.8.1 Demographic characteristics

2.8.1.1 Age

The debate whether older employees are more committed to their work than younger employees is not new. The literature indicates that age is related positively to OC (Suman & Srivastava 2012:63). Iun and Huang (2007:794) advance that older employees have positive work qualities such as dependability, loyalty and support organisational goals, thus are likely to exhibit high OC. Salami (2008:36) concurs that, as employees get older, they have more time to assess their work situation and decide their future with the organisation. Bal, De Lange, Jansen and Van Der Velde (2008:145) submit that younger employees may be less concerned with how their relationship with the organisation ends because of prospects of employment opportunities in other organisations.

The finding that age significantly predicts OC supports the work of previous researchers (Qureshi, Saleem, Basheer, Salahuddin, Sheikh & Saadat 2012:66) who found that age positively correlates with OC. These findings are attributed to the assumption that older

employees tend to adapt their expectations to reality and adjust themselves accordingly. Popoola (2006:185) emphasises that commitment of older employees who have been with the organisation for a longer period (tenure) may be higher regardless of the work content such as long working hours, routinisation of work and autonomy.

2.8.1.2 Tenure

The literature indicates that tenure is related significantly to OC (Salami 2008:32; Azeem 2010:297 & Anari 2012:260). Tenure is the total years of service an employee has been with a particular organisation (English, Morrison & Chalon 2010:395). Employees' work skills, understanding of organisation's goals, and the relationship with the organisation improve as their years of service with the particular organisation increases, thereby increasing the level of affective commitment (Azeem 2010:297; Ng & Feldman 2011:534). The more years of service employees have with a particular organisation, the more they develop affective commitment (Chughtai & Zafar 2006:42).

The findings from English *et al.* (2010:403) indicate that employees with more than nine years of service with a particular organisation have higher levels of OC than those with less than a year of service. In light of this evidence, the length of a time employees devote to an organisation is considered to reinforce their intention to display OC.

2.8.1.3 Education

A number of researchers (Chen 2006:276; Labatmediené, Endriulaitiené & Gustainiene 2007:209; Salami 2008:32) have reported education as a predictor of OC. However, Kargar (2012:5018) contends that there is a relatively negative and weak relationship between education of employees and OC. The reason behind this argument is that educated employees tend to have high expectations that the organisation is unable to meet. Chughtai and Zafar (2006:43) argue that there is a significant relationship between education and OC. The researchers point out that employees with lower levels of education find it difficult to find alternative jobs outside the organisation, and as a result, express higher commitment to their current organisation than their more educated counterparts (Chughtai & Zafar 2006:43).

Furthermore, Joiner and Bakalis (2006:441) opine that highly educated employees generally have high expectations (for example, salary increase and promotion

possibilities) in an exchange for the skills, knowledge and expertise they bring to the organisation. As alternative to reducing feelings of inequity, employees decrease their commitment to the organisation (Hellriegel *et al.* 2013:420).

2.8.2 Job characteristics

2.8.2.1 Wages and salary

Lee, Huang and Zhao (2011:868) contend that high earning employees are more likely to exhibit high level of OC and less intentions to leave the organisation, whereas low earning employees leave the organisation to find another higher paying organisation (Narimawati 2007:549).

2.8.2.2 Autonomy

Dee, Henkin and Signleton (2006:610) define autonomy as "the ability of employees to set organisational goals and to structure the organisation to maximise professional concerns". It can be described as the degree to which employees have control over their work (Piccolo & Colquitt 2006:329). Aubé, Rousseau and Morin (2007:404) comment that employees who perceive themselves as having little control over their work may feel too dependent on their employers, may feel unimportant to the organisation, neglected resulting in reduced willingness to commit to the organisation. Conversely, employees with high autonomy are at liberty to work independently, less likely to be dissatisfied and ultimately express higher OC (Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, McKnight & George 2007:6).

2.8.2.3 Empowerment

Empowerment is regarded as an important predictor of OC. It can be divided into two categories: structural empowerment and psychological empowerment. Structural empowerment is mainly concerned with employers providing a supportive physical environment (tools and equipment) to enable employees to perform their work effectively (GoudarzvandChegini & Kheradmand 2013:1048). Psychological empowerment is "a set of cognitions created by the work environment or context that reflect employees' perceptions about themselves in relation to their work environment" (Dee *et al.* 2006:608). Researchers in psychological empowerment (Ambad 2012:74; Zhu, Sosik, Riggo & Yang 2012:190) postulate that this type of empowerment focuses more on how employees feel about themselves in relation to their work and organisation.

Psychological empowerment strengthens employees' perceptions of their effectiveness in the organisation, which may lead to OC (Liu, Chiu & Fellows 2007:570). Psychological empowerment stimulates OC because it evaluates the fit between the employees' work role, their goals and values (Seibert, Wang & Courtright 2011:985). Empowered employees show willingness to articulate their values and interests through their work, thereby increasing their commitment to the organisation. Employees who feel that their interests, values and goals are well aligned with that of the organisation, have a high level of OC (Hashmi & Naqvi 2012:137).

2.8.2.4 Co-worker support

Joiner (2007:218) defines co-worker support as "co-workers assisting one another in their tasks when needed by sharing knowledge and expertise as well as providing encouragement and support". For example, co-workers may support an inexperienced employee by providing task-relevant expertise. They may even support struggling employees to reach his/her target through sharing or dividing tasks amongst themselves.

In an environment where co-worker support is high, employees feel confident to discuss their job-related concerns and find solutions to problems with co-workers (Bateman 2009:7). This environment reduces employees' stress, increases JS, positive attitude, willingness to exert effort and OC (Eder & Eisenberger 2008:55). Equally so, negative relationships between employees might unpleasantly affect their experience of work and they may become less satisfied and less committed to the organisation (Morrison 2008:332).

2.9 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Previous studies indicate that there is a strong positive correlation between JS and OC (Rayton 2006:14; Lau & Oger 2012:326; Cao, Jiang, Oh, Li, Liao & Chen 2013:176). However, the two attitudes are viewed as distinct constructs (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian 1974:608). Job satisfaction reflects employees' emotional reaction to the job and the work situation (Islam *et al.* 2012:36), while OC reflects the employees' perceptions (emotional and non-emotional) of the organisation (Falkenburg & Schyns 2007:710).

Organisational commitment and job satisfaction reflect employees' psychological state and their evaluation of the job and the organisation. The two concepts are related, yet reflect distinguishable employees' attitudes towards the job. Job satisfaction reflects employees' affective response to specific aspects of the job, whereas OC reflects employees' attitude about the entire organisation (Chen 2006:274; Güleryüz *et al.* 2008:1627). Although there has been a debate regarding which variable is dependent on the other and which is independent, several studies reveal that JS is a predictor of OC (Güleryüz *et al.* 2008:1632; Yang 2008:439; Azeem 2010:289; Lumley *et al.* 2011:113). Chen (2006:274) advances the notion that JS encourages OC. Once an organisation increases employees' satisfaction with the job, employees exhibit a willingness to carry out their tasks for the advancement of the entire organisation.

The literature indicates that employees who are satisfied with their jobs are likely to be happy and less likely to have an intention to leave the organisation (Alniaçik Alniaçik, Akçin & Erat 2012:357; Dixit & Bhati 2012:38). Such employees are more likely to be committed to the values and goals of the organisation and engage in behaviours that help the organisation function effectively. The fundamental assumption is that happy employees tend to develop emotional attachment to their organisations (Güleryüz *et al.* 2008:1626). Lesabe and Nkosi (2007:35) postulate that employees will display the following behaviours to indicate their commitment to the organisation:

- Entering and remaining with the organisation
- Carrying out specific roles
- Engaging in innovative and spontaneous activities.

OC is thus not just submissive loyalty, it encompasses vigorous involvement with the organisation such that employees are willing to exert effort in order to add value to the organisation's well-being (Ogaard, Marnburg & Larsen 2008:664; Yücel 2012:47). Ng, Sorensen and Yim (2009:764) contend that employees who are generally not satisfied with their jobs may be reluctant to exert more effort in their jobs, and display undesirable behaviours such as absenteeism and tardiness in reaching the desired behavioural outcomes.

The debate alluded to in the previous paragraphs on whether JS influences OC, or vice versa, has been in existence for decades. While an array of the literature articulated the

relationship between these construct with JS leading to OC, there is compelling school of thought which contends that OC influences the existence of JS (for example, Mathieu & Zajac 1990:172; Namasivayam & Zhao 2007:1215; Malik, Nawab, Naeem & Danish 2010:20; Adekola 2012:4). Pool and Pool (2007: 353) point out that OC, as an antecedent, is important to creating an atmosphere that stimulates JS, work performance and other organisational outcomes. In a similar manner, Ismail (2012:30) advances that employees' commitment to the organisation is influenced by their individual characteristics and the degree to which their job experiences fit their expectations, for this reason they would then experience intensified JS.

Furthermore, it is assumed that committed employees are more likely to engage in extra-role behaviours known as OCBs (Fisher; McPhail & Menghetti 2010:403; Zeinabadi 2010:999). In other words, the effective functioning of the organisation, to a great extent, is dependent on employees' readiness to display OCBs (Zhang, Wan & Jia 2008:128). The next section focuses on the OCB.

2.10 THE DESCRIPTION OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organisational citizenship behaviour is defined as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation" (Organ 1988:4). OCBs often are described as behaviours that incorporate anything positive and constructive that employees do, of their own choice, which supports other employees and benefits the organisation (Jiao Richards & Zhang 2011:12). Organisational citizenship behaviour reflects those behaviours employees display that extend beyond in-role requirements, promote the wellbeing of other employees and ultimately promote the optimal functioning of the organisation (Alizadeh, Darvishi, Nazari & Emami 2012:495). Even though these behaviours are constructive behaviours they are not part of employees' formal job requirements (Cohen & Karen 2008:433; Zhao, Peng & Chen 2014:177). Nadiri and Tanova (2010:35) argue that the behaviours are to a certain degree incited by employees' perceptions of organisational justice.

2.11 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organisational citizenship behaviour in this study is premised on the social exchange theory (SET) developed by Homans in 1958. The theory sought to provide a framework to comprehend human behaviour in social interactions and/or activities (Nammir, Marane & Ali 2012:29). Social exchange is defined as "the voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others" (Blau 1964:91). This definition highlights the fact that employees are motivated by the possibility of enjoyment of benefits that result from voluntary behaviours. Social exchange theory implies that employees engage in activities because they believe their behaviour will be reciprocated with rewards, in which case the employer rewards employees for efforts expended and in turn employees display greater discretionary effort, positive work-related attitudes and show less likelihood of wanting to leave the organisation (Gould-Williams 2007:1629).

Social exchange theory presumes that both the employer and employees participate in a social exchange relationship because they anticipate mutual intangible social benefits such as respect, trust and recognition (Liao 2008:1882). The emphasis is on maximising rewards or benefits and minimising costs as far as possible (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon 2011:998; Shiau & Luo 2012:2432). Accordingly, employees will invest what they believe will benefit them, and would cease behaviour if they believe otherwise (Shiau & Luo 2012:2432). The fundamental assumption of social exchange theory is that employees engage in reciprocal relations with the expectation that these relations will be of benefit to both them and the organisation (Zafirovski 2005:3). Where risks seem to outweigh the benefits, parties may withdraw from the exchange relationship (Nammir *et al*. 2012:30).

To the extent that the parties positively engage in the exchange relationship, they can equally realise valuable outcomes (Yi & Gong 2009:1516). Blau (1964:93) opines that social exchange is a subjective relationship between employees and their employers characterised by unspecified personal obligations and trust between the parties. In a relationship that is characterised by mutual trust and social benefits the employer is likely to bestow rewards that employees will appreciate whilst employees advance behaviours that support the organisational effectiveness (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner 2007:845).

The persistence and success of social exchange is reliant on personal trust (Zafirovski 2005:4). Individuals engaging in the social exchange need to trust one another, acknowledge and honour the personal obligation rested upon each one of them (Schroeder 2010:6). It is thus evident that the social exchange process contributes to the effective functioning of the organisation in that employees exert effort in their jobs with the belief that they shall be rewarded (Zhang *et al*. 2008:130). From a social exchange theory perspective, when employees perceive fairness in the expected rewards, they reciprocate by demonstrating satisfaction with the jobs, higher OC and engaging in OCB (extra-role), which promote the organisation's effectiveness (Tekleab & Chiaburu 2011:462).

2.12 DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

A substantial amount of OCB research has identified OCB as a multi-dimensional construct. The construct consists of five dimensions, namely altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue (Organ 1997:94; Bragger *et al.* 2005:305; Omar *et al.* 2009:198; Polat 2009:1592; Zeinabadi 2010:998; Kaur 2011:87). These dimensions are expounded in the next sub-section.

2.12.1 Altruism

Altruism behaviours are voluntary actions that are directed at helping other employees with organisation-relevant tasks such as showing others how to execute difficult tasks and imparting relevant skills to perform (Ünal 2013:125). These behaviours are aimed at simultaneously benefiting employees within the organisation whilst contributing to organisational effectiveness (Lamertz 2006:83; Mohammad, Habib & Alias 2011:153). Polat (2009:1592) postulates that employees who exhibit altruism, also referred to as helping behaviour, are usually willing to help fellow employees get workload completed effectively and in record time. In the same way that organisations rely on employees' citizenship behaviours for sustainability, endorsing altruism is necessary for organisation's optimum performance as it involves employees assuming responsibility for helping others with work-related tasks for the advancement of the organisation (Somech & Ron 2007:40).

2.12.2 Conscientiousness

Ünal (2013:125) describes conscientiousness as a discretionary behaviour that surpasses the minimum in-role requirements expected by the organisation to advance organisational success. Yahaya, Boon, Ramli, Baharudin, Yahaya, Ismai and Shariff (2011:5726) reiterate that employees who exhibit conscientiousness are able to carry out their individual tasks timeously and commit themselves productively to many other organisation's activities that will improve an organisation's efficiency and effectiveness. These behaviours are not necessarily directed at benefiting any specific individual in the organisation; instead, they seek to contribute directly to the organisation (Mohammad *et al.* 2011:153).

Conscientiousness behaviours include instances such as giving prior notice of absence from work, complying with instructions given and paying attention to conservation of resources (Alizadeh *et al.* 2012:496). Employees with high levels of conscientiousness take responsibility for their own actions and show commitment to the well-being of the organisation (Singh & Singh 2009:292).

2.12.3 Civic virtue

Civic virtue simply suggests that employees display eagerness to participate in the political life of the organisation (Nadiri & Tanova 2010:34). It is concerned with demonstrating interest in the life of the organisation by responsibly participating in the work group's governance, including attending meetings and making meaningful contributions for performance improvement and performance solutions (Nielsen, Bachrach, Sundstrom & Halfhill 2012:675). Being involved in the political life of the organisation should not necessarily mean that employees are troublemakers; it merely indicates employees' commitment to the organisation's effectiveness and functionality (Lo & Ramayah 2009:49).

2.12.4 Sportsmanship

Nielsen *et al.* (2012:675) refer to sportsmanship as "tolerating less-than-ideal circumstances or minor workplace distractions and discomforts without complaining". Organisational citizenship behaviour encourages individuals not to complain about their

work environments; rather they should carry out their work tasks with positive attitudes (Nadiri & Tanova 2010:34).

2.12.5 Courtesy

Courtesy includes behaviours that encourage positive attitude towards other employees and thereby reducing conflicts in an organisation (Kaur 2011:87). According to Sun, Chow, Chiu and Pan (2013:215), courtesy allows employees to create an atmosphere that instigates trust, openness, information sharing and respect. Yahaya *et al*. (2011:5726) emphasise that when employees in the organisation create a peaceful atmosphere, it becomes easier to work as a team towards attainment of organisationally desired outcomes.

Although the dimensions of OCB are voluntary behaviours that are not recognised through formal rewards, their impact is evident in organisational effectiveness. Budiman, Anantadjaya and Prasetyawati (2014:131) consider this behaviour as instrumental in elevating the organisation's desired outcomes.

Overall, research into OCB indicates that OCB can have a positive impact on both individual performance and organisational performance (Wang, Hinrichs, Prieto & Howell 2010:116). Previous research confirms that the realisation of organisational performance, cohesion, effectiveness and functionality depend primarily on employees' willingness to exert effort that go above and beyond in-role requirements (Podsakoff & MacKenzie 1997:134; Meh & Nasurdin 2009:1). Furthermore, research affirms that organisations may find it difficult to advance any of their goals without OCBs (Jahangir, Akbar & Haq 2004:75; Mohammad, *et al.* 2011:152; Batool 2012:284). Finally, Bogler and Somech (2004:280) argue that the enactment of these OCBs is needed to see the organisation through difficult and trying times.

2.13 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

How employees feel about their jobs play a significant role in the expression of OCB. Satisfied employees generally engage in extra-role behaviours and informal activities that benefit the organisation (Cohen & Keren 2008:435). Fatimah, Amiraa and Halim

(2011:116) found JS to be strongly related to OCB in the sense that satisfied employees are generally inclined to develop behaviours that extend beyond in-role requirements to help other employees (altruism) for the benefit of the entire organisation (Fatimah *et al.* 2011:116).

Modassir and Singh (2008:12) state that JS is related strongly to OCB, and in addition believe that JS predicts OCB. Employees with high level of JS are likely to commit to the organisation and engage in OCB (Altinoz *et al.* 2012:324). Furthermore, high satisfaction with one's job results in better performance and higher productivity levels, which make employees valuable assets to the organisation (Lumley *et al.* 2011:101). When employees are made to feel valuable and are encouraged to be involved in important decisions that affect their livelihood and sustainability of the organisation, the probability is that they may demonstrate high levels of JS and OC, which in turn lead to enhanced level of OCB.

Organisational commitment reflects the strength with which employees identify with and are involved in a particular organisation (Güleryüz *et al.* 2008:1627). The identification aspect, on one hand, means that employees have accepted the values and goals of the organisation (Jahangir *et al.* 2004:75). Their involvement aspect, on the other hand, in the organisation's processes and procedures demonstrate their readiness to exert effort in order to promote organisational effectiveness even though the behaviour will not result in any incentive or reward (Bogler & Somech 2004:279). Chong and Eggleton (2007:318) add that employees with high OC put organisational interests before their own interests. For this reason, organisational performance will increase in terms of profitability, productivity level and competitiveness (Law & Ngai 2008:2344).

A study by Zeinabadi and Salehi (2011:1473) on OCB among teachers indicate that OCB emanates from a high level of employee commitment, which in turn has a significant influence on employees' willingness to engage in positive and constructive behaviours that benefit the organisation (Donavan, Brown & Mowen 2004:131).

There seems to be consensus that there is a positive association between employees' JS, OC and OCB (Fisher *et al.* 2010:403; Mamman *et al.* 2012:286; Runhaar, Konermann & Sanders 2013:100). Organisational citizenship behaviour reflects employees' willingness to contribute to the other employees' satisfaction and optimal organisational productivity (Noor 2009:6). Improved OCB inhibits employee turnover, tardiness and conflicts (Ng &

Feldman 2011:529), and inspires employees' loyalty to an organisation (Runhaar *et al.* 2013:100). These behaviours are prompted by employees' attitudes (affective commitment and JS) in response to organisational fairness, equitable pay, promotion and effective supervision (Spector & Che 2014:169).

2.14 CONCLUSION

This chapter has reviewed and discussed the literature on JS, OC and OCB with the aim to provide greater understanding of the concepts. In this extensive exploration, key theories from which the study is based, were explored.

The literature continued to explain the nature of the aforementioned concepts. Apparent in the review of the literature was that each one of the concepts had its own antecedents and consequences, and in some way affected the behaviour of employees as individuals or team members and the organisation. The literature review further highlighted that a relationship existed between JS, OC and OCB.

The next chapter presents the research design and methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature reviewed in the previous chapter presented a theoretical framework for OC, JS, and organisational citizenship behaviour. This chapter provides the research design and methodology employed to address the objectives and hypotheses of the study. The methodology includes the identification of target population, sampling, measuring instruments, methods of data collection, and data analysis. The procedure used in administering the data collection instrument, the methods used to capture, process and analyse the data are discussed. The process and actions taken in ensuring and maintaining validity and reliability are also explained. Research methodology is an imperative component of a study as it provides logical explanations behind research methods and techniques.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a plan for collecting evidence that can be used to answer a research question and/or solve a research problem (Vogt 2007:8). It provides a framework from which data can be collected and analysed, and suggests research methods that are appropriate for the research process (Walliman 2011:182). According to Sahu (2013:26), research designs are of three types, namely an exploratory, causal or descriptive research design form.

Exploratory research focuses on exploring a research problem or situation through developing research priorities, formulating hypotheses, developing measurement scales as well as answering burning research questions (Mooi & Sarstedt 2011:15). According to Babbie (2014:94), exploratory research seeks to satisfy the researcher's curiosity and desire for better understanding; assesses the likelihood of understanding a complex study; and develops approaches that can be used in subsequent studies.

A causal research is another research design that can be utilised. In causal research design, the relationship between independent and dependent variables is determined with

the fundamental objective of establishing the causality (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:107). In this type of research design, the researcher predicts that a cause and effect relationship will occur between variables (Picardi & Masick 2014:23). A statistical analysis technique is used to predict the cause and effect relationship between variables of interest (Zikmund & Babin 2010:53).

A descriptive research design describes certain phenomena, features, qualities and properties (Babbie 2014:97). It depicts a graphic picture of a situation as it exists (Locke, Silverman & Spirduso 2010:96). This type of research illustrates a precise description of the features (behaviours, opinions, attitudes, perceptions and beliefs) of individuals, situation or a group that is observed during the research process (Vanderstoep & Johnston 2009:35). According to Babbie (2014:98), the features (behaviours, opinions, attitudes, perceptions and beliefs) and information about the population can be acquired by surveying a sample of that population.

Survey research is a process of collecting data from a representative sample of a total population, making use of statistical analysis to make inferences about the total population (Curtis & Curtis 2011:122). A survey was utilised in this study to elicit perceptions of sampled respondents at the water utility company in respect of JS, OC and OCB.

The advantage of using a survey as a method of collecting data is that it provides an opportunity to randomly sample a large group of respondents from the population at a relatively low cost in a short space of time (Vanderstoep & Johnston 2009:37). It also provides a "quantitative or a numeric description of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population" (Creswell 2014:13). In a number of studies this approach is called a descriptive survey research (Curtis & Curtis 2011:122; Wood & Ross-Kerr 2011:121; Creswell 2014:14). Advantages and disadvantages of a survey research are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1: Advantages and disadvantages of survey research

Advantages	Disadvantages
Questions are designed so that answers from individuals can be added together to produce results that apply to the whole sample.	Independent variables cannot be manipulated as they can in experimental research.
The research is based on interviews with a representative sample of respondents.	Wording of questions and the placement of items within questionnaires can have biasing effects on survey results.
The questions are designed to be unbiased.	If the sampling is largely unrepresentative, the results will have little relevance to other situations, even though the sample size may be quite large.
Surveys lend themselves to future replication.	
Large surveys can often be broken down.	
The cost of surveys is reasonable considering the amount of data collected.	

Source: Fox & Bayat (2007:87)

The next section focuses on research approaches, namely qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

3.3 QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACHES

The two approaches that normally are used in research are qualitative and quantitative research approaches. These approaches are determined by the priority a researcher attaches to the scope of the research process. A researcher may attach priority to exploring the meaning behind individuals' social perspective and/or focus on articulating causal and correlational relationship between independent variable and dependent variable as well as how they impact on the human behaviour in a specific setting (Punch 2014:209). The qualitative and quantitative research approaches are explained in the following sections.

3.3.1 Qualitative research approach

Qualitative research involves a subjective exploration and evaluation of attitudes, opinions and behaviours of categorical information (Santhakumaran & Sargunamary 2008:6). This means that a researcher uses his or her personal outlook, opinions and experience to establish and provide rich narrative descriptions of complex phenomenon without formulating hypotheses (Devlin 2006:53). The data collection methods that are used in qualitative research include focus group interviews, depth interviews and projective techniques (Rohilla 2010:44). Richards and Morse (2013:10) assert that qualitative research puts great emphasis on the quality and depth of information, and researchers are challenged to contribute to the trustworthiness of research by achieving clear and rigorous results that provide deeper meaning and understanding to a complex phenomenon.

3.3.2 Quantitative research approach

Quantitative research approach is a research approach that embraces an inferential approach to the relationship between theory and research (Bryman 2012:36). In quantitative research, data are collected in the form of numbers and analysed by means of structured statistical methods (Terre-Blanche, Durrheim & Painter 2006:47). Creswell (2014:4) refers to quantitative research as a research approach that serves as means to test objective theories by examining the relationship between two or more variables. Its focus is on the correlation between two or more variables (Babbie 2014:97).

The quantitative research approach is deeply entrenched in the philosophy of rationalism and follows a structured and predetermined sequence of procedures to study a phenomenon (Andres 2012:63). In quantitative research, the researcher is able to provide statistical facts and estimates about relationships between variables and to make general inferences about the target population (Wagner, Kawulich & Garner 2012:87). Thus, quantitative research is a systematic and structured approach, aimed at obtaining information from respondents in an undeviating and open manner (Du Plessis & Rousseau 2007:21).

This study is anchored on a quantitative research approach, which aims to establish the relationship between three variables, which are JS, OC and OCB. The approach was also

employed to determine the predictive relationship between JS and OC with OCB. Quantitative research approach was appropriate for the study because statistical facts and estimates about relationships between the aforementioned variables were provided, subsequently, conclusions were drawn and inferences made about the target population at the water utility company (Cooper & Schindler 2011:374).

3.4 THE SAMPLING PROCEDURE

In the research, it is difficult to include the whole population in the study. The researcher may select a subset or a relatively small portion of the total population and analyse data collected in order to make an inference about the whole target population (Punch 2014:244). The process of selecting a subset is called sampling. The primary idea behind sampling is that the researcher is able to draw certain conclusions and make general inferences about the population based on the results obtained from the representative sample (Berndt & Petzer 2011:165). In the next section, the following steps comprising the sampling procedure are discussed: identifying the target population, determining sampling frame, determining the sampling method, determining the sample size and determining the method of data collection.

3.4.1 Identifying the target population

Berndt and Petzer (2011:165) refer to a target population as a whole group of elements for which the researcher wants to make inferences. It is a group of people, objects or items from which a researcher takes a sample for study purposes (Awang, Muhammad & Sinnaduai 2012:31).

According to Goddard and Melville (2012:35), for a researcher to gather a general observation, a sample must be representative of the total population to be studied. For the purpose of this study, the target population comprises ± 3500 employees from all departments at the water utility company. The various departments at the water utility company are academy, human resources, finance, plants and support. Another inclusion criterion for the study was that employees should hold permanent, temporary or contract position at the water utility company. All categories of employees, namely general employees, supervisors, managers, officials and support staff, were included as elements of the target population.

3.4.2 Determining the sampling frame

To facilitate sampling, it is necessary for a researcher to work with an up-to-date sampling frame (Thyer 2010:124). A sampling frame is a complete list of all units in the target population (Kumar 2014:231). A list of employees was drawn from the human resource department database of employees at the water utility company.

3.4.3 Determining the sampling technique

Sampling technique or procedure refers to the method used by the researcher in the selection of cases to observe (Terre-Blanche *et al.* 2006:133). Important in quantitative research is to know how the sample units will be selected and which technique will be used to select the sample in the study (Vanderstoep & Johnston 2009:27). Sampling can be classified into two categories, namely non-probability sampling and probability sampling.

Awang *et al*. (2012:35) define non-probability sampling as "any sampling method where some elements of the population have no chance of selection or out of the area or coverage, or where the probability of selection cannot be accurately determined". Bryman (2012:187) describes non-probability sampling as a sample that has not been selected using a random selection method. It is used when the elements in a population cannot be independently identified (Kumar 2014:242). Essentially, this implies that some units in the population are more likely to be selected than others (Bryman 2012:187). In non-probability sampling, estimation of sampling error is not necessarily allowed, thus giving rise to exclusion bias (Awang *et al*. 2012:35). Non-probability sampling includes convenience sampling, quota sampling and purposive sampling (Adams, Khan & Raeside 2014:75).

Probability sampling, on the other hand, has been defined as a sample that has been selected using random selection so that each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected (Bryman 2012:187). Probability sampling ensures that no bias occurs during sampling (Salkind 2010:1213). In this study, a probability sampling was used to select a sample. There are a number of probability sampling methods that can be used to select a sample, however, a simple random sampling method was deemed appropriate for the study. Simple random sampling is a method that allows each element of the

population to have an equal and independent probability of being selected in the sample (Santhakumaran & Sargunamary 2008:33). In addition, the selection of elements of the sample in a population is random (Kumar 2014:234). According to Curtis and Curtis (2011:127), the randomness of probability sampling allows the researcher to use statistical inference or inferential statistics. Inferential statistics allows the researcher to infer about the overall population based on the indices randomly drawn from the sample (Welman, *et al*. 2005:237).

3.4.4 Determining the sample size

Another critical component in sampling is sample size. The sample size involves determining the number of elements of the population the researcher should include in the sample (Burns & Bush 2006:33). The sample size should not be too small or too large. Collis and Hussey (2014:198) emphasises that bigger sample size represents the whole population better than a smaller sample. Research findings in a bigger sample tend to be more accurate than when the sample is relatively small (Zikmund & Babin 2010:459). This means that a bigger sample reduces the probability of sampling error (Bryman 2012:198). Sampling error arises when some elements of the sample are excluded or when the total population is not accurately represented in the sampling frame (Zikmund & Babin 2010:417). To avoid sampling error, Kumar (2014:246) suggests that answers to the following questions should be provided:

- What confidence interval estimates are acceptable to generalise the results, findings and reject the hypotheses?
- How accurate should the estimation of the population parameters be?
- What is the estimated level of dispersion of a set of data?

To determine a sufficient sample size of 400, the researcher needed to identify the total number of the population working in the organisation under investigation (N=3500). In this respect, Leedy and Ormrod (2014:216) submit that for a bigger population that has over 1500 and beyond, the population size is considered irrelevant, and a sample size of 400 should be considered as sufficient. A sample of 400 was deemed adequate to conduct the study and to mirror the total population under investigation.

3.4.5 Determining the method of data collection

Fink (2010:110) affirms that data collection is the heart of a study because it determines the validity and accuracy of research. It is the researcher's responsibility to choose the method of collecting data to suit the study. These methods range from administering achievement tests and survey questionnaires to telephone interviews. In this study, the data were collected by means of a questionnaire. A questionnaire is a detailed set of closed or open-ended questions that respondents must answer (McNabb 2013:147). Babbie (2014:262) defines a questionnaire as "a document comprising questions and other types of items designed to collect information appropriate for analysis". In research, this method of data collection is considered the most popular method to collect primary data. The design of a questionnaire is very important, as it will have a significant impact on whether the problem or gap will be solved or not (Walliman 2011:190). Wiid and Diggines (2009:172) posit that a questionnaire should serve the following purposes:

- It should gather data related to solving the identified problem
- It should gather data that can be well matched
- It should avoid prejudices
- It should encourage respondents to be involved in the survey
- It should encourage respondents to respond as authentic and truthful as possible
- It should make the assignment of the interviewer and the data processing activities easy.

A structured questionnaire was used to glean data from employees at the water utility company. A structured questionnaire comprised of closed-ended questions or statements with multiple options for respondents to choose from (Babbie 2014:263). A structured questionnaire was sent by e-mail and hand delivered to all the participants to allow participants enough time to read and complete questionnaires in their own time. A total of 400 questionnaires was distributed to respondents, 250 were completed and returned, and 150 were not returned. A total of 250 questionnaires was finally used in the study.

The following guidelines, as illustrated in Figure 4, were followed when designing the questionnaire for the current study.

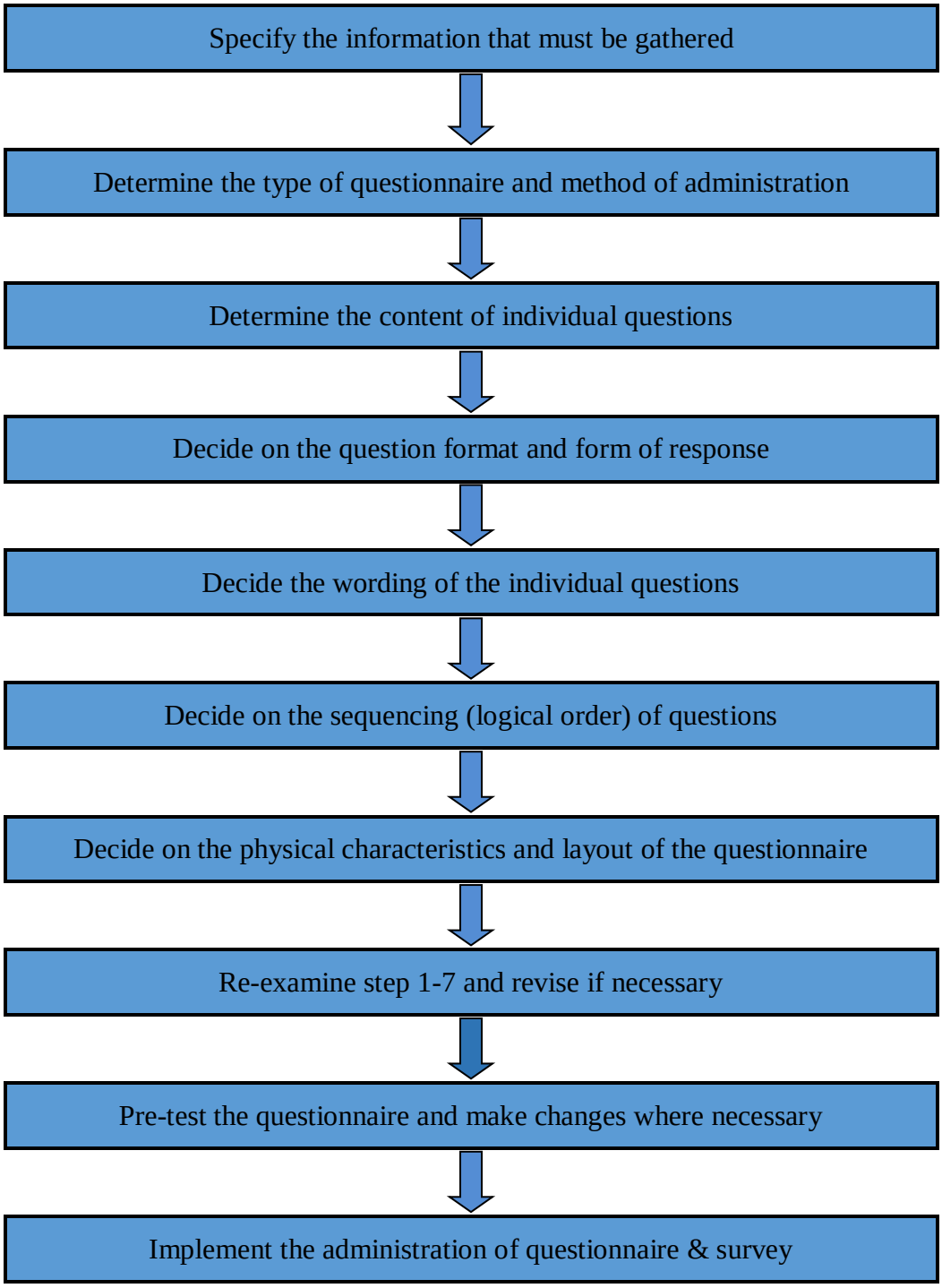

Figure 4: Guidelines for designing a questionnaire

Source: Wiid and Diggines (2009:172)

The questionnaire was divided into four sections. Section A focused on demographic variables, sections B, C and D measured JS, OC and OCB, respectively and each section of the measuring scale was explained in Chapter 1.

3.5 PILOTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A pilot study is defined as "a procedure for testing and validating an instrument by administering it to a small group of participants from the intended test population" (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport 2011:237). Piloting the questionnaire means undertaking the research process with a group of few respondents from the target population, who will not be included in the main study in order to test the reliability of the questionnaire (Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam 2008:99). According to Blair, Czaja and Balir (2014:31), piloting the questionnaire is done in order to establish and ensure that the researcher through this questionnaire will be able to obtain data that will aid in achieving the objectives of the study. Andres (2012:27) adds that piloting a questionnaire is necessary to test the following factors:

- That the questions are clearly understood by the respondents as intended by the researcher.
- That the language used in the formation of questions is both appropriate and comprehensible to the respondents.
- To test various translations of the same question.
- To ascertain consistency in the arrangement of the questions.

Piloting aims to maximise dependability and consistency (Fink 2010:184). The researcher piloted the questionnaire on 50 employees working at the water utility company in order to determine if respondents could easily understand it. An analysis of the data obtained from the pilot study was done in order to check for accuracy and reliability of the questionnaire. A pilot study can reveal deficiencies in the instruments, which can be addressed before the actual distribution of questionnaires takes place (Picardi & Masick 2014:45). Necessary adjustments and changes were made to the final questionnaire in order to maintain reliability and accuracy.

These adjustments included an indication to the respondents what each number of the scale meant, namely 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree or agree, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree. The final questionnaire can be viewed in Annexure B. The results of the pilot study indicated the Cronbach alpha value of 0.80 for JS, 0.90 for OC

and 0.80 for OCB. Therefore, all the individual scales were deemed reliable and accepted as recommended (Fox & Bayat 2007:125).

3.6 DATA PREPARATION

Once the fieldwork was completed, the researcher prepared data for editing, coding and final analysis. Zikmund and Babin (2010:491) state that after collection of data, it may not be in a ready state for analysis. They further state that there may be errors that might need to be cleaned first. An array of research studies emphasise the importance of preliminary preparation of data which encompasses editing the data, coding, classification and tabulating the responses into frequencies or tables prior to the data being analysed using statistical techniques (Kothari 2004:122; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2009:46 & Stangor 2014:346). The two major phases of data preparation, which have been employed in this study, were data editing and coding. Editing and coding are addressed in this section while classification and tabulation are discussed in the next chapter.

3.6.1 Editing

It is expected that respondents can make mistakes in completing questionnaires, thus, checking for possible mistakes in data processing is an important exercise through a process called editing. Editing is the process of assessing and adjusting the raw data collected in questionnaires or interviews to detect mistakes and omissions and to see that they are corrected and the schedules prepared for tabulation (Sam & Sam 2011:178). Zikmund and Babin (2010:493) define editing of data as "the process of checking the completeness, consistency and legibility of data and making the data ready for coding and transfer to storage". Completed questionnaires were examined meticulously to ensure accuracy and consistency of data, and suitability of data for further processing through coding and recording (Khan 2011:189).

3.6.2 Coding

Coding is the process of breaking down, scrutinising, comparing, conceptualising and categorising research data which will be grouped into categories (Jonker & Pennink 2010:139). Singh (2007:82) refers to coding as "the process of conceptualising research data and classifying them into meaningful and relevant categories for the purpose of data analysis and interpretation". The process of coding involves assigning numerical scores or

other symbols to previously edited data so that the data can be grouped and analysed (Denscombe 2005:239).

The questionnaires were hand coded from one to 50 for the pilot study and from one to 400 for the main study by allocating a number to each questionnaire for identification. Section A (biographic information) of the questionnaire was also hand coded from item A1 to A8 by allocating numbers for each item, for example gender was coded 1=male and 2=female. The pre-coding was done throughout the questionnaire by providing a set of pre-arranged response alternatives to each respective question and allocating a number to each question and response in sections A, B, C and D of the questionnaire. A five-point Likert scale was used and consisted of: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree or agree, 4=agree to 5=strongly agree. This technique was useful for computer tabulation, which will be addressed in Chapter 4.

3.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Converting collected data into readable and numerical form as well as analysing results is of utmost importance in a quantitative study (Sarantakos 2013:417). The purpose of statistical analysis is not restricted to organising data into tabular forms and drawing graphs, but also to explain and refine concepts, terms and statements in the research study, discover what is important to know and deciding on a form of communicating observations (Fox & Bayat 2007:106). To be able to make logical conclusions and recommendations to the findings of the study, it is profoundly necessary to collect, break down and analyse the data using a technique called statistical analysis (Fox & Bayat 2007:105). Statistical analysis can be categorised into four categories, namely descriptive, association, causal and inference techniques as illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2: Categories of data analysis techniques

Category	Aim	Methods of analysis
Descriptive	Describe the distribution of the sample (numerical data) Frequency Central tendency Dispersion	Univariate (focusing on one variable)
Association	Assess the association of the position of one variable with the likely position of another variable Correlation Analysis of variance Regression	Bivariate (comparing two variables)
Causal	Determine the network of relationship between variables Factor analysis Path analysis Regression	Multivariate (comparing more than two variables)
Inference	Estimate population characteristics from sample characteristics and sample differences to population differences Different types of tests of significance	Multivariate

Source: De Vos *et al.* (2011:251)

3.7.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics methods are "used to describe the distribution (or spread) of a sample or population across a wide range of variables using all four levels of measurement, namely nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio measurements" (De Vos *et al.* 2011:251). They are used to explore the collected data, provide a summary of observations found in the data and interpret data (Awang *et al*. 2012:42). McBurney and White (2009: 392) refer to descriptive statistics as the summary of a set of data, including measures of central tendency such as mean, median and mode measures of the spread or variation in the distribution such as range, variance and standard deviation.

Univariate analysis identified as one of the descriptive analysis methods was undertaken using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) (version 23 for Windows). Data were entered into an Excel spreadsheet and then copied to the SPSS software for analysis (Bryman 2012:356). Descriptive analysis in this study was performed by means of SPSS to calculate the means, standard deviations and frequencies.

3.7.1.1 Mean

The mean is "a measure of central tendency that measures the average value in a given distribution" (Picardi & Masick 2014:180). It is the most commonly used measure of central tendency, as it sums up the values of the characteristics and dividing them by the total number of the same characteristics (Graveller & Wallnau 2014:66). Means for this study were reported in Chapter 4.

3.7.1.2 Standard deviation

Standard deviation is a more complicated measure of spread of data or dispersion around the mean (Gravetter & Wallnau 2014:107). Standard deviation is the tool that measures the average difference between each score and the spread of the dataset around the mean (Bernstein, Pooley, Cohen, Gouldthorp, Provost, Cranney & Penner 2013:52). If the spread of data is low, the sample value will be close to the mean. The higher spread of data indicates that the sample value tends to be too far from the mean (Awang *et al.* 2012:44). Standard deviation of spread of dataset or dispersion is calculated by the square root of the variance (Picardi & Masick 2014:182). Standard deviations for this study were reported in Chapter 4.

3.7.1.3 Frequencies

Frequency is a type of descriptive statistic that is used to summarise how many times characteristics appear in each category of the scale of measurement (Rubin 2013:34). Commonly, a frequency table or frequency distribution is used to summarise data (O'Donoghu 2012:35). Sharma (2007:31) outlines a number of advantages for making use of distribution frequency to summarise and interpret data:

- It can be easy and quick to observe the pattern of distribution of scores
- Frequency distribution allows the researcher to make use of more sophisticated statistical techniques, which may uncover other ambiguous characteristics of the data.

Frequencies can also be articulated in percentages to assist in interpreting the pattern of scores (Rubin 2013:34). In this study, percentages were used to interpret the pattern of scores. These percentages were provided in Chapter 4.

3.7.2 Inferential methods

Inferential statistics are statistics that assist the researcher to draw conclusions regarding the population based on the information about the sample drawn (Vogt 2007:57). In this manner, the researcher is able to make a distinction between population parameters, for example the mean and standard deviation (Wagner *et al.* 2012:203). Inferential statistics allow the researcher to test hypotheses, assess the intensity of the relationship between constructs or variables and generalise about the population based on the sample (Fox & Bayat 2007:125).

Reference is made of Pearson correlation, Spearman correlation, chi-square, paired t-test, independent t-test, simple regression, multiple regression and Wilcoxon rank-sum tests as methods and techniques that can be used to make inferences and conduct analyses of variances (Bernhardt 2013:13). Multivariate analysis is another method of analysis that concurrently analyse two or more variables (Bryman 2012:345). Multivariate analysis method was employed in this study with the use of Pearson's correlation, factor analysis and multiple regression analysis to determine the network of relationships in sections B-D of the questionnaire.

3.7.2.1 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a process that is used to analyse the data to determine which statements can be grouped together in manageable sets (Bradley 2013:321). Additionally, it is a technique that is utilised to determine patterns among constructs and evaluate how these underlying constructs correlate with each other (Wesley 2006:4). Essentially, factor analysis identifies core variables that describe patterns among the variables to determine correlations on the identified variables (Meyer, Gamst & Guarino 2009:77). The function of factor analysis is to calculate factor loadings and reveal the correlation coefficients between variables (Muijs 2011:224). The meanings of factor loadings are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Factor loading analysis

Factor loading analysis		Interpretation
Very high factor loading	(>0.6)	The variable describes the factor very well
High factor loading	(>0.3)	The variable describes the factor well
Low factor loading	(<0.3)	The variable should be ignored

Source: Bradley (2013:321)

There are two types of factor analysis documented, the exploratory factors analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factors analysis (CFA). Exploratory factor analysis is used when there is a need to explore a new area in research (Wesley 2006:4) and aims at analysing the correlation between a number of variables. However, these variables are examined without determining the extent to which the findings fit a specific model (Bryman & Cramer 2009:323). Confirmatory factor analysis is used to test which hypothesis best explains and summarises the data collected (Wesley 2006:4). For this study, a CFA was employed. Even so, prior to performing factors analysis, it is imperative to determine if the data set is suitable for factor analysis. The techniques used to determine the suitability of data set are Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test, also known as Bartlett's test of sphericity.

KMO measure of sampling adequacy is a statistical indicator that tests the adequacy of the sample size (Ren & Du 2014:379). Hinton, McMurray and Brownlow (2014:341) state that when the value of KMO measure of sampling adequacy is 0.5 or higher, it indicates that data are suitable for factor analysis. The values of inter-item correlations should be closer to one in order to consider those relations as strong (Di Lorio 2005:252).

According to Ren and Du (2014:379), the Bartlett's test should also be conducted as it tests whether the relevant matrix is an identity matrix or not. Bartlett's test, also known as Bartlett's test of sphericity, is used to test "whether the distribution of a variable has the same variance in all groups" (Dalgaard 2008:136). This test should be done to verify whether homogeneity of variances exists and to determine if factor analysis is appropriate (Singh 2007:102). The Bartlett's test value should be significant ($p<.05$) for data to be factorable (Williams, Brown & Onsman 2012:5).

3.7.2.2 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis examines the degree to which variances in one variable can be associated with variances in one or more other variables (McBurney & White 2009:399). According to McBurney and White (2009:399), correlation can only be realised in an instance where an increase or decrease in one variable causes an increase or decrease in one or two other variables, following a predictable pattern. The assumption is that the changes in one variable influence the changes in another (Gates 2010:448). It is important to examine the statistical significance of a computed correlation coefficient in order to determine to what degree will the coefficient be found in the population (Bryman 2012:349). In this study, correlation analysis was conducted between JS and OC, OC and OCB as well as JS and OCB.

3.7.2.3 Regression analysis

Regression analysis is a method of data analysis that is used to predict the value of one or more variables to another variable based on their correlation (Leedy & Ormrod 2014:301). It is a statistical procedure that predicts the association of one independent variable to another dependent variable (Aaker Kumar, Leone, & Day 2013:631). Regression analysis is a method that aids in examining the coefficient or limitations of a developed model (Adams *et al.* 2014:203). There are two forms of regression analysis, namely simple linear regression and multiple linear regression.

A linear regression analysis is often used to explain a simple equation in which the changes in one independent variable predict the changes in another dependent variable (Singh 2007:151). A multiple regression analysis produces an equation in which two or more independent variables are used to predict a single dependent variable (Leedy & Ormrod 2014:301). In this study, multiple regression analysis was conducted for sections B, C and D to detect the predictive relationship between JS and OC, and OCB. The results of the regression analysis are discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

3.8 RELIABILITY ISSUES

Reliability is the extent to which a measuring instrument which is used at different times yields the same results consistently thereby articulating the integrity of a research project (Collis & Hussey 2014:217). Therefore, reliability can be defined as “the consistency

with which a measure produces the same results with the same or comparable populations" (McDaniel & Gate 2010:140). Reliability "can be estimated from the correlation of the observed test score with the true score" (Kaplan & Saccuzzo 2013:106). The true score is, according to Revelle and Zinbarg (2009:145), that which the researcher would find the same in a number of tests measuring the same concept, and thus reflect consistent results. Estimating reliability is intended at reducing inaccuracies that may cause errors to the measurement process and compromise the reliability of the study (Kimberlin & Winterstein 2008:2277).

Internal consistency measures how well the items of the questionnaire measure the same concept and can be measured using Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Muijs 2011:63). Internal consistency of sections B, C and D was tested using Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:506), Cronbach's alpha coefficient is commonly used in measuring coefficient of reliability and normally has a value range from zero to one. A value of 0.40 to 0.60 indicates moderate internal consistency reliability and a value of 0.60 to 0.80 indicates substantial internal consistency reliability (Fox & Bayat 2007:125). Pietersen and Maree (2007:216) points out that when the items of the scale strongly correlate with each other, they are said to have high internal consistency with alpha coefficient of close to one. Guidelines to Cronbach's alpha coefficient are expressed in Table 4.

Table 4: Guidelines to Cronbach's alpha coefficient

Cronbach's alpha coefficient	
1.00	A perfect correlation
0.80-0.99	A high correlation
0.60-0.80	A substantial correlation
0.40-0.60	A reasonable (moderate correlation)
0.20-0.40	A low correlation
0.00-0.20	A very low correlation or no correlation at all

Source: Fox and Bayat (2007:125)

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used in this study to establish the internal consistency of the five JS items, 20 OC items and five OCB item constructs and the results were reported in Chapter 4.

3.9 VALIDITY ISSUES

The validity of an instrument is the extent to which the instrument accurately measures what it purports to measure (Gray 2009:375). McBurney and White (2009:173) state that validity is "an indication of accuracy in terms of the extent to which a research conclusion corresponds with reality". Adams *et al.* (2014:248) are of the view that validity plays a key role in research, postulating that if the measuring instrument does not measure what it purports to measure, it will be useless to use even if it yields the same results consistently. Muijs (2011:57) advances that validity is the most important element in a survey research. Therefore, designing the right measuring instrument is of great importance. The literature indicates three main forms or types of validity, namely content, criterion and construct validity (Cooper & Schindler 2011:48). Table 5 highlights measures and methods of each type of validity.

Table 5: The types of validity

Type	What is measured	Methods
Content	Degree to which the content of the items adequately represent the universe of all relevant items under study	Judgmental or panel evaluation
Criterion related	Degree to which the predictor is adequate in capturing the relevant aspects of the criterion	Correlation
Construct	Identifies the underlying construct being measured and determine how well the test represents them	Judgmental: correlation of proposed test with established one: Confirmatory factor analysis: Multivariate-multi-method analysis and convergent-discriminant techniques

Source: Cooper and Schindler (2011:48)

3.9.1 Face validity

Face validity refers to whether the instrument seems to be measuring what is purports to measure at a glance (Polit, & Beck 2014:204). The instrument is considered to have face validity if it is convincing to the sample that it will test what it is supposed to test (McBurney & White 2009:131). Jones (2015:103) states that even though face validity does not tender the instrument to be adequately valid, it is important to establish it, as it assists in establishing other components of validity and further ensures that the respondents are not subjected to answering questions that are irrelevant to the research study. Face validity was ascertained in this study through performing a pilot test on a sample size of 50 respondents. Results were reported in Section 3.5.

3.9.2 Content validity

Content validity refers to the extent to which the instrument covers the complete content associated with a particular construct that it supposed to measure (Pietersen & Maree 2007:217). McBurney and White (2009:131) define content validity as the "idea that a test should sample the range of behaviour represented by the theoretical concept being tested". Fink (2010:117) describes content validity as the extent to which a measure systematically and properly measures the skills or characteristics it is meant to measure. A measurement instrument is considered to have content validity when its contents proportionally represent different elements of the domain (Polit, & Beck 2014:205). It consists of meaningfulness of research contents and describes the extent to which the instrument covers the objectives of the research (Drost 2011:114). Andres (2012:117) states that the determination of validity is contingent to: undertaking a comprehensive literature review; examining preceding survey instruments; seeking experts' guidance; and piloting the instrument with a small portion of a population from which a sample is drawn. Content validity was established through a thorough and appropriate literature review, examination of prior instruments, pilot testing the instrument and consulting academic experts in the field of organisational behaviour to confirm the relevance of items/statements covered in the questionnaire.

3.9.3 Construct validity

Construct validity is the degree to which the conclusions of the research support the theory that the research project is based on (McBurney & White 2009:130). The instrument in construct validity measures an unseen (not tangible) characteristic, yet is presumed to exist on the basis of people's behavioural pattern (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Walker 2014:31.). Construct validity focuses on how well a measure conforms to theoretical expectations (Punch 2014:240). McBurney and White (2009:130) posit that to determine whether the instrument produces data that have construct validity, the instrument should measure the construct it is designed to measure; it should also predict the results that are related to the theoretical construct it is designed to measure. Construct validity was ascertained in this study through exploratory factor analysis. Results were reported in Chapter 4.

3.9.4 Convergent validity

Convergent validity is the degree to which items which make up the scale correlate in the same direction with other instruments measuring the same construct (Moutinho & Hutcheson 2011:327). In essence, an instrument is said to have high convergent validity when it yields comparable results to other tested instruments that measure the same constructs in the sale field (Johnson & Christensen 2010:148). For the purpose of this study, correlation analysis was used to establish convergent validity of the variables in Section B (JS), Section C (OC) and Section D (OCB). The results were reported in Chapter 4.

3.9.5 Predictive validity

As with other components of validity, predictive validity finds its true manifestation in theory. When a measure is developed, it is important to refer to previous instruments and expert guidance (Muijs 2011:58). Predictive validity relates to whether or not a measure predicts the results that theoretically are expected to be produced (Fink 2010:117). In this study, predictive validity was assessed by showing how well OC predicts JS and JS predicts OCB. Predictive validity is established by "determining whether the measure predicts future events that are logically related to the construct" (Terre-Blanche *et al*.

2006:148). Thus, predictive validity was established in this study through the results of the regression analysis in Section 4.7 of Chapter 4.

3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research is the process that involves people, and is based purely on mutual trust, cooperation, and mutual expectations between the researcher and participants (De Vos *et al.* 2011:113). Researchers need to do their utmost best to establish a rapport with respondents based on trust. Participants need to know that they are protected and their personal information will not be used for any other reason other than the research project (Creswell 2014:92). Ethics are "preferences that influence behaviour in human relations, conforming to a code of principles, the rules of conduct, the responsibility of the researcher and the standards of conduct of a given profession" (De Vos *et al.* 2011:114).

The following ethical considerations, relevant to this study, were adhered to:

- The researcher obtained permission from the employee relations manager and the communications officers of the water utility company to conduct the study
- The researcher obtained permission to administer the questionnaire
- The researcher informed each respondent about the purpose of the survey
- Participation in the study was voluntary because respondents were not forced to participate in the study and could withdraw at any stage of the study
- Personal data of the respondents was processed fairly and used only for the purpose of the study
- The researcher did not mislead any respondent who participated in the study
- Respondents were not required to supply their names in the questionnaire, thus maintaining anonymity in the research process
- Confidentiality was ensured by not revealing responses pertinent to individual respondents.

3.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the descriptive survey design and quantitative research approach that were used in the study. The sample procedure comprising of the following steps was undertaken: the target population and a list of employees was obtained from the human resource department database. A simple random sampling technique was used to select

respondents. A questionnaire was used to collect data from a sample of four hundred (400) respondents. Reliability of the questionnaire was established through Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The validity of the measuring instrument was tested by means of following validities: face, content, construct, convergent and predictive.

Statistical analysis was utilised to convert collected data to tabular forms as well as making sense of concepts through breaking down and analysing the data. A descriptive method, which was used in the study, included the calculation of the means, standard deviations and frequencies. The manner in which inferential statistics was utilised was also described. Various inferential statistical methods such as Pearson's correlation, factor analysis and multiple regression analysis were explained. Ethical requirements to which the researcher adhered were also outlined.

The next chapter presents the findings of the empirical study. It includes reporting, analysis and interpretation of the research results related to the objectives of the study.

CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the research design and methodology used in the study. In Chapter 4, reference was made to the research approach followed, sampling procedure (i.e. target population, sample size, the sampling techniques and the data collection method), the measuring instrument and piloting the questionnaire. The data preparation process, data analysis, statistical techniques and the methods used to ensure reliability and validity of the questionnaire were also discussed.

This chapter presents the analysis of data and discussion of the results. The results of the pilot study, descriptive statistics of the sample, factor analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis are reported and interpreted in this chapter.

4.2 PILOT STUDY

The purpose of the pilot study was to test the internal reliability of the measuring instrument. A structured questionnaire was administered on a group of few respondents (50) from the target population. Andres (2012:27) advises that a pilot study should be conducted to ensure that respondents understand the questions as intended by the researcher, check the sequence of the questions as well as testing in order to determine deficiencies. Following Andres's (2012:27) advice, minor changes were made to the questionnaire, where each number of the scale was explained, namely 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree or agree, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree.

The internal consistency of sections B, C and D was further determined by calculating the reliability values for the three sections of the questionnaire using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Cronbach's alpha coefficient precisely indicates the degree to which items of the scale reflect internal reliability (Cohen *et al*. 2007:506). Fox and Bayat (2007:125) opine that the items of the scale are said to be substantially reliable when they correlate with a value of 0.60 to 0.80 and considered high when the correlation is between 0.80 and 0.90. Table 6 indicates the reliability values obtained from the pilot study.

Table 6: Reliability statistics of sections B, C and D of the questionnaire

Sections	N of items	Cronbach's alpha
JS (Section B)	5	0.80
OC (Section C)	20	0.90
OCB (Section D)	5	0.80

The results shown in Table 6 indicated that the items of the measuring instrument sufficiently encapsulated the essence of the study, in respect of JS, OC and OCB. Cronbach's alpha value for JS was 0.80, the Cronbach's alpha values for OC and OCB were 0.90 and 0.80 respectively. Overall, the results of the three constructs (JS, OC and OCB) were verified and reported reliable, as they exceeded the threshold value of 0.70 (Osborne 2008:48; Malhotra 2013:269). The acceptable reliability values were indicated in Chapter 3.

Subsequent to the pilot study, 400 questionnaires were distributed for the main study. Of the 400 questionnaires distributed, 250 were completed and returned, resulting in a response rate of 62.5 percent. Rubin and Babbie (2011:389) suggest that 50 percent response rate is adequate to run the statistical analysis and reporting, while 60 and above is deemed a good response rate.

The next section highlights the results of Section A (demographic profile) for the main study.

4.3 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

A descriptive analysis of Section A (Demographic information) is presented in this section, and consists of the following properties: gender, marital status, age category, race, qualification, years of service, job status and position. This study made use of graphical representations in the form of pies and column charts on the eight items in Section A of the questionnaire.

4.3.1 Gender

Figure 5 shows the percentages of respondents based on the gender distribution of the sample.

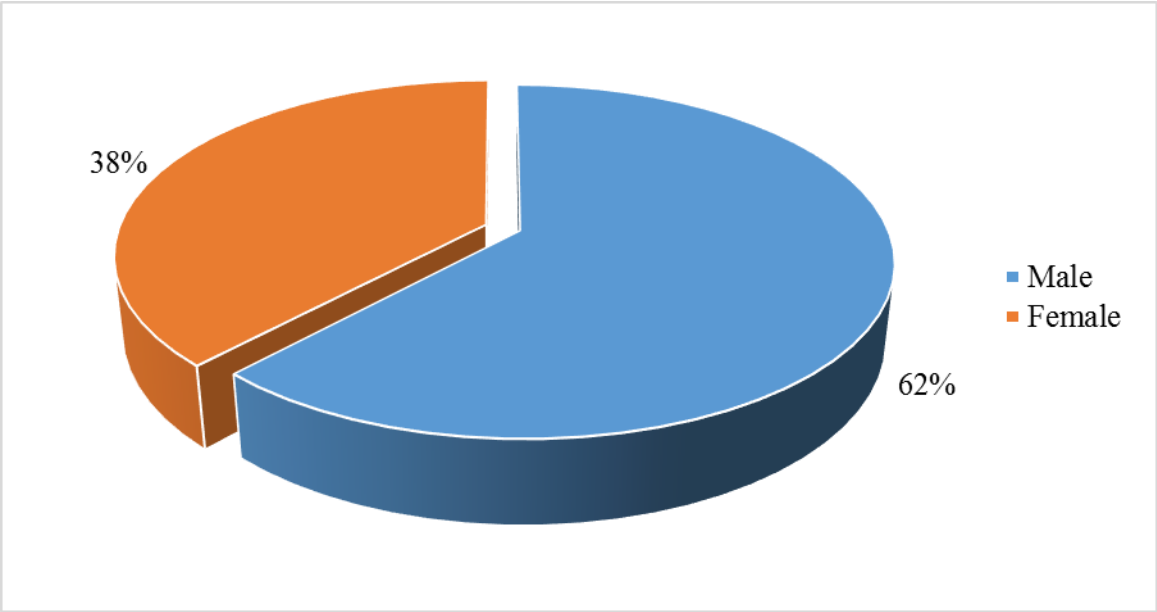

Figure 5: Gender

Figure 5 depicts that the majority (62 %; n=154) of male respondents participated in this study, while females constituted 38 percent (n=96).

4.3.2 Marital status

Figure 6 illustrates the marital status of the respondents.

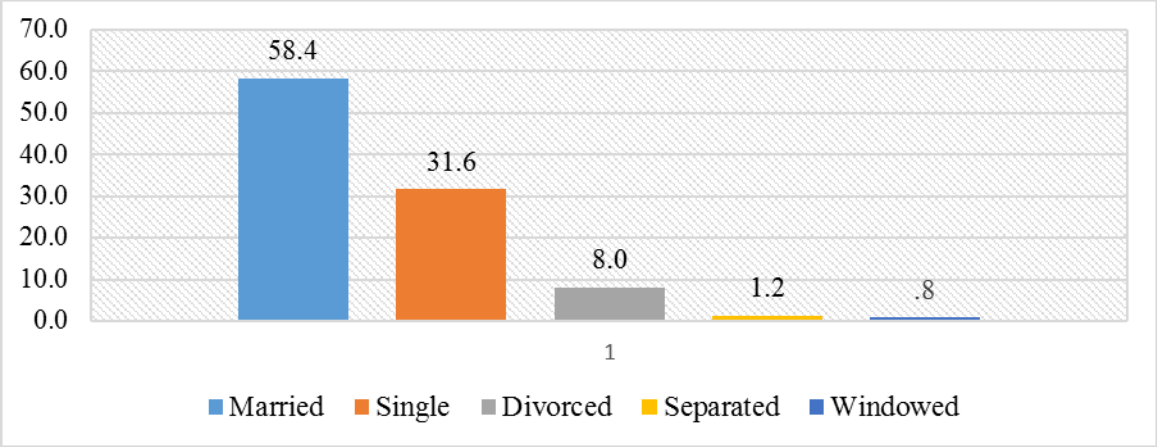

Figure 6: Marital status of respondents

The figure revealed that 58.4 percent (n=146) of respondents were married, followed by 31.6 percent (n=79) who were single. Divorced respondents represented 8 percent (n=20). Respondents who were separated represented 1.2 percent (n=3), while widowed respondents made up 0.8 percent (n=2) of the sample.

4.3.3 Age category

Figure 7 indicates the age category to which respondents belong.

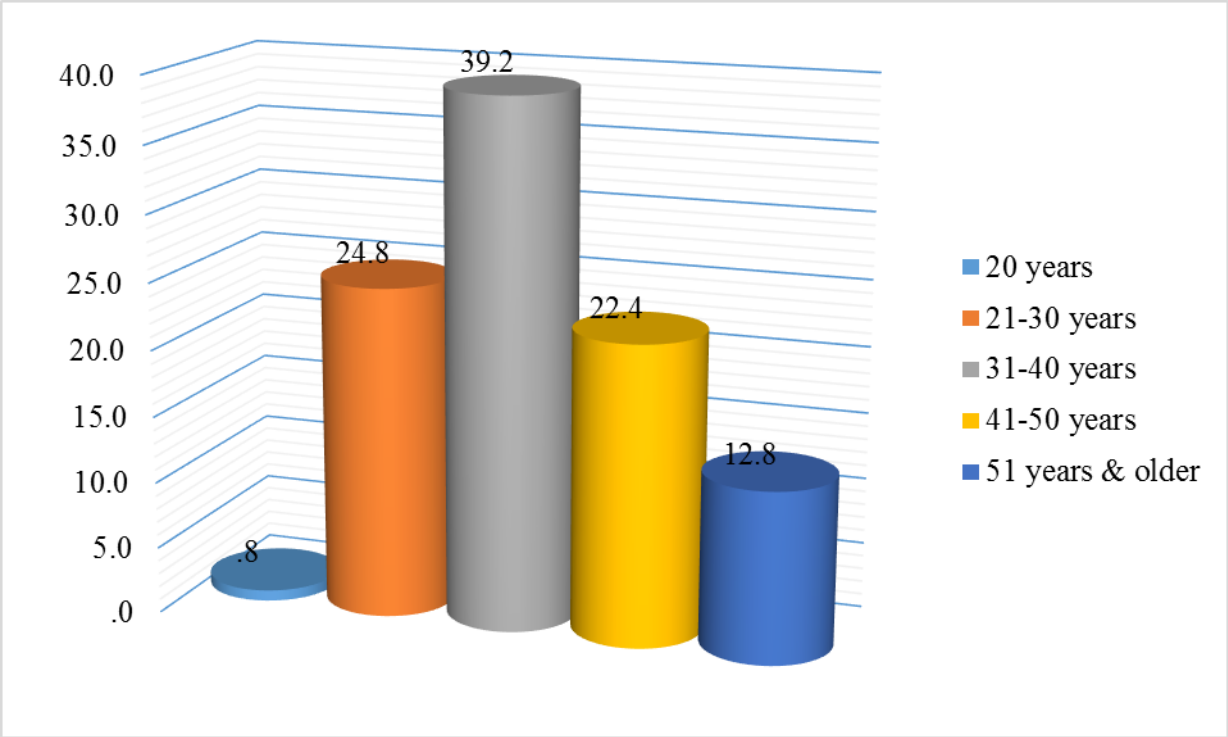

Figure 7: Age category

Respondents in this study ranged from 20 years of age to 51 years and above. The age group between 31 and 40 years constituted the majority of the sample (39.2%; n=98), followed by 24.8 percent (n=62) of respondents in the category of ages between 21 and 30 years. The figure indicates that the respondents between 41 and 50 years of age comprised 22.4 percent (n=56). Respondents between the age group 51 years and older represented 12.8 percent (n=32) of the sample, whilst the smallest percentage (8%; n=2) was represented by employees who were 20 years and younger.

4.3.4 Race

Figure 8 indicates the race of the respondents.

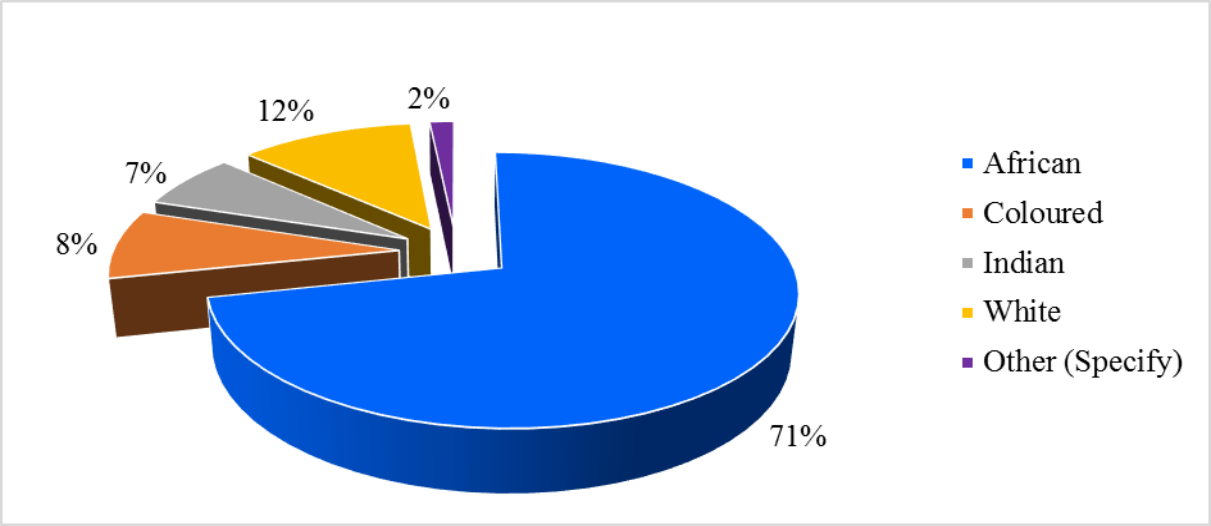

Figure 8: Race

Figure 8 reveals that the majority of the respondents were African with 71 percent (n=179), followed by 12 percent (n=29) of their white counterparts. Coloureds represented 8 percent (n=21) of respondents and the remaining 7 percent (n=17) and 2 percent (n=4) represented Indians and other races respectively.

4.3.5 Highest qualification

Figure 9 reflects the highest level of qualification that respondents possessed.

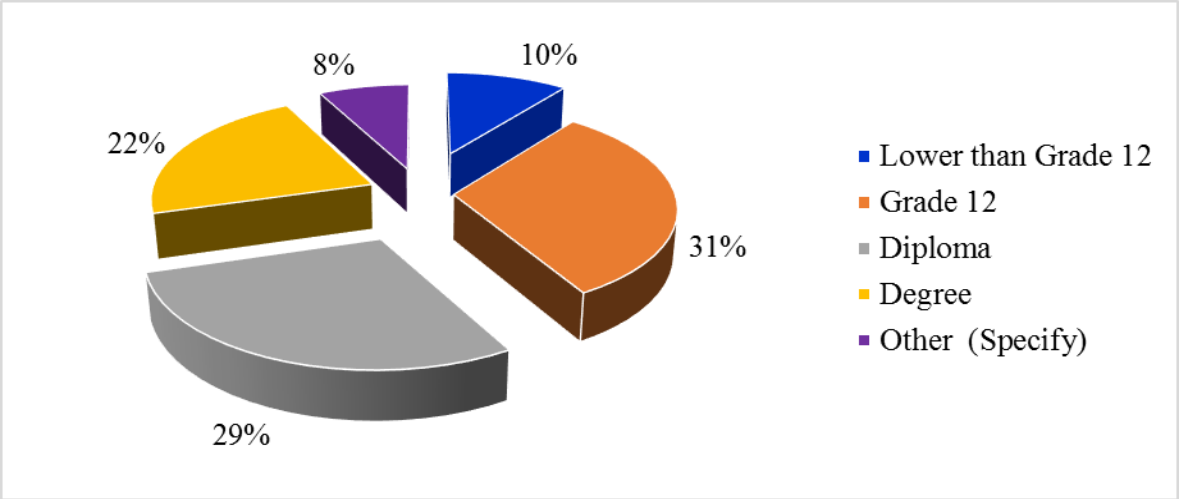

Figure 9: Highest qualification

Respondents that held a grade 12 certificate constituted 31 percent (n=78) of the sample, whilst 29 percent (n=72) held a diploma. Only 22 percent (n=55) of the respondents had acquired a degree qualification. A small percentage 10 percent (n=26) of respondents indicated that they had lower than a grade 12 qualification. The lowest percentage 8 percent (n=19) of respondents held other qualifications.

4.3.6 Years of service

Figure 10 reflects the years of service the respondents had with the water utility company.

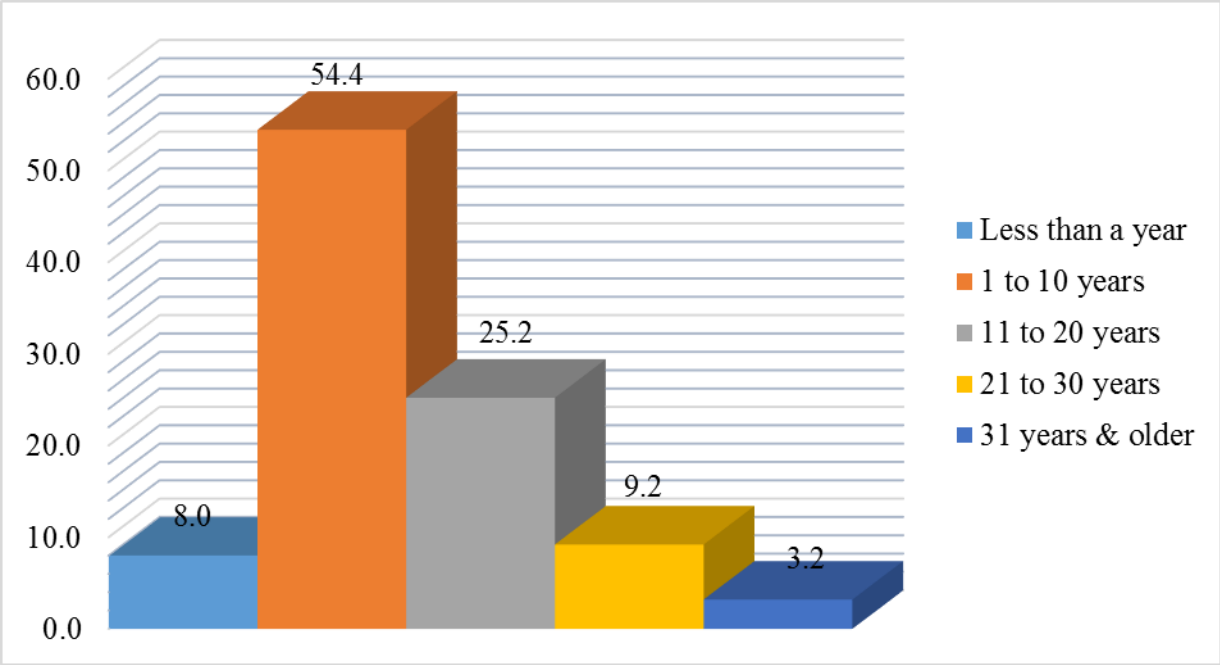

Figure 10: Years of service

An analysis of Figure 10 indicates that the highest percentage (54.4%; n=136) of respondents had been working for the organisation for 1-10 years, followed by a 25.2 percent (n=63) of respondents who had been in the service of the organisation for 11-20 years. Those in the category of 21-30 years of service comprised 9.2 percent (n=23) of the sampled respondents. In the category of 31 years and more, respondents made up 8.0 percent (n=20) of the sample and 3.2 percent (n=8) for those who were less than a year.

4.3.7 Current job status

Figure 11 represents percentages of responses about the current job status of respondents.

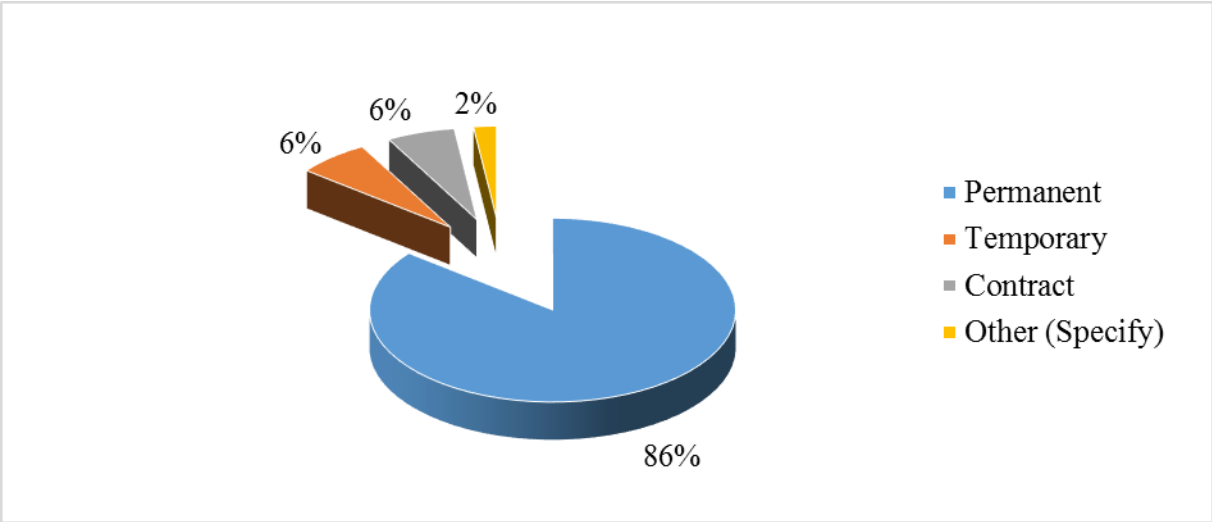

Figure 11: Current job status

The majority of respondents were permanent 86 percent (n=214), followed by 6 percent (n=16) of respondents in temporary employment. The figure also reveals that 6 percent (n=15) of respondents were employed in a contract basis. The lowest percentage of the sampled respondents were in the other category (2% n=5).

4.3.8 Current position

Figure 12 illustrates the positions the respondents held within the organisation.

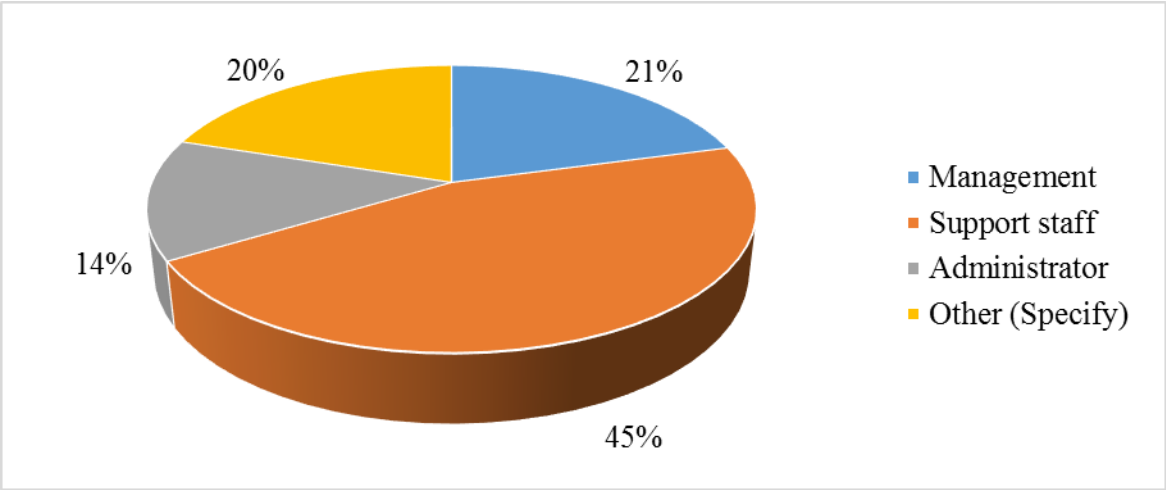

Figure 12: Current position

The majority of respondents were support staff (45% n=114), followed by 21 percent (n=52) of respondents in the management category. Other category constituted 20 percent (n=49) of respondents, while 14 percent (n=35) categorised administrators in the sample.

The following section reports overall mean scores of the items in sections B, C and D.

4.4 OVERALL MEANS FOR SECTIONS B, C AND D

The mean scores of the items in sections B, C and D of the questionnaire are discussed in the next sub-sections. The purpose of calculating the mean scores was to determine the level of OC, JS and OCB at the water utility company.

4.4.1 Means for Section B: JS

Table 7 provides a summary of the minimum and maximum values based on five-point Likert scale, standard deviation and mean scores of JS among employees.

Table 7: Means for JS

Items	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
B1: I definitely like my job	250	1	5	4.02	0.990
B2: I like my job better than the average worker does	250	1	5	3.87	0.983
B3: Most days I am enthusiastic about my job	250	1	5	3.84	0.935
B4: I find real enjoyment in my job	250	1	5	3.80	1.021
B5: I feel fairly well satisfied with my job	250	1	5	3.73	1.001
Valid N (listwise)	250				
Overall score for mean and std. deviation				3.85	0.986
Scale item rating: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neither disagree or agree; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly agree					

The minimum score value was one and the maximum score value was five. The standard deviation is “the measure of variance based on squared deviations from the means,

directly related to the variance" (Berenson, Levine, Szabat & Krehbiel 2013:69). The smaller standard deviation means that the data are gathered around the mean, the higher the standard deviation the more the data are dispersed from the means (Gravetter & Wallnau 2014:107). The overall standard deviation for JS was (sd=0.986) and indicated an acceptable distribution of responses within the sample.

The mean score for JS ranged between 3.73 and 4.02. The mean score for item B1 showed that respondents agreed that they liked their job (M=4.02). This was followed by item B2 (M=3.87), which indicated that respondents agreed that they liked their job better than the average worker did. For item B3 (M=3.84), the respondents cited that they were enthusiastic about their jobs. With regard to item B4, the respondents agreed that they enjoyed their jobs (M=3.80). With reference to item B5, respondents indicated that they were fairly well satisfied with their jobs (M=3.73).

The overall mean score (M=3.85) for JS demonstrated that a significant number of respondents were fairly satisfied with their jobs, signifying that organisations were doing their best to keep their employees satisfied. Nadiri and Tanova (2010:35) regard high level of JS as enhancing organisational performance and effectiveness. How organisations relate to their employees can influence the level of employees' JS, which ultimately determines the level of job performance, commitment and intention to leave. The social exchange theory (SET) on which this study is based (outlined in Chapter 1 and explained in Chapter 2) proposes that high level of JS can be attributed to appropriate rewards (Chaitanya & Tripathi 2001:218).

4.4.2 Means for Section C: Organisational Commitment

Prior to determining means for OC, factor analysis was conducted in order to determine the overall means for each factor extracted. Factor analysis for OC was conducted and the results were reported in Section 4.5. From the factor analysis procedure, three factors were extracted as shown in Table 8. Furthermore, Table 8 provides a summary of the minimum and maximum values based on the five-point Likert scale, standard deviations and mean scores of the three factors of OC of employees at the water utility company.

Table 8: Means for Organisational Commitment

Factors	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Factor 1: Indebted obligation and moral imperative	250	1	6	3.58	1.051
Factor 2: Affective commitment	250	1	4	3.42	3.496
Factor 3: Continuance commitment	250	1	4	2.65	1.225
Valid N (listwise)	250				
Overall score for mean and std. deviation				3.22	1.924
Scale item rating: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neither disagree or agree; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly agree					

The minimum score value was one and the maximum score value was five. The overall standard deviation (sd=1.924) indicated a satisfactory distribution of sample means.

Factor 1 (mean=3.58) showed that respondents were of the belief that staying with the organisation was the right and moral thing to do. These respondents felt obliged to exert effort for the effective functioning of the organisation. Factor 2 (M=3.42) revealed that the majority of respondents felt emotionally attached to the organisation and that the organisation's problems were their problems. Factor 3 (M=2.65) implied that respondents' commitment to the organisation was influenced by the costs associated with leaving the organisation and anything that could be established to increase employees' perception of costs. It further highlighted that respondents were worried about losing the investments they had made to the organisation.

The overall mean score (M= 3.22) of OC indicated that the respondents were fairly committed to the goals and interests of the organisation. The social exchange theory on which this study is premised (outlined in Chapter 1 and explained in Chapter 2) proposes that employees who are appropriately rewarded are likely to reciprocate to the organisation through OC (Gould-Williams 2007:1629).

4.4.3 Means for Section D: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Table 9 presents a summary of the minimum and maximum values based on five-point Likert scale, standard deviation and mean scores of organisational citizenship behaviour of employees at the water utility company.

Table 9: Means for organisational citizenship behaviour

Item	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. deviation
D1 I try to implement solutions to pressing organisational problems	250	1	5	3.82	.910
D2 I conscientiously follow company rules and procedures.	250	1	5	4.18	.837
D3 I never neglect to follow instructions	250	1	5	4.06	.903
D4 I do my work even after business hours to achieve company goals	250	1	5	3.86	1.051
D5 I am always ready to help those around me	250	1	5	4.28	.846
Valid N (listwise)	250	1	5		
Overall mean and std. deviation				4.04	0.909
Scale item rating: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neither disagree or agree; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly agree					

The minimum score value was one and the maximum score value was five. The overall standard deviation (sd=0.909) for OCB indicated an acceptable dispersion of dataset.

The means score for OCB ranged from 3.82 to 4.28, underlining that respondents engaged in extra-role behaviours to add value to the organisation. On item D1, respondents agreed that they tried to implement solutions to pressing organisational problems (M=3.82). For item D2, respondents stated that they conscientiously followed company rules and procedures (M=4.18). For item D3 (M=4.06), respondents indicated that they never neglected to follow instructions. This was followed by item D4, which suggested that respondents did their work even after business hours to achieve company goals (M=3.86).

This implied that respondents worked beyond the requirements of the job to achieve company goals. Item D5 (M=4.28) insinuated that respondents were always ready to help those around them.

The overall mean score for this section was registered at 4.04. The SET, which serves as a foundation for this study (outlined in Chapter 1 and explained in Chapter 2) propounds that employees who are committed to the organisation generally engage in behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviours, loyalty and job performance in ensuring effective functioning of the organisation (Jamaludin 2009:479). The results indicated that employees at the water utility company engage in extra-role behaviours that bring forth favourable outcomes such as organisational performance to the organisation. Nadiri and Tanova (2010:34) affirm that extra-role behaviours are unrestricted and voluntary in nature. Nonetheless, these extra-role behaviours contribute immensely to the organisation's success (Budiman *et al*. 2014:113).

The subsequent section reports on the different factors extracted through the factor analysis procedure for Section C of the questionnaire.

4.5 FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor analysis refers to "a set of statistical procedures designed to determine the number of distinct constructs needed to account for the pattern of correlations among a set of measures" (Fabrigar & Wegener 2012:3). In this study, factor analysis was used to ascertain underlying variables in order to interpret and determine the pattern of correlations between them. It was also used to reduce the number of factors to a smaller number that explain the commonalities and differences in the underlying set of variables. To determine whether data set was suitable for factor analysis, a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test were utilised (Hinton *et al*. 2014:341).

4.5.1 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test

The KMO and Bartlet's tests were conducted prior to factor analysis. These tests were performed on Section C of the questionnaire and the results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: KMO and Bartlett's test sphericity of Section C

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		.875
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	1610.723
	df	91
	Sig.	.000

Table 10 depicts that the KMO value of Section C is 0.875, which is well above the 0.05 threshold level. Mulaik (2009:241) holds that the KMO value of 0.50 and greater meets the criteria to conduct factor analysis. The KMO value for Section C (0.875) indicated that the sum of correlation was appropriate and suitable to conduct factor analysis. The Bartlett's test for Section C has a 0.000 significance level, which is lower than the 0.05 threshold. The Bartlett's test reaffirms that factor analysis procedure was appropriate for dataset.

The following sub-sections present the extraction of factors and the factor structure of Section C of the questionnaire.

4.5.2 Extraction of factors

Once the correlation matrix has been examined, the researcher can progress to select the type of factor analysis procedure best suited for the study, namely the principal component analysis (PCA) (Dilorio 2005:253). In analysing the level of commitment of employees at the water utility company, a principal component analysis (PCA) was used to extract principal factors in the component matrix. The principal component analysis PCA is a technique used "to reduce a larger set of variables (items) into a smaller set of factors, called components in PCA, which account for most of the variances in the original variables" (Gorsuch 2015:105). Williams *et al.* (2012:6) point out that data extraction is used as a method of reducing enormous items to smaller representative factors using appropriate criterion.

Suhr and Shay (2009:5) advance that no single criterion should be assumed as the only criterion. A number of criteria can be used, namely Kaiser's criterion, scree test, cumulative percent of variance extracted and parallel analysis. The right criteria should be

determined in order to establish the appropriate number of factors to be extracted since it would affect the interpretation of results. Both the Kaiser's criterion and the percent of variance were used to identify critical factors. Only factors with an eigenvalue greater than one were regarded significant and factor loadings that accounted for more than 60 percent of variance were retained as sufficient factors (Plonsky 2015:194). Using Kaiser's criterion as shown in Table 11, three factors were extracted with an eigenvalue greater than 1. The table also indicates the percentage of variance for each factor and the cumulative percentage of variance for all three factors recorded at 64.833 percent.

Table 11: Eigenvalues, percentage of variance explained and cumulative percentage of Section C

Component description	No. of items	Eigenvalues	% of variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1	6	3.816	27.257	27.257
Factor 2	4	2.787	19.906	47.164
Factor 3	4	2.474	17.669	64.833

Factor 1 = Indebted obligation and moral imperative
Factor 2 = Affective commitment
Factor 3 = Continuance commitment

4.5.3 Factor loading matrix structure

To further examine PCA and acquire new factor loadings, the varimax using Kaiser normalisation was employed as a rotation method. Rotation commonly is used to make the factor structure of a group of items easier (Williams *et al.* 2012:5). All factors that were included reported eigenvalues greater than one and factor loadings greater than 0.50. A number of items that were excluded from the factor either had cross loadings or low factor loadings (<0.50) (Illias & Razak 2011:132). Items C4, C11, C12 and C14 were excluded because of their cross-loadings, whereas items C10 and C13 were removed because they had low loadings. In this case, the criterion used allowed for extraction of three relevant factors. Table 12 provides a summary of the factors that were extracted for Section C of the questionnaire.

Table 12: Factor loading matrix of Section C (organisational commitment)

Scale description	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1. I am very happy being a member of this organisation	.208	.811	-.027
2. I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it	.146	.822	-.011
3. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	.372	.674	-.101
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at this organisation	-.028	-.092	.767
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation	-.121	-.126	.798
7. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.338	.665	-.019
8. I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organisation	-.052	-.127	.842
9. I worry about the loss of investments I have made in this organisation	.088	.250	.691
15.I feel that I owe this organisation quite a bit because of what it has done for me	.737	.210	.019
16.My organisation deserves my loyalty because of its treatment of me	.792	.356	-.074
17.I feel I would be letting my co-workers down if I wasn't a member of this organisation	.815	.015	.114
18.I am loyal to this organisation because my values are largely its values	.829	.202	-.076
19.This organisation has a mission that I believe in and am committed to	.690	.338	-.129
20.I feel it is 'morally correct' to dedicate myself to this organisation	.689	.356	-.095

Extraction method: Principal component with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation

Factor 1 was labelled indebted obligation and moral imperative, and comprised six items. Factor 1 was considered significant and accounted for 27.257 percent of the variance. Its factor loading was greater than 0.5, which according to McNabb (2013:271), is

considered worth including in the factor and in the interpretation of results. The findings of the current study indicated that employees that express the indebted obligation and moral imperative commitment on one hand, tend to internalise loyalty and duty to the organisation. On the other hand, these employees make personal sacrifices to carry out activities that promote organisational effectiveness because they believe it is morally right to do so. In support of these findings, Meyer and Maltin (2010:325) observe that this form of attachment reflect the acceptance of obligatory pressures for loyalty and translate to behaviours that effect greater job performance. Furthermore, the findings of this study are consistent with Meyer and Allen's three-component model that was discussed in Section 2.7 of Chapter 2, which advanced that employees' commitment is largely influenced by the obligatory pressures to remain with the organisation, as it is the right thing to do.

More recently, Markovits, Ullrich, van Dick and Davis (2008:486) postulate that the formation of indebted obligation and moral imperative (normative commitment) is to a great extent influenced by employees' sense of affective and continuance commitment. The researchers further explained that when employees are high on affective commitment, they internalise obligations and feel it is morally imperative to carry out organisational goals and do whatever it is necessary to achieve organisational goals. Conversely, when they experience less emotional attachment, they may be obliged to do what is necessary to follow instructions and carry out organisational objectives, thereby experiencing indebted obligation (Gellatly, Meyer & Luchak 2006:342).

Factor 2, which was labelled affective commitment, consisted of four items and the variance explained by factor was 19.906 percent. The findings of this study demonstrated that employees who were attached affectively to the water utility company, generally identified with and accepted the goals and objectives of the water utility company. They displayed eagerness to be involved in the activities that produce organisational effectiveness. Previous findings indicated that the attachment could be attributed to the employees' sense of positive relationship with the organisation and the existence of uniformity between the organisation's goals and their expectations (Van Dyk *et al.* 2013:63).

In an earlier study that investigated the effect of executive leadership behaviours on the OC and its influence on organisational performance, Steyrera, Schiffingera and Lang (2008:365), found that employees display affective commitment as a function of feelings

of identifying and belonging to the organisation, and their contribution is recognised. Michaelis, Stegmaier and Sonntag (2009:401) assert that when employees feel that they belong to an organisation, they in turn exert effort that contributes to the attainment of organisational goals and gratification of social interests. In support of these findings, Meyer and Allen's three-component model as discussed in Section 2.7 of Chapter 2 theorised that affective commitment is a positive emotional attachment to the organisation. The attachment triggers positive behaviours and positive work attitude, resulting in employees wanting to stay with the organisation; hence improved employee and organisational performance.

Factor 3 was labelled continuance commitment and comprised four items, which accounted for 17.669 percent of the variance explained by the factor. It was found that employees with this type of commitment evaluate the costs associated with leaving the organisation and mostly find the costs too high to disengage (Daud 2010:76). This was evident in the findings of the current study, which found that employees at the water utility company were committed to the organisation because they had great personal investments in the organisation and terminating membership would translate into a great loss (Aydogdu & Asikgil 2011:45). In support of the findings, Ismail (2012:28) emphasises the awareness of costs associated with leaving the organisation as the leading motive behind maintaining membership.

Review of the literature revealed that employees whose primary association with the organisation is based solely on continuance commitment have no emotional attachment to the organisation. Instead, they are afraid of losing such investments as pay, opportunity for promotion, pension benefits, or facilities (Iqbal 2010:17). The findings are in concordance with that of Bhatnagar's (2007:1783) study, which identified lack of alternative jobs outside the current organisation and loosing pension benefits as being some of the contributing factors to maintaining membership with the current organisation. The findings on continuance commitment are consistent with Becker's side-bet theory, which advances that continuance commitment reflects employees' hidden investments that they have accumulated and lack of job alternatives, as discussed in Chapter 2 of the current study. The theory advanced that employees' commitment is largely influenced by the collection of investments they value (side-bets).

The subsequent section analyses the correlation among the different factors.

4.6 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlations were performed to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between OC, JS and OCB at the water utility company. The results of the correlation analysis were analysed and are illustrated in Table 13.

Table 13: Correlations

		Indebted obligation and moral imperative	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	JS	Organisational citizenship behaviour
Indebted obligation and moral imperative	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
Affective commitment	Pearson Correlation	.591**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
Continuance commitment	Pearson Correlation	-.086	-.095	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.173	.133			
Job satisfaction (JS)	Pearson Correlation	.464**	.613**	-.095	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.136		
Organisational citizenship behaviour	Pearson Correlation	.435**	.413**	-.067	.598**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.292	.000	

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

Job satisfaction indicated a positive significant correlation with indebted obligation and moral imperative (r=.464; p<.000). This implies that if employees are satisfied with their jobs they tend to be indebted and morally obliged to remain with the organisation. However, it is worth noting that JS could be influenced by a number of factors such as supportive work environment, leadership, relationship with co-workers and OC (Lau & Oger 2012:326). Should these factors be present, employees will be obliged to commit to the well-being of the organisation (Yang 2008:432).

Job satisfaction also showed a positive significant correlation with affective commitment (*r*=.613; p<.000). The correlation between JS and affective commitment is very strong, indicating that the water utility employees generally express high levels of affective commitment, resulting in high JS. Research has found JS to correlate strongly with OC; in fact, JS is a function of affective commitment (Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford & Wood 2007:311). There is substantial evidence that when employees are satisfied with a number of job characteristics such as salary, relationship with co-workers, the job itself and others, there is a strong likelihood that those employees will display high levels of affective commitment (Anari 2012:264). This corresponds with Chang's (2015:739) findings, which revealed that employees' high level of JS translates to willingness to identify with, engage in organisational activities and show loyalty to the organisation.

Negative and insignificant correlation was observed between continuance commitment and JS (*r*= -.095; p<.136). The negative correlation between continuance commitment and Job satisfaction implies that the water utility employees' level of JS is not in any way influenced by their continuance commitment. In this frame, these results are congruent with the study results of Kaplan, Ogut, Kaplan and Aksay (2012:26), which suggest that continuance commitment correlates negatively with JS. Furthermore, Freund (2005:16) opines that employees who have psychologically calculated the costs associated with leaving the organisation may feel imprisoned and ultimately develop negative attitude towards their job and the organisation. As a result, these employees display low level of JS (Namasivayam & Zhao 2007:1216).

The results of the correlation analysis reflected that organisational citizenship behaviour had a positive significant correlation with JS (*r*=.598; p<.000). The correlation meant that employees with a high level of JS tended to engage in extra-role behaviours such as helping others, innovative solutions to help the organisation achieve its goals and adherence to rules and procedures (Cohen & Keren 2008:435; Modassir & Singh 2008:12; Alizadeh *et al.* 2012:496).

Organisational citizenship behaviour had a positive significant correlation with indebted obligation and moral imperative (*r*=.435; p<.000). This correlation implied that if indebted obligation and moral imperative commitment were high, employees' level of organisational citizenship behaviour at the water utility company also increased. Many theories hypothesise that employees who show high level of indebted obligation and

moral imperative, exhibit high level of organisational citizenship behaviour (Zayas-Ortiz, Rosario, Marquez & Gruñeiro 2015:101). A study by Meyer and Parfyonova (2010:287) reveal that moral imperative influences employees to pursue organisational citizenship behaviours because of their conviction that it is morally right to do so.

Affective commitment showed a positive significant correlation with OCB (r=.413; p<.000). This correlation implied that if water utility employees had high level of affective commitment, the likelihood was that they would want to engage in extra-role behaviours such as implementing solutions that contribute to the attainment of organisational goals. Ibrahim and Aslinda (2013:39) assert that the emotional bond employees have established with the organisation brings forth the desire to enact organisational citizenship behaviour. Fatimah *et al*. (2011:116) point out that committed employees sacrifice their personal interests, go beyond a call of duty and develop extra-role behaviours that result in organisation's effectiveness.

Very weak correlation was observed between continuance commitment and OCB (r= -.067; p<.292). The weak correlation indicated that water utility company employees' OCB is not directly influenced by their cost-benefit calculations (continuance commitment). Özdem (2012:58) cautions that employees who display high continuance commitment do not have the best interest of the organisation at heart and are not loyal to the organisation compared to affectively committed employees. Very weak correlations were observed between continuance commitment, indebted obligation and moral imperative (r=-.086; p<.173); continuance commitment and affective commitment (r = -.095; p<.133), as a result it was not necessary to report the analysis.

Affective commitment showed a positive significant correlation with indebted obligation and moral imperative (r=.591; p<.000). This correlation infers that employees who have a sense of obligation and moral duty eventually develop emotional attachment to the water utility company. Research has shown that there is a positive correlation between affective commitment, indebted obligation and moral imperative (Meyer & Parfyonova 2010:283). Meyer and Parfyonova (2010:284) found that to the extent that employees felt emotionally attached to the organisation, they somewhat felt that it was the right and moral act to remain with the organisation. Gellatly, *et al*. (2006:333) caution that employees who stay with the organisation on the basis of hidden investments or

obligation have no intention to enact any discretionary behaviours, claiming that these employees might find a way to get out of their commitment when time permits.

The next section presents the regression analysis results.

4.7 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to establish the predictive relationship between OC (affective commitment, indebted obligation and moral imperative, continuance commitment), JS and OCB. However, only variables that were statistically significant were reported in regression analysis. Figure 13 is a research model that represents predictive relationships among constructs. The research model indicates the hypotheses, their pertinent beta values and significance levels. The beta values and significance levels were obtained through the use of the regression analysis, which is discussed in the next paragraph.

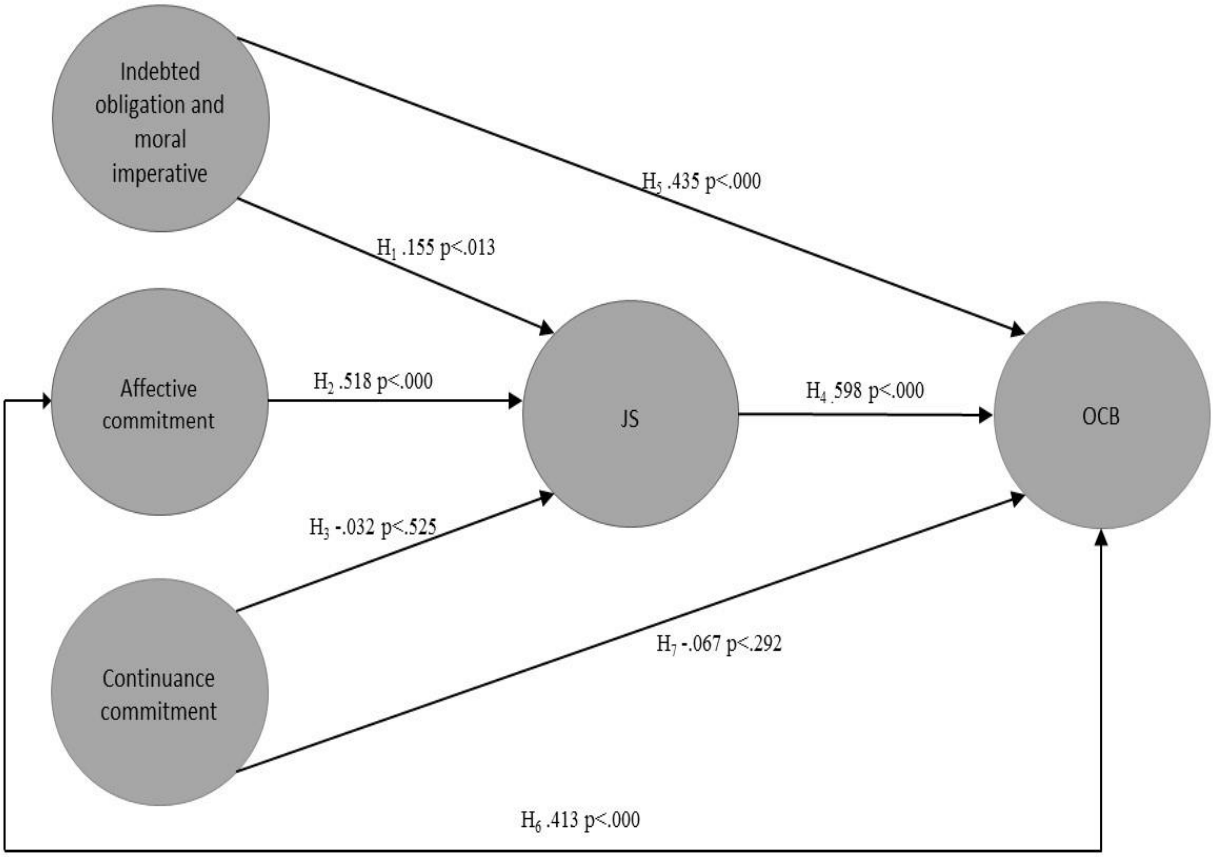

Figure 13: The research model with pertinent beta coefficients and significance levels

Regression analysis is considered to be a statistical technique that is used to apprehend which independent variable is related to the dependent variable, and to investigate the varieties of these relationships (Collins 2010:176). Regression analysis was performed to test whether OC as an independent variable predicts dependent variables, JS and OCB. Furthermore, the predictive relationship between OC and OCB was determined. The results of the regression analysis are reported in Tables 14 and 15.

Table 14: Regression model summary (Model 1)

Model 1	**Dependent variable: job satisfaction**				
Independent variables: organisational commitment	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		
	B	Std. error	Beta	t	Sig
Indebted obligation and moral imperative	.160	.064	.155	2.514	.013
Affective commitment	.515	.061	.518	8.389	.000
Continuance commitment	-.029	.046	-.032	-.637	.525
R= .626a R^2=.392 Adjusted R^2 =.385					

In Table 14, a predictive relationship between JS and OC was established. JS was entered into the regression equation as the dependent variable, whereas the three factors of OC, namely indebted obligation and moral imperative, affective commitment and continuance commitment were entered as independent variables. The results of the regression analysis indicated an adjusted R^2 of .385, which implied that the three factors of OC contributed 39 percent of the variance in employees' JS.

The regression model 1 indicated that indebted obligation and moral imperative with beta coefficient of .155 (β= .155; p<.013) had no significant effect on JS, which therefore, suggested that indebted obligation and moral imperative did not predict JS. However, positive correlation was observed between JS and indebted obligation and moral

imperative. As a result of the finding, the hypothesis: *there is a relationship between indebted obligation, moral imperative and JS* (H_1), as indicated in Figure 13, was supported. The finding on the lack of predictive relationship between JS and indebted obligation and moral imperative is supported by the study of Lumley *et al.* (2011:111), which confirmed that the relationship between indebted obligation and moral imperative with JS is inconsistent and non-existent. Elias (2007:4) reiterates that the reason for the non-existent relationship is based on the notion that indebted obligation and moral imperative rely strongly on factors external to employees' control such as work conditions and social norms rather than psychological attachment and as such, it does not relate to employees' JS. When supportive work conditions and social networks are non-existent, employees are likely to leave the organisation (Prabhakar & Ram 2011:56).

It can further be observed that the results of regression analysis of the relationship between affective commitment and JS (model 1) in Table 14 showed that affective commitment contributed positively to the prediction of JS with the beta coefficient of .518 (β= .518). The finding confirmed that the predictive relationship between affective commitment and JS was statistically significant ($p<.000$). Based on the finding, the hypothesis: *there is a positive relationship between affective commitment and JS* (H_2) as illustrated in Figure 13 was accepted. The water utility company can assume that when its employees display high levels of affective commitment they will exhibit high levels of JS. This finding suggested that to increase employees' JS, organisations should maintain employees' high levels of affective commitment through improved job characteristics such as autonomy and empowerment (Boles *et al*. 2007:313). This finding echoes the finding of a study conducted by Namasivayam and Zhao (2007:1220), who found that employees were affectively committed to the organisation subject to the adjustment of job characteristics by the organisation.

Furthermore, the beta coefficient of the predictive relationship between continuance commitment and JS was negative (β= -032; $p<525$). This finding proved that there is no significant predictive relationship between continuance commitment and JS. Based on this finding the hypothesis: *there is a positive relationship between continuance commitment and JS* (H_3), as demonstrated in Figure 13, was rejected. Namasivayam and Zhao (2007:1216) assert that employees who display high level of continuance

commitment feel trapped in the organisation, resulting in negative attitude towards the organisation and their work

Table 15: Regression model summary (Model 2, Model 3, Model 4 and Model 5)

Model 2	**Dependent variable: organisational citizenship behaviour**				
Independent variables: job satisfaction	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		
	B	Std. error	Beta	T	Sig
Job satisfaction	.516	.044	.598	11.738	.000
R= .598a R^2=.357 Adjusted R^2 =.355					
Model 3	**Dependent variable organisational citizenship behaviour**				
Independent variables: Indebted obligation and moral imperative	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		
	B	Std. error	Beta	T	Sig
Indebted obligation and moral imperative	.387	.051	.435	7.602	.000
R= .435a R^2=.189 Adjusted R^2 =.186					
Model 4	**Dependent variable organisational citizenship behaviour**				
Independent variables: affective commitment	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		
	B	Std. error	Beta	T	Sig
Affective commitment	.354	.050	.413	7.132	.000
R= .413a R^2=.170 Adjusted R^2 =.167					
Model 5	**Dependent variable organisational citizenship behaviour**				
Independent variables: continuance commitment	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		
	B	Std. error	Beta	T	Sig
Continuance commitment	-.053	.050	-.067	-.1.056	.292
R= .067a R^2=.004 Adjusted R^2=.000					

Table 15 presents the regression (model 2) summary of JS with OCB. The results of the regression analysis indicated an adjusted R^2 of .355, which implied that 36 percent of the variation of employees' organisational citizenship behaviour is influenced by the degree of their satisfaction with the job.

It can be further noted from the research model that although affective commitment had direct effect on OCB, with beta coefficient of .413 p<.000 (H_6). The beta coefficient of the predictive relationship between affective commitment and OCB is lower than the one in the predictive relationship between JS and OCB (β= .598; p<.000). These results explain the mediating role of JS in the predictive relationship between affective commitment and OCB. Following these results, the hypothesis: *JS mediates the relationship between affective commitment and OCB (H_4)*, as demonstrated in Figure 13 was supported. The reason for this mediation hypothesis is the belief that the extent to which employees are psychologically attached to the organisation will contribute to their level of JS, which in turn, will lead to willingness to display OCB. The results of the current study are consistent with the study of Zeinabadi (2010:1002), who found that affective commitment had direct effect on OCB through mediating role of JS. Zeinabadi (2010:1002) explained that affective commitment motivates employees' JS, which in turn encourages the employees to display OCB. As employees' JS improves, habitually OCBs increase (Rahman, Sulaiman, Nasir & Omar 2014:259).

Furthermore, the literature affirms that employees who are satisfied with some facets of their job are likely to have less intentions to leave the organisation, commit to the course of action and endorse citizenship related behaviours (Walumbwa, Wu & Orwa 2008:255). A strong relationship between OCB and JS was established in previous research, reporting JS as a predictive force of OCB (Mishra, Mishra & Kumar 2010:256).

In addition, Table 15 (model 3) illustrates a predictive relationship between indebted obligation and moral imperative and OCB. Organisational citizenship behaviour was entered into the regression equation as the dependent variable, whereas the indebted obligation and moral imperative was entered as independent variables. The regression analysis results indicated an adjusted R^2 of .186, which meant that indebted obligation and moral imperative contributed 19 percent of the variance in employees' OCB.

The analysis also reflected that indebted obligation and moral imperative had a statistically significant effect on OCB with beta of .435 (β= .435; p<.000). The results confirmed the hypothesis: *there is a positive relationship between indebted obligation and moral imperative and OCB (H_5)* as illustrated in Figure 13. This finding demonstrated that employees who have positive social experiences at work and are offered advancement opportunities want to maintain membership in an organisation. Positive feelings about social experiences and advancement opportunities inspire employees to exert effort beyond the job requirements to achieve organisational interest and goals (Tojari *et al*. 2013:165). The finding is also in conformity with the study of Namasivayam and Zhao (2007:1216) who point out that employees develop high level of indebted obligation and moral imperative as a result of organisational socialisation processes. Once employees have experienced these processes, they are obligated to advance citizenship behaviours towards the success of the organisation.

Table 15 (model 4) illustrates a predictive relationship between affective commitment and OCB. Organisational citizenship behaviour was again entered into the regression equation as the dependent variable, and affective commitment was entered as independent variables. The regression analysis results showed an adjusted R^2 of .167, which meant that affective commitment contributed 17 percent of the variance in employees' OCB. The results of regression analysis (model 4) further highlighted that affective commitment contributed significantly to the prediction of OCB with the beta coefficient of .413 (β= .413; p<.000). Based on the results, the hypothesis: *there is a positive relationship between affective commitment and OCB (H_6)*, as indicated in Figure 13, was supported. The analysis confirmed that employees at the water utility company had indicated a high level of affective commitment. However, it should be the on-going responsibility of the organisation to ensure increased employees' affective commitment to gain increased OCBs. Research has provided evidence that affective commitment significantly predicts OCB (Paré & Tremblay 2007:334; Ibrahim & Aslinda 2013:39). In addition, Bakhshi, Sharma and Kumar (2011:80) are of the view that if the organisation can improve employees' affective commitment, employees will in turn reciprocate by engaging in extra role behaviours. Özdem (2012:50) also provides support for a significant relationship between affective commitment and OCB, by stating that when employees develop a sense of identification with the organisation and are allowed to participate in decision-making, they tend to feel supported by the system, feel happy and consequently

exhibit citizenship behaviours. Therefore, it is presumed that employees' enactment of citizenship behaviours is largely characterised by high level of affective commitment.

In Table 15 (model 5) OCB was again entered into the regression equation as the dependent variable, and continuance commitment was entered as independent variables. The regression analysis results showed an adjusted R^2 of .000, which meant that continuance commitment contributed 0 percent of the variance in employees' OCB. The results of the regression analysis showed a negative and insignificant relationship between continuance commitment and OCB with the beta coefficient of -.067 (β= -.067; p<.292). Based on the results, the hypothesis: *there is a positive relationship between continuance commitment and OCB (H_7)*, as demonstrated in Figure 13, was rejected. These results suggested that continuance commitment does not affect the formation of OCB, meaning that the water utility company employees can still display OCBs without any influence of cost-benefits calculation (continuance commitment). A significant body of research advocates that employees' OCBs are a result of affective commitment than continuance commitment (Kim 2006:728). A reasonable justification for this finding is that employees who express high levels of continuance commitment retain membership because they wish to avoid undesired outcomes, such as lack of employment. Such employees do not engage in behaviours that extend beyond their job requirements; they only commit to what is required of them by their jobs and what they are paid to do (Paré & Tremblay 2007:334).

In summary, regression analysis revealed significant predictive relationships between affective commitment and JS, JS and OCB, indebted obligation, moral imperative and OCB, affective commitment and OCB. Moreover, it can be concluded that the more employees are affectively committed to the organisation, the greater they will express high JS. Equally so, the more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the more likely they will exhibit citizenship related behaviours and the more the organisation will benefit. Consistent with this finding, Abdullah *et al.* (2013:761) confirm that employees' sense of attachment with the organisation act as a driving force to better performance, which enhances organisational performance. In the same manner, the higher the employees' sense of internalised obligation and affective commitment, the more they will be willing to display citizenship behaviours.

The next sub-section presents the results of the reliability and validity analyses.

4.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Reliability and validity are the two fundamental issues that should be considered in research to validate the quality of the research study. The next sub-sections explain how the reliability and validity of the questionnaire were ensured throughout this study.

4.8.1 Reliability

The Cronbach alpha coefficient, the commonly used measure of internal consistency, was used to test reliability of the instrument. The test provided an acceptable indication of reliability of the instrument for sections B (JS), C (OC) and D (OCB). However, the items, 4, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14 in Section C reported low inter-item correlations. As a result, these items were deleted from the instrument. The reliability results are provided in Table 16.

Table 16: Internal reliability statistics

Sections	Number of items	Deleted items	Cronbach's alpha
Job satisfaction (Section B)	**5**	**0**	**0.927**
Organisational commitment (Section C)	**20**	**6**	**0.825**
▪ Indebted obligation and moral imperative	6	0	0.886
▪ Affective commitment	4	1	0.809
▪ Continuance commitment	4	5	0.781
Organisational citizenship behaviour (Section D)	**5**	**0**	**0.880**

The reliability for JS, indebted obligation and moral imperative, affective commitment, and OCB was confirmed by the acceptable Cronbach alpha (α) values of 0.927, 0.886, 0.809 and 0.880 respectively, indicating a high internal consistency, while the reliability for continuance commitment (0.781) indicated a substantial internal consistency as discussed in Section 3.8 of Chapter 3. A typically suggested rule of thumb denotes that 0.80 is a high level of internal consistency (Bryman 2012:170). Even so, some authors drop the value to 0.70 as an acceptable internal consistency (Osborne 2008:244; Malhotra

2013:269). Other authors lean more towards the value of 0.70-0.80 as acceptable reliability (Klenke 2008:101).

The next sub-section explains how various forms of validity were established in this study.

4.8.2 Validity

Validity is undoubtedly the other important issue to consider in research as it may render the result of the research less credible if not considered. Various forms of validity, face, content, construct, convergent, and predictive, were used to measure the validity of the instrument (questionnaire).

To test if the instrument was a valid translation of the constructs, a pilot study was performed on a sample size of 50 respondents, thereby establishing face validity. The results of the pilot study reported Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.80, which indicated a high reliability for JS, and 0.90 and 0.80 for OC and OCB respectively; the results are reported in Section 4.2.

Content validity was ascertained through a systematic consideration of prior instruments and seeking advice from academic experts in the field of organisational behaviour to confirm if the items pertaining to the constructs in the questionnaire were covered sufficiently.

Construct validity was determined through factor analysis where low factor loadings (<0.50) and cross-loading were deleted (refer to Table 12). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was also used to test construct validity of the scales and the test results indicated reasonable construct validity (refer to Table 16). In addition, correlation analysis was performed and the results of the analysis confirmed a significant correlation between the constructs, thus verifying construct validity (refer to Table 13).

Convergent validity was examined through the computation of Pearson correlation coefficients. Based on the results of the analysis, convergent validity yielded comparable results to other tested instruments that measured the same constructs in the same field (Johnson & Christensen 2010:148). The correlations among the constructs were strong as it showed a significant correlation between OCB and affective commitment (.413**), and

a significant correlation between OCB and indebted obligation and moral imperative (.435**). A significant correlation between JS and indebted obligation and moral imperative (.464**) was also recorded, followed by a positive correlation between affective commitment and indebted obligation and moral imperative (.591**). Furthermore, the correlation coefficient analysis indicated that OCB correlated significantly with JS (.598**) and JS correlated significantly with affective commitment (.613**) (refer to Tables 11, 12 and 13).

Predictive validity was measured through regression analysis. A positive predictive relationship between independent variable (OC and JS) and dependent variables (JS and OCB) was established. The results of the regression analysis showed that OC predicts JS and in the same way JS predicts OCB (refer to Tables 14 and 15).

4.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented key findings in respect of OC, JS and OCB. The pilot study results from the 50 respondents were presented. Descriptive statistics were used to report on the frequencies of responses and mean values. Factor analysis performed in Section C assisted in the extraction of the three factors, namely indebted obligation and moral imperative, affective commitment and continuance commitment. Subsequent to factor analysis, correlations were performed to establish the strength and direction of the relationship between indebted obligation, moral imperative and JS; affective commitment and JS; continuance commitment and JS; and JS with OCB. In this respect, regression analysis was necessary. The results of the regression analysis indicated no predictive relationship between indebted obligation, moral imperative and JS. A predictive relationship between affective commitment and JS was also found. Furthermore, no predictive relationship was established between continuance commitment and JS. In addition, the analysis showed a predictive relationship between JS and OCB. The reliability of Section B (JS), Section C (OC) and Section D (OCB) was verified through Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The value of Cronbach's alpha coefficient was above the threshold of 0.70, demonstrating a high level of internal consistency for the three sections. Face, content, construct, convergent and predictive validities were established.

The next chapter provided a brief summary of the research process, recommendations, contribution to the study, limitations and future research implications and concluding remarks on the study.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter analysed the results using means, factor analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis. Furthermore, the statistical findings of the empirical study were interpreted and discussed. In this chapter, the summary of the study is presented. This chapter also highlights how the primary, theoretical and empirical objectives were achieved. Furthermore, the recommendations, limitations and conclusions drawn from research findings are presented. Finally, this chapter provides future research opportunities and the concluding remarks.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

In Chapter 1, the background to and the theoretical framework of the study were presented. The primary objective of the study, which was to investigate the impact of OC and JS on OCB at the water utility company in Gauteng, was outlined. In this chapter, the problem statement was discussed. In addition, the hypotheses and theoretical and empirical objectives of the study were formulated.

The focus in Chapter 2 was to discuss theories underpinning the three variables in the study. The chapter also focused on providing an overview of the existing literature on JS, OC and OCB. The emphasis of this chapter was to present the nature, antecedents and the relationship between JS, OC and OCB.

In Chapter 3, the research methodology utilised to address the research objectives of the study was outlined. The research design and the research approach deemed appropriate for this study were discussed. The research methodology also focused on identifying the target population, determining the sample frame, the sampling technique, and the sample size. The data collection method and the measuring instrument were explained and the results of the pilot study were presented. Finally, the ethical considerations were addressed.

Chapter 4 presented the analysis and interpretation of the data collected from the employees at the water utility company in Gauteng. The descriptive statistics of the sample were provided. This chapter included the results of the factor analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis. Finally, the reliability and the validity of the measuring instrument were ascertained

Chapter 5 presented a synopsis of the pertinent findings of the study. Recommendations derived from the findings of the study were included, while future research opportunities and limitations of the study were discussed.

The following section indicated how the formulated objectives of the study were achieved.

5.3 EVALUATION OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of OC and JS on OCB at the water utility company in Gauteng. To achieve this primary objective, theoretical and empirical objectives were formulated and the following sub-sections indicate the extent to which the formulated objectives of the study were achieved.

5.3.1 Theoretical objectives

The theoretical objectives formulated for the study were achieved as follows:

5.3.1.1 Conduct a review of the literature on OC and its dimensions

The various definitions of OC were provided. Meyer and Allen's (1991) work was used to provide a theoretical framework for the study, which indicated that the construct was a multi-dimensional construct. A number of aspects were identified as factors that influence OC, namely age, tenure (length of service in a particular organisation), education, wages and salary, autonomy, empowerment and co-worker support (Salami 2008:32).

5.3.1.2 Review the literature on the nature and antecedents of JS

The purpose of this objective was to provide a clear understanding of the nature of JS and its antecedents. This objective was achieved in Section 2.2 of Chapter 2. The literature review on JS indicated that the construct is applicable to many fields such as psychology and management (Gazioglu & Tansel 2006:1163). The literature emphasised that

employees will experience satisfaction with their jobs to the degree that they could find equity between their job performance, characteristics of the job and the organisational reward system (Lunenburg 2011:3). Thus, it can be assumed that organisations need to ensure progressive ways to improve employees' satisfaction level, thereby ensuring organisational effectiveness.

5.3.1.3 Conduct a literature review on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The literature review on OCB aimed at understanding the nature and formation of OCB. This objective was addressed in Section 2.10 of Chapter 2. It was established through the review of the literature that OCBs are considered as discretionary behaviours that are not formally rewarded by the organisation, yet promote effective functioning of the organisation (Organ 1988:4; Alizadeh *et al*. 2014:177). Employees who exhibit such behaviours go beyond what is required of them by the organisation to contribute immensely to the organisation. Social exchange theory (SET) formed the basis for an explanation of the formation of OCB. In accordance with the literature, several factors were identified as dimensions of OCB, namely altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue (Organ 1997:94; Zeinabadi 2010:998).

5.3.1.4 Review the literature on the relationship between OC, JS and OCB

This objective was realised in sections 2.9 and 2.10 of Chapter 2, which reviewed the literature on OC, JS and OCB and it revealed that there was a strong correlation between the three constructs (Rayton 2006:14; Modassir & Singh 2008:12; Lau & Oger 2012:326). Organisational commitment and JS are considered to have an influence on OCB (Pourgaz, Naruei & Jenaabadi 2015:801).

The literature provided evidence that committed employees express high levels of satisfaction (Boles *et al.* 2007:311; Sharma & Bajpai 2010:16). Moreover, Ibrahim and Aslinda (2013:36) advance that OC encourages employees to be involved in and participate in extra-role activities that ensure organisational performance (OCBs). Further research studies point out that satisfied employees display voluntary behaviours that are aimed at achieving the goals and interests of the organisation (Cohen & Keren 2008:435; Ogaard *et al* 2008:664; Yücel 2012:47).

5.3.1.5 Review the literature on the impact of OC and JS on OCB

This objective was addressed in Section 2.13 of Chapter 2 by reviewing the literature, which indicated that OC is a strong predictor of OCB. It was revealed that when employees feel a sense of identification with the organisation and are involved in the organisational processes and procedures, they tend to exhibit a high level of commitment (Güleryüz *et al*. 2008:1627). Furthermore, employees' high level of OC influences their willingness to exhibit extra-role behaviours such as OCB (Donavan *et al*. 2004:131). Job satisfaction was also found to be a strong predictor of OCB. An array of research studies indicate that satisfied employees reciprocate by displaying extra-role behaviours such as helping other workers, carrying out instructions as stipulated, refraining from conflicts and contributing towards the well-being of the organisation (Walumbwa *et al.* 2008:255; Noor 2009:6; Schroeder 2010:25, Sun *et al.* 2013:215).

The next sub-sections discussed how the empirical objectives were achieved.

5.3.2 Empirical objectives

To achieve the primary objective, the following empirical objectives were attained as follows:

5.3.2.1 To assess the level of JS, OC and OCB among employees at the water utility company

To achieve the empirical objectives of this study, it was necessary to establish the mean values for the three variables. The results of the mean values for JS, OC and OCB were shown in Table 7 of sub-section 4.4.1, Table 8 of sub-section 4.4.2 and Table 9 of sub-section 4.4.3 of Chapter 4. The results of the mean analysis for JS indicated the overall mean score of 3.85 (M=3.85), which demonstrated that respondents agreed that they were fairly satisfied with their jobs. The results of the mean analysis for indebted obligation and moral imperative indicated a mean score of 3.58 (M=3.58), which demonstrated that respondents felt it was morally right to maintain membership with the water utility company. The mean score for affective commitment (M=3.42) indicated that respondents were emotionally attached the water utility company and thus fairly satisfied with their jobs. The mean score for continuance commitment (M=2.65) implied that the respondents' commitment to the water utility company was affected by the perceived

costs associated with disengaging from the organisation. The analysis of the overall mean for OCB (M=4.04) revealed that employees at the water utility company contributed to its effective functioning through their participation in extra-role behaviours.

Subsequent to the mean values, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and the Bartlett tests were conducted on OC and both tests yielded significant results to warrant the performance of factor analysis on OC. The results of the tests were reported in sub-section 4.5.1. Factor analysis was then conducted and PCA was used to extract a number of factors, while Kaiser's criterion and the percentage of variance were used to categorise significant factors. Three factors were extracted, namely affective commitment, indebted obligation, moral imperative and continuance commitment as reported in sub-sections 4.5.2 and 4.5.3 respectively. Subsequently, correlations were performed and the results revealed a statistically significant relationship between the JS, OC and OCB. The results of the correlation analysis were presented in Section 4.6. Finally, the correlation between the variables necessitated the regression analysis, which was reported in Section 4.7.

5.3.2.2 To determine the relationship between indebted obligation, moral imperative and JS

The objective was achieved in sections 4.6 and 4.7 of Chapter 4. The correlation analysis confirmed that there was a positive and significant correlation between indebted obligation and moral imperative together with JS (r=.464; p<.000). However, the regression analysis (model 1) illustrated that indebted obligation and moral imperative did not contribute significantly to the prediction of JS (β= .155; p<.013), as indicated in Section 4.7.

5.3.2.3 To determine the relationship between affective commitment and JS

The objective was achieved through the correlation analysis in Section 4.6. The correlation analysis showed a significant correlation between affective commitment and JS (r=.613; p<.000). The results of the regression analysis, model 1 (β= .518; p< .000) further revealed that affective commitment significantly predicts JS.

5.3.2.4 To examine the relationship between continuance commitment and JS

This objective was achieved in Section 4.6 and Section 4.7 of Chapter 4. Continuance commitment was found to have a negative and insignificant correlation with JS (r= -.095;

p<.136). Consequently, the regression analysis, highlighted a negative predictive relationship between continuance commitment and JS (β= -.032 p<.525). Based on the results, this study concluded that continuance commitment did not have any direct impact on employees' JS at the water utility company.

5.3.2.5 To determine the extent to which JS mediates the relationship between affective commitment and OCB

This objective was also achieved in Section 4.6 and Section 4.7 of Chapter 4. The correlation analysis signified a positive significant correlation between affective commitment and OCB (r=413; p<.000). The results of regression analysis (model 4) also showed that a predictive relationship existed between affective commitment and OCB with beta coefficient of .413 (β= .413 p<000). However, it was worth noting that JS had a stronger predictive relationship with OCB (β= .598). Clearly, the value of the latter predictive relationship was higher. By implication, JS played a mediating and significant role in the formation of OCB than affective commitment.

5.3.2.6 To examine the relationship between indebted obligation and moral imperative with OCB

This objective was achieved in Section 4.6 and Section 4.7 of Chapter 4. The correlation analysis indicated a strong correlation between indebted obligation, moral imperative and OCB (r= .435; p< .000). Consequently, regression analysis model 3 results also indicated that indebted obligation and moral imperative contributed 19 percent of variation of employees' OCB at the water utility company with an adjusted R^2 of 186. Statistically, indebted obligation and moral imperative had been found to predict OCB among the water utility employees with a significant beta coefficient of .435 (β= .435; p< .000).

5.3.2.7 To determine the extent to which affective commitment affects the formation of OCB.

This objective was achieved in Section 4.6 and Section 4.7 of Chapter 4. Through a correlation analysis, this study found a positive significant correlation between affective commitment and OCB (*r*=.413; p<.000). The regression analysis model 4 as indicated in Section 4.7 (regression) revealed a predictive relationship between affective commitment and OCB, with a coefficient of .413 (β= .413; p< .000).

5.3.2.8 To determine the extent to which continuance commitment relates with OCB

This objective was achieved in Section 4.6 (correlations) and Section 4.7 (regression) of Chapter 4. The correlation analysis results showed that there was a negative correlation between continuance commitment and OCB (r=-.067; p< .292). Additionally, the results of the regression analysis model 5 indicated that continuance commitment contributed 0 percent of variation of employees' OCB at the water utility company with an adjusted R^2 of .000. Statistically, it was confirmed that continuance commitment did not predict employees' OCB (β= -.067; p <0.000).

The recommendations of this study are provided in the next section.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the empirical findings obtained in this study, the following recommendations were made:

- It was noted from the JS's overall mean score (M=3.85) that the water utility company employees were fairly satisfied with their jobs. For this reason, it is recommended that in order to improve employees' JS, the water utility company should consider enriching jobs. Providing job enrichment implies that the water utility company should engage employees and offer them the opportunity to decide how their jobs should be performed.
- Furthermore, it is recommended that the concept of job-fit should be implemented in order to merge employees' skills and abilities with the requirements of the job.
- To improve JS, the water utility should also consider measures aimed at advancing the careers of employees. Career advancement could include skills development initiatives and life-long learning programmes. This could be initiated through the introduction of short learning programmes related to employees' respective work by means of on-the-job training, conferences and seminars.
- With respect to OC, this study established that the overall mean score for OC was above three (M=3.22), which demonstrated that the water utility employees were committed partially to the organisation. To improve the OC of employees at the water utility company, it is recommended that performance-related pay should be

introduced. Such a reward system would reward employees according to their performance, thereby achieving organisational goals. If employees realise that management recognises and rewards their efforts, they would develop emotional attachment to and desire to maintain a long-term relationship with the organisation.

- The overall mean score for OCB was 4.04, which demonstrated that the water utility employees were readily willing to contribute to the organisation's efficiency and productivity through helping other employees, consulting with other employees before a decision was taken and complying with organisational rules and regulations. To maintain the employees' willingness to exhibit OCB, the management is urged to give recognition to the extra-work related behaviours employees' exhibit, even though these behaviours are not formally recognised by formal reward system. This could be achieved by providing such employees Friday afternoons off to allow them to revitalise.
- An improvement of OC could also be through an establishment of buddy and mentorship programmes to encourage the transfer of knowledge and skills to others. Such programmes would ensure that senior employees feel valued by the organisation and new employees benefit from seniors' vast experience, knowledge and skills. One strength of buddy and mentorship programmes is that it mitigates conflicts that may arise as a result of competition, and promotes team effort that is directed at achieving common goals and interests.
- Based on negative correlation and insignificant predictive relationship between continuance commitment and JS ($r= -.095$; $p<.136$), it is recommended that the water utility should introduce flexible benefit plans aimed at addressing the needs of employees. The benefits could include a cafeteria-style benefit plan and an employee services plan. A cafeteria-style benefit plan allows employees to choose from a wide range of benefits relevant to their personal needs along with traditional benefits offered by the organisation. With regard to the employee services plan the water utility could build an on-site childcare facility where employees can be able to visit their children during lunch breaks. However, employees and the employer would share the expenses. These benefits will improve continuance commitment, which in turn will enhance employees' JS.

- In order to foster continuance commitment, the organisation needs to focus on those aspects that lift employees' morale. For example, creating the spirit of teamwork, and rewarding team effort. In this way, it would be difficult for employees to leave the organisation because of the bond they would have established with co-workers.
- In the same vein, a negative and insignificant relationship between continuance commitment and OCB (r= -.067; p<.292) was observed. Since the results of this study revealed that the low level of continuance commitment resulted in low level of OCB, it is recommended that leadership should receive greater attention because employees' perceptions of leadership contribute to employees' willingness to exert effort and display OCB. For this reason, the water utility should implement leadership approaches that are considerate of employees' needs and aspirations.
- Additionally, involving employees in decision-making processes cultivates higher level of continuance commitment while encouraging employees to perform extra-role activities that support the attainment of organisational goals. Managers who encourage employees to participate in decision-making processes foster OC among employees and encourage them to go beyond the formal requirements of the job to achieve organisational goals.

The limitations arising from the findings of the study are discussed in the next section.

5.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS

As with every study of this nature, this study has several limitations that should be taken into consideration when interpreting the results:

- The study is limited in that it was undertaken among employees in the water utility company in Gauteng province only. The study cannot be generalised to other provinces.
- Furthermore, this study is limited in scope in that there may be other factors that could also influence the effect of JS and OC on OCB.
- Moreover, given that data were collected solely by a self-administered method of survey, the researcher did not have control over how respondents completed the questionnaires. Consequently, the researcher had to rely on data given by the respondents, which could have been biased.

- Of the 400 questionnaires issued, only 250 were completed and returned, thus limiting the size of the sample. A larger sample size of 400 may have yielded better results.

The following section presented the research opportunities that may be explored.

5.6 FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

The present study aimed to investigate the impact of OC and JS on OCB at the water utility company in Gauteng. The scope of this study could be extended to other provinces in order to examine similarities and differences in various sites of delivery across the country. This could also maximise full participation of employees in the entire organisation and yield better results for generalisation.

To enhance insight into OC and OCB, a comprehensive study could be undertaken to explore the mediating role of organisational support and distributive justice on the relationship between OC and OCB. This study could be conducted in private or public entities.

The value of demographic characteristics, such as employees' level of education, gender, age, marital status, race, length of service, employment status and position held was not explored in this study. It is possible that a comprehensive examination of these characteristics could offer additional insight to the knowledge of JS, OC and OCB. Thus, future studies need to investigate the relationship between demographic characteristics of employees and JS, OC and OCB.

5.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the summary of the entire study was provided. The extent to which the theoretical and empirical objectives were achieved was also elucidated. Recommendations were made based on empirical findings emanating from the study. The limitations of the study were outlined and future research opportunities were highlighted.

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ANNEXURE A

CONSENT LETTER

LETTER OF PARTICIPATION

Dear Respondent/Participant

My name is Thembi Motaung. I am a Master's student in the Department of Human Resource Management, Faculty of Management Sciences at Vaal University of Technology. I am conducting a research on the impact of job satisfaction and organisational commitment on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). I kindly request you to fill in this questionnaire. All the information collected from the questionnaire will be used for academic purposes only and will be kept in strict confidence.

Your biographical information in this study is very important and is required for statistical purposes only. Please note that this is an anonymous questionnaire, do not write your name, staff number or any other personal information anywhere in the document.

If you have any queries, please contact me or my research supervisor (details listed below).

Thank you for your time.

Mrs TL Motaung
Researcher
071 362 3920
thembim@vut.ac.za

Dr PQ Radebe
Supervisor
078 102 6736
patrick@vut.ac.za

ANNEXURE B

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions:

This questionnaire consists of a number of questions about the organisation in which you work. Please read each question carefully and cross (X) the number/ box (□) corresponding to the response that most accurately represents your view. There are no right or wrong answers as these are opinion-related items (questions). You are only requested to provide your frank and honest opinion.

The questionnaire contains **four** sections:
SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC AND GENERAL PROFILE
SECTION B: JOB SATISFACTION
SECTION C: EMPLOYEE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT
SECTION D: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Your participation in completing this questionnaire is enormously appreciated

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

You are requested to mark with a cross (x) inside the box that contains the information relevant to you.

A1	Gender	Male	Female

A2	Marital status	Married	Single	Divorced	Separated	Widowed

A3	Age category	20 years and younger	21-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51 years & older

A4	Race	African	Coloured	Indian	White	Other *(Specify)*

A5	Highest qualification	Lower than Grade12	Grade 12	Diploma	Degree	Other *(Specify)*

A6	Years of service	Less than a year	1-10 years	11 to 20 years	21 to 30 years	31 years & more

A7	Current job status	Permanent	Temporary	Contract	Other *(Specify)*

A8	Current position	Management	Support staff	Administrator	Other *(Specify)*

SECTION B: JOB SATISFACTION

In this section we would like to know more about your job satisfaction in the organisation that you work for. If you are unsure on your choice, please choose among the options that seem appropriate to you. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the

statements by making a cross (x) inside the box with the corresponding number from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

		Strongly disagreed	Disagree	Neither disagree or agree	Agree	Strongly agree
B1	I definitely like my job.	1	2	3	4	5
B2	I like my job better than the average worker does.	1	2	3	4	5
B3	Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
B4	I find real enjoyment in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
B5	I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: EMPLOYEE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

This section consists of statements which describe how you feel about your organisation where you work and how committed you are. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by making a cross (x) inside the box with the corresponding number from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

		Strongly disagreed	Disagree	Neither disagree or agree	Agree	Strongly agree
C1	I am very happy being a member of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C2	I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it	1	2	3	4	5
C3	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
C4	I think I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one	1	2	3	4	5
C5	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at this organisation	1	2	3	4	5

C6	I do not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C7	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
C8	I do not feel a ‘strong’ sense of belonging to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C9	I worry about the loss of investments I have made in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C10	If I wasn’t a member of this organisation, I would be sad because my life would be disrupted.	1	2	3	4	5
C11	I am loyal to this organisation because I have invested a lot in it, emotionally, socially, and financially.	1	2	3	4	5
C12	I often feel anxious about what I have to lose with this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C13	Sometimes I worry about what might happen if something was to happen to this organisation and I was no longer a member	1	2	3	4	5
C14	I am dedicated to this organisation because I fear what I have to lose in it.	1	2	3	4	5
C15	I feel that I owe this organisation quite a bit because of what it has done for me	1	2	3	4	5
C16	My organisation deserves my loyalty because of its treatment of me	1	2	3	4	5
C17	I feel I would be letting my co-workers down if I wasn’t a member of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C18	I am loyal to this organisation because my values are largely its values	1	2	3	4	5
C19	This organisation has a mission that I believe in and am committed to	1	2	3	4	5
C20	I feel it is ‘morally correct’ to dedicate myself to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

This section consists of statements which illustrate incidents at work where you have made an extra effort that go "above and beyond the call of duty". These incidents can also be described as those where you have done things to help other individuals or to help the organisation. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements by making a cross (x) inside the box with the corresponding number from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree or agree	Agree	Strongly agree
D1	I try to implement solutions to pressing organisational problems	1	2	3	4	5
D2	I conscientiously follow company rules and procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
D3	I never neglect to follow instructions	1	2	3	4	5
D4	I do my work even after business hours to achieve company goals	1	2	3	4	5
D5	I am always ready to help those around me	1	2	3	4	5

The End

Thank you for your participation!!

ANNEXURE C

EDITING LETTER

Ms Linda Scott

English language editing

SATI membership number: 1002595

Tel: 083 654 4156

4 May 2016

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have language edited the **dissertation** of

Thembi Laura Motaung

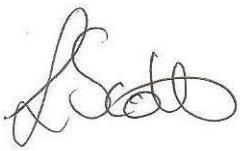
for the degree

Magister Technologiae in Business Administration

entitled:
Organisational commitment and job satisfaction as antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour at the water utility company in Gauteng

The responsibility of implementing the recommended language changes rests with the author of the dissertation.

Yours truly,



Linda Scott