

**JOB SATISFACTION AND THE INTENTION TO QUIT BY
EMPLOYEES IN A STEEL MANUFACTURING COMPANY
IN GAUTENG**



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September 2015

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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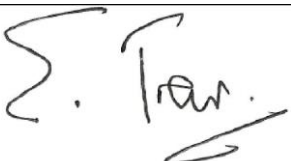
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DEDICATION

The dissertation is dedicated to my late parents Mr. and Mrs. Mgiba, my family and siblings who believed in my capabilities throughout my academic journey.

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I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Dr Pierre A. Joubert for his patience, advice, support, and guidance from the premature stage of this research journey to the very end. He persistently inspired in me the value of excellence in research, which greatly motivated me to complete this study. I attribute a large portion of this work to him because without his guidance and persistence in helping me, this dissertation would not have been possible.

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Finally but not the least, to the Almighty God, my fortress, without Him none of this would have been possible.

ABSTRACT

Keywords: Job satisfaction, retention, turnover and intention to quit.

The main purpose of the study was to examine the level of job satisfaction and intention to quit, by employees in a steel manufacturing company. The research methodology used to conduct the study was a combination of a literature review and an empirical study. Due to the small size of the population, no sampling was done although a census had been drawn. The primary data were collected using a structured questionnaire. The measuring instrument contained 25 items. For the main survey, data from 181 respondents were collected and analysed. Participants in the study involved engineers, operators, technicians, artisans, administrative staff and safety, health and environmental specialists in the steel manufacturing company.

Data were analysed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the measuring instrument were computed to establish construct validity. Content validity of the scale was ascertained by pre-testing the questionnaire with employees in the steel manufacturing company. Factor analysis was conducted for variables in Section B of the research instrument. Analysis was done using descriptive statistics on the demographic information of respondents. The results were also interpreted through the factor analysis and correlation analysis.

The findings regarding employee's perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction and employees' intentions to quit their current organisation revealed that the supervision variable is positively correlated with job variable while it is negatively correlated with intention to quit. In addition, job variable is also negatively correlated with intention to quit. This means that effective supervisors are likely to improve employees' job satisfaction hence decrease their intentions to quit their current organisation and vice versa. In addition, when employees are satisfied with their job environment, this will decrease their intentions to quit their current organisation and vice versa.

Judging from the results from respondents, it is clear that when employees are provided with a job that rewards them for their effort and provides opportunities for advancement, they will be satisfied and therefore more likely to stay in the organisation. Hence, the employees at Babcock Ntuthuko Generations are satisfied and they are not intending to leave the

organisation. The research information collected through this study can be used to encourage Babcock Ntuthuko management to continue providing employees with a conducive working environment to ensure that current and new employees are retained.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, the retention of skilled employees has been of serious concern to managers in the face of the ever-increasing, high rate of employee turnover. Today's business environment has become very competitive, which makes skilled employees the major differentiating factor for most organisations. Organisations, both public and private, rely on the expertise of their employees in order to compete favourably and indeed gain competitive advantage in the international market (Samuel & Chipunza 2009:410).

Business leaders often assert that skilled and committed employees are the only sustainable source of competitive advantage of an organisation (Perryer, Jordan, Firms & Travaglione 2010:911). Sutherland and Jordaan (2004:55) emphasise that a critical component in determining an organisation's present and future success is its ability to retain knowledge workers. It is critical, therefore, for all organisations to retain valuable and skilled employees (Lee & Way 2010:344), since they have invested huge amounts of time and money to develop these employees (Kevin, Joan & Adrian 2004:161).

Organisations in South Africa are failing to retain skilled workers (Horwitz 2008:1). According to Gillingham (2008:17), skilled employees are migrating abroad daily, for better job opportunities. This phenomenon is having an adverse effect on investment, as emigrating employees are moving client's investments offshore (Samuel & Chipunza 2009:410), which costs companies millions of rands per year (Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield 2006:125). Employee turnover in South Africa is not only exacerbated by employee emigration but also by 'war for talent' (Kotzé & Roodt 2005:48).

Organisations in South Africa will continue to lose valuable employees to competitor organisations until managers are able to identify and apply appropriate retention strategies that will help reduce the frequent turnover of key employees (Samuel & Chipunza 2010:410). Research findings by Sherman, Alper and Wolfson (2006:22) confirm this trend. According to the authors, employee turnover has been on the increase in South Africa with the turnover rate surging by more than 25 percent in the last five years.

Employee turnover costs an organisation more than one and a half times the employee's annual salary when considering the overall costs, which include re-assigning tasks, recruiting and training a replacement (Cascio 2006:12). This phenomenon, according to Litheko (2008:26), is making recruitment an onerous task in South Africa, because the majority of job candidates are perceived to be unsuitable for the majority of vacancies at professional and technical levels. It is, therefore, imperative for any organisation to ensure that its employees are satisfied in their jobs in order to curb employee turnover.

Numerous researchers have attempted to answer the question of turnover and what determines an employee's intention to quit, by investigating the possible antecedents. According to Moore (2002:141), lack of job satisfaction is among the factors that contribute to the employees' intention to quit their jobs. Research findings by Park and Kim (2009:20) show that job satisfaction is a key precursor of voluntary turnover. Testa (2001), cited by Lee and Way (2010:345), supports the above authors by stating that job satisfaction has a significant relationship with organisational commitment and employee turnover.

Job satisfaction has also been found by Yousef (2000:6) to be inversely related to withdrawal behaviours such as tardiness, absenteeism and turnover. It has also been linked to increased productivity and organisational effectiveness (Buitendach & De Witte 2005:27). According to Braham (2005:11), employee turnover, or intention to leave, in many cases is not a sudden or instant decision, but a process of disengagement that can take days, months, or even years before the decision to quit is reached. Tseane (2009:1) found that the traditional quitting process occurs when an employee is dissatisfied with his or her job, and he or she initiates a job search, and quits when a suitable job is found.

Riggio (2003:215) describes job satisfaction as consisting of the feelings and attitudes one has about one's job, including all aspects of a particular job, good and bad, positive and negative, which are likely to contribute to the development of feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction or turnover intentions. However, in the context of this study, job satisfaction is defined as an attitude that individuals have about their jobs. It is the extent to which one feels positively or negatively about the intrinsic and/or extrinsic aspects of one's job (Masroor & Fakir 2010:125).

1.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Existing literature (Abassi & Hollman 2000:303; Hewitt associates 2006; Sherman *et al.*, 2006:8) highlights reasons for employee turnover in the organisation as: (1) hiring practices; (2) managerial style; (3) lack of recognition; (4) lack of competitive compensation system; and (5) toxic workplace environment. Hence, management has a direct control over many of the most important drivers of employee turnover (Enz 2010:736). According to Brown (2006:2), a lack of proper employee retention strategies has an adverse effect on the organisations, as replacing key employees is disruptive, expensive, time consuming and may even threaten the sustainability of these organisations.

Kim, Leong and Lee (2005:175) found that companies that exhibited high commitment to improving their employees' job satisfaction, motivation, and morale, may realise long-term benefits of corporate success, loyalty, productivity, and employee retention. In support, Al-Hussami (2008:286) affirmed that satisfied employees tend to be more productive and committed to their jobs than dissatisfied employees. Dawal, Taha and Ismail (2009:1) opine that employees generally work harder and perform better when they are satisfied with their jobs. However, if the job satisfaction is low, it will deter the individual's work commitment and increase the intention to withdraw oneself, either from the job, or organisation (Cohen & Golan 2007:416).

Payne and Morrison (2002:415), Sagie (2002:156), Santhapparaj, Srinii and Ling (2005:1553), Redfern (2005:512), Gellatly (2005:468) and Denizer (2008:712) found that when an employee sees that his expectations are not met in the job environment, job dissatisfaction emerges, which eventually leads to the decrease in productivity, organisational commitment, commitment to the job, and an increase in the rates of the optional discontinuation of the job. Yiing and Bin Ahmad (2009:58) also found that when employees are dissatisfied at work, they tended to be less committed and will look for other opportunities to quit, and when opportunities are unavailable they may emotionally or mentally "withdraw" from the organisation.

Retention practices have posed enormous challenges to managers considering the shortage of qualified manpower in the South African labour market. Managers in both public and private sector organisations have to devise innovative means of retaining high performing employees in their pool in order to avoid frequent recruitment, which is costly and time consuming

(Michael 2008:8). It is imperative, therefore, for managers to know and understand factors that satisfy their key employees in their jobs (Amos, Ristow, Ristow & Pearse 2008:172), as holding on to their jobs is no longer their priority (Hay 2002:52).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

In the global market place, organisations worldwide rely on their employees in order to compete favourably and gain competitive advantage. According to Lee and Way (2010:344), employees are an organisation's foundation. It is crucial, therefore, for all organisations, particularly those in developing countries with limited skills such as South Africa, to ensure that they consistently develop and retain a loyal, committed and able workforce (Roos & van Eeden 2008:54), since their value is essentially intangible and not easily replicated (Stokvel & Bontis 2002:303). According to Abassi and Hollman (2000:333), employees are major contributors to the efficient achievement of the organisation's success. Managers, at all cost, must minimise employee's turnover (Ongori 2007:49).

However, organisations in South Africa are failing to retain skilled workers (Horwitz, 2008:1), although this trend is not a challenge unique to South African employers (Kotzé & Roodt 2005:1), but an international phenomenon (Hay 2001:52). Skilled employees are migrating abroad daily, for better job conditions (Gillingham 2008:17). According to Hay (2001:52), employee turnover has increased by 25 percent in the last five years, and one-third of employees currently in employment, plan to quit within the next three years. Empirical studies by Stovel and Bontis (2002:303) found that employees on average switch employers every six years.

Babcock Africa Limited is a leading engineering support services organisation with a turnover of approximately R3bn. It was established in South Africa in 1890 and employs more than 2 750 employees. However, the organisation is not immune to employee turnover. According to the Human Resource Annual Report of Babcock (2011:4), the company had a turnover of 167 employees in the fiscal year of 2010/11. Key employees have been lost to competitors, which has been costly to the organisation. According to Hebenstreit (2008:4), employee turnover is a significant concern and is expensive for every organisation, with the expense of recruiting and retaining a new worker costing anywhere from 50 percent to 200 percent of the departing employee's annual salary. Depending on the employment level, the

many costs associated with employee turnover are co-worker burden, recruitment and training costs, lost productivity, loss of clients and loss of intellectual capital (Rion 2009:8).

According to (Ongori 2007:49), employee turnover can be curbed provided appropriate understanding of employees' expectations and what satisfy them in their workplaces are identified. Kevin *et al.* (2004:161) emphasise that managers must at all costs minimise employees' turnover by ensuring that they fully understand the sources that determine employee turnover, and put strategies in place to minimise it. Managers should understand employees' concerns regarding their work environments and what satisfies them, as they (employees) play an important role in sustaining a successful business (Ford & Heaton 2001:30).

Hebenstreit (2008:5) emphasises that it is essential to create a variety of options and alternatives for a total employee retention programme, to address areas that matter to employees. This study is thus an attempt to examine the level of job satisfaction and intention to quit by employees in a steel manufacturing company, and therefore, recommend to management the best possible strategies of employees' retention so that employees can commit to stay with the organisation.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives were formulated for this study:

1.4.1 Primary objectives

The main purpose of the study will be to determine the level of job satisfaction and the intention to quit of employees in a steel manufacturing company and also to establish the relationship between the constructs (JS and ITQ).

1.4.2 Theoretical objectives

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

- to conduct a literature study on job satisfaction;
- to conduct a literature study on intention to quit; and
- to carry out a literature review on employees' retention and turnover.

1.4.3 Empirical objectives

In accordance with the primary objective and theoretical objectives of the study, the following empirical objectives were formulated:

- to examine the level of job satisfaction of employees in a steel manufacturing company;
- to determine the intention to quit of employees in a steel manufacturing company; and
- to determine the existence of any significant differences in terms of demographics of participants.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Literature review, empirical research design (which encompasses target population, sample frame, sample method, sample size, measuring instrument and data collection method), statistical analyses, reliability and validity are discussed in detail in chapter three.

1.6 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

This study comprises the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction and background of the study

The introduction and background of the study, the problem statement, the research objective, and the research methodology are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter provides an outline of the literature review conducted on motivation, the relevant motivation theories, factors influencing job satisfaction, intention to quit and the retention strategies of employees as a source of knowledge.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

Research design and methodology are outlined within this chapter, including sampling techniques, methods of data collection and data analysis.

Chapter 4: Results and findings

In this chapter, the focus is on the analysis, interpretation and evaluation of the findings of the study.

Chapter 5: Conclusions, Limitations and Recommendations

In this chapter, the findings and limitations are summarised, conclusions reached, and recommendations are made for future research.

CHAPTER 2

JOB SATISFACTION AND INTENTION TO QUIT

2.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

According to Lee and Way (2010:244), employees are important assets for the organisations. Creating a good atmosphere of the work environment and pay more attention to employees' satisfaction is critical for any organisation to succeed. Employees who are satisfied with their jobs will be motivated to work harder and those that are not will consider to leave. Robbins (2005:2) postulates that managers have a humanistic responsibility to provide employees with jobs that are challenging, rewarding and satisfying. According to Alavi and Askaripur (2003:591), there are at least three reasons why managers must focus on the job satisfaction of its employees: (1) evidence suggests that dissatisfied individuals leave organisations; (2) satisfied employees are in better health and have longer life expectancy; and (3) job satisfaction in the workplace also affects individuals' private lives which in turn has an effect on absenteeism and other important work-related attitudes and behaviour.

2.2 JOB SATISFACTION DEFINED

While definitions can provide a broad understanding of what job satisfaction entails, it remains a complex concept, with a plethora of various definitions described by many researchers. According to Daneshfard and Ekvaniyan (2012:168), researchers most commonly refer to the following three definitions.

Hoppock (1935:47) defined job satisfaction as "...any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a person to be satisfied with his/her job". Locke (1976: 1300) defined job satisfaction as "...a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". According to Luthans (2002:230), job satisfaction is an attitude or emotional response to one's tasks as well as to the physical and social conditions of the workplace. Riggio (2003:215) describes job satisfaction as consisting of the feelings and attitudes one has about one's job including all aspects of a particular job, good and bad, positive and negative, which are likely to contribute to the development of feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction or turnover intentions.

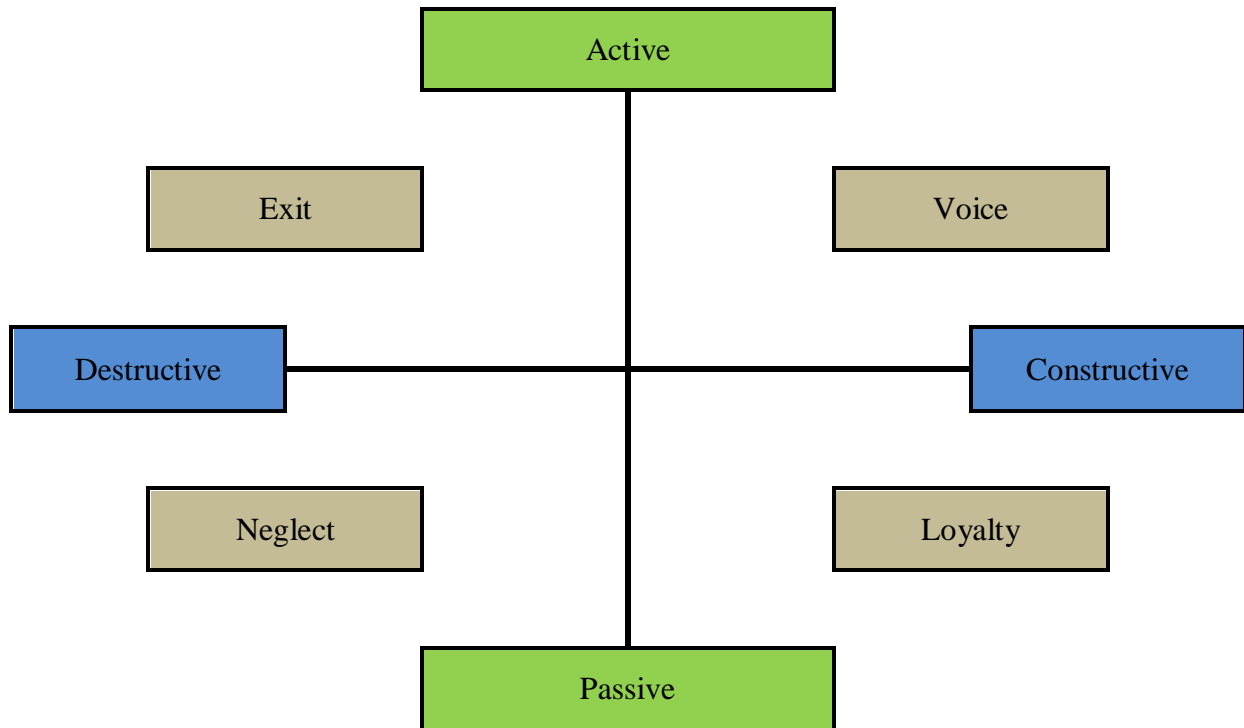
It can also be defined as “the phenomenon ascertaining the contentment of the employee and appears when the qualifications of the job and the demands of the employees match” (Reichers 2006:465). Masroor and Fakir (2010:125) defined job satisfaction as “...an attitude that individuals have about their jobs”. Adenike (2011:154) defines job satisfaction as “...one’s feeling or state of mind regarding the nature of the job”.

Job satisfaction positively affects employee behaviour, which provides additional contribution to a company’s performance. Employees with high job satisfaction are devoted to that organisation and can obtain a high-level productivity in their work (Ozdemir 2009:103). According to Nelson and Quick (2006:120), job satisfaction is generally seen as general attitude as well as satisfaction with particular dimensions of job, pay, the work itself, supervision, promotion, the group and work conditions. In the context of this study, job satisfaction is defined as an attitude that individuals have about their jobs. One feels positively or negatively about the intrinsic and/or extrinsic aspects of one’s job (Masroor & Fakir 2010:125) to an extent.

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

- Exit – Behaviour directed towards leaving the organisation, including looking for a new position as well as resigning;
- Voice – Actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions, including suggesting improvements, discussing problems with supervisors and some forms of union activity;
- Loyalty – Passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve, including speaking up for the organisation in the face of external criticism and trusting the organisation and its management to do the right thing; and
- Neglect – Passively allowing conditions to worsen, including chronic absenteeism or lateness, reduced effort and increased error rate.

Responses to Job Dissatisfaction



(Source: Robbins 1998:157)

Figure 1: Responses to Job Dissatisfaction

2.3 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Luthans (1995:13) notes that “there is nothing as practical as a good theory”. Theory is a systematic grouping of interdependent concepts and principles resulting into a framework that ties together a significant area of knowledge (Wehrich & Koontz 1999:13). On the other hand, more precisely, a theory identifies important variables and links them to form ‘tentative propositions’ (or hypotheses) that can be tested through research (Newstrom 2007:6).

Most of the debates about theories of job satisfaction start with Maslow’s theory of ‘Hierarchy of Needs’ (1943). However, the theory begins with the idea of ‘scientific movement’ or ‘Taylorism’ by Taylor (1911), which treats the human being as ‘economic-man’ where ‘money’ is the biggest motivator for job-satisfaction. This view was criticised by Elton Mayo & Associates (1924-33) during ‘hawthorne Studies’ about the nature of a human being. They found that multiple factors contribute to the motivation and satisfaction of workers, including personal morale, positive interrelationships, management founded on the

understanding of individual and group behaviour through interpersonal skills such as motivating, counselling, leading and communicating (Wehrich & Koontz 1999:42).

2.3.1 Classification of the theories

A survey of literature about the theories of motivation suggests that theories are commonly grouped according to either their nature or their chronological appearance. Shajahan and Shajahan (2004:90-99) classified them into content-theories (Maslow's Needs Hierarchy, Herzberg's Two Factor theory, Theory X and Theory Y, Alderfer's ERG theory, and McClelland's Theory of Needs) and process-theories (Behaviour Modification, Cognitive Evaluation Theory, Goal Setting theory, Reinforcement theory, Expectancy theory, and Equity theory).

Luthans (2005:240-256) suggests that there are content (Needs Hierarchy, Two-Factors, and ERG theories), process (Expectancy theory and the Porter & Lawler model) and contemporary (Equity, Control and Agency) theories. Robbins, (2005:48-61) on the other hand, uses chronology and categorises the theories into early-theories (Hierarchy of needs, Theory X & Y, Two-Factor theory) and contemporary theories (McClelland's theory of needs, Goal Setting theory, Reinforcement theory, Job Design Theory, Equity theory and Expectancy theory).

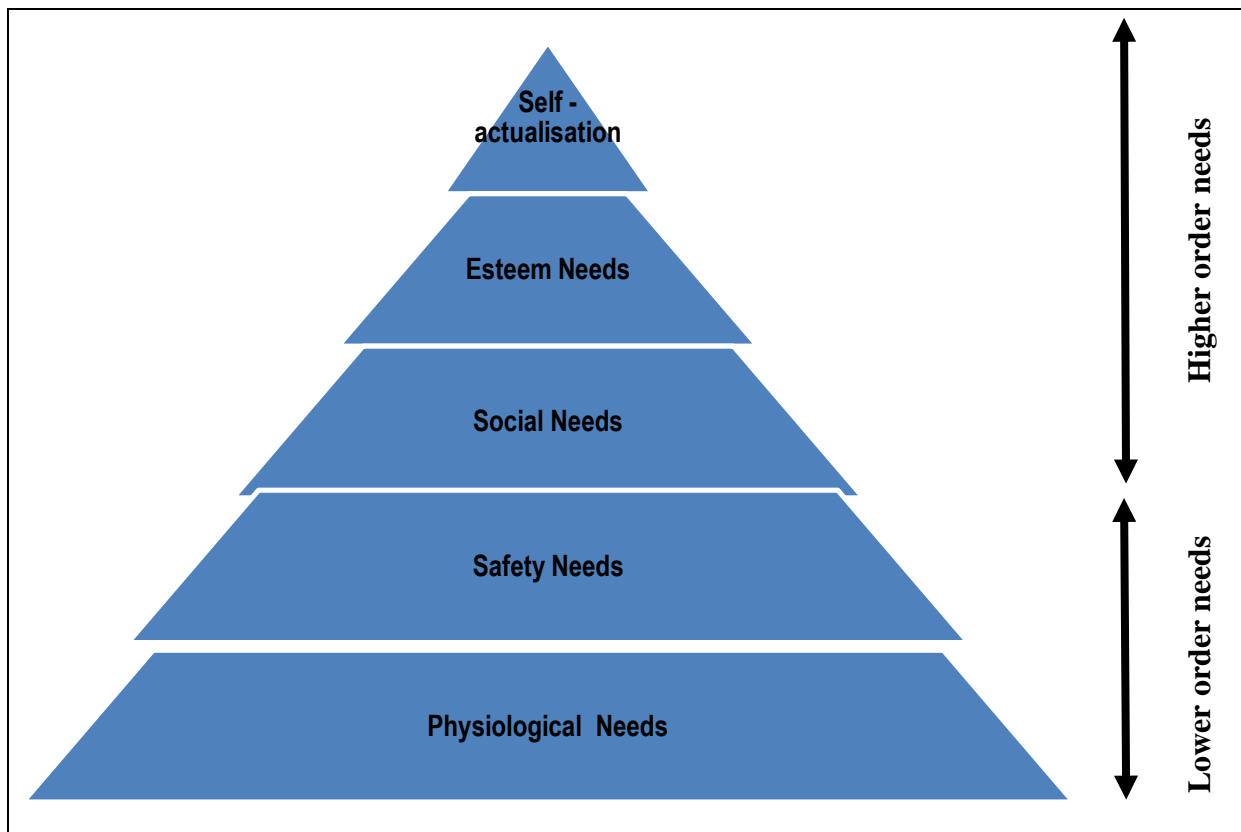
In this section, the following six theories that underpin job satisfaction are presented. These are the most widely discussed theories of motivation:

- Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory;
- Alderfer's theory;
- McClelland's learned needs theory;
- Herzberg's two-factor theory;
- Locke's goal setting theory;
- Adams' equity theory; and
- Self-determination theory.

2.3.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943) is possibly the best known of all motivation theories. It calls attention to human needs as the drivers of behaviour. Needs are aspects of people's lives that need fulfilment, and which in turn initiate, direct and sustain behaviour towards

satisfaction (Amos *et al.* 2008:176). Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory consists of five levels generally depicted as a pyramid. The levels of needs as seen in figure 2.2 are: (1) physical needs (food, clothing, shelter, sex); (2) safety needs (physical protection); (3) social needs (develop close associations with others); (4) esteem/achievement needs (prestige given by others); and (5) self-actualisation (self-fulfilment and accomplishment through personal growth).



(Source: Amos *et al.*, 2008:177)

Figure 2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

The theory is based on a satisfaction-progression assumption. According to Maslow, individuals first seek to satisfy lower order needs before higher order needs are satisfied (Amos *et al.*, 2008:177). Once a given level of needs is satisfied, it no longer helps to motivate. Thus the next higher level of need has to be activated in order to motivate and thereby satisfy the individual (Luthans 2005:240).

Studies by Maslow (1970) regarded the first two need levels (physiological and safety) as lower-order needs. These needs are also called deficiency needs because if these needs are not met, people may not have the opportunity to develop themselves both physically and

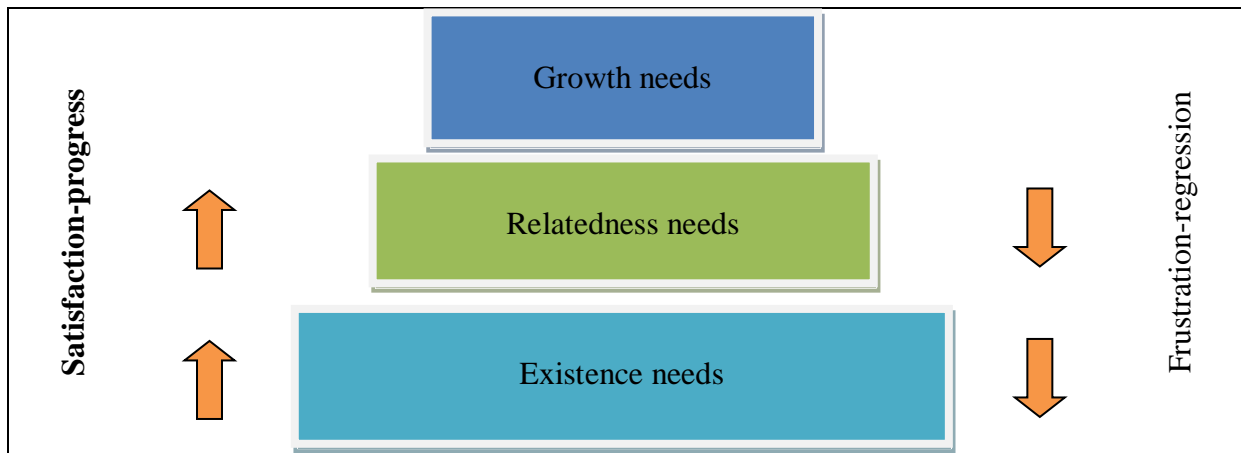
physiologically. In order to survive people need air, water, food and protection from physical danger. Many people work in order to survive, to guarantee themselves and their families sufficient nourishment and protection from harm. These survival needs are very powerful motivators for people to go to work; people whose survival is threatened will work in almost any kind of job so they can earn enough money to meet their lower-order needs.

Using Maslow's theory, managers can motivate individual staff and ensure performance by identifying those needs of individuals that initiate and direct behaviour, considering which needs have been satisfied and which still need to be satisfied, and then satisfy those needs at the right time. They also need to acknowledge that each individual is unique and that their needs may change over time (Amos *et al.*, 2008:179).

2.3.1.2 Alderfer's theory

Alderfer's (1972) theory (also known as ERG theory) is similar to Maslow's theory in that needs are structured in a hierarchy, but Alderfer proposed only three sets of needs: existence; relatedness; and growth. While Maslow's theory is based on the satisfaction-progression assumption, Alderfer provided the frustration-regression hypothesis. This argues that when employees are frustrated in meeting higher order needs, the next lower order needs re-emerge to influence the employees' behaviour to seek satisfaction of the lower order need (Amos *et al.*, 2008:179). The sets of needs are described below and can be seen in figure 2.3 below.

- **Existence needs:** Refers to an individual's concern with basic material and physiological existence requirements, such as food, water, pay, fringe benefits, and working conditions.
- **Relatedness needs:** Refers to the need for developing and sustaining interpersonal relationships such as relations with family, friends, supervisors, co-workers, subordinates, and other significant groups.
- **Growth needs:** Refers to an individual's intrinsic need to be creative, and to make useful and productive contributions, including personal development with opportunities for personal growth (Amos *et al.*, 2008:180).

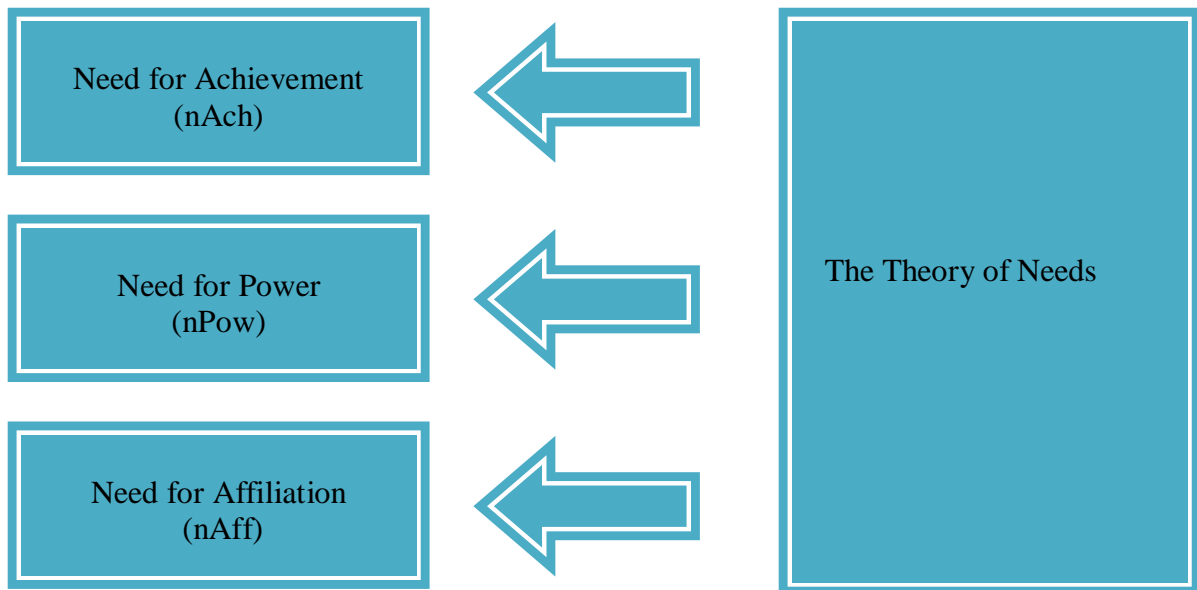


(Source: Amos *et al.*, 2008:180)

Figure 3: Alderfer's ERG theory

2.3.1.3 McClelland's theory

Robbins, Judge, Millett and Walters-Marsh (2008:186-188), supports the theories of Maslow and Alderfer by referring to motivation in terms of needs, but unlike Maslow and Alderfer, they did not see the needs in terms of a hierarchy in which individuals move up and down. For McClelland, an individual learns needs – or what he calls motives from interacting with others in their social environments. He proposes that the three basic needs are operative in the workplace, as highlighted in Figure 4 below:



(Source: Robbins 2001:133)

Figure 4: McClelland's Theory of Needs

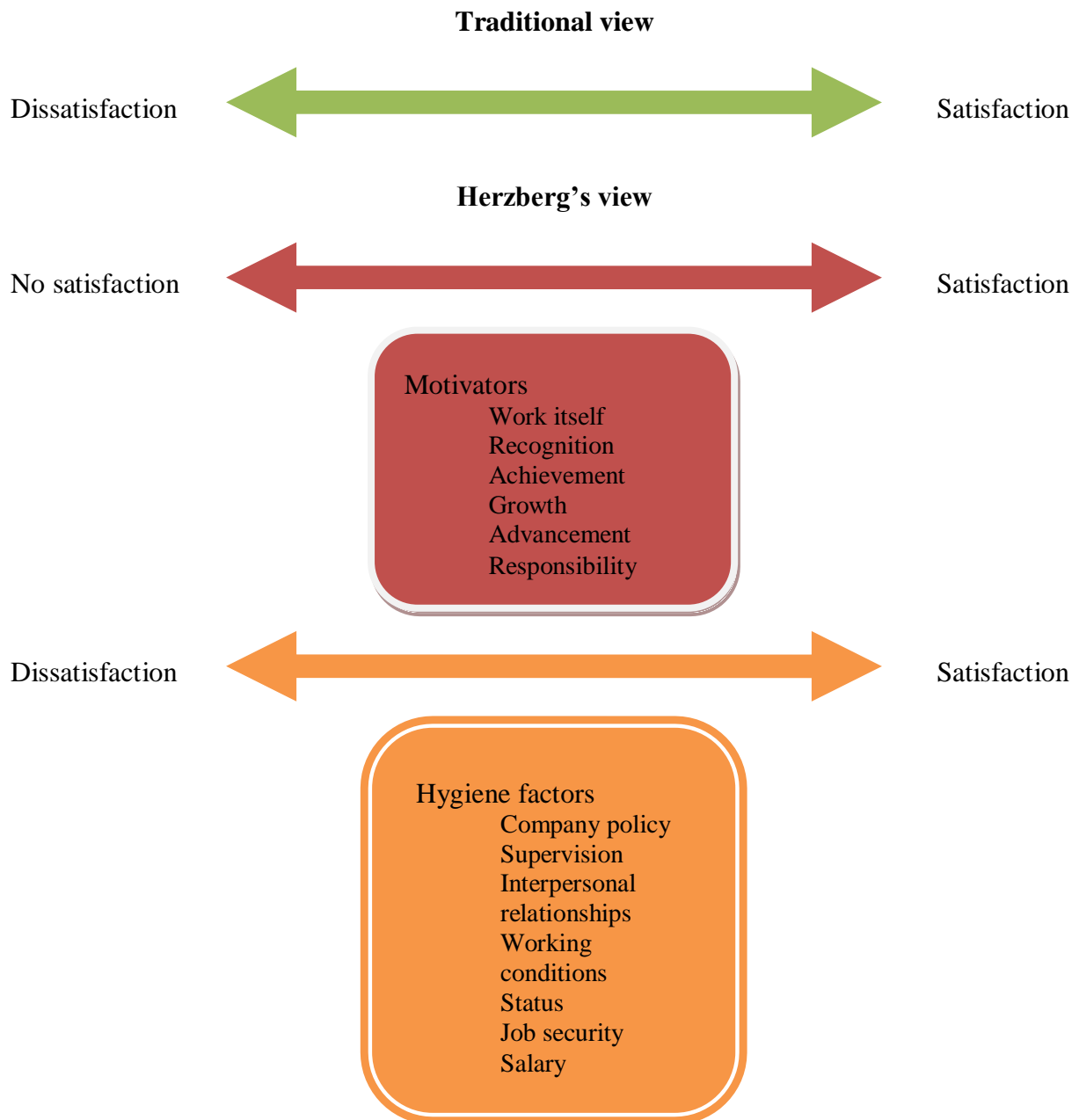
- **The need for achievement (nAch):** This is the drive to excel and achieve beyond the standards of success (Amos *et al.*, 2008:182). McClelland found that people with high need for achievement perform better than those with a moderate or low need for achievement. He postulated that individuals with high need of achievement have three distinctive characteristics, namely: (1) they set goals that are rather complicated, yet achievable; (2) individuals with high need for achievement like to receive feedback on their progress towards these goals; and (3) they do not like having outside events or other people get in their way of their progress towards achieving these goals.
- **The needs for power (nPow):** This is the desire to have an impact, to be influential, and to control others (Shajahan & Shajahan 2004:95; Robbins 2005:53). In McClelland's research (1961), a high need for power was one unique characteristic of managers who were rated the best. The best managers had a high need for socialised power, more so than for personalised power. This means that they are concerned for others, have an interest in organisational goals and have a desire to be useful to the larger group, organisation and society.
- **The need for affiliation (nAff):** This is the desire for having friendly and close interpersonal relationships (Shajahan & Shajahan 2004:95). Those with high affiliation prefer cooperative rather than competitive situations (Robbins 2005:53).

According to McClelland, the above-listed needs constitute the totality of needs. Therefore it is critically important for a manager to determine his/her subordinates' dominant need and to offer opportunities whereby the individual's needs and organisation's goals can simultaneously be met (Swanepoel, Erasmus & Schenk 2008:329).

2.3.1.4 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, also known as the Two-Factor theory, has received widespread attention as having a practical approach toward motivating employees. Herzberg (1959) did a motivational study in which he interviewed 200 accountants and engineers from more than nine companies in the United States. These professionals were asked to describe experiences in which they felt either extremely bad or exceptionally good about their jobs and to rate their feelings on these experiences.

Tabulating these good and bad feelings, Herzberg argued that there are job-satisfiers (motivators) related to the job contents (achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement) and job-dissatisfiers (hygiene factors) which are concerned with the job context. The hygiene factors include: (1) company policy; (2) administration; (3) supervision; (4) salary; (5) interpersonal relations with supervisor; and (6) working conditions (Amos *et al.*, 2008:180). Figure 5 illustrates Herzberg's theory and provides examples of motivators and hygiene factors. Motivators relate to the job itself while hygiene factors relate to the job context.



(Source: Amos *et al.*, 2008:187)

Figure 5: Herzberg's Two-Factor theory

In terms of this theory, as shown in figure 5, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite ends of the same continuum. Hygiene factors are independent from motivators. Hygiene factors, if neglected, can make an employee dissatisfied, but, if addressed through good pay, pleasant working conditions, and so forth, they do not contribute significantly to job satisfaction and performance. Equally, if motivator factors are present, they will cause satisfaction, but their absence will not cause dissatisfaction. The theory proposes a dual

continuum, the opposite of satisfaction being no satisfaction, and the opposite of dissatisfaction being no dissatisfaction.

According to Luthans (2002:519), the hygiene factors in effect bring motivation up to a theoretical zero level and are a necessary “floor” to prevent dissatisfaction, as they serve as a take-off point for motivation. Amos *et al.* (2008:182) emphasise that managers need to make sure that policies and working environment do not result in dissatisfaction. It must be noted, however, that these are merely hygiene factors, which cannot be a means of increasing individual job satisfaction.

However, Herzberg’s Two-Factor theory has been criticised regarding its validity in different work settings. According to Gibson, Ivancevich and Donelley (2000:134-135), the following are their criticisms levelled at Herzberg’s Two-Factor theory:

- He used a small sample (n = 200) and the issue is whether results from such a small sample could be generalised to other occupational groups and to other countries.
- He simplified the nature of job satisfaction, leading to assumptions that a manager can easily change hygiene factors or satisfiers and thus produce job satisfaction. This, of course, is not an accurate view of how complex and difficult motivation and job satisfaction are in terms of workplace manipulation.
- Herzberg did not offer an explanation as to why the various extrinsic and intrinsic job factors should affect performance; and
- The two continua of Herzberg’s theory present a problem in terms of interpreting job satisfaction. For example, when one has low job satisfaction, does one simultaneously experience high job dissatisfaction? When one has low job dissatisfaction, does one simultaneously experience high job satisfaction?

In conclusion, Locke (1976:1318), analysed criticisms to Herzberg’s theory and concluded that in one aspect, Herzberg made a major contribution to job satisfaction theory and made current researchers understand the nature of job satisfaction. Since its introduction in 1959, it can be said that the two-factor theory has had considerable influence on the body of knowledge on workplace motivation and job satisfaction. Despite existing criticism, it can be stated that the two-factor theory has resolving and explanatory power. It has generated a vast amount of further research (Herzberg 1993) and is a useful base for prediction on the topic of workplace motivation and job satisfaction.

2.3.1.5 Locke's goal setting theory

Locke (1968) asserted that intentions people have play an important role in formulating their behavioural patterns. The basic idea of goal-setting is that people's behaviour is motivated by intentions, objectives and goals. According to Spector (2000:189), goals can be specific or general, difficult or easy. Some specific goals lead to increased performance and difficult goals (when accepted) lead to higher performance and increased satisfaction than easier goals (Shajahan & Shajahan 2004:95). Therefore, goal-setting theory demonstrates that challenging goals serve as motivating forces (Robbins 2005:54).

It is, however, difficult for specific goals to direct an employees' behaviour unless these goals were set in collaboration with each individual, understood and accepted by these individuals (Amos *et al.*, 2008:186). It is also difficult for specific goals to direct employees' behaviour unless they receive feedback (Spector 2000:190). Feedback regarding goals will result in better performance than when the feedback is absent. People do better when they get feedback on how well they are progressing toward their goals, as feedback identifies discrepancies between what they have done and what they want to do (Robbins 2005:54).

2.3.1.6 Adam's equity theory

Adam's theory is particularly relevant in South Africa with its huge inequities and skewed distribution of wealth (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2008:330). According to Adam's theory, people do not work in a vacuum, they work alongside others and they make comparisons between their perceived efforts and concomitant rewards, and the exertions of others and their rewards.

Equity theory suggests that individuals evaluate the ratio of their inputs to outcomes for a given job in relation to other, referent employees. Inequity is perceived to exist if the ratios are not equal. As a result of the tension thus created by this inequity, employees are motivated to restore equity. Outcomes or inputs may be altered (both objectively and psychologically); comparative referents (employees being compared) may be changed; or the employee may withdraw from the situation (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2008:331).

Adams' equity theory calls for a fair balance to be struck between an employee's inputs (hard work, skill level, tolerance, enthusiasm, etc.) and an employee's outputs (salary, benefits, intangibles such as recognition, etc.). According to the theory, finding this fair balance serves

to ensure a strong and productive relationship is achieved with the employee, with the overall result being contented, motivated and satisfied employees (Amos *et al.*, 2008:184).

2.3.1.7 Self-determination theory

Employees' self-determination is an integral part within an organisation as it predicts job outcomes such as job satisfaction (Gagne & Deci 2005:331). According to Richer, Blanchard and Vallerand (2002:2089), self-determined employees feel more committed to their organisations and report fewer turn over intentions. Central to self-determination theory (SDT) is the distinction between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation.

According to Gagne and Deci (2005:331-334), autonomy involves acting with a sense of volition and having the experience of choice. It means endorsing one's actions at the highest level of reflection. The authors posit that intrinsic motivation is an example of autonomous motivation. When people engage in an activity because they find it interesting, they are doing the activity wholly volitionally (e.g., I work because it is fun). In contrast, being controlled involves acting with a sense of pressure, a sense of having to engage in the actions. SDT postulates that autonomous and controlled motivations differ in terms of both their underlying regulatory processes and their accompanying experiences, and it further suggests that behaviours can be characterised in terms of the degree to which they are autonomous versus controlled. Autonomous motivation and controlled motivation are both intentional, and together they stand in contrast to amotivation which involves a lack of intention and motivation (Gagne & Deci 2005:334).

2.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING JOB SATISFACTION

According to researchers (Locke 1976; Luthans 1995; Spector 1996; Meudell & Rodham 1998; Pergamit & Veum 1999; Luthans 2002; Alavi & Askaripur 2003; Friday & Friday 2003; Bajpai & Srivastava 2004; George & Jones 2005; Choo & Bowley 2007; Blau & DeVaro 2007; Kostea 2009), the following factors: work conditions, supervision, co-worker, promotion opportunities, compensation/pay, work itself and fairness influence job satisfaction.

2.4.1 Work conditions

Conducive work conditions allow employees to do their job properly (Ozdemir 2009:103-104). Arnolds and Boshoff (2001:39) postulate that factors such as temperature, lighting, ventilation, hygiene, noise, working hours, and resources are all part of working conditions. The absence of such working conditions, amongst other things, can impact poorly on the worker's mental and physical well-being (Baron & Greenberg 2003:177).

In a work place where there are no sufficient conditions, employee motivation level decreases and such a situation affects employee job satisfaction negatively (Ozdemir 2009:103-104). According to Spector (1997), employees who perceive high levels of constraints in terms of their work environment, tend to be dissatisfied with their jobs. Contradictory literature, however, indicates that "most people do not give working conditions a great deal of thought unless they are extremely bad (Luthans 1995:128)".

2.4.2 Supervision

Supervision forms a pivotal role relating to job satisfaction in terms of the ability of the supervisor to provide emotional and technical support and guidance with work-related tasks (Robbins *et al.*, 2003:80). Robbins (2005:2) postulates that managers have a humanistic responsibility to provide employees with jobs that are challenging, rewarding and satisfying. Ozdemir (2009:103), however, found that supervisors who are interested in employees' work, assisting them in solving their work-related and personal life problems and developing informal relations together with the formal ones are likely to increase employees' job satisfaction.

According to Alavi and Askaripur (2003: 591), managers must focus on the job satisfaction of their employees because: (1) evidence suggests that dissatisfied individuals leave organisations; (2) satisfied employees are in better health and have longer life expectancy; and (3) job satisfaction in the workplace also affects individuals' private lives, which in turn has an effect on absenteeism and other important work-related attitudes and behaviour.

However, in Luthans' view (2002:232), two aspects of supervision affect job satisfaction: (1) employee-centredness, which is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes a personal interest in the employee's welfare. This can be manifested in ways such as checking to see how well the subordinate is doing, providing advice and assistance to the individual

and communicating with the worker on a personal as well as an official level; and (2) participation or influence, whereby managers allow their subordinates to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs. In most cases, this approach leads to higher job satisfaction. A participative environment created by the supervisor has a more substantial effect on worker's satisfaction.

2.4.3 Co-Worker/Work groups

Another dimension which influences job satisfaction is the extent to which co-workers are friendly, competent and supportive (Robbins *et al.*, 2003:113). Research indicates that employees who have supportive co-workers will be more satisfied with their jobs than those who do not have supportive co-workers (Aamodt 2004:189; Robbins 2005:122). According to Ozdemir (2009:103-104), when an employee feels like a stranger inside a group, he/she loses motivation and morale and eventually shows low performance at work. This is mainly because the work group normally serves as a source of support, comfort, advice and assistance to the individual worker (Luthans 1995:127).

2.4.4 Promotion opportunities

Bull (2005:89) postulates that many people experience satisfaction when they believe that their future prospects are good. This may translate into opportunities for advancement and growth in their current workplace, or enhance the chance of finding alternative employment. He maintains that if people feel they have limited opportunities for career advancement, their job satisfaction may decrease.

Choo and Bowley (2007:315) argue that providing employees with internal job opportunities is a means of demonstrating that they can realise their career goals inside rather than outside the organisation. Choo and Bowley (2007:315) further argue that career growth help employees to plan for the future and to be better equipped with the right skills in order to remain competitive. When employees have the opportunity to be promoted, they tend to build their career lives around the organisation because they know that they can achieve their career goals within the organisation.

Bajpai and Srivastava (2004:90) postulate that promotion provides employees with opportunities for personal growth, more responsibilities and also increased social status. Promotions constitute an important aspect of employee's labour mobility, most often carrying

substantial wage increases (Blau & DeVaro 2007:511; Kosteas 2009:269,) which also have a significant impact on other job characteristics such as responsibilities, satisfaction and subsequent job attachment (Pergamit & Veum 1999:581).

Locke (1976) advocates that the wish to be promoted stems from the desire for psychological growth, the desire for justice and the desire for social status. Promotional opportunities therefore have differential effects on job satisfaction, and it is essential that this be taken into account in cases where promotion policies are designed to enhance employee satisfaction. Management should therefore bear in mind that promotion can serve as a very positive motivating tool in ensuring that the employee attains goals.

2.4.5 Compensation/Pay

Compensation, which is the pay an employee receives for a job (George & Jones 2005:84), is very significant, but is a complex multidimensional predictor of job satisfaction (Luthans1995:127). It is one of the most extrinsic indicators of job satisfaction, which determines the level of job satisfaction of employees (Masroor & Fakir 2009:26). It meets luxury needs and wants of people, along with their fundamental needs. According to Ozdemir (2009:103), employees accept salary or compensation as the supervisors' reward for the work they have performed. Meudell and Rodham (1998:128) suggest that money can be considered to act as both a "scorecard", which enables employees to assess the value the organisation places on them in comparison to others, and as a medium of exchange in that an individual can purchase whatever he/she needs.

However, many controversies have surrounded the use of money as the utmost variable in employee job satisfaction and retention. Chew and Chan (2008:507) argue that although pay is acknowledged as a potential precursor of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and the intention to stay, pay alone is not sufficient. They postulate that there are other considerations besides the absolute value of one's earnings that influence attitudes toward satisfaction with pay.

Spector (1996:226) suggests that it is the fairness of pay that determines pay satisfaction rather than the actual level of pay itself. If an employee's compensation is therefore perceived to be equitable when compared to another person in a similar position, satisfaction might be the likely result. Atchison (1999) points out that an increase in pay only acts as a short-term motivator and management therefore has to look at other ways to increase the levels of job

satisfaction. Birt, Wallis and Winternitz (2004:29) postulate that challenging and meaningful work, advancement opportunities, high manager integrity, and new opportunities/challenges rank among the highest variables that are considered important to job satisfaction.

2.4.6 Job or the work itself

Robbins *et al.* (2003:77) refer to the work itself as “the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results.” Robbins *et al.* (2003:80) posit that jobs that are unchallenging lead to boredom and frustration. “It is fairly clear that employees who find their work interesting, are more satisfied and motivated than employees who do not enjoy their jobs” (Aamodt 2004: 326).

If a job is highly motivating, employees are likely to be satisfied with the job content and deliver higher quality work (Friday & Friday 2003:429). According to Robbins (2005:180), employees tend to prefer jobs which afford them the opportunity to apply their skills and abilities, offer them variety and freedom as well as jobs where they get constant feedback on how well they are doing. Hence, it is important for managers to take innovative steps to make work more interesting in order to increase the levels of job satisfaction of employees.

2.4.7 Fairness

One factor related to job satisfaction is the extent to which employees perceive that they are being treated fairly (Aamodt 2004:132). According to Kehinde (2011: 35), employees seek policies and systems that they perceive to be fair as this will result in an increase in job satisfaction. Distributive fairness is perceived fairness of the actual decisions made in an organisation. If employees perceive that decisions are made in a fair manner, they are likely to express satisfaction with their jobs (Robbins 2005:181).

2.5 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

The general concern for management is what the outcome will be should the employee be satisfied or dissatisfied with a job and how this will have an overall effect on the organisation. There is sufficient evidence to warrant that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction can have positive or negative consequences for employees. The potential effects of job satisfaction on different variables are explained in the following section:

2.5.1 Productivity

According to Robbins and Judge (2009:122), happy or satisfied workers are more likely to be productive workers. Coomber and Barriball (2007:297) support the above authors by stating that job satisfaction leads to higher productivity, organisational responsibility, physical and mental health. According to Coomber and Barriball (2007:297), a person who is satisfied with his or her work, will work with a better mood, learn more skills and finally his/her performance will increase.

Satisfied workers will be more productive and stay with the organisation longer, while dissatisfied workers will be less productive and will have more tendency to quit jobs (Sarker, Crossman & Chinmeteepituck 2003:745). In support, Al-Hussami (2008:286) affirmed that satisfied employees tend to be more productive and committed to their jobs than dissatisfied employees. Dawal, Taha and Ismail (2009:1) opine that employees generally work harder and perform better when they are satisfied with their jobs.

Robbins (2005:133) concluded that productivity is more likely to lead to satisfaction than the other way around. Hence, if employees do a good job (productivity), they intrinsically feel good about it. In addition, higher productivity could lead to an increase in reward, pay level and promotion, which are all sources of job satisfaction. However, the best conclusion about job satisfaction and productivity is that there is a definite relationship, probably higher than well known, but also not as high as conventional wisdom assumed, concerning happy workers being productive workers (Luthans 2002:233). Although the large body of research suggests that job satisfaction has a positive effect on productivity, this correlation is rather modest (Robbins & Judge 2009:123).

2.5.2 Organisational citizenship behaviour

Job satisfaction is a determinant of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Satisfied employees are more likely to talk positively about the organisation, help others and go beyond the normal expectations in their job. Moreover, satisfied employees are more prone to go beyond the call of duty because they want to reciprocate their positive experiences and contribute more (Robbins & Judge 2009:122).

According to Robbins and Judge (2009:123), more recent evidence suggests that job satisfaction influences OCB through perceptions of fairness. Basically, job satisfaction comes

down to conceptions of fair outcomes, treatment and procedures. If employees feel that the supervisor, organisational procedures, or pay policies are not fair, their job satisfaction is more likely to suffer significantly. When they perceive organisational processes and outcomes to be fair, they develop trust in the organisation and are eventually willing to voluntarily engage in behaviours that go beyond their formal job requirements (Robbins & Judge 2009:123).

2.5.3 Customer satisfaction

Evidence indicates that job satisfaction is a determinant factor of customer satisfaction. When employees are satisfied, they are more likely to satisfy their customers. Satisfied employees are more likely to be friendly, upbeat and responsive, which customers appreciate (Robbins & Judge 2009:123). Customer retention and defection are highly dependent on how employees deal with their customers. According to Robbins and Judge (2009:123), because satisfied employees are less prone to turnover, customers are more likely to encounter familiar faces and receive better services. These qualities build customer satisfaction and loyalty.

2.5.4 Absenteeism

Absenteeism in the workplace is receiving increasing attention as organisations consider it their most serious discipline problem. Cascio (2003:45) defines absenteeism as “any failure of an employee to report for or to remain at work as scheduled, regardless of the reason”.

According to Luthans (1995), research has generally revealed a consistent inverse relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. He found that when satisfaction is high, absenteeism tends to be low and when satisfaction is low, absenteeism tends to be high. Even though this correlation has been found to be rather moderate, the underlying assumption is that its absence is at least in part the result of dissatisfaction on the job (Anderson 2004:25). Robbins and Judge (2009:123), support Anderson by stating that there is a consistent negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism, but the correlation is moderate to weak.

Kihende (2011:27) states that absenteeism is caused by employees avoiding a painful or dissatisfying work situation. He states that when employees find their jobs more challenging, more interesting, or more pleasurable, they will be less absent than employees who find their

jobs less pleasurable. Although it is recognised that absenteeism may be caused by the employee's inability to report for work, job satisfaction is assumed to be a major factor determining how often an employee is absent (Kihende 2011:27).

2.5.5 Turnover

Numerous researchers have attempted to answer the question of turnover and what determines an employee's intention to quit by investigating the possible antecedents. According to Moore (2002:141), lack of job satisfaction is among the factors that contribute to employee turnover. Research findings by Park and Kim (2009:20) show that job satisfaction is a key precursor of voluntary turnover. Testa (2001), cited by Lee and Way (2010:345), supports the above authors, by stating that job satisfaction has a significant relationship with organisational commitment and employee turnover.

Job satisfaction has also been found by Yousef (2000:6) to be inversely related to withdrawal behaviours such as tardiness, absenteeism and turnover. It has also been linked to increased productivity and organisational effectiveness (Buitendach & De Witte 2005:27).

Tseane (2009:1) found that traditionally, quitting processes occur when an employee is dissatisfied with his or her job, and he or she initiates a job search, and quits when a suitable job is found. Braham (2005:11) supports Tseane by stating that employee turnover in many cases is not a sudden or instant decision but a process of disengagement that can take days, months, or even years before the decision to quit is reached.

2.5.6 Workplace deviance

According to Robbins and Judge (2009:124-125), job satisfaction predicts a lot of specific behaviours, including unionisation attempts, substance abuse, stealing at work, undue socialising and tardiness. These behaviours are indicators of a broader syndrome that could be termed as "deviant behaviour in the workplace". If employees do not like their working environment, they will respond somehow and it is not always easy to forecast exactly how they will respond. However, in most cases their behaviours will be abnormal (Robbins & Judge 2009:125).

2.6 DEMOGRAPHIC DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

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

2.6.1 Job satisfaction and age

Research on job satisfaction and age appears to be equivocal and has consistently found that age exerts an influence on job satisfaction (Chambers 1999:75). While studies have yielded mixed evidence in certain cases, the overwhelming body of research suggests a positive association, that is, older employees tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction (Loscocco, 1990:152; Jones Johnson & Johnson 2000:155). The positive relationship between age and satisfaction was also reported in a study by Oshagbemi (1997:511) involving 554 university teachers. Academics below the age of 35 years reported the lowest levels of satisfaction, followed by academics between the ages of 35 and 44 years. Academics above 55 years reported as being the most satisfied with their jobs.

Siu, Spector, Cooper and Donald (2001:707) also found that age was positively related to job satisfaction and mental well-being in a sample of managers Blood, Ridenour, Thomas, Qualls, and Hammer (2002:283) argue that job satisfaction increases with age and work experience. Older workers are more comfortable and tolerant of authority and may learn to lower expectations for their jobs (Spector, 1996). Blood *et al.*, (2002:283) postulate that older workers may have jobs that use their skills better, work under better job conditions, benefit from advancements and promotions, and appreciate fringe benefits more than younger, less experienced workers.

Based on a review of literature on age, Rhodes (1983:328) concluded that overall job satisfaction is related to age. Older workers appear to have greater satisfaction with their employment than younger workers do, although this relationship is not clear. While Weiner (1980:417) suggests a linear relationship, other studies such as Kacmar, Carlson and Brymer (1989:976) and Staw (1995) report a U-shaped relationship. Clark and Oswald (1996:359) ascribe this to the fact that younger employees may feel satisfied because they have little experience about the labour market against which to judge their own work. Alternatively, older employees may have reduced aspirations as they realise that they face limited alternatives as they get older.

While the majority of researchers are in agreement regarding a positive relationship between job satisfaction and age, certain studies have suggested a curvilinear relationship between these two variables, that is, high satisfaction among young and old employees and low satisfaction among middle-aged employees (Staw 1995). Robbins (2001:38) suggests that this inconsistency may be due to the fact that studies have been intermixing professional and non-professional employees. When the two types are separated, satisfaction tends to continuously increase among professionals as they age, while it drops among non-professionals during middle age and then rises again in the later years.

2.6.2 Job satisfaction and gender

The literature with respect to the relationship between gender and job satisfaction is inconsistent. Some studies report that women have higher job satisfaction (Riggs & Beus 1993:32; Nestor & Leary 2000:38), whereas numerous studies across a variety of occupational settings have, however, found no significant gender differences in job satisfaction, despite the fact that women on average have inferior jobs in terms of pay, status, level of authority, and opportunities for promotion (Hull 1999:687; Rout 1999:345; Jones Johnson & Johnson 2000).

According to Jinnett and Alexander (1999:176), female employees demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts across most work settings. Al-Mashaan (2003:17), however, indicates that male employees in comparison to female employees report higher levels of job satisfaction. He attributes this to the better chances for employment that men are argued to have, and opportunities to advance in their jobs at a more rapid pace than females.

Souza-Poza (2003:517) found that women's satisfaction has declined substantially in the past decade, whereas men's job satisfaction has remained constant. Lim, Teo and Thayer (1998:334) support Souza-Poza (2003:517) by maintaining that women are inclined to be less satisfied in their jobs because they tend to hold positions at lower levels in the organisational hierarchy where pay and promotion prospects are less attractive.

However, research conducted by Scandura and Lankau (1997:377) indicate that gender differences in job satisfaction disappear when differences in perceived job characteristics, age, tenure, education, income, and occupational level are controlled.

2.6.3 Job satisfaction and occupational level

Miles, Patrick and King (1996:277) found occupational level or job level to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction. The above researchers examined job level or occupational level as a structural determinant of role behaviour and suggest that job level moderates the communication-job satisfaction relationship. Results from a study by Robbie, Ryan, Schmieder, Parra, and Smith (1998:470) revealed a consistent and significant positive relationship between these two variables. The authors maintain that the positive correlation between rank and satisfaction may be attributed to the fact that higher-level jobs tend to be more complex and have better working conditions, pay, promotion prospects, supervision, autonomy and responsibility.

Gazioglu and Tanzel (2002) found that managers, professionals and clerical employees were more satisfied with the influence of their job, although this was less apparent in clerical grade staff. However, they were less satisfied with the amount of their pay as compared to the sales employees. Clark and Oswald (1996:359) also found that those at the higher end of the occupational scale reported higher satisfaction with various aspects of their work, but were less satisfied with their pay. Oshagbemi (1997:511) as well found that the job satisfaction of academics increases progressively with each higher rank. Therefore, the evidence from the literature seems to suggest that job level is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction with employees at higher ranks being generally more satisfied with their jobs than employees at lower levels are.

2.6.4 Job satisfaction and tenure

Literature indicates that a positive correlation exists between tenure and job satisfaction (Lambert, Hogan, Barton & Lubbock 2001:233). Tenure refers to the length of time for which the individual has worked for the organisation (Lim *et al.*, 1998:134). Employees with longer tenure are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than employees with shorter tenure (Jinnett & Alexander 1999:176; Jones Johnson & Johnson 2000). Robbins (2001:36) shares this view, but states, “when age and tenure are treated separately, tenure appears to be a more consistent and stable predictor of job satisfaction than is chronological age.”

Kamarul, Sharifah, Zetty, Suzana, and Siti (2003:1) also found a statistically significant but weak positive relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction. Moreover, a study by

Chambers (1999:69) established that employees with longer tenure were more satisfied with their work itself as well as their level of pay. From this, it might be concluded that satisfaction increases with time and that those benefits that increase in time, such as security and experience, are likely to have an important influence on employee satisfaction.

However, the literature is both inconsistent and inconclusive in this regard. It may be because the relationship between these variables depends on the specific organisations and how tenure is viewed. In some organisations, senior employees are highly respected, while high tenure is viewed as a liability in other organisations (Lambert *et al.*, 2001:234).

2.6.5 Job satisfaction and educational level

Studies investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and educational level have produced mixed results (Vorster 1992:133; Ting 1997:313; Clark & Oswald 1996:359). Vorster (1992:133) maintains that the relationship between education and job satisfaction is positive in nature. He found this association to be largely indirect, that is, the higher an individual's qualifications, the higher that individual's job level and consequently so too, the employee's degree of satisfaction.

Lambert *et al.* (2001:234) found education to have no significant effect on job satisfaction. Similarly, Clark and Oswald (1996:359) uncovered a negative relationship between educational levels and job satisfaction, although other studies have supported the idea that no significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and education. Ting (1997:313) discovered education to have no effect on the satisfaction of federal government employees. Rogers (1991:123) also failed to find support for a link between the satisfaction and educational level of correctional service employees.

In a study by Loscocco (1990:152), education was found to exert a significant negative impact on the job satisfaction of women, but not on that of men. This could be explained by the fact that the educational experience is different for women than it is for men, thereby raising the job expectations of women to a greater extent. If these job expectations are not fulfilled, job satisfaction will be impacted on negatively.

2.7 INTENTION TO QUIT

Voluntary employee turnover is one of the most studied behaviours in management research (Griffith, Hom & Gaertner 2000:463). Many multivariate models and empirical tests within this research stream have greatly enhanced knowledge about intention to quit. Process models focus on how individuals arrive at their final decisions to quit, while content models focus on why individuals quit organisations (Maertz & Campion 2004:566). While actual quitting behaviour is the primary focus of interest to employers and researchers, intention to quit is argued to be a strong substitute indicator for such behaviour (Kalliath & Beck 2001:72) and has generated a number of studies that examine why employees leave or intend to leave their organisations (Griffith & Hom 2001:1; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright 2006:434).

The impact of employees' intention to quit (ITQ) on organisational effectiveness and employee morale has remained the focus of organisational researchers in recent times (Chen, Polyhart, Thomas, Anderson & Bliese 2011:159), hence by identifying the determinants of employees' intention to quit, turnover behaviours could be predicted more accurately and measures to prevent turnover could be taken in advance (Van Schalkwyk, Du Toit, Bothma & Rothmann 2010:1).

2.7.1 Intention to quit described

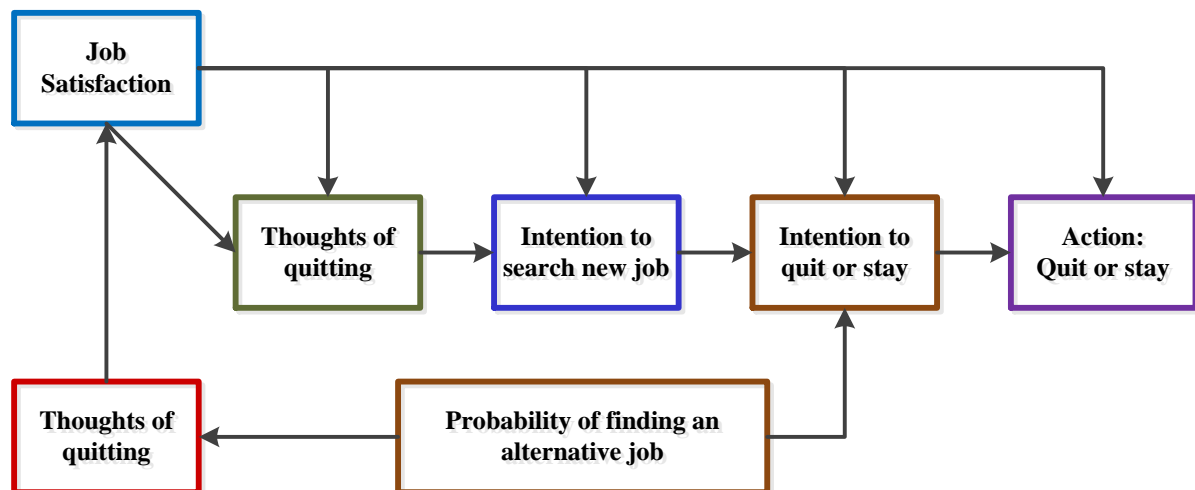
Intention to quit refers to the degree of likelihood that the employee will terminate his/her membership in a work organisation (Spreiter & Mishr 2002:17). Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2002:1) define intention to quit as "the reflection of the probability that an individual will change his/her job within a certain time period". It is also referred to as a worker's intention to leave the present organisation (Cho, Johanson & Guchait 2009:374). The authors postulate that intention to quit is considered as a conscious and deliberate desire to leave an organisation within the near future and it is also considered as the last part of a sequence in the withdrawal cognition process.

Three elements exist in the withdrawal cognition process, namely, thoughts of quitting, intention to search for job somewhere else, and the intention to quit (Cho, Johanson & Guchait 2009:374). Blau (2000:115) hypothesises that intention to quit from an occupation is a much more difficult decision than to quit the job. Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole and Owen (2002:25) define intention to quit as "the strength of an individual's view that they do not

want to stay with their employer”. Intention to quit is seen as a variable and is used as an indication of the probability that an individual will leave the organisation in the near future. The authors hypothesise that intention to quit starts with evaluation by the individuals of their current situation, then they move through several further stages until a firm intention to quit is reached. The final outcome can be a decision to leave the organisation.

Vandenberg and Nelson (1999:315) define intention to quit as an individual’s own estimated probability (subject) that s/he is permanently leaving the organisation at some point in the near future. The determinants of employee turnover have great relevance to the employee who is thinking of quitting as well as for the manager who is faced with the lack of employee continuity, the high costs involved in the induction and training of new personnel and the issue of organisational productivity (Firth, Mellor, Moore & Loquet 2004:170; Siong, Mellor, Moore & Firth 2006:231)..

Employee’s intention to quit comprises several constructs such as thinking of quitting and intention to search for a job (Carmeli 2005:177), and will spark in one’s mind when an employee feels that the organisation he/she works for does not fulfil his/her needs anymore (Firth *et al.*, 2004:170).



(Source: Greenberg & Baron 1997:178).

Figure 6: Voluntary Turnover: A Model

This voluntary turnover model extracted from Greenberg and Baron (1997:178), suggests that there are a number of elements relating to individuals, their jobs and economic conditions

that influence a decision to change jobs and organisations. There are many more variables that are involved in making this decision, many of which are illustrated in the above model. This model suggests that dissatisfaction with the job may lead to thoughts about quitting, which results in an employee starting to explore other job opportunities. If this proves to be successful, the employee may start developing serious intentions around whether to leave or stay on the job, resulting in a particular action (Greenberg & Baron 1997).

Based on the negative impact of intention to quit on organisations, it is therefore imperative for managers to seek better ways to manage their employees in order to retain valued human resources and sustain high performance. Employees are the backbone of any business success, and therefore need to be motivated and maintained at all costs to aid the organisation to be globally competitive in terms of providing quality products and services to society (Firth *et al.*, 2004:170).

2.7.2 Theories of intention to quit

Turnover has become a significant challenge facing organisations today. The level of turnover can be seen as an important indicator of the effectiveness and efficiency of an organisation, both in the public and private sector (Park, Ofari-Dankwa, & Bishop 1994:353). According to Abassi and Hollman (2000:333), cited in Ongori (2007:49), employee turnover refers to the rotation of workers around the labour market, between organisations, jobs and occupations, and between states of employment and unemployment. Lambert (2001:61) defines turnover as the cessation of employment ties between an employee and an employer, which has three main types, including quits, layoffs, and discharges.

Bluedorn (1978:678) suggests that these three types can be understood better by categorising them as voluntary and involuntary turnover, of which voluntary turnover has become the most frequently studied form of employee separation. Based on this approach, voluntary turnover occurs when an employee initiates the termination or cessation of the employee-organisation relationship. Various reasons for the focus on voluntary turnover exist. Firstly, voluntary turnover accounts for the majority of turnovers. Secondly, a single theory is unlikely to address the various antecedents of both voluntary and involuntary turnover. Thirdly, the organisation's management can control voluntary turnover more easily (Price & Mueller 1981:543).

Voluntary turnover certainly represents one of the most important and recognised issues of critical concern to both managers and organisations. Therefore, determining the causes of employee turnover seems to have attracted the attention of behavioural scientists and management practitioners for several decades. There are several important challenges that can be identified among the consequences of employees' voluntary turnover. These include, but are not limited to, the lack of employee continuity and organisational stability, the high costs associated with the recruitment of new staff (replacements), induction and training, and organisational productivity (Feeley & Barnett 1997:370; Bertelli 2007:235).

Importunate staffing problems also occur in many organisations as a result of turnover behaviours in their workforce. The loss of intellectual capital adds to the cost, since not only do organisations lose the human capital and relational capital of the departing employee, but also competitors are potentially gaining these assets (Ongori 2007:49). Staff turnover has adverse effects on the quality of work, administrative costs, and staff morale due to increased workload and resentment among remaining employees who must assume additional duties (Byrd, Cochran, Silverman, & Blount 2000:69; Larrabee, Janney, Ostrow, Withrow, Hobbs, & Burant 2003:271; Simons 2005:196).

According to Lambert (2001:61), high voluntary turnover can also become a public image nightmare as it conveys a negative impression of work conditions. In addition, a latent effect is that it could lead to a relatively large proportion of new employees hired, typically with less training and experience, which can result into insufficient and overworked staff and even impact on the quality of service rendered by the organisation. In all certainty, turnover behaviour represents a critical concern because the money and time invested in recruiting, hiring, training and development of individuals who then leave the organisation is lost forever. Such costs are significant and increase as one moves up the organisational hierarchy (Richer, Blanchard, & Vallerand, 2002:2089).

Over the years this has resulted in practitioners, managers and researchers making concerted efforts to identify the antecedent factors that can be related to employee turnover. However, the question facing the organisation is whether dealing with actual turnover is addressing the cause of the problem or the effect thereof. This view resulted in a paradigm shift towards the predictors of turnover behaviour. As a result, behavioural intentions have rapidly come into vogue in the field of turnover research (Steel & Ovalle 1984:673), and turnover intention has

been shown to be among the best predictors of turnover (Griffeth *et al.*, 2000:463; Podsakoff, LePine & Lepine 2007:438).

As a corroboration to this view, several studies (e.g. Jaros, Jermier, Koehler & Sincich 1993:951; Lambert 2001:61; Armitage & Connor 2001:471; Benson 2006:173;) have used turnover intentions as a precursor and indicative of actual turnover behaviour on the basis of evidence that intentions are the most immediate determinants of actual turnover behaviour. An employee's intention to leave the organisation includes mere thoughts of quitting the organisation and statements by the worker that he/she actually wants to leave the organisation. It is only after proceeding through these stages that the employee actually leaves the organisation (Jaros *et al.*, 1993:591).

The use of turnover intention also has practical merit from a research perspective, as once individuals have implemented the turnover behaviours, there is little likelihood of gaining access to them to understand their prior situation (Siong *et al.*, 2006:231), and it is less expensive to collect data on turnover intentions than actual turnover (Bluedorn 1982:75). Furthermore, the validity of studying turnover intentions in the workplace rather than the actual turnover behaviour can be drawn from Sager's (1991:25) longitudinal study, in which turnover intention was found to discriminate effectively between leavers and stayers.

Alexander, Lichtenstein, Oh, and Ullman (1998:415) reported that turnover intentions were significant predictors of actual turnover, and that the majority of variables in their model impacted on turnover through turnover intentions. Turnover behaviour is seen as a multistage process that includes attitudinal, decisional, and behavioural components (Martin & Roodt 2008:23; Lum, Clark, Reid & Serola 1998:305). The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen 2001:27; Armitage & Connor 2001:471) suggest that behavioural intentions constitute the most immediate determinant of actual behavioural acts, in this case turnover intention and actual turnover.

Murrells, Robinson and Griffiths (2008:1) further suggest that the theory of planned behaviour postulates that attitudes towards behaviour, subjective norms and perceptions of behavioural control have a direct effect on intentions but an indirect effect, mediated through intentions, on actual behaviour (i.e. attitudes affect intentions which then impact on behaviour). They also assert that the theory identifies three independent determinants of intention: (1) attitude towards behaviour, (2) subjective norm, and (3) perceived behavioural

control. The theory begins with the determinants of these antecedents and proposes that behaviour is a function of salient information, or beliefs relevant to the behaviour. Since people act in accordance with their intentions and perceptions of control over behaviour, behaviours can be predicted from intentions with considerable accuracy when control is not overly constrained (Richer *et al.*, 2002:2089).

Tett and Meyer (1993:259) have successfully demonstrated that behavioural turnover intentions consistently show moderate to strong correlations with turnover, therefore substantiating Ajzen's theory. Based on this notion, Ladebo (2005:355) concludes that an individual who nurtures the thought of leaving his/her present employing organisation is more likely to do so if the right conditions (such as an alternative job) exist, or if the adverse condition that warrants the thought of intent persists.

In the study conducted by Shields and Ward (2001:692), quitting intentions were found to be the strongest predictor of actual turnover. Carmeli (2005:330) and McCharthy, Tyrrel and Lehane (2007:248), also found that intention to quit is a strong predictor of an employee's actual turnover across industries. They are precise indicators of ensuing behaviour, although the reasons for these intentions are often unidentified (Firth *et al.*, 2004:170). Van Dick, Christ, Stellmacher, Wagner, Ahlswede, Grubba, Hauptmeier, Hohfeld, Moltzen and Tissington (2004:351) agree that the observable fact is far from being fully understood, especially because some of the psychological processes underlying the withdrawal from the organisation are still unclear.

Mobley (1977:237) suggests that there are several other possible turnover cognition types of interest to add in the withdrawal decision (the decision to quit a job), highlighting notions such as thinking of quitting, followed by the intention to search for alternatives. Furthermore, many studies have been based on the belief that turnover is an individual choice behavioural pattern based on the conceptualisation that it is a psychological response (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino 1979:414; Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid & Sirola 1998:305). Chronic stress, inadequate pay, lack of recognition, increased job demand and other negative job characteristics are identified as reasons relating to worker's turnover intentions (Ellett 2001; Scannapieco & Connell-Carrick 2007:31).

In previous literature, it is reported that a negative connection exists between positive organisational support (POS) and intention to leave an organisation. Employees who feel

supported by their employers are less likely to look for outside work opportunities and lack diligence in the workplace. The assumption thus is that an organisation encourages an employee to remain in its employ when it shows concern for their material and psychological well-being by seeking to establish a serene social context and a positive working climate (Paillé, Bourdeau & Galois 2010:41).

Firth *et al.* (2004:170) highlight the following variables found to be related to intention to quit:

- the experience of job-related stress;
- the range of factors that lead to job-related stress;
- lack of commitment to the organisation; and
- job satisfaction.

These variables can be mediated by personal or dispositional factors and by environmental or organisational factors. Generally, the focus will be on the personal factors that mediate between stressors and intention to quit, namely, aspects of personal agency, self-esteem and social support. Personal agency refers to concepts such as a sense of powerlessness, locus of control and personal control. Research findings strongly suggest that a greater sense of personal agency is associated with a reduced risk of negative outcomes following major negative life events and role-related stress (Firth *et al.*, 2004:170).

Firth *et al.* (2004:170) hypothesise that social support has played an important role in mitigating intention to quit, although findings are unequivocal. A study conducted with nurses indicated that social support from supervisors reduced the level of nurses' burnout and indirectly, through reduced levels of burnout, reduced nurses' intention to quit.

Birt *et al.* (2004:25) highlight that with continuance commitment, an employee bases his/her choice to remain with the organisation on perceptions of other existing opportunities as well as the cost of leaving the organisation rather than on a more emotional attachment to the organisation as is found in affective commitment. Furthermore, Jaros *et al.*, (1993:951) postulate that continuance commitment reflects the extent to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving. This idea stems from the fact that the employee invests in an organisation, such as time, job effort, and the development of work friendships, organisation-specific skills, and political deals, all which constitute sunk costs that reduce the magnetism of outside employment alternatives.

Maetz and Campion (2004:566) identify the following eight motivational forces of attachment and withdrawal, as depicted in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Motivational forces of attachment and withdrawal

Type of force	Psychological motive for attachment or withdrawal
Affective: Current affective response to an organisation	This occurs when an individual is more attached because membership currently provides employment and positive emotions. Negative emotions responses to job or organisational membership cause a withdrawal response.
Contractual: Psychological contract obligation to an organisation and violation of contract	A desire to perform professed obligations in the current psychological contract through staying. On the other hand, the desire to disband a psychological contract or to respond to violations through quitting. This desire depends on an employee's holding a standard of reciprocity to some extent.
Constituent: Commitment to people or groups in an organisation	A desire to preserve, or on the contrary, to end relationship with constituents by staying or quitting. This desire can stem from a number of motive forces. The net force (for staying or leaving) may depend on relationships with one or many constituents themselves leave the organisation.
Alternative: Perceived alternatives to a current job	An employee's self-efficacy beliefs regarding competence to obtain alternatives, combining the perceived confidence and quality of alternative options.

Type of force	Psychological motive for attachment or withdrawal
<p>Calculative:</p> <p>Anticipated future satisfaction associated with continued organisation membership</p>	<p>An assessment of future value attainment possibilities connected with continued membership. High expectancy of value attainment or a positive calculation increases psychological attachment, while low expectancy or a negative calculation increases withdrawal propensity.</p>
<p>Normative:</p> <p>Pressures to stay or leave an organisation derived from the expectation from others</p>	<p>A desire to meet perceived expectations of family members or friends outside the organisation with respect of quitting or staying. These pressures may come from one or many parties, and the motivation to comply with these expectations varies.</p>
<p>Behavioural:</p> <p>Behavioural commitment to an organisation</p>	<p>A desire to avoid the explicit and or psychological costs of quitting. These costs are brought on largely by membership-related behaviours in the past or by company policies regarding the value of tenure. Perceived costs can range from zero to a very high level.</p>
<p>Moral:</p> <p>Moral/ethical values about quitting</p>	<p>A desire for uniformity between behaviour and values with regards to turnover. Internalised values lie somewhere on the continuum from “quitting is bad and persistence is a virtue” to “changing jobs regularly is positive; staying too long leads to stagnation”.</p>

Source: (Maertz & Campion 2004:566)

Maertz and Campion (2004:566) highlight four decision type profiles, which include the cognitive decision steps used and their timing, the type of event that likely triggered these steps, and the alignment of motives or reasons that influenced the ultimate decision. These four profiles are discussed below:

- Impulsive quitters – driven by sharp negative affect followed by quitting “on the spot”. Individuals experience strong negative affect, possibly from a psychological contract breach, that they decide to quit instantaneously without any planning. The

impulsiveness of these decisions makes them hard to foresee and manage; therefore management interventions ought to focus on increasing good feelings toward organisations and minimising policies that extract strong negative effect among employees.

- Comparison quitters – attracted away from organisations by another job and are moderately free of strong negative affect toward their current employers. The employees feel more positive toward their organisations and may foresee good future prospects for themselves.
- Preplanned quitters – plan in advance to quit at a specific time in the future. Individuals who preplan are less likely to be highly dissatisfied with their organisations than impulsive quitters.
- Conditional quitters – plan to quit if some uncertain event or shock occurs, as perceived by the employees. Individuals experience different forces to withdraw. The condition to be fulfilled does not automatically involve getting another job offer. Management should consider instituting career advising, clarifying criteria for promotion, and adhering to principles of procedural development opportunities. Helping employees see futures for themselves with organisations may tempt them to avoid making – or to rethink – conditional plans to quit.

In recent decades the environments in which organisations operate are largely characterised by constant dynamic changes. As a result, organisations are experiencing continuous development and modernisation of their technologies, and many of them are still labour-intensive and largely dependent on human capital. This unpredictable environmental dynamism forces organisations to invest a lot of resources in their employees in terms of induction and training, developing, maintaining and retaining their skills and experience in the organisation in order to be able to function optimally. Although one may argue that organisations are becoming leaner, nevertheless voluntary turnover continues to affect them, because they must be able to maintain a core of people who will serve as the source of organisational life and represent the ‘heart, brain and muscle’ of the organisation (Meyer & Allen 1991:133).

In addition, with globalisation heightening competition, organisations must continue to develop tangible products and provide services which are based on strategies created by

employees. These employees are extremely crucial to the organisation since their value is essentially intangible and not easily replicated (Ongori 2007:49). The ability of an organisation to reach its goals depends in part on the skills, experience and effort of its workforce. Employees can therefore be said to be primarily responsible for providing a sustainable competitive advantage for their organisation, and the success of the organisation depends on managing and retaining these employees (Lee 1988:263). If employee turnover behaviour is not managed properly, it would affect the organisation adversely in terms of personnel costs and in the long run it could affect its liquidity (Ongori 2007:49; Dess & Shaw 2001:446).

2.7.3 Factors influencing employees' intentions to quit

Retention of skilled and experienced personnel is a priority for any organisation. Organisations, both public and private, rely on the expertise of their employees in order to compete favourably and indeed gain competitive advantage in the international market (Samuel & Chipunza 2009:410). Sutherland and Jordaan (2004:55) emphasise that a critical component in determining an organisation's present and future success, is its ability to retain knowledge workers. Therefore, knowing and understanding the factors influencing employees' turnover intentions is paramount as it will help practitioners, managers and organisations develop strategies on how to prevent actual turnover (Ongori 2007:49).

A study by Pitts, Marvel and Fernandez (2011:60) suggest that there are three clusters of factors influencing employees' turnover intentions. These are:

- psychological factors;
- economical factors; and
- demographic factors.

2.7.3.1 Psychological factors

Psychological factors refer to the employee's mental process and behaviour. These factors are psychological contract, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity. Psychological factors deal with factors that influence employee's emotions, attitude and perception (Muller & Price 1990:322).

➤ **Psychological contract**

Psychological contract refers to an individual beliefs regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that person and another party (Farmer & Fedor 1999:350). The concept of psychological contract is based on the insight that the employees' motivation and the level of their performance have to be maintained by the organisation through incentives and rewards (Brinkmann & Stapf 2005:21-22). This give and take relation between the employee and the organisation is a complicated process about exchange and judgement, and is made up of manifold and reciprocal expectations. The psychological contract contains all reciprocal yet unexpressed expectations, hopes and wishes of employees or employers (Brinkmann & Stapf 2005:21-22).

According to Brinkmann and Stapf (2005:23), each lopsided accomplishment leads to disequilibrium of the psychological contract. Lopsidedness occurs when the company considers the employee only under the aspect of the organisational purpose and solely fulfils the obligation on the formal contract such as wage payment. It signifies a negligence and contempt of individual motives of the employees and leads to insufficient dedication. Employees then tend to level their interest only on their wages. If the fulfilment of an employee's expectations, wishes and hopes fail to appear in the long run and the disadvantages are not equilibrate by advantages, then the employee's inner conflict will get worse. If an employee is not able to bring about any changes, then work dissatisfaction will occur and the employee will feel the break of the psychological contract (Brinkmann & Stapf 2005:23).

The foundation of the psychological contract is based on the social exchange theory, which assumes that human behaviour is controlled by individual utility maximisation. Humans strive to maximise benefits and minimise costs. Contract violations can trigger negative responses such as low employee's contributions, reduced satisfaction and eventually turnover intentions (Farmer & Fedor 1999:352).

➤ **Job satisfaction**

Research has implied that intention to quit is a strong surrogate indicator for actually quitting behaviour (Firth, Mellor, Moore & Loquet 2004:170). The authors postulate that job stressors and lack of job satisfaction are two of the factors that contribute to employees' intention to quit their jobs. Price (2001:624) also found that job satisfaction is one of the factors or

reasons for employees to develop intentions to leave the organisation. Intention to quit is largely influenced by job dissatisfaction, lack of commitment to the organisation and feelings of stress.

According to Pitts *et al.*, (2011:60), employees with a lower level of job satisfaction are most likely to leave their organisations. Therefore, managers need to monitor both the extrinsic and intrinsic sources of job satisfaction available to employees (Firth *et al.*, 2004:170).

➤ **Organisational commitment**

Mowday, Steers and Porter (1978:226) defined commitment “as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation”. It is characterised by three factors, namely:

- a strong belief in and an acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values;
- willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and
- strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation.

Commitment can be seen as the loyalty to a social unit such as an organisation, the subsystem of an organisation or an occupation (Price 1997:335). Organisational commitment is defined “as a psychological bond individuals have toward their organisation, characterised by a strong identification with the organisation and desire to contribute towards attainment of organisational goals” (Meyer & Allen 1991:61). Meyer and Allen (1991:61) conceptualised commitment in terms of three distinct psychological states, which influence whether the employees remain or leave the organisation:

- Affective commitment – emotional attachment to the organisation;
- Continuance commitment – recognition of the cost associated with leaving the organisation; and
- Normative commitment – perceived obligation to remain with the organisation.

➤ **Job insecurity**

Hesselink and Vuuren Van (1999:275) define job insecurity as a “personal concern about the continuity of the job”. Employees can feel insecure even though there are no reasons to feel so. Job insecurity is more known concerning the future-uncertainty about future job development and its possible discontinuity. Hesselink and Vuuren Van (1999:275) argued

that there are two dimensions that can cause job insecurity, which are: (1) perceived probability; and (2) perceived severity.

The authors stated that “the more likely it is that an employee will lose his or her job and/or the more severe the consequences of the loss are, the stronger his or her feelings of job insecurity will be”. Job insecurity decreases work effort, resistance to change and intention to job mobility, hence adversely impacting organisational effectiveness (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt 1984:438). The positive correlation between job insecurity and turnover intention is to be expected. Employees who are worried about continuity of their employment are likely to seek more secure jobs (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt 1984:438).

2.7.3.2 Economic factors

Economists view the employee’s decision, whether the employee wants to leave or stay as a result of a rational cost-benefit assessment (Muller & Price 1990:321). When rewards to costs ratio of staying with an organisation are equal to the ration at another place of employment, the employee will decide not to leave the current organisation. A study by Muller and Price (1990:321) found that the following are economic factors influencing employee turnover intention:

- **Remuneration** - Employees’ satisfaction with remuneration/pay is regarded as one of the critical determinates of turnover intetion. According to Muller and Price (1990:321), pay is considered as a part of the sanctions system used by the organisation to motivate employees to be in compliance with its regulations and rules. It was also found that motivation has some link with job choice and that pay will not be the sole criterion used when people decide to choose the job, or when they decide to continue within an existing job (McGregor 1957).
- **External opportunity** - External opportunity refers to the availability of alternative, attractiveness and attainability of employment in the environment. The interaction of supply and demand forces in the economy must be taken into consideration in measuring external opportunity. The availability is mainly about the number of opportunities outside the organisation. The attractiveness refers to the pay levels of such opportunities. Attainability refers to the possession of the skills required on the job. Thus numerous higher paid jobs for which a worker is qualified should produce a greater turnover intention (Muller & Price 1990:321).

- **Advancement or promotion** - Both meta-analysis studies by Cotton and Tuttle (1986:55) and Griffeth *et al.*, (2000:88) uncovered that most empirical studies regard satisfaction with advancement or promotion as one of the critical determinants of employees' turnover intentions. Suggesting the importance of considering internal movement (or promotion) within an organisation in terms of an organisational turnover trend, Johnston, Griffeth, Burton and Carson (1993:33) suggest a compelling explanation of a negative relationship between promotion and turnover intention.

2.7.3.3 Demographic factors

In their meta-analysis study on employees' turnover, Cotton and Tuttle (1986:55) suggest that age is negatively related to employees' turnover intention. Another recent study by Pitts *et al.*, (2011:751) empirically suggests that there is a difference in turnover intention among federal employees in different age groups. Using the federal employee viewpoint survey data, they measure federal employees' turnover intention in two dimensions: intention to leave agency, and intention to leave the federal government. While their results show all federal employees are less likely to leave the federal government as they are getting older, younger federal employees between 30 to 49 years old are more likely to leave their agency and find new jobs within the federal government (Pitts *et al.*, 2011:751).

Tenure is defined as employee's time spent at his or her workplace and is negatively related to employee's turnover. An employee could build a strong interpersonal attachment in the workplace when spending more time with other employees. The stronger interpersonal attachment an employee has, the lower intention to leave the job. Empirical findings (Cotton & Tuttle 1986:55; Griffeth *et al.*, 2000:88) support this statement.

For example, in their study on antecedents and correlates of employee turnover, Griffeth *et al.* (2000:88) discovered a negative relationship between an individual employee's tenure status and his or her turnover intention. Pitts *et al.* (2011:756) also suggest supportive findings of a negative relationship between job tenure and federal employees' turnover intention. Pitts *et al.* (2011:756) suggest that "longer agency tenure makes an individual less likely to intend to leave his or her agency and less likely to intend to leave the federal government entirely".

2.8 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND INTENTION TO QUIT

Many studies conducted in different settings had consistently discovered a negative and significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner 2000:463; McCulloch & Turban 2007:63; Duraisingam, Pidd & Roche 2009:31). Rahman, Raza and Ramay (2008:45) found that job satisfaction had a negative effect on turnover intentions of IT professional. Khatri and Fern (2001:54) concluded that there was a modest relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. According to Brough and Frame (2004:8), job satisfaction is a strong predictor of turnover intentions.

Similarly, studies conducted by Yang (2008:43); Jiang, Baker and Frazier (2009:84) and Lam, Baum and Pine (2001:35) discovered that there is a negative association between job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees. Price (2001:624) also found that job satisfaction is one of the factors or reasons for employees to develop intentions to leave the organisation. Meta-analytical studies show a consistently modest correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Griffeth *et al.*, 2000:463).

Research has implied that intention to quit is a strong surrogate indicator for actually quitting behaviour (Firth *et al.*, 2004:170). The authors postulate that job stressors and lack of job satisfaction are two of the factors that contribute to employees' intention to quit their jobs. Intention to quit is largely influenced by job dissatisfaction, lack of commitment to the organisation and feelings of stress. Given their importance in quitting intentions, managers need to monitor both the extrinsic and intrinsic sources of job satisfaction available to employees (Firth *et al.*, 2004:170).

Mobly *et al.* (1979:493) proposed that the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is moderated by intentions, and most researchers accept the premise that intention to stay or leave a job with a particular employer is the final cognitive step in decision making process of voluntary turnover. As a result, turnover intention has been integrated in most employee turnover models. At the centre of most turnover theories is the proposal that job satisfaction directly and negatively relates to employees' intention to quit their jobs, which in turn positively relates to actual turnover (Chen *et al.*, 2011:159).

Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (1978:414) proposed a theoretical casual process of turnover intention that included job satisfaction. According to Mobley *et al.* (1978:414) and

colleagues, job satisfaction impacts a cognitive withdrawal process that stresses turnover intention. Lee and Mitchell (1994:51) in their model of voluntary turnover argue that turnover is influenced by variety of variables, including lack of job satisfaction. According to Moore (2002:490), job satisfaction is one of the factors that contribute to employees' intention to quit.

Martin (2007:45) determined in the meta-analysis a relationship between the three forms of commitment (affective, continuance and normative) as well as their subsequent variables identified as antecedents, correlates and consequences. Their results indicated a significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Furthermore, research has found significant correlations in the meta-analysis, yielding correlation values contributing to turnover intention, for organisational commitment (- 0.38) and job satisfaction (- 0.28). Other research has also found job satisfaction and commitment to contribute independently to the prediction process of turnover intentions or withdrawal cognitions. However, job satisfaction is seen to be the stronger predictor of turnover intention or withdrawal cognitions than commitment (Martin 2007:45).

While certain researchers maintain that a direct relationship exists between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Clugston 2000:477; Lambert, Hogan & Barton 2001:250), a growing body of literature suggests that the relationship is neither simple nor direct (Saal & Knight 1988). According to McCarthy *et al.*, (2007:248), intentions are the most direct determinants of actual behaviour. They are direct indicators of a consequent behaviour, although the reasons for these intentions are often unidentified (Firth *et al.*, 2004:170).

2.9 CONCLUSION

The chapter has focused on the two main variables of the current study, namely, job satisfaction and intention to quit. In this chapter, a brief overview of theories of job satisfaction (JS) and intention to quit (ITQ) were discussed, as well as consequences (productivity, organisational citizenship behaviour, absenteeism, turnover and workplace deviance) and demographic determinants (age, gender, occupational level, tenure and educational level) respectively. Factors influencing job satisfaction (work conditions, supervisor, co-workers, promotion opportunity, compensation and work itself) and intention to quit (psychological factors, economical factors and demographic factors), which were

identified from the literature were also discussed. And lastly, the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit was also explained.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the literature review on employees' perceptions of CSR, organisational commitment and intentions to stay. This chapter describes the research methodology used in this study. The geographical area where the study is conducted, the study design, the population and sample are also described. The instrument used to collect the data, including methods implemented to maintain validity and reliability of the questionnaire are described as well as ethical considerations and data analysis are also discussed.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

In order to meet the objectives of this study a survey design was adopted. Beukman (2005:221) defines a survey design as a design that puts questions to a sample of respondents by means of a questionnaire. An empirical investigation using a quantitative research approach was applied in this study to obtain a deeper understanding of job satisfaction and employee intention to quit. Muijs (2004:1) defines quantitative research as the collection and analysing of numerical data using mathematically based methods. The rationale for selecting a quantitative research approach is that it classifies the features of collected data, counts them, and constructs statistical models through the questionnaire feedback (Punch 2002:3).

A quantitative approach also eliminates or minimises subjectivity of judgement (Kealey & Protheroe 1996:141). The data collected when utilising quantitative research is usually objective, numerically, and statistically based (Westerman 2006:263). This approach has been chosen because it provides "quick, inexpensive, efficient and accurate means of assessing information" (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin 2010:187).

Research designs vary depending upon the type of research; research can be grouped into exploratory, descriptive and hypothesis testing types (Sahu 2013:26-27). A descriptive design aims to explain phenomena such as human behaviour in the business, and administrative sciences, by indicating how variables are related to one another, and in what manner one variable affects the other (Churchill & Iacobucci 2005:74). Burns and Grove (2004:201) are

of the view that descriptive research is designed to provide a picture of a situation as it naturally happens. This method is selected because it provides an accurate portrayal or account of the characteristics (behaviours, opinions, abilities, beliefs, and knowledge of a particular individual, situation or group). In addition, it also allows researchers to study larger groups of individuals more easily (Jackson 2012:17). Therefore, a descriptive approach was followed in this study.

3.3 SAMPLING DESIGN PROCEDURE

3.3.1 Target population

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:52) define the target population as the population which encompasses “the total collection of all units of analysis about which the researcher wishes to make specific conclusions.” The population for this study includes both males and females of all races (blacks, whites, coloureds and Indians), experienced and inexperienced employees, who are currently permanently employed at Babcock Africa company situated in Bedfordview, in the Gauteng province of South Africa. The population consists of the following occupations: engineers, operators, technicians, artisans, administrative staff, and safety, health and environmental specialists. The total number of the population equals to 181 employees (N = 181).

3.3.2 Sampling frame

A sampling frame is the list or quasi list of units, composing a population from which a sample is selected (Babbie 2008:222). According to McCormack and Hill (1997:51), any business or organisation which holds a database of employees, faces a relatively simple task of compiling a sample frame for any research. Babcock has a database of all employees in the HR department. Therefore, the sampling frame is drawn from the database.

3.3.3 Sampling method

Sampling is the process of selecting a few (a sample) number of respondent from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of a piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group (Gupta & Gupta 2011:41). A sample in research terms refers to a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are used to make estimates about the population as a whole (Singh

2007:88). Andrew, Pedersen and McEvoy (2011:49) stated that researchers' goal should be to collect a sample that is large enough to be representative of the population but not too large as to incur unnecessary cost. Due to the small size of the population, no sampling was done, but a census was drawn (N =181).

3.3.4 Sample size

According to Hayes (2008:84), when the target population is small, a census sampling approach should be administered to gather data. Hayes (2008:84) defines census sampling as “an approach to gather data from the whole target population.” Therefore, a sample size of the study was the whole target population (N = 181).

3.3.5 Sampling inclusion criteria

Subjects included in the sample were selected to meet the following specific criteria:

They should have worked in the organisation for more than six (6) months. Trainees, contractors and interns were not included in this study.

They were willing to participate.

3.3.6 Data collection method and the questionnaire

A survey method using a questionnaire was used in this study to collect appropriate information. Gravetter and Forzano (2011:640) define a survey as a “way to gather large amounts of information using a questionnaire.” The rationale for using a survey method was that it is a quick, flexible, inexpensive, effective and accurate means of assessing information about the population (Zikmund 2003:175). This survey was conducted by means of a fully structured questionnaire comprising a compilation of close-ended questions with multiple options for respondents to choose from.

3.3.6.1 Questionnaire design

Questionnaires normally consist of a list of questions or statements that respondents are requested to answer or indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with a given statement (Goddard & Malville 2001:47). According to Welman *et al.*, (2005:188) the purpose of a questionnaire is to investigate attitudes, feelings, beliefs, behaviour, knowledge and demographics characteristics. Questionnaires can consist of open- or closed-ended

questions. Closed-ended questions offer the respondent a range of possible answers from which the respondent must then select his/her appropriate choice (Welman *et al.*, 2005:174). Goddard and Malville (2001:47) suggest that a good questionnaire should have the following qualities:

- provide clear instructions;
- be short and complete;
- start with general questions;
- only ask relevant but appropriate questions;
- ask objective questions that are precise, explicit and understandable
- ask sensitive questions at the end; and
- consist mostly of closed-ended questions.

The questionnaire consisted of three sections. Section A contained questions requesting the following personal information of the participants: gender; age; years of service; marital status; place of work, highest level and current position/job level.

Section B focused on job satisfaction and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used to gather data about job satisfaction of the participants. The MSQ consists of 20 items (Spector 1997) and uses a 5-point Likert-type response scale anchored at the extreme poles (e.g. “never” 1-low intensity, to “always” 5-high intensity. The MSQ comprises of two distinct components: Intrinsic job satisfaction measures feelings about the nature of the job tasks. For example, question 15 covers: “The freedom to use my own judgement”. Extrinsic job satisfaction measures feelings about situational job aspects, external to the job. For example, question 13 covers: “My pay and the amount of work I do”.

Section C focused on intention to quit and questionnaire developed by Roodt (2004b:1) was used. The questionnaire consists of fourteen items. However, only five questions were used for this study. A 5-point Likert scale was used ranging from “Very dissatisfied” on one end to “Very Satisfied” on the other end. The five-point scale allowed for the possibility of a neutral answer. Examples of items included in this questionnaire were: “How often have you recently considered leaving your job?” and “How frequently have you been scanning newspapers for new job opportunities?”

3.4 PILOT TESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A pilot study is defined by Monette, Sullivan, Dejong and Hilton (2013:9) as a small-scale trial run of all the procedures planned for use in the main study that might include a test of procedures for selecting the sample and an application of the statistical procedures to be used in the data-analysis stage. Due to the fact that an existing validated questionnaire was utilised for this study, no pilot study was performed on the questionnaire, but it was pre-tested. A questionnaire must be pre-tested to uncover any problems it may have and address them before the main study is carried out (Mackey & Gass 2005:36),.

According to Mackey and Gass (2005:36), these problems may include: (1) questions that respondents do not understand; (2) ambiguous questions; (3) questions that combine two or more issues in a single question (double-barrelled questions); and (4) questions that make respondents uncomfortable. From a sample of 306, Sutherland and Jordaan (2004:58) selected 30 respondents to pre-test their questionnaire. Therefore, in this study, 30 respondents were selected for pre-testing it. Subsequently, changes were made to the questionnaire, where some items were deleted or rephrased.

3.5 DATA PREPARATION

Kothari (2004:122) stated once data has been collected, it has to be processed and analysed in accordance with the outline procedure for the purpose of developing the research plan. This is essential for a scientific study and for ensuring that all relevant data for making contemplated comparisons and analysis are available. Processing implies editing, coding, classification and tabulation of the collected data so that it is suitable for analysis (Kothari 2004:122). In this section, editing and coding are addressed.

3.5.1 Editing

According to Neuman (2006:130), the first step in data preparation is to edit raw data collected through questionnaires. Editing is a process of checking to detect and or correct errors and omissions. Editing consists of scrutinising the completed research instruments to identify and minimise, as far as possible, errors, incompleteness, misclassification and gaps in the information obtained from the respondents (Neuman 2006:130). Therefore, completed questionnaires were scrutinised to ensure that data generated is: accurate; consistent with

intent of question and other information in the survey; uniformly entered; and arranged to simplify coding and tabulation.

3.5.2 Coding

According to Welman *et al.* (2005:214), the purpose of coding is to analyse and make sense of the data that have been collected. Codes are tags or labels that attach meaning to the raw data or notes collected during fieldwork. Coding errors were eliminated with the use of both pre-coding and hand coding. The questionnaire was hand coded in the margin with a coloured pencil from 1 to 181 by allocating a code number to each respondent for identification. Section A (biographical information) of the questionnaire was also hand coded from question A1 to A8 by allowing numbers to each response, for example, gender was coded (1=male and 2=female). The pre-coding procedure was used throughout the questionnaire by providing a set of response options to the respondents and by assigning a code number to each respective question and response of Sections B and C of the questionnaire.

3.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

According to Welman *et al.* (2005:210), the main objective of data analysis is to transform information (data) into a meaningful form in order to answer the original research question(s).

The description of quantitative data can be done using two descriptive measures, namely, the measure of the central tendency and the measure of variance, of which the most common value calculated for the units of analysis is the central tendency. During this study, data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics are concerned with the description and/or summarisation of the data obtained for a group of individual units of analysis (Welman *et al.*, 2005:231).

Inferential statistics are concerned with inferences made about population indices based on the corresponding indices obtained from samples drawn randomly from the population (Welman *et al.*, 2005:236). Creswell *et al.* (2007:198) define inferential analysis as the process of deducing properties of an underlying distribution by analysis of data.

Tabulating was used to make comparisons of the demographics and was also used as the basis for presenting the data graphically. The data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences SPSS 22.0.

The following statistical terms were used during the statistical analysis of the data.

Mean: The sum of the measurements divided by the total number of measurements. This is the average value for the variable. The mean makes use of every score of the distribution and, therefore, is the most correct measure of central tendency (Bless & Kathuria 2001:46).

Variance: Variance is a measure of how far a set of numbers is spread out, describing how far the numbers lie from the mean (expected value). Calculations of variance can be obtained by means of range or standard deviation, depending on the objective at hand.

Standard deviation: Standard deviation is the most commonly used measure of variation as it includes all scores in the distribution using the mean. It indicates how much variance or dispersion exists from the average (mean, or expected value). A low standard deviation indicates that the data points tend to be very close to the mean; high standard deviation indicates that the data points are spread out over a large range of values (Bless & Kathuria 2008:63).

Frequency distribution: These are used to establish if the distribution is even across the intervals or whether they are bunched around one or two intervals (Welman *et al.*, 2005:230).

Factor analysis: Factor analysis is a major technique in multivariate statistics and has a vital task in demonstrating which variables clump together to form super-ordinate variables. The aim is to make order out of chaos, whereby complex interactions between variables that inter-correlate can be analysed. Furthermore, “the purpose is to find out how much of the variation in all variables can be accounted for, by a much smaller number of factors or underlying dimensions” (Burns & Burns 2008:441).

According to Hinton (2004:305), the two most useful tests often carried out prior to factor analysis are the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test that examines the data for sampling adequacy. “This gives a measure of the common variance amongst the variable that the factors will be accounted for” (Hinton 2004:305).

The second test is the Bartlett's test of sphericity, which tests if there is a variable that does not correlate with other variables as expected and are worth investigating (Hinton 2004:305).

T-test: The t-test or the student's t-test, also known as the independent t-test, is an inferential statistical test that determines whether there is a statistically significant difference between the means in two unrelated groups. The objective of T-test is to test whether the means for unrelated groups are equal or that the means are not equal (Leedy & Ormrod 2010:182).

ANOVA: ANOVA stands for one-way analysis of variance. It is also used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of three or more independent groups (Leedy & Ormrod 2010:182).

3.7 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

It is important to ensure that factors that could affect the results of the research are controlled. If not, it is impossible to come to a reliable and valid conclusion. Therefore, it is critical that measurement instruments are valid and reliable.

3.7.1 Reliability

In explaining the concept of reliability, Punch (2003:52) defines reliability as "consistency or dependability of a measure". This concerns whether the same respondents would answer the same questions in the same way if they were to be asked again. Cohen *et al.*, (2007:506) argue that reliability in quantitative analysis takes two main forms, both of which are measures of internal consistency: the split-half technique and the alpha coefficient, when both calculate a coefficient of reliability that can lie between 0 and 1. To assure the accuracy or precision of the questionnaire, the Cronbach alpha coefficient technique was used in this study to enhance the reliability of the survey instrument. Sekaran (2005:185) states that if the Cronbach's alpha is less than 0.6, this means that the instrument used has a low reliability (and thus opens for some errors). However, if the alpha value is within 0.7, it is therefore acceptable.

3.7.2 Validity

Drost (2011:114) explains that validity is concerned with the meaningfulness of research components and describes the extent to which an instrument accurately measures the target it

was designed to measure. In quantitative data, validity might be improved through careful sampling, appropriate instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatments of data (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:133). Validity of the questionnaire was yielded in this study through content, construct and face validities. Below are brief explanation of these types of validity.

3.7.2.1 Content validity

Content validity refers to the extent to which a measure thoroughly and appropriately assesses the skills or characteristics it is intended to measure (Fink 2010:116). Wynd, Schmidt and Schaefer (2003:509) identified two interrelated steps in this process. It starts by identifying the entire domain of content related to the phenomena of interest with a thorough review of literature; it then follows with a development of the instrument (items content) associated with the identified domain of content (Wynd *et al.*, 2003:509). Cohen *et al.*, (2007:137) added that to demonstrate this form of validity the instrument must show that it fairly and comprehensively covers the domain or items that it purports to cover. Fox and Bayat (2007:97) state that the validity of a question should not be taken for granted and should be scrutinised by experts before the questionnaire is implemented. To ensure content validity in this study, the researcher submitted the instrument to the subject matter experts for comments and recommendations prior to the implementation and then aligned the instrument accordingly.

3.7.2.2 Construct validity

Construct validity of a measuring instrument refers to the degree to which it measures the intended construct rather than irrelevant construct or measurement error (Welman *et al.*, 2005:142). Construct validity is a type of validity neither purely judgmental nor absolutely empirical that aimed at determining the extent to which the constructed tool is able to measure a construct (hypothesised idea to describe or explain the behaviour under measurement) (Mangal & Mangal 2013:586). Thomas, Nelson and Silverman (2011:197) are of the view that correlation can be used in establishing construct validity. Thus, construct validity were ascertained in this study through correlation, factor analysis and Cronbach alpha coefficients of the main study.

3.7.2.3 Face validity

Face validity is the extent to which, on the surface, an instrument looks as if it is measuring a particular characteristic (Leeddy & Ormrod 2010:92). It is often useful for ensuring the co-

operation of people who are participating in the research study. However, because it relies entirely on subjective judgement, it is not, in and of itself, extremely convincing evidence that an instrument is truly measuring what the researcher wants to measure (Leeddy & Ormrod 2010:92). Face validity was ascertained through pre-testing of the questionnaire and reviewing it prior to the main survey.

In summary, in order to ascertain validity in this study, the researcher made use of three methods of validity, namely: content, construct and face. Content validity was assured by careful sampling all the items to ensure their representativeness. Construct validity was yielded by factor and correlation analyses, while face validity was ascertained through pre-testing of the questionnaire and reviewing it prior to the main survey. Many other precautions were taken into account to ensure and enhance validity in this study such as: choosing an appropriate time scale, selecting appropriate instrumentation (questionnaire) for gathering the type of data required (quantitative), using an appropriate sample size (181 subjects), which is a good representative of the population (not too small or too large).

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Permission to conduct the research was granted in writing by the Group Human Resource Director of Babcock International Group. Employees were made aware that participation would be voluntary, through a covering letter attached to the questionnaire. Further, the personal responses from individuals were not ascribed to an individual and the questionnaire did not bear the names of respondents, ensuring anonymity and confidentiality of responses. Ethical principles were adhered to in this study and respondents were assured that their identity would not be revealed. The completed questionnaires were kept in a residential place to ensure confidentiality. These ethical considerations adhered to those advocated by Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:97), who advised that scientists not forget their obligations to research participants from who they sought information and their rights.

3.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the research design and methodology utilised in the study, including the sampling method, questionnaire development and data collection are explained, as well as the rationale behind choices of methods and techniques. The next chapter focuses on the statistical analysis of the raw data and the discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the research design and methodology used in this study. It provided details regarding the measuring instrument and the procedure used to collect data, population size, sampling, as well as a description of statistical techniques that were applied in the current chapter.

To complete this study properly, it is necessary to analyse the data collected in order to answer the research questions (Welman *et al.*, 2005:210). This chapter discusses the data analysis and interpretation. The researcher analysed, presented and interpreted the findings resulting from this study into meaningful and applicable units (Welman *et al.*, 2005:231).

The analysis is presented in frequencies and percentages. The analysis and interpretation is arranged according to three sections, namely, (1) biographical questionnaire; (2) job satisfaction questionnaire and (3) intention to quit questionnaire.

The study set out to achieve the following objectives, namely:

- to determine the level of job satisfaction and the intention to quit of employees in a steel manufacturing company; and
- to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit of employees in a steel manufacturing company.

In order to meet the above-mentioned objectives, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 22.0 for Windows) was used to analyse the data. The sample is first described using descriptive statistics to indicate the representivity of the sample to the population, and then inferential statistical procedures is utilised to analyse the data further.

Prior to the final study, a pre-test was conducted and the following section presents the results of the test.

4.2 PRE-TEST RESULTS

An existing validated questionnaire was utilised for this study, hence, there was no pilot study performed on the questionnaire. However, the questionnaire was pre-tested on a sample of 30 employees in order to ascertain its validity by refining the measurement instrument (questionnaire) in terms of wording, clarity, layout, relevance of the questions and ambiguity of items content. Subsequently, changes were made to the questionnaire, where some items were deleted and rephrased.

To test for reliability, a diagnostic test was conducted after the data collection for closed-ended questions (Sections B and C) by calculating Cronbach's alpha. The internal consistency of the Sections B and C was examined by calculating the reliability values for the two sections of the scale.

4.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive analysis is done to provide insight into the nature of the respondents and is normally depicted well through the use of tables and charts. According to IBM (2014), a researcher can show descriptive statistics by comparing averages such as the mean or median; obtaining information such as the mean for groups of interest that need to interpret other statistical tests; finally by providing graphical representations of data, such as histograms and boxplots.

There were eight items asking respondents to provide certain biographic and demographic information, which will serve as the independent variables in this research. The variables included age, gender, race, years of service, marital status, place of work, highest level of education and current position/job level.

In this study, the researcher chose to make use of graphical representations (pie charts and bar charts) and statistical commentary (a discussion of the results) on biographic questions (Section A). An analysis of the general employees' profile is discussed in the forthcoming sections.

4.3.1 Age

Figure 4.1 below provides a picture of age groups for the employees in the steel manufacturing company.

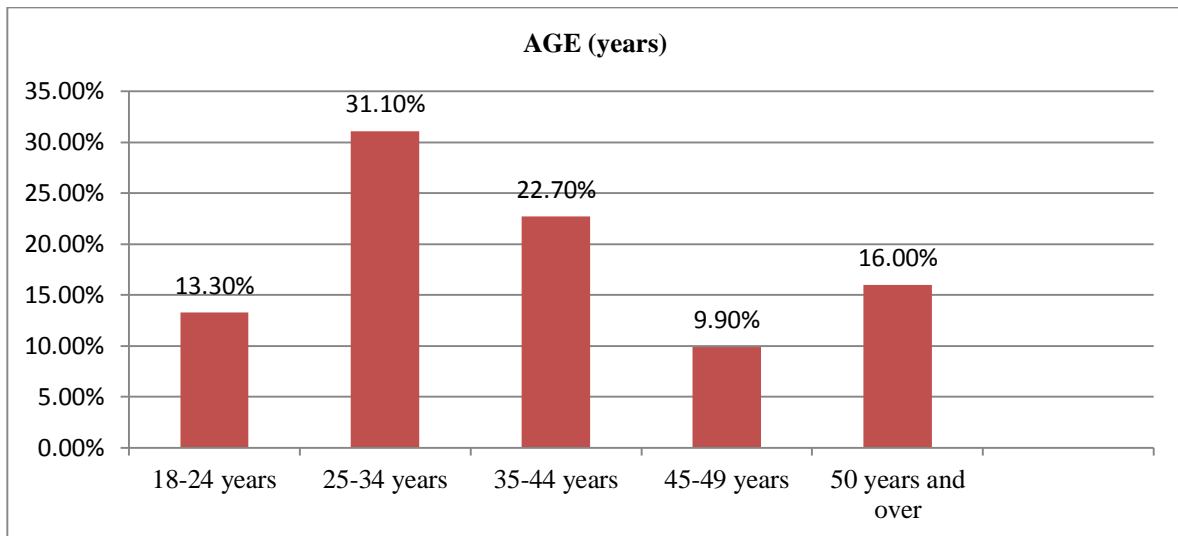


Figure 7: Age of respondents

Figure 7 indicates that the majority of the sample falls in the 25-34 year age group (31.10%), which was then followed by respondents who are between 35 and 44 years old (22.70%), then respondents above 50 years old (16.00%), thereafter respondents between 18-24 years old (13.30%), while age category 45-49 years had the least number of respondents (9.90%).

4.3.2 Gender

Figure 8 below provides a picture of gender distribution for the respondents, which comprised 74.00% males and 26.00% females of the total respondents of 181.

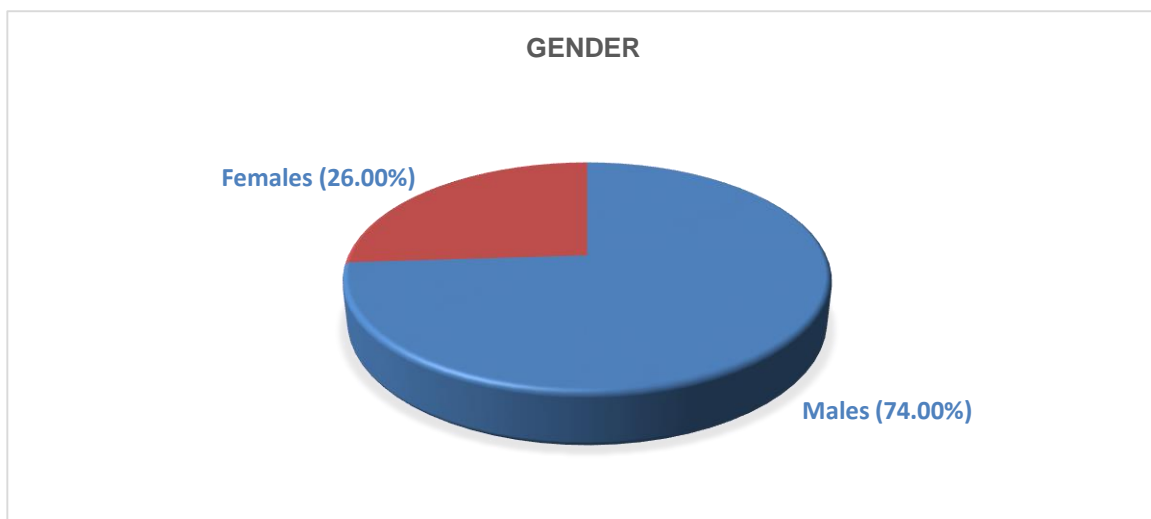


Figure 8: Gender of respondents

4.3.3 Race

Figure 9 below provides a picture of race distribution of the respondents, which comprised Blacks, Whites, Coloured and Indians.

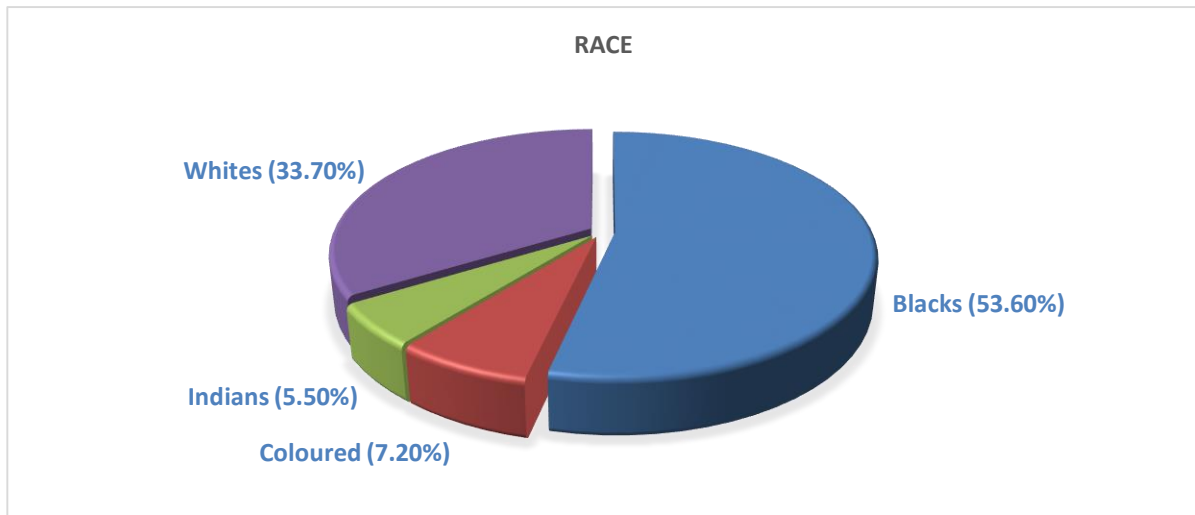


Figure 9: Race of respondents

The figure indicates that the number of Black respondents was higher than any of the other races.

4.3.4 Marital status

Figure 10 below provides a picture of the marital status distribution of the respondents, which comprised single, married, cohabiting, divorced/separated and widow/widower.

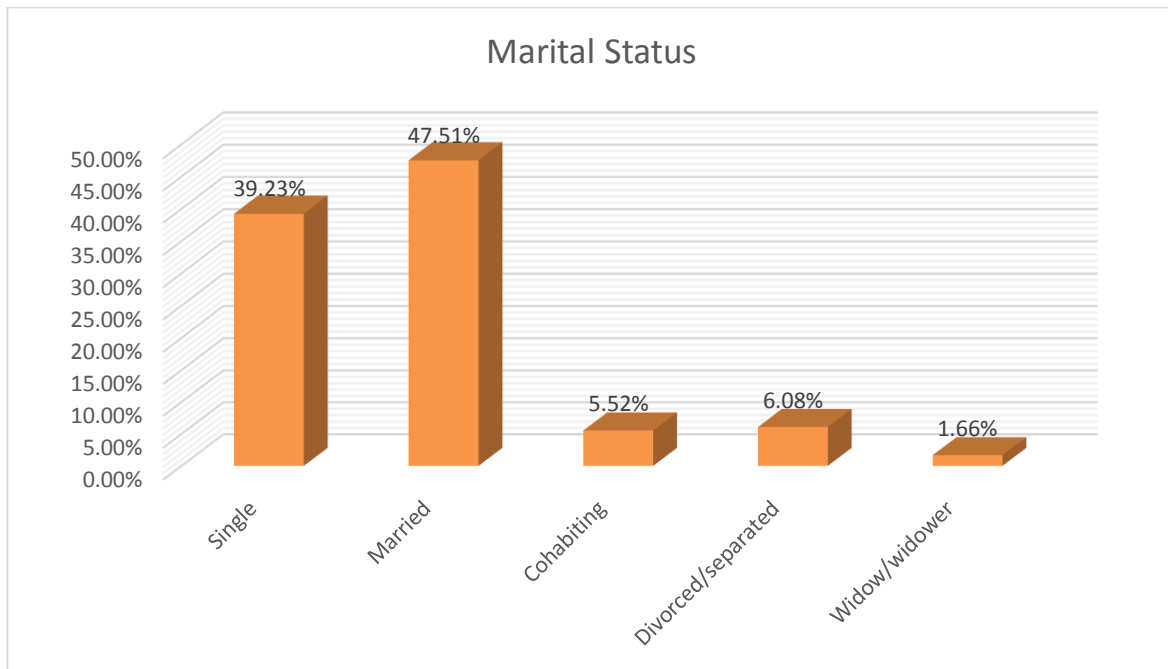


Figure 10: Marital status of respondents

Figure 10 reveals that married (47.51%) was the most dominant marital status, followed by single (39.23%), divorced or separated (6.08%), cohabiting (5.52%) and widow or widower (1.66%).

4.3.5 Years of service in the organisation

Figure 11 presents the distribution of the years of service in the current organisation.

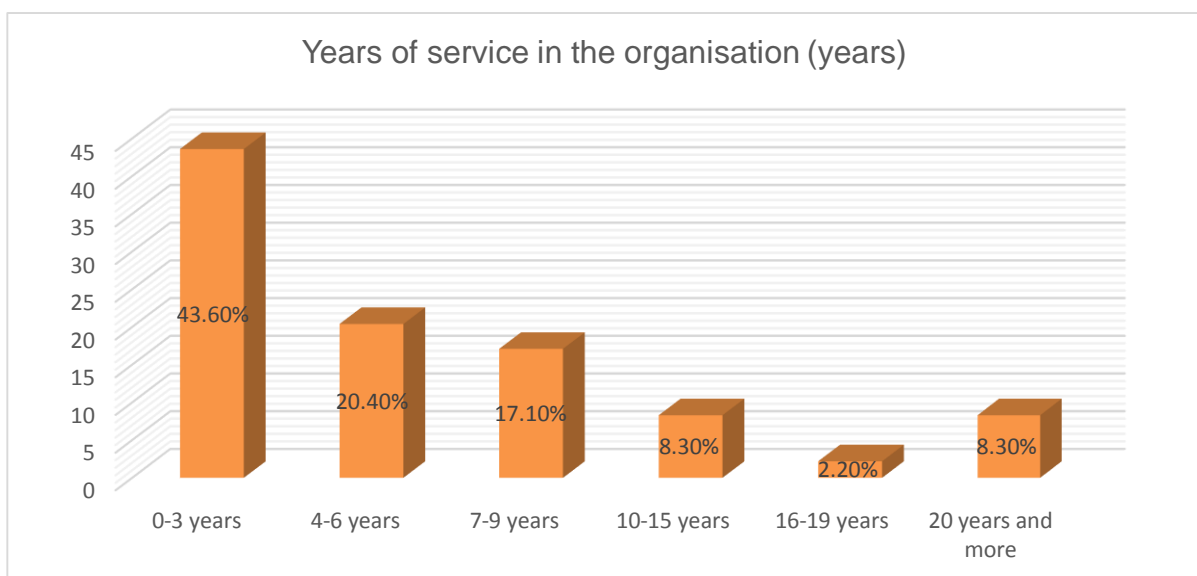


Figure 11: Years of service in the organisation

The majority of the respondents had been working for the organisation for 0-3 years (43.60%), followed by respondents who had been working for the organisation for 4-6 years (20.40%), then 7-9 years (17.10%). The same number of respondents had been working for the organisation for 10-19 years and for 20 years and more (8.30%) and lastly 2.20% of respondents were working for the organisation for 16-19 years.

4.3.6 Job grade level

Figure 12 indicates the job grade levels of the respondents, which comprised senior management, middle management, junior management, professionally qualified/ skilled worker, semi skilled and unskilled.

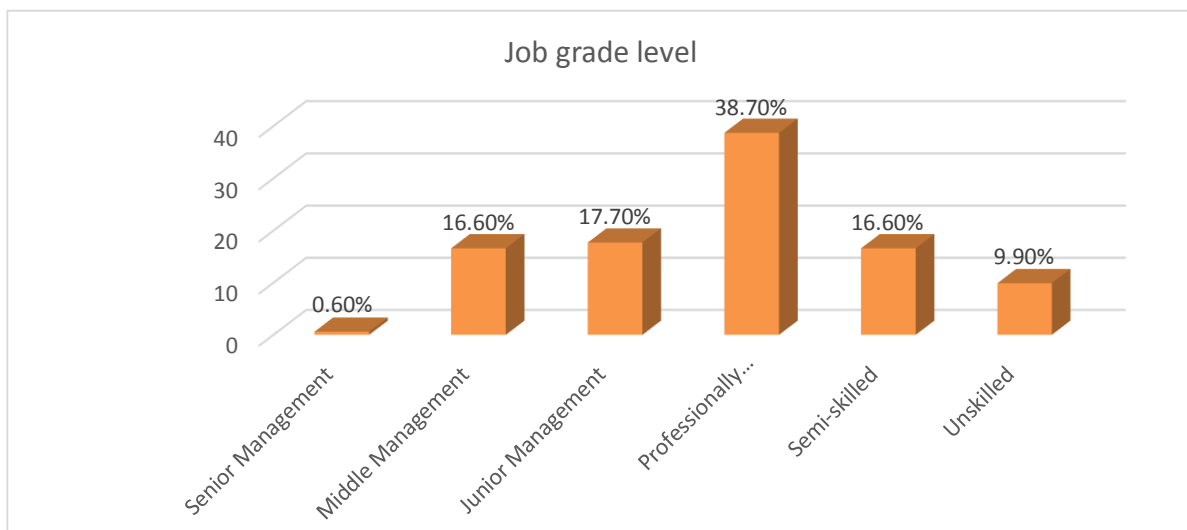


Figure 12: Job grade level

Most of the respondents were professionally qualified/skilled workers (38.70%), followed by junior management (17.70%), middle management and semiskilled (16.60%), unskilled (9.90%) and finally senior management with the lowest number of respondents (0.60%) of the sample.

4.3.7 Level of education

Figure 13 below indicates the level of education of the respondents that varied between primary school education and postgraduate qualifications.

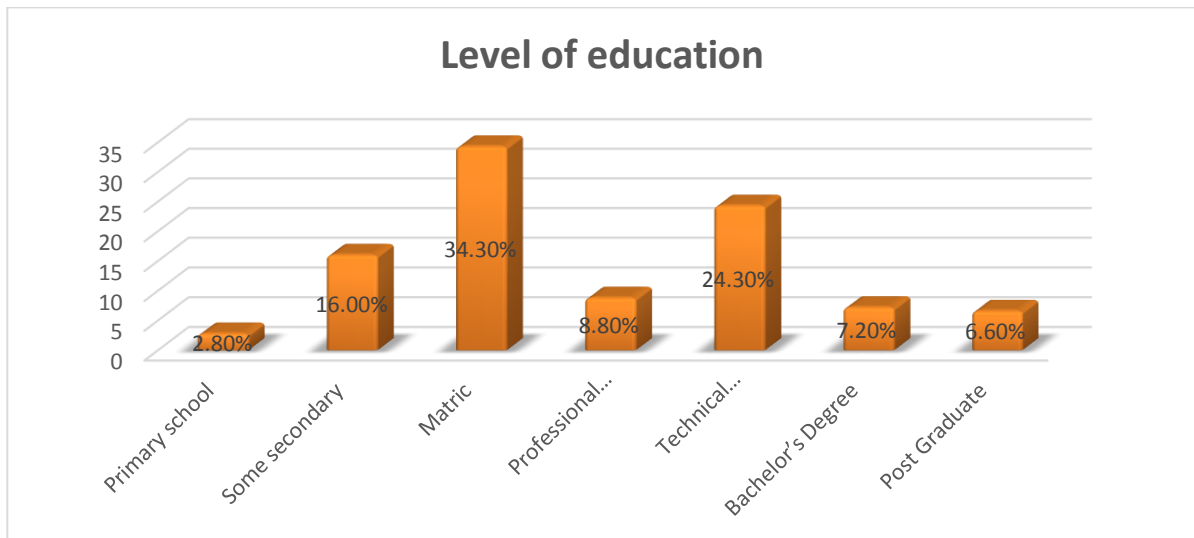


Figure 13: Level of education

Figure 13 reflects that most respondents (34.30%) were not in possession of an advanced level qualification, which was the equivalence of grade 12, followed by the respondents who are in possession of technical college/university of technology (24.30%), secondary level education (16.00%), professional training/apprenticeship training (8.80%), bachelor's degree (7.20%), post graduate degree (6.60%) and lastly primary school level (2.80%).

4.3.8 Place of work

Figure 14 below indicates the distribution of place of work of the respondents.

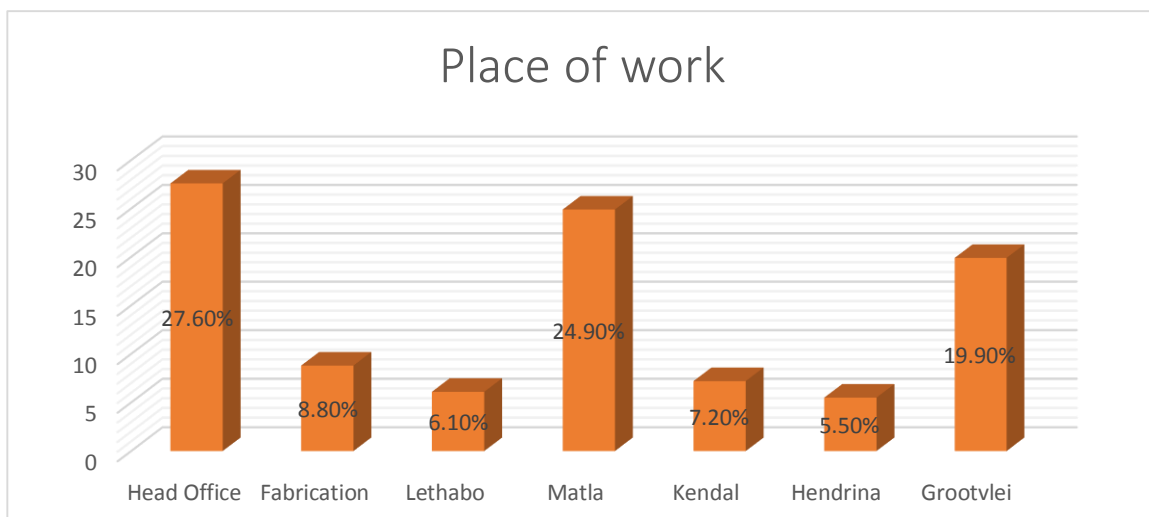


Figure 14: Place of work

Figure 14 reflects that most respondents were based at Head Office (27.60%), followed by respondents working at Matla (24.90%), Grootvlei (19.90%), Fabrication (8.80%), Kendal (7.20%), Lethabo (6.10%) and lastly Hendrina (5.50%).

In the following section, relevant data of the different factors obtained through a factor analysis procedure for Sections B and C is reported.

4.4 FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor analysis is commonly used in the fields of psychology and education and is considered the method of choice for interpreting self-reporting questionnaires (Williams, Onsman & Brown 2010:2). According to Williams *et al.*, (2010:2), factor analysis firstly reduces a large number of variables into a smaller set of variables (also referred to as factors). Secondly, it establishes underlying dimensions between measured variables and latent constructs, thereby allowing the formation and refinement of theory. Thirdly, it provides construct validity evidence of self-reporting scales.

Prior to the extraction of the factors, several tests should be used to assess the suitability of the respondent data for factor analysis. These tests include Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Williams *et al.*, 2010:5).

4.4.1 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test

As a rule of thumb, Rasli (2006:15) stated that a value of 0.5 or higher for the KMO measure of sampling adequacy indicates that the proportion of variance in the variables is caused by underlying factors. Thus, it allows for the application of factor analysis (Rasli 2006:15). High values (close to 1.0) generally indicate that factor analysis may be useful to the data obtained. If the value is less than 0.50, the results of the factor analysis probably will not be very useful (IBM 2014).

Hinton *et al.* (2014:341) suggest that before performing a factor analysis, a researcher must undertake a test similar to Bartlett's test of sphericity. The result of this test should be significant as it indicates that it is worth continuing with factor analysis as there are relationships to investigate. There is no point in undertaking a factor analysis when the researcher does not think there is anything of interest to find (Hinton *et al.*, 2014:341). Small values (less than 0.05) of the significance level indicate that a factor analysis may be useful

(IBM 2014). The KMO and Bartlett's tests were done on Sections B and C of the questionnaire and the results are presented on Tables 4.1 and 4.2.

4.4.1.1 KMO and Bartlett's test of Section B (Employees' perception of job satisfaction)

Table 2 shows the results of two tests (KMO and Bartlett's tests) that indicate the suitability of the data for structure detection.

Table 2: KMO and Bartlett's test of Section B

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.923
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1687.489
	Df	105
	Sig.	0.000

The KMO of Section B is 0.923, which is close to 1. The Bartlett's test of Section B indicated a 0.000 significance level that was lower than 0.05. In conclusion, both tests indicated that a factor analysis could be performed on Section B.

4.4.1.2 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Section C (Intention to quit)

Table 3 shows the results of two tests (KMO and Bartlett's tests) that indicated the suitability of the data for structure detection.

Table 3: KMO and Bartlett's tests of Section C

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.883
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1156.349
	Df	10
	Sig.	0.000

Table 3 shows that the KMO of Section C was 0.883 (which is above 0.5); this indicated that the proportion of variance in the variables was caused by underlying factors. Thus, it allowed the application of a factor analysis. This was supported by the Bartlett's test of Sections C

which had a 0.000 significance level that was less than 0.05. Thus, it provided evidence that the data is suitable for factor analysis.

In summary, the results of the KMO and Barlett’s tests of both sections indicated the suitability of the data in sections B and C for factor analysis. Based on the above results, factor analysis was used to find factors among employees’ perceptions of their job satisfaction and intention to quit sections. In other words, since these two sections contain many components, factor analysis is used to reduce the number of variables.

4.4.2 Section B: Employees’ perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction

To examine employees’ perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction, different components were identified through principal component analysis using varimax rotation. The criteria for the number of factors to be extracted were based on eigenvalues, percentage of variance, significance of factor loading and an assessment of the factor structure (Dhurup & Mofoka 2011:161).

Only factors with eigenvalues equal to or greater than 1 were considered significant. A rotated solution that accounted for at least 60 per cent of the total variance was considered as a satisfactory solution using an exploratory factor analysis procedure (Lorenzo-Seva 2013:4). The eigenvalues, the percentage of variance explained by each factor and the cumulative percentage of variance of the two factors are reported in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Eigenvalues, percentage of variance explained and cumulative percentage of Section B

Dimension description	No of items	eigenvalues	% of variance	Cumulative %
Supervision variables	8	4.861	32.406	32.406
Job variables	7	4.221	28.141	60.547

A variable was considered of significance and included in a factor when its factor loading was equal to or greater than 0.5. In addition, items that loaded heavily on more than one factor were eliminated from further scale development. Hence, cross-loading was also examined in the factor structure. Items were eliminated either because of cross loading or low factor loading (<0.50). Table 5 below summarises the factor structure evaluation of Section B of the questionnaire.

Table 5: Factor loading matrix of Section B (employee’s perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction)

Scale description	Factor 1 Supervision variable	Factor 2 Job variable
How satisfied are you with the task variety in your present job?	.712	.330
To what extent do you feel that you are valued in your present job?	.710	.351
How satisfied are you with your immediate supervisor (superior) in your present job?	.868	.162
How satisfied are you with your immediate supervisor’s (superior’s) ability to make effective decisions?	.856	.215
How satisfied are you that you do not do things that go against your conscience?	.623	.310
To what extent does your present job provide steady employment?	.339	.565
To what extent do you have the chance to do things for other people in your present job?	.198	.605
How often do you have the opportunity in your present job to be in a position of authority and instruct other people what to do?	.319	.610
To what extent are the organisation’s policies put into practice?	.612	.463
How satisfied are you that the pay you receive reflects the amount of effort you put into your job?	.458	.626
To what extent are there opportunities for advancement in your present job?	.160	.755
How much freedom is there in your present job to use your own judgement?	.294	.782
To what extent are you allowed to experiment with your own methods of doing the job?	.337	.762
How satisfied are you with your work conditions?	.724	.459
How often do you get praise for doing a good job?	.622	.430

Extraction method: Principal component with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation

Factor one labeled as **supervision factor** comprised eight variables and accounted for 32% of the variance explained by the factor. For employees to stay in the organisation, an organisation must provide a good supervisor who is knowledgeable and skillful to ensure that task variety in a job is provided. He or she must also have an ability to make effective

decisions. He or she must value employees for the effort they put in their jobs and who does not force employees to do things that are against their conscience. The incumbent must ensure that organisation's policies are put into practice. The incumbent must also ensure that work conditions of employees are satisfactory and must praise his or her employees for doing a good job. Robbins *et al.*, (2003:80) concur with the above. The authors state that supervision forms a pivotal role to job satisfaction. In order for employees to be satisfied with their jobs, a good supervisor must provide emotional and technical support and guidance with work-related tasks (Robbins *et al.*, 2003:80).

Factor two was labelled **job variable** and comprised of seven variables. It accounted for 28% of the variance explained by the factor. The results indicate that if employees are provided with jobs that provide the following opportunities, they will feel satisfied and motivated and will stay in the organisation:

- to do things for other people;
- to be in a position of authority and instruct other people what to do;
- to reward employees for their efforts;
- for career advancement; and
- to use their own judgement and freedom to experiment with their own methods.

Friday & Friday (2003:429) concur with the above. The authors established that if a job is highly motivating, employees are likely to be satisfied with the job content and deliver higher quality work and are likely to stay in the organisation.

In summary, these two factors accounted for 60% of the total variance explained; they appeared as important determinants in establishing employee's perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction. Different people perceive a situation differently, both in terms of what they selectively perceive and how they organise and interpret events perceived. These aspects of employee's perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction activities may provide some indication of how employees perceive their organisation which may ultimately influence their future behaviours in the workplace such as the type of attachments they have towards their organisation and their intentions to stay.

4.4.2.1 Mean rating of dimensions of employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction

The mean rating in terms of importance of job satisfaction factors are reported in Table 6. The minimum and maximum values are based on the lowest and highest values on a 5-point Likert scale. The means were calculated by summing the response values of variables that comprised each dimension of employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction scale, divided by the number of variables in each dimension.

Table 6: Mean rating of dimensions of employee's perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction

Dimension description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Supervision factor	181	1	5	3.90
Job factor	181	1	5	3.66

Scale item rating: 1=Strongly not satisfied; 2= Not satisfied; 3=Neither disagree nor agree; 4=Satisfied; 5=Strongly satisfied

Respondents agreed that the supervision factor was essential to them (mean=3.90) as well as the job factor (mean=3.66). The results indicated that in order for employees to feel satisfied with the organisation and the job, the incumbent who occupies the supervision position must have experience, knowledge and skill to execute the job. It also indicates that the job itself must be challenging and motivating to the employees (Robbins *et al.*, 2003:80).

The results of Section C of the questionnaire are shown in the next section and a discussion of these results is also provided.

4.4.3 Section C: Employees' intentions to quit their current organisation

The mean rating in terms of importance of employees' intentions to quit factors are reported in Table 7.

Table 7: Mean rating of dimensions of employees' intentions to quit their current organisation

Dimension description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
C1. In the last six months I have thought of quitting my job	181	1	5	3.64
C2. I frequently think about quitting my job in this organisation	181	1	5	3.64
C3 I plan to quit my job in this organisation	181	1	5	3.62
C4 I have a desire to leave my job in this organisation	181	1	5	3.57
C5 I have actively searched for a new job in other organisations	181	1	5	3.71

These results indicated employees' level of agreement to remain employed in their current organisations. Respondents agreed that they were willing to stay in their current organisation in the most foreseeable future (mean=3.64). Respondents also agreed to maintain their current relationships with their current organisation (mean=3.64). Respondents further agreed that they had no intentions of leaving their current employer (mean=3.62).

Additionally, respondents agreed that they had no desire to leave their job (mean=3.57). Finally, respondents agreed that they were not planning to look for a new job alternative (mean=3.71). Overall, these results showed that employees' likelihood to continue their membership in a predictable future in this organisation was high. Employees found it important for them to continue maintaining their future relationships with this organisation. Kudo *et al.* (2006:511) found that employees' intentions to stay on the job were significantly associated with the conditions of employment, which are composed of salary, welfare, and fair salary raises; these are hygiene factors and they are associated with the security and stability of employees' lives.

4.5 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlation analysis reveals any correlation (positive or negative) between the factored constructs identified in a research study (Rasli 2006:29). Rasli (2006:29) further explained that correlation defines a relationship between dependent and independent variables. In examining the relationship among employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction

and employees' intentions to quit their current organisation, correlations were computed using Pearson product moment correlation coefficient to establish the strength and direction of the relationships. Scores for each of the variables included in employee's perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction as well as employees' intentions to quit their current organisation scales were combined to create a single index of steel manufacturing company activities. The results of the analysis are reported in Table 8.

Table 8: Correlations

		Supervision variables	Job variables	Intention to quit
Supervision variables	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	181		
Job variables	Pearson Correlation	.747**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		
	N	181	181	
Intention to quit	Pearson Correlation	-.487**	-.539**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	181	181	181

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

Table 8 summarises the relationships among employee's perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction and employees' intentions to quit their current organisation by means of linear correlations. The results indicated that the supervision variable is positively correlated with job variable while it is negatively correlated with intention to quit and the correlations were significant at $p < 0.000$. In addition, job variable is also negatively correlated with intention to quit and the correlations were significant at $p < 0.000$.

4.6 T-TEST AND ANOVA

In order to quantify the relationships that exist among factors that best describe the job satisfaction and employees' intentions to quit their current organisation, t-test and ANOVA

were conducted. It helps establish predictive relationships among the constructs and the following sections present the results of the analysis.

4.6.1 T-Test

The t-test or the student's t-test, also known as the independent t-test, is an inferential statistical test that determines whether there is a statistically significant difference between the means in two unrelated groups (Laerd statistics).

The objective of this section is to test whether the means for unrelated groups are equal or that the means are not equal. The three key variables are job satisfaction variable 1 (supervision variable), job satisfaction variable 2 (job variable) and employees' intention to quit, that are used as the basis for testing whether the means are equal or not.

To test whether or not the two independent populations have different mean values on some measure, a test statistics is calculated. The t test statistics is used to determine a p-value that indicates how likely it is that there is no difference in the population.

If p value is less than 0.05, there is enough evidence to show that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups; however, if p value is greater that 0.05, there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups.

Table 9: Group statistics for supervision variables

Gender	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	134	3.9841	.91579	.07911
Female	47	3.6888	.94404	.13770

From the Group Statistics box, the mean for males is 3.98. The mean for females is 3.69. The standard deviation for males is 0.92 and for females, 0.94. The number of participants in each gender (n) is 134 and 47 respectively.

Table 10: Independent samples test for supervision variables

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.091	.763	1.887	179	.061	.29531	.15650	-0.01350		.60413
			1.860	78.423	.067	.29531	.15881	-0.02083		.61145

An independent t-test was run on the data as well as 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the mean difference of males and females. The Sig. (2-Tailed) value from the Table above is 0.061. This value is above 0.05, hence it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean number of males (3.98 ± 0.92) and females (3.69 ± 0.94), ($t(179) = 1.887$, $p = 0.061$).

Since Table 10 above reveals that the mean for males is greater than the mean for females, it can be concluded that male participants believe that management supervision forms more of a pivotal role relating to employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction than female participants.

Table 11: Group statistics for job variables

Gender	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	134	3.7292	.91486	.07903
Female	47	3.4985	.84404	.12312

In the Group Statistics box, the mean for condition 1 (males) is 3.73. The mean for condition 2 (females) is 3.49. The standard deviation for condition 1 is 0.91 and for condition 2, 0.84. The number of participants in each condition (n) is 134 and 47 respectively.

Table 12: Independent samples test for job variables

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.529	.468	1.517	179	.131	.23073	.15210	-.06941	.53087	

An independent t-test was run on the data as well as 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the mean difference of males and females. The Sig. (2-Tailed) value in Table 4.11 above is 0.131, This value is above 0.05, hence it could be concluded that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean number of condition 1 (males) (3.73 ± 0.91) and condition 2 (females) (3.49 ± 0.84), ($t(179) = 1.517$, $p = 0.131$).

Since Table 12 above reveals that the mean for males is greater than the mean for females, it can be concluded that male participants believe that employees' intentions to stay in their current organisation is influenced by employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction more than female participants.

4.6.2 ANOVA

ANOVA stands for one-way analysis of variance. It is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of three or more independent (unrelated) groups. The one-way ANOVA compares the means between the groups you are interested in and determines whether any of those means are significantly different from each other.

The following three assumptions are needed to be tested before one way ANOVA can be used:

- The dependent variable is normally distributed in each group that is being compared in the one-way ANOVA.
- There is homogeneity of variances, that is, the population variances in each group are equal.
- Independence of observations.

Table 13: ANOVA results for supervision variables versus age

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.718	4	1.430	1.679	.157
Within Groups	149.857	176	.851		
Total	155.575	180			

Table 13 shows the output of the ANOVA analysis to show whether we have a statistically significant difference between our group means in relation to age. We can see that the significance level is 0.157 ($p = 0.157$), which is above 0.05 and therefore there is no statistically significant difference in the mean length of the age groups (1=18-24 yrs; 2=25-34 yrs; 3=35-44 yrs; 4=45-49 yrs and 5=50+yrs).

The results of the Post hoc tests are now presented in Table 14 below to confirm the results from Table 13.

Table 14: POST HOC test results for supervision variables versus age

Multiple Comparisons
Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) A1	(J) A1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
JS1	1	2	.39697	.21867	.712	-.2247	1.0186
		3	.19499	.23716	1.000	-.4792	.8692
		4	.52257	.28772	.710	-.2954	1.3405
		5	.04077	.25463	1.000	-.6831	.7647
	2	1	-.39697	.21867	.712	-1.0186	.2247
		3	-.20197	.18195	1.000	-.7192	.3153
		4	.12560	.24422	1.000	-.5687	.8199
		5	-.35620	.20421	.829	-.9367	.2243
	3	1	-.19499	.23716	1.000	-.8692	.4792
		2	.20197	.18195	1.000	-.3153	.7192
		4	.32757	.26090	1.000	-.4141	1.0693
		5	-.15423	.22389	1.000	-.7907	.4823
	4	1	-.52257	.28772	.710	-1.3405	.2954
		2	-.12560	.24422	1.000	-.8199	.5687
		3	-.32757	.26090	1.000	-1.0693	.4141
		5	-.48180	.27688	.836	-1.2689	.3053
	5	1	-.04077	.25463	1.000	-.7647	.6831
		2	.35620	.20421	.829	-.2243	.9367
		3	.15423	.22389	1.000	-.4823	.7907
		4	.48180	.27688	.836	-.3053	1.2689

1=18-24 yrs; 2=25-34 yrs; 3=35-44 yrs; 4=45-49 yrs and 5=50+yrs

The results of Table 14 above showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the age groups (18-24 age bucket ($p = 0.712$), 25-34 age bucket ($p = 0.829$), 35-44 age bucket ($p = 0.836$) as well as 45-49 and 50+ age buckets ($p = 0.836$) as all the significance levels are above 0.05.

The results indicated that all the age groups (18-24 yrs; 25-34 yrs; 35-44 yrs; 45-49 yrs and 50+yrs) who participated in the study believed that management supervision forms a pivotal role relating to employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction.

To summarise the results presented in Tables 13 and 14, a Bonferroni post-hoc test revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between the age groups as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(4,176) = 1.679$, $p = 0.157$).

Table 15: ANOVA results for job variables versus age

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.904	4	2.226	2.859	.025
Within Groups	137.036	176	.779		
Total	145.940	180			

Table 15 showed the output of the ANOVA analysis to indicate whether there was a statistically significant difference between the group means in relation to age. The significance level is 0.025 ($p = 0.025$), which is below 0.05 and therefore there was a statistically significant difference in the mean length of the age groups (1=18-24 yrs; 2=25-34 yrs; 3=35-44 yrs; 4=45-49 yrs and 5=50+yrs).

The one-way ANOVA could not specify which specific groups were significantly different from each other. To determine which specific groups differed from each other, a post hoc test was used. The results of the Post hoc tests are presented in Table 16 below.

Table 16: POST HOC test results for job variables versus age

Multiple Comparisons
Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) A1	(J) A1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
JS1	1	2	.58851	.20911	.054	-.0060	1.1830
		3	.42944	.22679	.599	-.2153	1.0742
		4	.28175	.27513	1.000	-.5004	1.0639
		5	.10468	.24350	1.000	-.5875	.7969
	2	1	-.58851	.20911	.054	-1.1830	.0060
		3	-.15907	.17400	1.000	-.6537	.3356
		4	-.30676	.23354	1.000	-.9707	.3572
		5	-.48383	.19528	.142	-1.0390	.0713
	3	1	-.42944	.22679	.599	-1.0742	.2153
		2	.15907	.17400	1.000	-.3356	.6537
		4	-.14770	.24949	1.000	-.8570	.5616
		5	-.32476	.21410	1.000	-.9334	.2839
	4	1	-.28175	.27513	1.000	-1.0639	.5004
		2	.30676	.23354	1.000	-.3572	.9707
		3	.14770	.24949	1.000	-.5616	.8570
		5	-.17707	.26477	1.000	-.9298	.5756
	5	1	-.10468	.24350	1.000	-.7969	.5875
		2	.48383	.19528	.142	-.0713	1.0390
		3	.32476	.21410	1.000	-.2839	.9334
		4	.17707	.26477	1.000	-.5756	.9298

1=18-24 yrs; 2=25-34 yrs; 3=35-44 yrs; 4=45-49 yrs and 5=50+yrs

The results of Table 16 above showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the age groups (18-24 age bucket ($p = 0.599$), 25-34 age bucket ($p = 0.142$), 35-44 age bucket ($p = 0.599$), 45-49 age bucket ($p = 1.000$) as well as 50+ age bucket ($p = 0.142$)) as all the significance levels are above 0.05.

The results showed that all the age groups (18-24 yrs; 25-34 yrs; 35-44 yrs; 45-49 yrs and 50+yrs) who participated in the study believed that employees' intentions to stay in their current organisation are influenced by employee's perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction.

To summarise results presented in Tables 15 and 16, a Bonferroni post-hoc test revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between the age groups.

Table 17: ANOVA results for supervision variables versus race

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.627	3	1.876	2.214	.088
Within Groups	149.948	177	.847		
Total	155.575	180			

Table 17 shows the output of the ANOVA analysis to show whether there was a statistically significant difference between the group means. The significance level is 0.088 ($p = 0.088$), which is above 0.05 and therefore, there was no statistically significant difference in the mean length of the race groups (1=Black;2=Coloured; 3=Indian,4=White).

The results of the post-hoc tests are now presented in Table 18 below to confirm the results from Table 17.

Table 18: POST HOC test results for supervision variables versus race

Multiple Comparisons
Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) A1	(J) A1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
JS1	1	2	.48107	.27185	.471	-.2443	1.2064
		3	-.50451	.30570	.604	-1.3202	.3112
		4	.05594	.15040	1.000	-.3454	.4573
	2	1	-.48107	.27185	.471	-1.2064	.2443
		3	-.98558	.38715	.071	-2.0186	.0474
		4	-.42513	.28117	.794	-1.1753	.3251
	3	1	.50451	.30570	.604	-.3112	1.3202
		2	.98558	.38715	.071	-.0474	2.0186
		4	.56045	.31401	.456	-.2774	1.3983
	4	1	-.05594	.15040	1.000	-.4573	.3454
		2	.42513	.28117	.794	-.3251	1.1753
		3	-.56045	.31401	.456	-1.3983	.2774

1=Black; 2=Coloured; 3=Indian, 4=White

Table 18 above indicates that there was no statistically significant difference between the race groups (Black (p = 0.604), Coloured (p = 0.794), Indian (p = 0.604) as well as White (p = 0.794) as all the significance levels are above 0.05.

The results show that all the race groups (1=Black; 2=Coloured; 3=Indian,4=White) who participated in the study believed that management supervision forms a pivotal role relating to employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction.

To summarise the results presented in Tables 17 and 18, a Bonferroni post-hoc test revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the race groups as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(3,177) = 2.214, p = 0.088$).

Table 19: ANOVA results for job variables versus race

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.663	3	.554	.680	.565
Within Groups	144.277	177	.815		
Total	145.940	180			

Table 19 shows the output of the ANOVA analysis to show whether there was a statistically significant difference between our group means. As the significance level is 0.565 ($p = 0.565$), which is above 0.05 and therefore there was no statistically significant difference in the mean length of the race groups (1=Black;2=Coloured; 3=Indian,4=White).

The results of the Post hoc tests are now presented in Table 20 below to confirm the results from Table 19.

Table 20: POST HOC test results for job variables versus race

Multiple Comparisons
Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) A1	(J) A1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
JS1	1	2	.31132	.26666	1.000	-.4002	1.0228
		3	-.17879	.29986	1.000	-.9789	.6213
		4	.07460	.14753	1.000	-.3190	.4683
	2	1	-.31132	.26666	1.000	-1.0228	.4002
		3	-.49011	.37976	1.000	-1.5034	.5232
		4	-.23671	.27580	1.000	-.9726	.4992
	3	1	.17879	.29986	1.000	-.6213	.9789
		2	.49011	.37976	1.000	-.5232	1.5034
		4	.25340	.30802	1.000	-.5685	1.0753
	4	1	-.07460	.14753	1.000	-.4683	.3190
		2	.23671	.27580	1.000	-.4992	.9726
		3	-.25340	.30802	1.000	-1.0753	.5685

1=Black; 2=Coloured; 3=Indian, 4=White

Table 20 above shows that there was no statistically significant difference between group 1 (Black), group 2 (Coloured), group 3 (Indian,) as well as groups 4 (White) as all the significance levels are above 0.05. The results indicated that all the race groups (1=Black;2=Coloured; 3=Indian,4=White) who participated in the study believed that employees' intentions to stay in their current organisation are influenced by employee's perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction.

To summarise the results presented in Tables 19 and 20, a Bonferroni post-hoc test revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the race groups as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(3,177) = 0.680, p = 0.565$).

4.7 RELIABILITY

To test for reliability, a diagnostic test was conducted after the data collection for closed-ended questions (Sections B and C) by calculating Cronbach's alpha. The internal consistency of Sections B and C was examined by calculating the reliability values for the two sections of the scale. The results obtained are shown in Table 21.

Table 21: Overall reliability of the instrument

Sections	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Job satisfaction (Section B)	20	0.933
Intention to quit (Section C)	5	0.963

The resultant coefficient alphas indicated that the scale items performed adequately in capturing the elements of employee satisfaction regarding their job as well as their intentions to quit their current organisation. Cronbach's alpha values for the individual scales ranged from 0.823 to 0.964, which were all above the acceptable benchmark levels of 0.70 explained by Sekaran (2005:185) and there was no need to further remove any other items from the scale. The next section presents the results of the descriptive statistics.

In the following section, the various forms of validity established for this study are discussed.

4.8 VALIDITY

Validity refers to getting results that accurately reflect the concept being measured (Babbie 2010:158). According to Kumar (2005:137), in terms of measurement procedures, validity is the ability of an instrument to measure what it is designed to measure. This means that an instrument measures what it is intended to measure, and does so correctly and accurately. The following measures of validity, namely, content, construct, and face validity methods are discussed in the next sub-sections.

4.8.1 Content validity

To ensure content validity of the instrument, the researcher usually presents the provisional version to the experts in the field for their comments before finalising the instrument (Creswell *et al.*, 2007:217). Therefore content validity was ascertained through pre-testing of

the questionnaire prior to the main survey. It was pre-tested and reviewed by a panel of experts to check for suitability of questions, and whether the questions measure the relevant constructs in the study.

4.8.2 Construct validity

Construct validity of a measuring instrument refers to the degree to which it measures the intended construct rather than irrelevant construct or measurement error (Welman *et al.*, 2005:142). Thomas *et al.*, (2011:197), however, are of the view that correlation can be used in establishing construct validity. Thus, construct validity was ascertained in this study through correlation, factor analysis and Cronbach alpha coefficients of the main study.

4.8.3 Face validity

Face validity is the extent to which, on the surface, an instrument looks as if it is measuring a particular characteristic (Leeddy & Ormrod 2010:92). It is often useful for ensuring the cooperation of people who are participating in the research study. However, because it relies entirely on subjective judgement, it is not, in and of itself, terribly convincing evidence that an instrument is truly measuring what the researcher wants to measure (Leeddy & Ormrod 2010:92). Face validity was ascertained through pre-testing of the questionnaire and reviewing it prior to the main survey.

4.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher analysed, presented and interpreted the findings resulting from this study into meaningful and applicable units. This was done by firstly pre-testing a questionnaire on a sample of employees in order to ascertain its validity by refining the measurement instrument (questionnaire) in terms of wording, clarity, layout, relevance of the questions and ambiguity of items content as well as translation biases.

Then an analysis of the general employees' profile was discussed by presenting the biographic and demographic information. The variables included (1) age; (2) gender; (3) race; (4) years of service; (5) marital status; (6) place of work, (7) highest level and (8) current position/job level.

The researcher then performed Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to assess the suitability of the respondent data for factor analysis. The next section was correlation analysis in order to examine the relationship among employee's perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction and employees' intentions to quit their current organisation.

The last section was to quantify the relationships that exist among factors that best describe the job satisfaction and employees' intentions to quit their current organisation by conducting T Test and ANOVA. The next chapter focuses on carrying out the statistical analysis of raw data and discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented and interpreted the findings resulting from this study into meaningful and applicable units. This chapter provides the conclusions drawn from the findings. The chapter also discusses the recommendations forthcoming from the findings and then the limitations and implications for future research.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

The main purpose of this study was to determine the level of job satisfaction and intention to quit of employees in a steel manufacturing company. In chapter one, an introduction and background of the study, the problem statement, the research objectives and the research methodology were discussed.

In this chapter, a brief overview of theories of JS and ITQ were subsequently discussed, as well as consequences (productivity, organisational citizenship behaviour, absenteeism, turnover and workplace deviance) and personal determinants (age, gender, occupational level, tenure and educational level) respectively. Factors influencing job satisfaction (work conditions, supervisor, co-workers, promotion opportunity, compensation and work itself) and intention to quit (psychological factors, economical factors and demographic factors) identified from the literature were also discussed.

Chapter three presented an in-depth analysis of the research design and methodology utilised for the study. This included the sampling method, questionnaire development and data collection. In addition the rationale behind choices of methods and techniques were discussed.

Chapter four presented and interpreted the findings resulting from this study. This was done by pre-testing the questionnaire on a sample of employees, and an analysis of the general employees' profile. In addition, the researcher performed Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to assess the suitability of the respondent data for factor analysis. Factor analysis was also used to reduce the number of

variables. Correlation analysis between employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction and employees' intentions to quit their current organisation were also discussed. Lastly, t-test and ANOVA were discussed to quantify the relationships that exist among factors that best describe the job satisfaction and employees' intentions to quit their current organisation.

Chapter five summarised the work that has been done throughout the study. This included important findings of the study and the recommendations based on the findings of the report. In addition, the limitations and implications for future research was discussed.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

The findings regarding employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction and employees' intentions to quit their current organisation revealed that the supervision variable was positively correlated with job variable while it was negatively correlated with intention to quit. In addition, job variable is also negatively correlated with intention to quit, (refer to section 4.5). This meant that effective supervisors were likely to improve employees' job satisfaction hence decreasing employees' intentions to quit their current organisation. In addition, when employees are satisfied with their job environment, this decreases employees' intentions to quit their current organisation.

Section 4.6 quantifies the relationships that existed among factors that best described the job satisfaction and employees' intentions to quit their current organisation. The results indicated that when employees are provided with a job that rewards them for their effort and that provides opportunities for advancement, they will be satisfied and hence more likely to stay in the organisation. The conclusions made were based on both theoretical and empirical objectives coming from the findings of the study. These objectives are discussed below.

5.3.1 Theoretical objectives

The following theoretical objectives were formulated for this study:

5.3.1.1 To conduct a literature study on job satisfaction

While definitions can provide a broad understanding of what job satisfaction entails, it remains a complex concept, as there are many different definitions of job satisfaction. The literature review on job satisfaction revealed some of them as discussed in section 2.2 of

Chapter 2. However, in the context of this study, job satisfaction is defined as an attitude that individuals have about their jobs. One feels positive or negative about the intrinsic and/or extrinsic aspects of one's job (Masroor & Fakir 2010:125).

The three widely used definitions as identified by the literature review of this study are: (1) Hoppock (1935:47), who defined job satisfaction as "...any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a person to be satisfied with his/her job". (2) Locke (1976:1300), however, defined job satisfaction as "...a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences".

The research also revealed that work conditions, supervision, co-worker/work groups, promotion opportunities, compensation/pay as well as fairness are the factors influencing job satisfaction. The impact of these factors on job satisfaction lead to the following consequences: productivity, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), customer satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover, workplace deviance.

5.3.1.2 To conduct a literature study on intention to quit

Intention to quit refers to the degree of likelihood that the employee will terminate his/her membership in a work organisation (Spreiter & Mishr 2002:17). Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2002:1) define intention to quit as the reflection of the probability that an individual will change his/her job within a certain time period. It is also referred to as a worker's intention to leave the present organisation (Cho, Johanson & Guchait 2009:374).

Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole and Owen (2002:25), however, define intention to quit as the strength of an individual's view that he/she does not want to stay with this/her employer. Vandenberg and Nelson (1999:315) define intention to quit as an individual's own estimated probability (subject) that s/he is permanently leaving the organisation at some point in the near future.

Intention to quit is seen as a variable and is used as an indication of the probability that an individual will leave the organisation in the near future. Tseane (2009:1) and Braham (2005:11) hypothesised that intention to quit starts with evaluation by the individuals of their current situation, then they move through several further stages until a firm intention to quit is reached. The final outcome can be a decision to leave the organisation.

The research revealed the variables that are found to be relating to intention to quit. These include the experience of job-related stress, the range of factors that lead to job-related stress, lack of commitment to the organisation and job satisfaction.

5.3.1.3 To carry out a literature review on employees' retention and turnover

Retention of skilled and experienced personnel is a priority for any organisation. Organisations, both public and private, rely on the expertise of their employees in order to compete favourably and indeed gain competitive advantage in the international market (Samuel & Chipunza 2009:410). Sutherland and Jordaan (2004:55) emphasise that a critical component in determining an organisation's present and future success, is its ability to retain knowledge workers. Therefore, knowing and understanding the factors influencing employees' turnover intentions is paramount as it will help practitioners, managers and organisations to develop strategies on how to prevent actual turnover (Ongori 2007:49).

However, research suggests that there are three clusters of factors influencing employees' turnover intentions. These are psychological factors, economical factors and demographic factors. Psychological factors include psychological contract, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity. Economic factors include remuneration, external opportunity, advancement or promotion, while demographic factors are age, tenure status, race or ethnicity.

5.3.2 Empirical objectives

The following empirical objectives were fully addressed in this study:

5.3.2.1 To examine the level of job satisfaction of employees in the steel manufacturing company

In order to examine employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction in the steel manufacturing company, different components were identified through principal component analysis using varimax rotation. The criteria for the number of factors to be extracted was based on eigenvalues, percentage of variance, significance of factor loading and an assessment of the factor structure (Dhurup & Mofoka 2011:161).

Two variables, supervision factor comprising eight variables and job variable comprising seven variables, were used. Supervision variable accounted for 32% and job variable accounted for 28% of the variance explained by the factor.

These two factors accounted for 60% of the total variance. According to Lorenzo-Seva (2013:4), this total variance is considered as a satisfactory solution using an exploratory factor analysis procedure. The two factors appeared as important determinants in establishing employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction. These aspects of employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction activities may provide some indications of how employees perceive their organisation, which may ultimately influence their future behaviours in the workplace such as the type of attachments they have towards their organisation and their intentions to stay".

In addition, the results indicated that in order for employees to stay in the organisation, the incumbent who occupies the supervisor position must have experience, knowledge and skill to execute the job. It also indicates that the job itself must be challenging and motivating to the employees.

5.3.2.2 To determine the level of intention to quit by employees in the steel manufacturing company

Section C of the questionnaire measured the extent to which employees agree to quit their current organisation with the aid of a 5-point Likert scale. Respondents were asked to answer five questions measuring the extent to which they are willing to quit their current organisation. The results of Section C of the questionnaire demonstrated that employees' likelihood to continue their membership in a predictable future in this organisation was high. The results also showed that employees found it important for them to continue maintaining their future relationships with their current organisation. Employees' intentions to stay on the job are significantly associated with the conditions of employment, which are composed of salary, welfare, and fair salary raise; these are hygiene factors associated with the security and stability of employees' lives.

5.3.2.3 To establish the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit of employees in a steel manufacturing company

The study has shown that when employees are satisfied with their jobs, their intentions to stay in that organisation are literally strengthened. This result was obtained through a correlation analysis as shown in section 4.5 of the previous chapter. The results showed that the supervision variable is positively correlated with job variable while it is negatively correlated with intention to quit and the correlations were significant at $p < 0.000$. In addition, job variable was also negatively correlated with intention to quit and the correlations were significant at $p < 0.000$. The results indicated that when there are supervisors who are interested in employees' work, assisting them in solving their work-related and personal life problems and developing informal relations together with the formal ones they are likely to improve employees' job satisfaction, hence decreasing employees' intentions to quit their current organisation and *vice versa*.

5.3.2.4 T-Test and ANOVA

An independent samples test for supervision variables (Table 10) revealed that the mean for males was greater than the mean for females, it was therefore concluded that male participants believe that management supervision forms more of a pivotal role relating to employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction than female participants. An independent samples test for job variables (Table 12) revealed that the mean for males was greater than the mean for females, it was therefore concluded that male participants believe that employees' intentions to stay in their current organisation is influenced by employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction more than female participants.

The POST HOC test results for supervision variables versus race (Table 18) indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the race groups (Black ($p = 0.604$), Coloured ($p = 0.794$), Indian ($p = 0.604$) as well as White ($p = 0.794$) as all the significance levels are above 0.05. The results showed that all the race groups (1=Black; 2=Coloured; 3=Indian; 4=White) who participated in the study believed that management supervision forms a pivotal role relating to employees' perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction.

The POST HOC test results for job variables versus race (Table 20) revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between group 1 (Black), group 2 (Coloured), group 3 (Indian,) as well as groups 4 (White) as all the significance levels are above 0.05. The results

indicated that all the race groups (1=Black; 2=Coloured; 3=Indian; 4=White) who participated in the study believed that employees' intentions to stay in their current organisation are influenced by employee's perceptions or feelings about job satisfaction.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Retention practices have posed enormous challenges to managers considering the shortage of qualified manpower internationally as well as in the South African labour market. Managers in both public and private sector organisations have to devise innovative means of retaining high performing employees in their pool in order to avoid frequent recruitment, which is costly and time consuming (Michael 2008:8). It is imperative, therefore, for managers to know and understand factors that satisfy their key employees in their jobs (Amos, Ristow, Ristow & Pearse 2008:172).

As Amos *et al.*, (2008:179) indicated managers could motivate individual staff and ensure performance by identifying those needs of individuals that initiate and direct behaviour, considering which needs have been satisfied and which still need to be satisfied, and then satisfy those needs at the right time. They also need to acknowledge that each individual is unique and that their needs may change over time (Amos *et al.*, 2008:179).

Based on the negative impact of intention to quit on organisations, it is therefore imperative for managers to seek better ways to manage their employees in order to retain valued human resources and sustain high performance. Employees are the backbone of any business success and need to be motivated and maintained at all costs to aid the organisation to be globally competitive in terms of providing quality products and services to society (Firth *et al.*, 2004:170).

5.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS

As with every study of this nature, the study was subject to certain limitations that may pave the way for further research opportunities. The limitations are discussed as follows:

The study was based on a small sample due to financial constraints; therefore, the findings must be treated with caution when drawing conclusions. In this study only a quantitative approach was followed, which limits the information collected; however, a broader scope of information could have been acquired if this approach was mixed with a qualitative approach.

The respondents, of their own accord, completed the questionnaire and the researcher had no control over the responses; therefore, the researcher had to rely on information supplied by the respondents.

The participants were not randomly selected and were chosen from the same geographic area, among a limited number of respondents and constrained to only one organisation of the steel manufacturing industry in South Africa. The researcher is not in a position to generalise the result. A large sample from other steel companies in other provinces across South Africa would have been more representative.

5.6 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study only focused on Babcock's employees in South Africa. Future research could target all employees across all countries where the organisation operates as the organisation also operates in Southern Africa.

The study was restricted to examining the relationship between job satisfaction and intentions to quit. Therefore future studies could embark on investigating the job satisfaction relationship with other attributes that influence employees' perceptions such as motivation, commitment, succession planning, career development and talent management.

5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Today's business environment has become very competitive, thus making skilled employees the major differentiating factor for most organisations. Organisations, both public and private, rely on the expertise of their employees in order to compete favourably and indeed gain competitive advantage in the international market (Samuel & Chipunza 2009:410).

According to Brown (2006:2), a lack of proper employee retention strategies has an adverse effect on organisations as replacing key employees is disruptive, expensive, time consuming and may even threaten the sustainability of these organisations. It is crucial for all organisations, particularly those in developing countries with limited skills such as South Africa, to ensure that they consistently develop and retain a loyal, committed and able workforce.

From this study it is observed that factors influencing employees' turnover intentions are the psychological contract, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job insecurity, remuneration, external opportunity, advancement or promotion, age, tenure status, race or ethnicity. In addition, the research revealed the variables that are found to be relating to intention to quit, which includes the experience of job-related stress, the range of factors that lead to job-related stress, lack of commitment to the organisation and job satisfaction.

Every organisation needs to implement these tools as a drive for employees' satisfaction and motivation. These can be implemented with the help of the human resource as it is the most valuable asset of every organisation. The intervention will help employees to be fully involved, committed and happy in the organisation.

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ANNEXURE A- QUESTIONNAIRE

JOB SATISFACTION AND THE INTENTION TO QUIT, BY EMPLOYEES IN A STEEL MANUFACTURING COMPANY IN GAUTENG

INTRODUCTION

Good day, my name is Steve Mgiba. I am registered for a MTech in Human Resource Management with Vaal University of Technology and am doing research on the level of job satisfaction and intention to quit by employees in Babcock Ntuthuko Generation. The research will assist the company to: (1) understand the employee's perceptions and feelings about the company; and (2) recommend strategies that can be deployed to retain current employees. Any information you provide will be kept confidential and results of the survey will be reported in an aggregated form that does not disclose the identity of individual respondents. Participants are not required to state their names on the forms. Your participation is voluntary and if at any time during the research you wish to withdraw your participation, you are free to do so without any prejudice. It will take about 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. It will be appreciated if I could have the completed questionnaire by 16 July 2014.

For further questions please do not hesitate to contact the researcher at the following contact number: 011 601 1289.

Thank you very much for your willingness to participate in this very important study.

Please circle your answers

SECTION A: BASIC DEMOGRAPHICS & BACKGROUND

A1	Into which of the following age groups do you fall?	18 - 24 years	1
		25 – 34 years	2
		35 – 44 years	3
		45 – 49 years	4
		50 + years	5
A2	Gender	Male	1
		Female	2

A3	Race	Black	1
		Coloured	2
		Indian	3
		White	4
A4	Which of the following best describes your marital status	Single	1
		Married	2
		Cohabiting	3
		Divorced/separated	4
		Widow/widower	5
A5	How many years have you been working at Babcock? (round off to the nearest year)	0 - 3 Years	1
		4 – 6 Years	2
		7 – 9 years	3
		10 – 15 years	4
		16 – 19 years	5
		20 years +	6
A6	Which of the following best describes your occupation?	Senior Management	1
		Middle Management	2
		Junior Management	3
		Professionally Qualified/Skilled worker	4
		Semi-Skilled	5
		Unskilled	6

A7	Please indicate your highest level of education.	Primary school	1
		Some secondary school	2
		Matric	3
		Professional training /apprenticeship	4
		Technical college/ Technikon	5
		Bachelor's Degree	6
		Post Graduate	7
A8	Place of work	Babcock Ntuthuko (Head Office)	1
		Babcock Ntuthuko (Fabrication)	2
		Babcock Ntuthuko (Lethabo)	3
		Babcock Ntuthuko (Matla)	4
		Babcock Ntuthuko (Kendal)	5
		Babcock Ntuthuko (Hendrina)	6
		Babcock Ntuthuko (Grootvlei)	7

SECTION B: JOB SATISFACTION

The following section relates to your feelings towards your work-related needs (job satisfaction). **Please choose and circle one number for each of the statements.**

B1	How busy are you kept in your present job?	Not busy at all	1	2	3	4	5	Extreme busy
B2	To what extent do you have the chance to work on your own in your present job?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
B3	How satisfied are you with the task variety in your present job?	Not satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Highly satisfied
B4	To what extent do you feel that you are valued in your present job?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
B5	How satisfied are you with your immediate supervisor (superior) in your present job?	Not satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Highly satisfied
B6	How satisfied are you with your immediate supervisor's (superior's) ability to make effective decisions?	Not satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Highly satisfied
B7	How satisfied are you that you do not do things that go against your conscience?	Not satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Highly satisfied
B8	To what extent does your present job provide steady employment?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
B9	To what extent do you have the chance to do things for other people in your present job?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
B10	How often do you have the opportunity in your present job to be in a position of authority and instruct other people what to do?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	All of the time
B11	To what extent does the current work you do reflect your abilities?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
B12	To what extent are the organisation's policies put into practice?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent

B13	How satisfied are you that the pay you receive reflects the amount of effort you put into your job?	Not satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Highly satisfied
B14	To what extent are there opportunities for advancement in your present job?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
B15	How much freedom is there in your present job to use your own judgement?	No freedom	1	2	3	4	5	Total freedom
B16	To what extent are you allowed to experiment with your own methods of doing the job?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
B17	How satisfied are you with your work conditions?	Not satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Highly satisfied
B18	How well do co-workers get along with each other in your present job?	Not well at all	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely well
B19	How often do you get praise for doing a good job?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	All of the time
B20	How often do you experience a feeling of accomplishment from your job?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	All of the time

SECTION C: INTENTION TO QUIT

In this section we would like to know more about your tenure intentions within the organisation that you work for. If you are unsure on your choice, please choose among the options that seem most appropriate to you. Please indicate the extent of your dissatisfaction or satisfaction with the statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Very dissatisfied) and 5 (Very satisfied). **Please choose and circle one number for each of the statements.**

C1	In the last six months I have thought of quitting my job	Very dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Very satisfied
C2	I frequently think about quitting my job in this organisation	Very dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Very satisfied
C3	I plan to quit my job in this organisation	Very dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Very satisfied
C4	I have a desire to leave my job in this organisation	Very dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Very satisfied
C5	I have actively searched for a new job in other organisations	Very dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Very satisfied

