

**EMPLOYEES' JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANISATIONAL
COMMITMENT AND INTENTION TO STAY AT AN
INTERNATIONAL HOTEL IN LESOTHO**

by

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to stay

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between employees' job satisfaction (JS), organisational commitment (OC) and intention to stay (ITS) at an international hotel in Lesotho. Employees' productivity is largely related to their level of job satisfaction. Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane and Ferreira (2011:101) are of the view that since job satisfaction involves employees' emotions, it influences an organisation's well-being with regard to job productivity, employee turnover, absenteeism and life satisfaction. Therefore, it is important for an organisation to study the relationships between JS, OC and ITS. A survey questionnaire was devised to collect the information for job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay from each employee. Two hundred and twenty employees responded to the survey.

This study used a quantitative research paradigm and a descriptive research method. Random sampling was deemed appropriate for this study, these choices are motivated for in the main study. Participants were asked to complete three test instruments, namely, a Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), an Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and an Intention to Stay Questionnaire (ITSQ). After analysing the data, the researcher found that there is a relatively strong correlation between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay. Generally, higher levels of job satisfaction will lead to higher levels of organisational commitment which in turn will lead to employees staying at organisations.

The results indicate that all three variables: JS, OC, and ITS have positive and significant inter-relationships. Findings and recommendations of this study are important to the management as they indicate the need to develop strategies to deal with the needs of those employees who exhibit low level of organisational commitment. The findings of this study provide valuable insights that can enable the management to create a satisfied and committed workforce.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

JS – JOB SATISFACTION

ITS – INTENTION TO STAY

OC – ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

AC – AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

CC – CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

NC – NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

OCQ – ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

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APPENDIX A: Invitation letter

APPENDIX A: Questionnaire (Main survey)

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Employees are the most significant assets of the hotel industry, since they determine the quality of customer service delivered, which in turn has an impact on the organisation's profitability (Costen, Johanson & Poisson 2010:132). Wildes (2004:223) cautioned that the hotel industry will be likely to experience a major loss of quality employees in the near future. Not only is there a decreased labour pool due to other industries attracting hospitality employees, but turnover continues to be a significant problem.

The hotel industry is a service- and people-oriented business. To be successful in a competitive market, it is important that hotel managers know how their employees feel at work and what they want (Lam, Zhang & Baum 2001:157). The amount of effort that an employee spends toward achieving the hotel's goals depends on whether or not the employee believes that this effort will lead to the satisfaction of his or her own needs and desires. In this context, the key to facilitating satisfaction lies with managers' good understanding of what their employees want from work (Lam *et al.* 2001:157).

Job satisfaction can significantly and positively affect the outcomes of organisational commitment, decrease employees' intention to leave, and consequently result in low turnover rates (Yang 2008:432). According to Kennedy and Berger (1994:58), the hotel industry experiences the highest turnover during the first four weeks in employment. The researchers conclude that poor human resource decisions, as well as the unmet expectations of newcomers, are usually the main reasons for this turnover (Kennedy & Berger 1994:58). Lam, Pine and Baum (2003:166) opine that employee turnover behaviour takes place during the early stages of employment when newcomers experience the new workplace and its expectations. Turnover tends to increase when there is a difference between the anticipation and reality of the work environment (Lam *et al.* 2003:167).

Mudor and Tooksoon (2011:41) note that job satisfaction relates to one's feelings or state-of-mind regarding the nature of the work. A variety of factors, for example skill development, pay practice, and quality of employees' relationship with their supervisors, can influence job satisfaction. Job

satisfaction is a delicate and changeable employee attitude, while organisational commitment is considered more stable (Carmeli & Freund 2004:291).

According to Aziri (2011:78), job satisfaction represents a combination of positive or negative feelings that employees have towards their work. Job satisfaction is a worker's sense of achievement and success on the job. Generally, the perception is that there is a direct link between job satisfaction and productivity as well as to personal well-being. Job satisfaction implies doing a job one enjoys, doing it well, and being rewarded for one's efforts. Tsai, Cheng and Chang (2010:4118) are of the belief that job satisfaction further implies enthusiasm and happiness with one's work. Job satisfaction is the key ingredient that leads to recognition, income, promotion, and the achievement of other goals that lead to a feeling of fulfillment (Kaliski 2007:446). This study describes job satisfaction as enthusiasm and happiness with one's work.

Eslami and Gharakhani (2012:85) are of the view that in the past, organisational commitment has concentrated on individuals' affective attachment to the organisation, even though a number of facets influence organisational outcomes. According to Sharma and Bajpai (2010:8), organisational commitment is a feeling of dedication to the employing organisation, enthusiasm to work hard for that employer, and the intent to remain with that organisation. Allen and Meyer (1991:11) proposed three components of commitment that can develop from the perception of human resources management (HRM) practices. These are affective commitment (wanting to stay with an organisation as a result of the emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation), normative commitment (feeling a moral obligation to stay with the organisation), and continuance commitment (feeling stuck and staying because it is too costly to leave).

Employee retention is increasing in importance, as the competition for talent is high and still growing (Johari, Yahya & Ahmad 2012:2335). To keep employees in the company, they need to feel part of the organisation. In the hotel industry, one of the critical intangible costs is the loss of employee morale for the employees who prefer to stay with the organisation. As a result, this can affect the level of service provided to the guests (Nadiri & Tanova 2010:34). Employees need to feel that their contribution to the organisation is valued (Taylor, Davies & Savery 2002:59).

1.2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 1 depicts the theoretical framework that guided this study and presents the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay in the hotel sector.

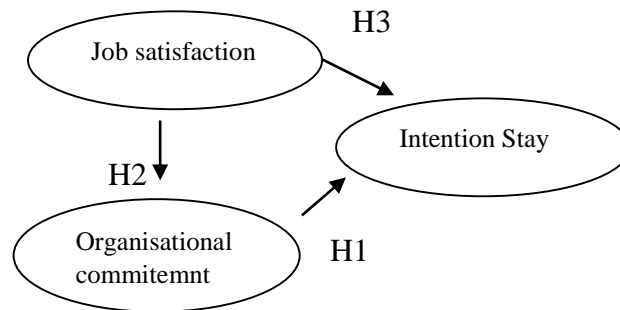


Figure 1: Diagram of the conceptual framework

Generally, job satisfaction is recognised as a multifaceted construct that includes both intrinsic and extrinsic job elements (Egan, Yang & Bartlett 2004:283). Job satisfaction is a very complicated concept that includes a variety of aspects. Job satisfaction can positively affect the outcomes of organisational commitment, reduce employee intention to leave, and lead to lower turnover rates (Yang 2008:163). According to Yang (2008:164), job satisfaction is a powerful method of reinforcing employees' commitment to an organisation.

Being satisfied with one's job will increase a hotel employee's productivity and innovation, and reduce the turnover rate. However, committing oneself to the very company the hotel employee works for has a deeper and more complex meaning. Allen and Meyer (1990:3) found that employees who are committed to an organisation show a strong intention to stay, either because they willingly want to continue working there (affective commitment), or because they have to stay because they cannot afford to leave (continuance commitment).

High employee turnover within the hotel industry has become one of the major concerns to researchers and practitioners. One of the challenges for the hotel industry is to retain highly skilled employees (Hemdi & Rahim 2011:76). The hotel industry faces the challenge of personnel shortage. Globally, an estimation of the turnover rate in the hotel industry ranges from 60 percent

to 300 percent annually, which is far higher than the 34.7 percent annual turnover rate reported in the manufacturing industry (Walker & Miller 2010:163).

On the basis of the above arguments, the following hypotheses have been formulated:

H1 Organisational commitment has a significant positive relationship with intention to stay.

H2 Job satisfaction has a significant positive relationship with organisational commitment.

H3 Job satisfaction has a significant positive relationship with intention to stay.

1.3. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Lam, Lo and Chan (2002:217) are of the belief that most hotels are able to recruit talented and highly motivated employees. However, they appear to have difficulty in retaining newcomers and arousing their organisational commitment. Liao and Chung (2012:1181) argued that if a manager wants to reduce the turnover rate in the hotel industry, it is important that employees feel satisfied with their jobs and thereby improve commitment to the organisation.

There have not been many research studies on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay in the hospitality industry in Lesotho, even though the topic has been a focal issue for many years in other countries (Chiang, Back & Canter 2005:102). Job satisfaction plays a major role in influencing organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay in the hotel industry (Lam *et al.* 2001:158). A better understanding of the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover should help to increase employees' performance within the hospitality industry.

Unfortunately, high turnover rates characterise the hospitality industry globally (Dimitriou 2012:4) which result in equally high costs. These turnover costs include the money invested in recruitment and training of additional staff and paying existing employees overtime (Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor 2004:20 & Hendrie 2004:437). When employees are not satisfied with their jobs, this leads to less committed employees and finally, they leave the organisation resulting in turnover costs (Lee & Way 2010:350). The study focused on employees' job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay at an international hotel in Lesotho.

1.4. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives were pursued in this study:

1.4.1 Primary objective

The main purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between employees' job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay at an international hotel in Lesotho.

1.4.2 Theoretical objectives

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

- Conduct a literature review on job satisfaction
- Conduct a literature review on organisational commitment
- Conduct a literature review on the intention to stay
- Conduct a review of literature on the relationships between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intentions to stay.

1.4.3 Empirical objectives

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

- Determine the level of job satisfaction of employees in the hotel.
- Determine the degree of organisational commitment of employees.
- Determine the level of employees' intention to stay in the organisation.
- Determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.
- Determine the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to stay.
- Determine the relationship between organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay.

1.5. RESEARCH DESIGN

Two modes of enquiry were undertaken in this study, namely a literature review and an empirical study.

1.5.1 Literature review

The literature review on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay was undertaken to develop a theoretical background to the study. In addition, the relationships between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay were discussed. The study utilised a wide range of materials, including textbooks, journal articles sourced through electronic databases, industry publications, and the Internet.

1.5.2 Empirical study

An empirical investigation was undertaken in order to provide a practical basis to ensure that a reasonably objective measurement of the purpose for the study was provided. To gain a deeper understanding of the relationships between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay, a quantitative approach was applied in the study. The motivation for selecting a quantitative approach was that it possesses the strictness and rationality that is necessary for addressing the issues and problems in the hospitality industry (Malhotra 2004:137). Furthermore, a quantitative study seeks to apply some form of statistical analysis in order to enhance accuracy of results, and hence reduce potential errors when analysing the findings (Creswell 2003:95).

1.6. ETHICAL ISSUES

Ethics refer to moral principles or values governing the conduct or behaviour of an individual or a group (McDaniel & Gates 1996:84). The following ethical issues, that are relevant for a study, were adhered to; the researcher requested permission to use the respondents' time to complete the questionnaire and informed each respondent about the purpose of the survey. Participation in the study was voluntary and respondents were not forced to participate in the study. Personal data of respondents was processed fairly and lawfully and used only for the purpose of the study. Personal responses from individuals were not ascribed to any individual. All data was computed in aggregate, and were not ascribed to any respondent. The questionnaire did not contain the names

of respondents, anonymity of respondents was maintained throughout the study, and professional competence in the data collection and analysis was maintained.

1.7. DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 2: Job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay

This chapter provided a discussion about job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay of employees.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

The research design and methodology were outlined within this chapter, including sampling techniques, methods of data collection and data analysis.

Chapter 4: Results and findings

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

Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 5 presented a summary of the salient findings of the study, together with a discussion of the conclusions reached and suggestions for future research undertakings.

1.8 SYNOPSIS

The intention of the study is to contribute to the body of knowledge on the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay. The study was carried out by utilising standardised questionnaires and by employing basic and advanced statistical procedures. The following chapter discusses the following key concepts of the study in detail: job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay.

CHAPTER 2

JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND INTENTION TO STAY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter provided a background to the study. The problem statement and objectives of the study and the research methodology were briefly outlined. This chapter provides a review of the literature on employees' job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay. The first section of the chapter entails discussion and definition of job satisfaction. The different theories of job satisfaction are also discussed. The second section addresses organisational commitment and its dimensions. The third entails discussion of the intention to stay. Finally, the relationship between employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the relationship between employees' job satisfaction and intention to stay and also the relationship between organisational commitment and intention to stay are discussed.

2.2 JOB SATISFACTION

According to Luthans (2005:211) job satisfaction is a popular research topic for researchers in management studies and particularly in organisational behaviour. Buitendach and De Witte (2005:28) are of the view that the reason for this relates to the substantial association of job satisfaction with several variables. For instance, it has a positive association with organisational commitment and intention to stay. Luddy (2005:18) suggests that employees experiencing high satisfaction levels contribute to organisational commitment, job involvement, improved physical and mental health, and improved quality of life both on and off the job.

2.2.1 Definition of job satisfaction

According to Bull (2005:23), job satisfaction is a constituent of organisational commitment. Spector (1997:2) defines job satisfaction as a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job. Buitendach and De Witte (2005:28) define job satisfaction as a relationship between an individual's perceptions and evaluations of a job, and this perception is in turn influenced by their circumstances, including

needs, values and expectations. Individuals therefore evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors which they regard as being important to them (Sempane, Rieger & Roodt 2002:27).

Hoppock (1935: 47) defines job satisfaction as any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, 'I am satisfied with my job'. Graham (1982: 68) defines job satisfaction as the measurement of one's total feelings and attitudes towards one's job. Job satisfaction is the assemblage of attitudes about the job and of how employees feel about different aspect of their job. Job Satisfaction is "an affective or emotional response to various facets of one's job" (Kreitner & Kinicki 2004:202) and Locke (1976:1304) describes job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences".

Robbins and Judge (2007:24) define job satisfaction as a positive feeling about one's job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics. Employees that have high levels of job satisfaction hold positive feelings about their job, while dissatisfied employees hold negative feelings about their job. Vroom (1964:99) defines job satisfaction as affective orientations on the part of individual employees toward work roles which they are presently occupying while Spector (1996:210) defines job satisfaction as "an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs overall as well as about various aspects of them. In simple terms, job satisfaction is the degree to which people like their jobs; job dissatisfaction is the extent to which they dislike them."

According to Spector (1996:210) job satisfaction has to do with how people feel about their job and its various aspects. It has to do with the extent to which people like or dislike their job. That is why job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction can appear in any given work situation. Job satisfaction can be defined also as the extent to which a worker is content with the rewards he or she gets out of his or her job, particularly in terms of intrinsic motivation (Statt 2004:78).

The term 'job satisfaction' is the attitudes and feelings people have about their work. Positive and favourable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction. Negative and unfavourable attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction (Armstrong 2006:264). Job satisfaction is the collection of feelings and beliefs that people have about their current job. People's levels or degrees of job satisfaction can range from extreme satisfaction to extreme dissatisfaction. People also can have attitudes about various aspects of their jobs such as the kind of work they do, their co-workers, supervisors or subordinates and their pay (George & Jones 2008:78). Job satisfaction, in the

context of this study, was defined as enthusiasm and happiness with one's work. This definition was chosen because it presupposes that job satisfaction is influenced by an employee's enthusiasm and happiness with his or her work.

2.2.2 Theories of job satisfaction

In order to understand job satisfaction, it is important to understand what motivates people at work. Saif, Nawaz, Jan and Khan (2012:1383) classify job satisfaction theories into either content theories or process theories. Content theories are based on various factors which influence job satisfaction. Process theories, on the other hand, take into account the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values, and comparisons interact with the job to produce job satisfaction.

2.2.2.1 Content theories

Content theories focus on identifying the needs, drives and incentives or goals and their prioritisation by the individual to achieve satisfaction (Luthans 2005:240). Saifuddin, Allah and Farzand (2012:1385) point out that experts have been preparing multiple lists of biological, psychological, social and higher level needs of human beings. Interestingly, almost all the researchers categorise these needs into primary, secondary and high level employee requirements, which need to be fulfilled when required for the employee to be motivated and satisfied (Saifuddin *et al.* 2012: 1385). A brief overview of the widely used content theories is provided in the paragraphs that follow which are Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, Alderfer's ERG theory model and McClelland's theory of need model.

2.2.2.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory

In 1943, Abraham Maslow developed one of the earliest theories of human motivation, commonly referred to as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. Maslow's theory, which is one of the best known theories, holds that employees would be motivated by and satisfied with their jobs only if certain needs are met (Penny & Ellis 2006:84). According to Bull (2005: 29), if this theory is applied to organisational settings, it can be argued that employees who do not meet their needs at work will not function efficiently. This implies that lower-level needs must be satisfied first before an individual will consider the next level of needs (Luthans 2005:240). The five major needs are as follow and are presented in figure 2:

- **Physiological needs.** These are the basic needs also known as the biological needs, such as the need for water, food, rest, exercise and sex. Once these needs are met they no longer influence behaviour. An unemployed individual, who is homeless, will be satisfied with any job as long as it provides for these basic needs (Penny & Ellis 2006:84).
- **Safety needs.** These needs include security and protection from physical and emotional harm. After basic biological needs have been met, employees become concerned with meeting their safety needs. This implies that employees will remain satisfied with their jobs only if they believe the workplace to be safe to work in (Penny & Ellis 2006:84).
- **Social needs.** This third level of needs is activated once the second level of needs has adequately been met. People have a need for love, friendship, acceptance and understanding from other people. Employees have a tendency to join groups that fulfil their social needs. Managers can play an important part by encouraging employees to interact with one another and to make sure that the social needs of subordinates are met (Smith & Cronje 1992:105).
- **Esteem needs.** Internal esteem factors such as self – respect, autonomy and achievement and external esteem factors such as status, recognition and attention form part of this level (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt 2003:131). Once an employee’s social needs have been met, they start to focus on meeting their esteem needs. According to Penny and Ellis (2006:84), organisations can help to satisfy these needs through awards, promotions and salary increases.
- **Self-actualisation needs.** These needs represent the fifth level of Maslow’s needs hierarchy. According to Robbins *et al.* (2003:131), self-actualisation needs include the need for growth, achieving one’s potential and self-fulfilment. An employee striving for self-actualisation wants to reach their full potential in every task. Therefore, employees who have been doing the same job for a long time might become dissatisfied and unmotivated. They may search for a new challenge.

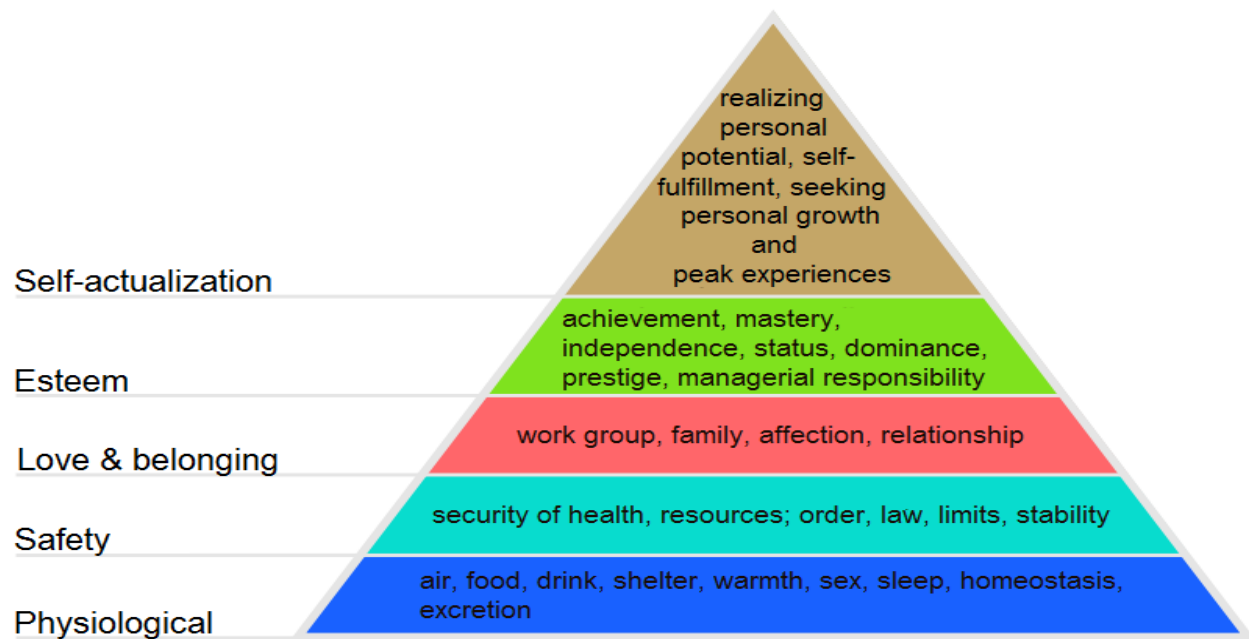


Figure 2: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Kreitner & Kinicki 2004:264).

Even though Maslow’s theory has received wide recognition, there has been criticism of this theory. Robbins *et al.* (2003:132) state that certain reviews of this theory suggest that needs are not necessarily structured along these dimensions “as people concurrently move through several levels in the hierarchy of needs.” Furthermore, because satisfied needs activate movement to the next level, the employee will always have an active need, making long-term job satisfaction unlikely in terms of this theory. Stone (2011:427) is of the view that there is no obvious proof that the motivational power of a need diminishes once the need has been satisfied and there is little evidence to support the claim that there are five distinct levels of needs.

Perhaps one of the most interesting and controversial theories is Frederick Herzberg’s concept of motivation–hygiene factors. Maslow applied the hierarchy of needs theory to motivation in general while Herzberg applied two factor theory to the workplace and job design (Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield 2002:240).

2.2.2.1.2 Herzberg’s two-factor theory

One of the earliest theories of job satisfaction is Herzberg’s two-factor theory, the factors being “intrinsic factors” and “motivators” (Cooper & Locke 2000: 166). In 1959, Herzberg found that

intrinsic factors (achievement, responsibilities and recognition) were more strongly associated with satisfaction than extrinsic factors such as policies, benefits and working conditions.

In terms of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, factors that make employees feel good about their work, are different from factors that make them feel bad about their work. According to Herzberg, employees who are satisfied at work attribute their satisfaction to internal factors, while dissatisfied employees ascribe their behaviour to external factors. Factors that play a role in contributing to the satisfaction of employees are called motivators, while hygiene factors contribute to job dissatisfaction (Grobler *et al.* 2002:240).

From the management perspective, Robbins *et al.* (2003:133) are of the view that the two-factor theory is useful and applicable in understanding job satisfaction in the hospitality industry. Cherrington (1994:296) proposes that employees experiencing high satisfaction levels contribute to organisational commitment, intention to stay, quality service to guests, and improved quality of life both on and off the job. Factors that affect job satisfaction in terms of Herzberg's theory are presented in the figure 3.

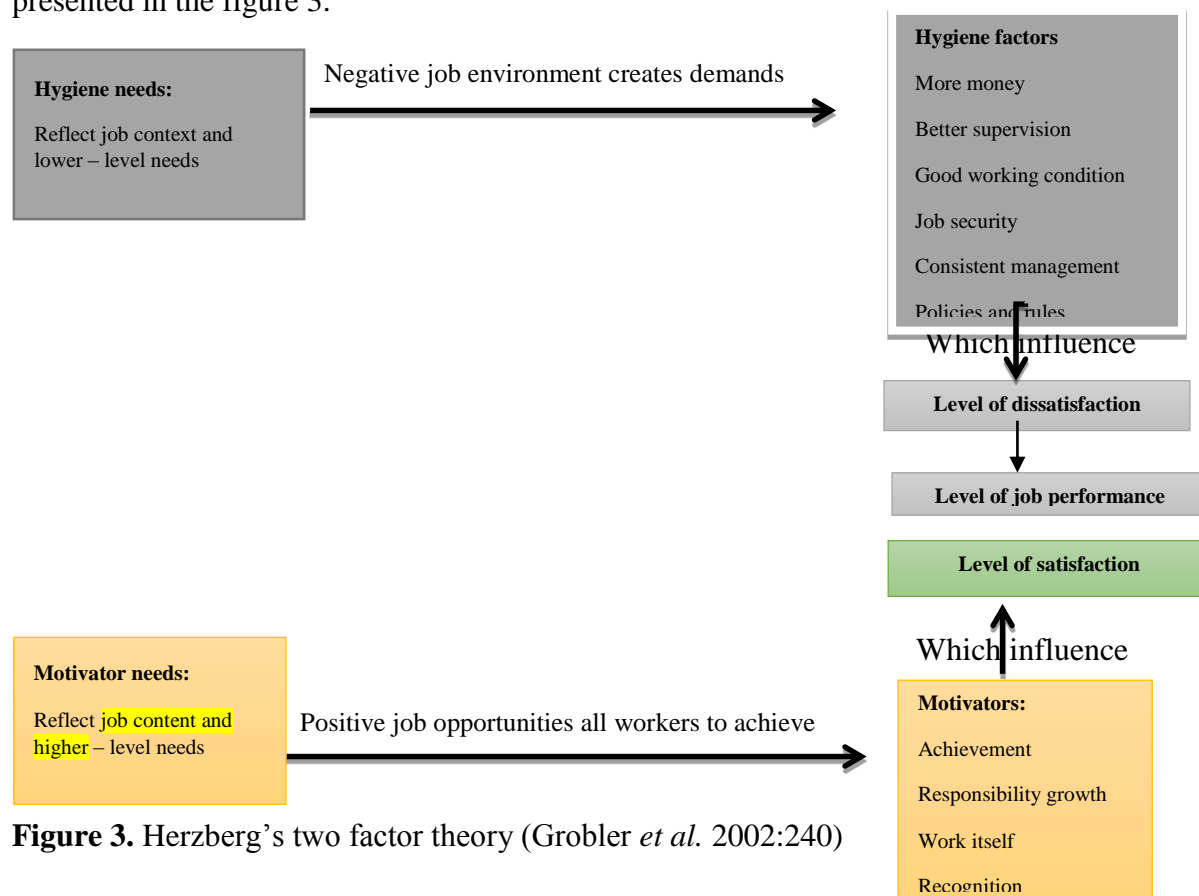


Figure 3. Herzberg's two factor theory (Grobler *et al.* 2002:240)

It can be argued that if the hygiene factors are removed, it is unlikely that employees will be satisfied. Both the hygiene factors and motivators play an important role in the performance of the individual. However, according to Schermerhorn (1993:217), Herzberg's two-factor theory is an important frame of reference for managers who want to gain an understanding of job satisfaction and related job performance issues.

Schermerhorn (1993:217) declares that Herzberg's two-factor theory is a useful reminder that there are two important aspects of all jobs: what people do in terms of job tasks (job content), and the work setting in which they do it (job context). Schermerhorn (1993:217) proposes that managers should attempt always to abolish poor hygiene sources of job dissatisfaction in the workplace and to build satisfier factors into job content to maximise opportunities for job satisfaction.

Criticism against Herzberg's theory is that the relationship between motivation and dissatisfaction and the relationship between sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is too simplistic (Abdullah 2002:134). Despite this criticism, Herzberg extended Maslow's needs hierarchy concept and made it more applicable to work motivation (Abdullah 2002:135).

2.2.2.1.3 Alderfer's ERG theory model

Alderfer (1969:142) explored Maslow's theory and linked it with practical research. He grouped Maslow's list of needs into three classes of needs: Existence, Relatedness, and Growth, accordingly calling it the ERG theory. His classification absorbs Maslow's division of needs into: Existence (physiological and security needs), Relatedness (social and esteem needs) and Growth (self-actualization) (Shajahan & Shajahan 2004:94). Alderfer suggested a continuum of needs rather than hierarchical levels or two factors of needs. Unlike Maslow and Herzberg, Alderfer does not suggest that a lower-level need must be fulfilled before a higher level need becomes motivating or that deprivation is the only way to activate a need (Luthans 2005:244). The ERG theory is presented in the figure 4:

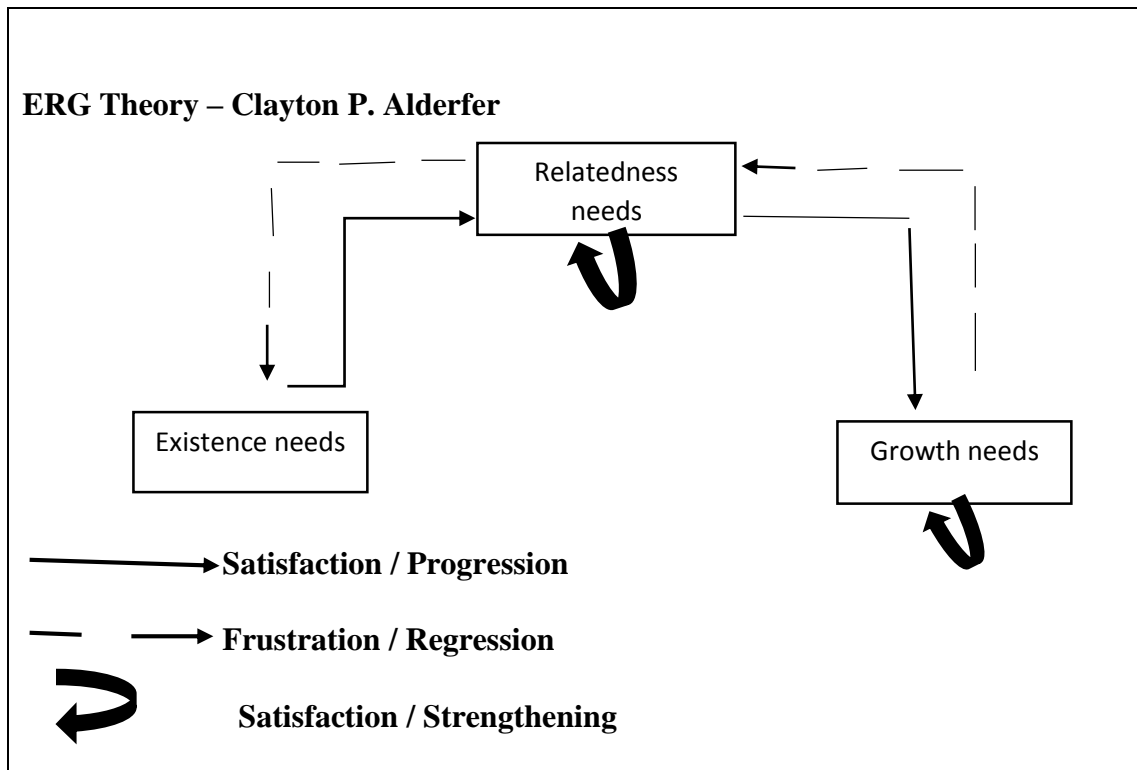


Figure 4: Elderfer’s erg theory (Arnolds & Boshoff 2002:702).

The erg theory pivots around the axial point that more than one need is in operation at the same time. When the aspiration to satisfy a higher need is submissive, the desire to satisfy a lower order level need increases. Alderfer (1972:108) mentions two forms of movement which will become important to a person. The first one is referred to as satisfaction-progression. The second movement is the frustration-regression, which provides additional insight about motivation and human behaviour. According to Alderfer (1972:109), when a person’s needs are frustrated at a higher level, it leads to movement down the hierarchy. For example, if existence and relatedness needs have been satisfied, but growth-need fulfilment has been blocked, the individual will become frustrated and relatedness needs will again emerge as the dominant source of motivation.

Although not fully tested, ERG theory seems to explain the dynamics of human needs in organisations reasonably well. It provides a less rigid explanation of employee needs than Maslow’s hierarchy. Human needs cluster more neatly around the three categories proposed by Alderfer than the five categories in Maslow’s hierarchy. The combined processes of satisfaction-

progression and frustration-regression also provide a more accurate explanation of why employee needs change over time.

2.2.2.1.4 McClelland's theory of needs model

This theory focuses on three needs: achievement, power and affiliation (Robbins *et al.* 2003:135). Employees who have a strong need for achievement would be satisfied with jobs that are challenging and over which they can exercise some control (Josias 2005:72). In contrast, employees with low achievement needs are satisfied with jobs involving little challenge. Individuals with a high need for affiliation will be satisfied with jobs that involve working with people and establishing close interpersonal relationships. Finally, employees who have a need for power, have a desire to impact, influence and to control others (Robbins *et al.* 2003:135). Employees with strong power needs are most likely satisfied with jobs where they can direct and manage others. This theory is presented in table 1:

Table 1: McClelland's theory of needs

Dominant Motivator	Characteristics of This Person
Achievement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has a strong need to set and accomplish challenging goals. • Takes calculated risks to accomplish their goals. • Likes to receive regular feedback on their progress and achievements. • Often likes to work alone.
Affiliation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wants to belong to the group. • Wants to be liked, and will often go along with whatever the rest of the group wants to do. • Favours collaboration over competition. • Doesn't like high risk or uncertainty.
Power	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wants to control and influence others. • Likes to win arguments. • Enjoys competition and winning. • Enjoys status and recognition.

Source: (Robbins 2005:177).

2.2.2.2 Process theories

Mullins (1996:97) is of the belief that process theories anticipate in detail the relationship between motivation, satisfaction and performance while Cronje, Du Toit, Marais and Motlatta (2004:228) believe that process theories focus largely on why individuals opt for certain behavioural choices

to satisfy their desire and how they assess their satisfaction after they have attained their objectives. According to Du Toit, Erasmus and Strydom (2007:239) process theories focus on the source of behaviour and the factors that affect the strength and direction of the behaviour. The following process theories will be addressed: Equity theory, Vroom's Expectancy theory, and Goal-Setting theory.

2.2.2.2.1 Equity theory

According to Saif *et al.* (2012:1383), Equity theory as developed by Adams (1963), considers motivation and job satisfaction as the result of a comparison of employee's perceived outcomes and inputs to the outcomes and inputs of other employees. Khalifa and Truong (2010:138) are of the view that an employee will compare his ratio of the outcomes he gets from his employing organisation to the inputs he contributes to the organisation with the same ratio for other employees inside and outside the organisation. Equity theory is cited in literature across disciplines because of its conceptual soundness (Wildes 2005:216).

Adams (1963) states that an employee will seek to maintain equity between the perceived inputs that he contributes to a job and the perceived outcomes that he receives from it against the perceived inputs and outcomes of others. The theory also states that an employee will feel dissatisfied if he feels unfair treatment compared to other employees inside or outside the organisation that employs him. According to Khalifa and Truong (2010:138), an employee will perceive a case of equity if he perceives the ratio of his inputs to his outcomes to be equal to those inside and outside the organisation he works for. The employee will accept it if a comparable employee receives more output if this comparable employee contributes more input. For instance, everything else being equal, an employee would accept that another employee with more experience (more input) receives a higher salary (more output).

In terms of the theory, employees regard a state of equity to exist when their job inputs in relation to their job outputs are equivalent to that of relevant others. In this regard, a situation of fairness is said to exist (Robbins 1998:245). Employees might assess their relation to friends, neighbours, co-workers and colleagues in other organisations or previous jobs they themselves have occupied (Cronje *et al.* 2004:230). Similarly, Du Toit *et al.* (2007:241) agree that employees compare their job inputs (such as their contribution, experience, education and competence) to their job outputs (salary levels, salary increases and recognition) in relation to that of others.

2.2.2.2.2 Vroom's expectancy theory

Vroom (1964:34) emphasises that employees are motivated to work to achieve a goal if they believe that the goal is worthy and there is the probability that what they do will help them in achieving their goals (Cronje *et al.* 2004:229). Vroom's theory is based on three major variables: valance, expectancy and instrumentality. Valance is the strength of an individual's preference (or value, incentive, attitude, and expected utility) for a particular output. Expectancy is the probability that a particular effort will lead to a particular first-level outcome while instrumentality is the degree to which a first-level outcome will lead to a desired second-level outcome. For example, an employee can be motivated (motivational force or effort) toward better performance (first-level output) to realise promotion (second-level output) (Luthans 2005:247). Vroom's expectancy theory is presented in figure 5:

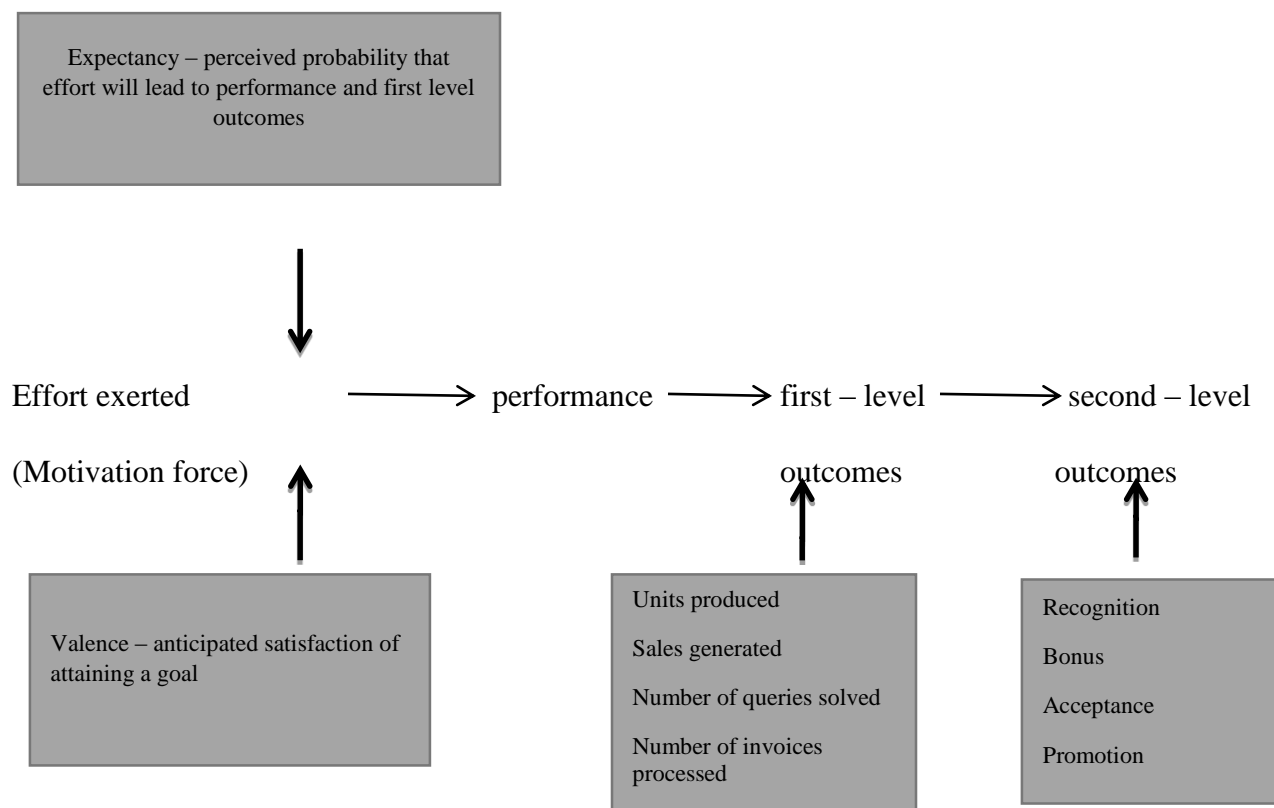


Figure 5: Vroom's expectancy theory (Nel *et al.* 2004:318)

Expectancy theory recognises the importance of various individual needs and motivations (Weihrich & Koontz 1999:471). It suggests that rewards used to influence employee behaviour should be valued by individuals (Du Toit *et al.* 2007:240). Therefore, this theory is considered as

the “most comprehensive theory of motivation and job satisfaction.” (Robbins 2005:60). It explains that motivation is a product of three factors: how much reward is wanted (valence), the estimate of probability that effort will lead to the successful performance (expectancy), and the estimate that performance will result in getting the reward (instrumentality) - explained as ‘Valence \times Expectancy \times Instrumentality = Motivation’ (Newstrom 2007:115).

A criticism of Vroom’s theory however, argues that as a rational theory, it does not fully acknowledge the role of emotions in employee effort and behaviour (Du Toit *et al.* 2007:240).

2.2.2.2.3 Goal setting theory

In 1968, Locke asserted that goal setting theory can be a major source of motivation and satisfaction (Shajahan & Shajahan 2004:95). Some specific goals lead to increased performance, for example, difficult goals (when accepted) lead to higher performance than easy goals and that feedback triggers higher performance than no feedback. Likewise, ‘specific hard’ goals produce a higher level of output than ‘generalized’ goals of ‘do your best’ (Saif *et al.* 2012:1390). Furthermore, employees will do better when they get feedback on how well they are progressing toward their goals, as feedback identifies differences between what have they done and what they want to do. All those studies, which tested goal-setting theory, claim that challenging goals with feedback, work as employees’ job satisfaction (Robbins 2005:54).

Goal theory proposes that difficult goals demand focus on problems, increase sense of goal importance, and encourage persistence to achieve the goals (Perry, Mesch & Paelerg 2006:103). Goal theory can be combined with cognitive theories to better understand the phenomena. For example, greater self-efficacy is positively related to employees’ perception that they are successfully contributing to meaningful work and therefore this fosters enhanced job satisfaction (Moynihan & Pandey 2007:67).

2.2.3 Factors influencing job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a complex variable and is influenced by factors of the job environment as well as dispositional characteristics of an individual. These factors have been arranged according to two dimensions, namely, extrinsic and intrinsic factors (Buitendach & De Witte 2005:28). The extrinsic factors include pay, promotion opportunities, co-workers, supervision and fairness. Intrinsic factors include achievement, responsibility, recognition, growth and advancement (Buitendach &

De Witte 2005:28). According to Spector (1997:27), these categories of factors often work together to influence job satisfaction.

2.2.3.1 Extrinsic sources of job satisfaction

According to Buitendach and De Witte (2005:28), extrinsic sources of job satisfaction are determined by aspects that have little to do with the job tasks or content of the work itself. The following factors will be discussed: pay, the job itself, promotion opportunities, supervision, working conditions, co-workers and fairness.

2.2.3.1.1 Pay

Pay refers to the amount of financial compensation that an individual receives as well as the extent to which such compensation is perceived to be equitable. Luthans (2005:127) is of the view that wages and salaries are recognised to be a significant, but complex and multidimensional factor in job satisfaction. Spector (1997:226) proposes that the fairness of pay 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.

Robbins *et al.* (2003:77) propose that most employees will look for payment systems that are believed to be fair, definite, and aligned with their expectations. Satisfaction is expected to be achieved if the payment seems to be equitable, equal with job demands, individual skill level and community payment standards. In contrast, Brainard (2005:21) established that job satisfaction is less likely to be connected to payment and benefits. Funmilola, Sola and Olusola (2013:511) opine that employees seek pay systems that are perceived as just, unambiguous, and in line with their expectations.

2.2.3.1.2 The work itself

The nature of the work performed by employees has a significant effect on their level of job satisfaction (Luthans 2006:212). "Research 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). Robbins (2005:77) refers 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.

Employees tend to prefer jobs which give 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 (Robbins 2005:77). 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 (Robbins 2005:77).

2.2.3.1.3 Opportunities for promotion

Bull (2005:39) is of the view that employees' opportunities for promotion are also likely to exert an influence on job satisfaction. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:202) however, state that the positive relationship between promotion and job satisfaction is dependent on perceived equity by employees. Many employees will experience satisfaction when they believe that their future prospects are good (Drafke & Kossen 2002:46). Promotion provides employees with opportunities for personal growth, more responsibilities and also increased social status (Funmilola *et al.* 2013:512). Funmilola *et al.* (2013:512) are of the view that if organisations want to accelerate employees' job satisfaction in the organisation, fair promotional opportunities should be given to employees.

2.2.3.1.4 Supervision

Research indicates that people who enjoy working with their supervisors will be more satisfied with their jobs (Aamodt 2004:327). Supervision outlines a very important role that has to do with employees' job satisfaction in terms of the supervisor's capability to give emotional and technical support along with direction with any task that has to do with their job (Robbins 2005:77).

According to Luthans (2005:213), there seem to be two dimensions of supervision that affect job satisfaction. The first dimension has to do with the extent to which supervisors concern themselves with the welfare of their employees. It is manifested in ways such as checking to see how well the employee is doing and providing advice and assistance to the individual. Research indicates that employee satisfaction is increased if the immediate supervisor is emotionally supportive (Luthans 2005:213). The second dimension has to do with the extent to which people participate in decisions that affect their jobs. In most cases, this approach leads to higher job satisfaction. For example, a

meta-analysis concluded that participation does not have a positive effect on job satisfaction. A participative climate created by the supervisor has a more substantial effect on worker's satisfaction than does participation in a specific decision (Luthans 2005:213).

2.2.3.1.5 Co-workers

Another dimension which influences job satisfaction is the extent to which co-workers are friendly, competent and supportive (Robbins 2005:77). 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). According to Luthans (2005:214), co-workers requiring considerable interdependence among others to get the job done will have high satisfaction level and an effective team makes the job more enjoyable.

Researchers found that employees observe the levels of satisfaction of other employees and then model these behaviours. Hence, if an organisation's employees work hard and talk positively about their jobs; new employees will model this behaviour and will be both productive and satisfied. The reverse can also be true (Obasan 2011:34)

2.2.3.1.6 Working conditions

Working conditions concern the physical work atmosphere including space, lighting, ventilation, and equipment (Baylor 2010:30). Luthans (2005:214) is of the view that working conditions have a modest effect on job satisfaction. If the working conditions are good (clean, attractive surroundings, for instance), the personnel will find it easier to carry out their jobs. If the working conditions are poor (hot, noisy surroundings, for example), personnel will find it more difficult to get things done.

Bull (2005:43) maintains that working conditions are only likely to have a substantial influence on job satisfaction when, for example, the working conditions are either extremely good or extremely poor. Moreover, employee complaints regarding working conditions are frequently related to manifestations of underlying problems (Bull 2005:43).

2.2.3.1.7 Fairness

One factor related to job satisfaction is the extent to which employees perceive that they are being treated fairly (Aamodt 2004:328). According to Obasan (2011:35), employees seek for policies

and systems that they recognise to be fair as this will likely 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 2005:79). Procedural fairness on the other hand, occurs when the processes to determine work results or decisions are perceived to be reasonable (Robbins 2005:79).

According to Johns (1996:142), “procedural fairness is particularly relevant to outcomes such as performance evaluations, pay raises, promotions, layoffs and work assignments.” Hence, if the processes used to arrive at for example, promotion decisions are perceived to be fair, it could lead to job satisfaction. Aamodt (2004:328) maintains that the relationship between perceptions of justice and job satisfaction is very strong; hence employers should be open about how decisions are made and provide feedback to employees who might not be happy with certain important decisions.

2.2.3.2 Intrinsic factors of job satisfaction

Intrinsic sources of job satisfaction come mainly from within the individual and last longer than the extrinsic sources (Obasan 2011:36). These sources are generally intangible, such as employees feeling a sense of pride in their work as well as individual differences such as achievement, responsibility, recognition, growth and advancement.

2.2.3.2.1 Achievement

Baylor (2010:32) is of the view that this factor is associated with feelings of accomplishment such as completing a task or resolving an issue. Employees who demonstrate a strong orientation for achievement may be characterized by working long hours, accepting challenging tasks, and a willingness to do whatever it takes to reach maximum outcomes (Baylor 2010:32).

2.2.3.2.2 Recognition

According to Herzberg (1966:153), this factor is associated with positive or negative feedback about an accomplishment. Recognition is an effective means of job satisfaction and a signal from supervision to employees that they are valued for their contributions (Richardson 2003:12). Unfortunately, this well-established concept is all too often underutilized by leaders (Nelson 2002:9). Indeed, Nelson found that even non-monetary recognition results in higher levels of job

satisfaction. In addition, constructive reinforcement also promotes individual growth and development (Jackson 2001:22).

2.2.3.2.3 Responsibility

This factor relates to control over one's work or that of others (Herzberg 1966:154). A meta-analysis finds that job satisfaction increased and the intention to quit decreased as levels of authority over the job grew (Dole & Schroeder 2001). This finding validates Herzberg's conclusion.

2.2.3.2.4 Advancement

Herzberg (1966:154) is of the view that this factor relates to an employee's attitude following a change in position or status. The positive relationship between organisational support for this factor and improved job satisfaction along with a lower degree of intention to quit is found (Jawahar & Hemmasi 2006:650).

2.2.3.2.5 Growth

While advancement pertains to an actual change, growth is about the potential for advancement in the future (Baylor 2010:33). Stein and Craft (2007:12) find a positive relationship between this factor and job satisfaction in their study. This growth can take the form of vertical or horizontal mobility, developmental opportunities, or acquisition of skills (Carmeli Shalom & Weisberg 2007:197).

2.2.4 Biographical determinants of job satisfaction

2.2.4.1 Gender

Bull (2005:45) is of the belief that literature concerning the relationship between gender and job satisfaction is inconsistent because some studies report that women have higher job satisfaction, whereas other studies find that men are more satisfied, yet other studies find no significant difference between the genders. According to Souza-Poza (2003:691), women's satisfaction has declined substantially in the past decade, whereas men's job satisfaction has remained fairly constant.

Jinnett and Alexander (1999:180) argue that female employees demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts across most work settings whereas Al-Mashaan (2003:20) argues that male employees in comparison to female employees report higher levels of job satisfaction. He characterises this with better chances of employment men are argued to have, and opportunities to advance in their jobs at a more rapid pace than females. Lim, Teo and Thayer (1998:335) claim that women are persuaded 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.

2.2.4.2 Tenure

Lim *et al* (1998:336) defines tenure as the length of time for which the individual has worked for the organisation. Employees with longer tenure have a greater tendency to be satisfied with their jobs than employees with shorter tenure (Jinnett & Alexander 1999:182). Chambers (1999:73) makes the point 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.

Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001:235) on the other hand argue that an opposite relationship exists between tenure and job satisfaction. The reason the literature is both inconsistent and inconclusive in this regard may be because the relationship between these variables depends on the specific organisation and how tenure is viewed.

2.2.4.3 Age

Lam *et al.* (2001:158) are of the view that past empirical studies in the disciplines of social science, psychology and management have shown that age has a substantial effect on job relationships. Lam *et al.* (2001:158) contend that older employees tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction hence job satisfaction increases with age and work experience. Older employees are more comfortable and tolerant of authority and may learn to lower expectations for their jobs (Spector 1997:700). Bull (2005:44) is of the belief that older employees may have jobs that utilise their skills better, work under better job conditions, benefit from advancements and promotions, and appreciate fringe benefits more than younger and less experienced employees.

Older employees appear to demonstrate greater satisfaction with their employment than younger employees however, this relationship is not clear (Rhodes 1983:230). Clark and Oswald (1996:365) attribute 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 ambitions as they realise that they face limited alternative choices as they get older.

2.2.4.4 Educational level

Lam *et al.* (2001:159) are of the view that the higher an employee's educational level, the likelihood of dissatisfaction increases and they explained this on the basis that employees with a higher educational background would expect more in terms of financial compensation, benefits, and supervision than employees with a lower educational background. Bull (2005:50) argues that that educational level is positively related to job satisfaction if a successful match is made between the individual's work and their qualifications. This means educated employees are only likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction when the duties performed by them are in line with their level of education.

2.2.4.5 Occupational level

Butler and Ehrlich (1991:859) assert that the position determines the job demands and characteristics of the work environment experienced by employees after they surveyed the proposition that the organisational position held by a job incumbent influences the attitudes, job satisfaction and performance levels of employees. Job satisfaction appears to link responses to positional characteristics (Rousseau 1978:533), meaning that the effect of organisational position on an employee's attitudes and behaviour seems completely attributable to the characteristics of the job he or she performs.

2.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The topic of organisational commitment has received a great deal of interest in the past decade and numerous studies have been directed at determining its causal antecedents (Buitendach & De Witte 2005:28). Eslami and Gharakhani (2012:85) are of the belief that organisational commitment is a construct that seeks to explain consistencies involving attitudes, beliefs and behaviour and it involves behavioural choices and entails a rejection of feasible alternative courses of action.

Organisational commitment has been studied extensively and remains of significant importance to managers (Gamble & Huang 2008:896). Employee organisational commitment to the organisation has been found to relate positively to a range of required work outcomes including employee job satisfaction, motivation and performance and negatively correlated to absenteeism and turnover (Herrbach, Mignonac & Gatignon 2004:1396). It is argued that employees who are committed to the organisation are less likely to leave their jobs than those who are uncommitted. Employees who are committed to the organisation are reported to perform at a higher level and also tend to stay with the organisation, thus decreasing turnover and increasing organisational effectiveness. Organisational commitment is therefore believed to be critical to organisational effectiveness (Gamble & Huang 2004:896).

Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002: 21) are of the view that organisational commitment has been established as a multidimensional construct and that the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of commitment vary across dimensions, demonstrating that employees might be very committed overall although specific dimensions of the overall commitment could be very low. According to Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982:29), employees who are committed are more likely to stay in an organisation and work towards the organisation's goals. Steers (1977:48) indicates that organisational commitment is a useful tool with which to measure organisational effectiveness. Meyer and Allen (1997:12) are of the belief that "organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct that has the potential to predict outcomes such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure and organisational goals."

Although organisational commitment has been conceptualised as a multi-dimensional construct, it is the procedures based on the attitudinal approach which in previous studies have most regularly been corroborated and used as well as revised (Buitendach & De Witte 2005:29). Commitment, which is considered to be a dependent variable in this study, has occupied a central place in organisational research and has been defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Gelade, Dobson & Gilbert 2006:542). Bagraim (2003:14) views this identification as a psychological bond between employees and their employing organisation. Organisational commitment has been studied extensively in terms of its components, antecedents, correlates, and consequences (Eslami &

Gharakhani 2012:85). Meyer and Allen (1997:13) categorised organisational commitment into affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Recent research indicates that organisational commitment is a substantial aspect for understanding and comprehending organisational behaviour and it is a good predictor of the tendency of staying in a job (Ghorbani & Sani 2012:1103). Ghorbani and Sani (2012:1103) are of the belief that committed and responsible employees are more disciplined in their work and stay longer in the organisation and work hard for that organisation.

Mowday *et al.* (1982:27) define organisational commitment as “the identification and involvement of an individual in the organisation”. This includes accepting the goals and values of the organisation, willingness to work hard in the organisation and the desire to stay with the organisation.

According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:301), organisational commitment is “a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets”. Further, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:303) propose that the force of organisational commitment is experienced as a mindset, “a frame of mind or psychological state that compels an individual toward a course of action”. Organisational commitment is defined as a “psychological state that binds the individual to the organisation” (Allen & Meyer 1990:14).

Tsai, Cheng and Chang (2010:4120) are of the belief that organisational commitment is a person’s active and positive intention to identify with and adopt organisational goals and values. According to Reyes and Pounder (1990:47), organisational commitment is the strong belief and intention of workers to identify with organisational values, to devote themselves to and stay with the organisation. Mathews and Shepherd (2002:372) are of the view that organisational commitment refers to workers’ attitude, behaviour and connection between individuals and the organisation.

O’Reilly and Chatman (1986:493) define organisational commitment as the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organisation; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalises or adopts characteristics of the organisation, while Wiener (1982:421) defines it as the totality of normative pressure to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests.

Tella, Ayeni and Popoola (2007:6) are of the view that a wide variety of definitions and measures of organisational commitment exist. Commitment is defined as an intellectual tendency towards a

particular focus, insofar as this focus has the potential to satisfy needs, realise values and achieve goals (Roodt 2004:85). The term 'organisational commitment' is defined by Tell *et al.* (2007:8) as:

- A strong desire to remain a member of a particular organisation;
- A willingness to exert high levels of efforts on behalf of the organisation; and
- A definite belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation.

According to Aref and Aref (2011:489) organisational commitment is an attitude reflecting an employee's loyalty to the organisation, and an ongoing process through which organisation members express their concern for the organisation and its continued success and well-being. Organisational commitment is influenced by many factors, including personal factors (for example, age, tenure in the organisation, disposition, internal or external control attributions); organisational factors (job design and the leadership style of one's supervisor); and non-organisational factors (availability of alternatives). All of these affect consequent organisational commitment (Aref & Aref 2011:489). Mowday *et al* (1982:27) see organisational commitment as attachment and loyalty and they describe three components of organisational commitment as:

- An identification with the goals and values of the organisation;
- A desire to belong to the organisation; and
- A willingness to display effort on behalf of the organisation.

Masemola (2011:24) is of the belief that organisational commitment is multi-dimensional, determined by its diverse definitions and different fashions of measurement. In all its various definitions and measures, there is a common theme shared, namely that organisational commitment is a bond or linkage of the individual to the organisation (Coetzee 2005: 5.2).

Organisational commitment is a reciprocal kind of relationship between the employer and the employee, similar to the nature of mutual relationships; it is a requirement for any commitment (Masemola 2011:24). For instance, if the organisation is not committed to its employees and the employees realise that their company is not committed to them that will affect the organisational commitment relationship negatively (Masemola 2011:25). Therefore organisational commitment

cannot be one-sided, it must be mutual to achieve organisational goals (Martin 2007:27). For the purpose of this study, organisational commitment is defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Martin 2007:19:24).

Robbins (2003:234) defines organisational commitment as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation, its goals and wishes to be part of the organisation. Luthans (2005:78) is also of the view that organisational commitment is the willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of that organisation. This means that employees that are committed to an organisation might be working harder and engage in actions that will be in the best interests of the organisation.

An employee who has a high organisational commitment is willing to put in extra effort on behalf of the organisation which means employees with a strong emotional attachment (affective commitment) tend to work harder and therefore are more productive and have a strong emotional desire to remain with the organisation (Cohen 2007:340). In contrast, the employee with strong economic or calculative ties to the organisation (continuance commitment) will stay because he or she has invested in the organisation. The side bets can be monetary value, a pension plan, specific skills acquired whilst working there or status that will be lost if he or she decides to leave (Cohen 2007:341).

Reyes (2001:328) defines organisational commitment as “a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organisation, to one's role in relation to goals and values of an organisation, to one's roles in relation to goals and values, and to the organisation for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth.”

As mentioned in the previous section, being satisfied with one's job will increase a hotel employee's productivity and innovation and reduce their turnover rate. However, committing oneself to the very company the hotel employee works for has a deeper and more complex meaning (Dimitrious 2012:17). For example, Becker (1960:33) described the concept of commitment as “consistent lines of activity”. The various forms of organisational commitment are presented in the table below:

Table 2: Dimensions of organisational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch 2001:320)

Angle and Perry (1981)	
Value commitment	Commitment to support the goals of the organisation.
Commitment to stay	Commitment to retain their organisational membership.
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986)	
Compliance	Instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards.
Identification	Attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organisation.
Internalisation	Involvement predicted on congruence between individual and organisational values.
Penley and Gould (1988)	
Calculative	A commitment to an organisation which is based on the employee's receiving inducements to match contributions.
Alienative	Organisational attachment which results when an employee no longer perceives that there are rewards commensurate with investments, yet he remains due to environment pressures.
Meyer and Allen (1991)	
Affective	The employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation.
Continuance	An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation.
Normative	A feeling of obligation to continue employment.
Mayer and Schoorman (1992)	
Value	A belief in and acceptance of organisational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation
Value	A belief in and acceptance of organisational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation.
Continuance	The desire to remain a member of the organisation.
Jaros, Jermier, Koehler & Sincich (1993)	
Affective	The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, pleasure, etc.

Continuance	The degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving.
Moral	The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an organisation through internalisation of its goals, values and mission.

Masemola (2011:25) is of the view that the deduction from the various definitions of organisational commitment is that it is multi-dimensional. Therefore, it is imperative that when defining organisational commitment it be based on the reason for the commitment. The reasons that are mostly recognised by researchers are affective (personal attachment), continuance (restricted by circumstances) and normative (an obligation).

2.3.1 THEORIES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

All developed theories of organisational commitment have the potential to contribute to a better understanding of organisational commitment but the researcher had focused on the theories that were relevant to the study.

2.3.1.1 The side-bet theory

It has been more than 40 years since Howard Becker (1960) introduced his side-bet theory of organisational commitment (Powell & Meyer 2003:157). Although generally not considered a stand-alone theory of organisational commitment today, it continues to be influential as a result of its incorporation into popular multi-dimensional models of organisational commitment (Powell & Meyer 2003:158). Becker (1960:33) described organisational commitment as a tendency to engage in ‘consistent lines of activity’ and thus the effect of making side bets is to increase the cost of failing to persist in a course of action. And also argued that it develops as a “person finds that his involvement in social organisation has, in effect, made side bets for him and thus constrained his future” (Becker 1960: 36).

Side-bet theory has been tested on several studies with mixed results (Alluto, Hrebiniak, & Alonso, 1973:448 & Ritzer & Trice 1969:475). Ritzer and Trice (1969:479) conducted the first empirical test of the side-bet theory and rejected the theory. The measurement of side bets has been problematic

because side-bet can be highly idiosyncratic by their nature. However, the side-bet theory got support from (Allen & Meyer 1990:15).

2.3.1.2 Social identity theory

Social identity theory (SIT) was developed to propose how people hypothesize themselves in intergroup contexts and how a system of social categorisation creates and defines an individual's own place in society (Tajfel 1972:294). Burke and Stats (1998:3) adage social identity theory as having a greater emphasis on socio cognitive processes, contextual responsiveness, group behaviour and intergroup relations, and a clearer distinction between role and group. Social identity theory has concentrated on the causes and consequences of identifying with a social group or category. Burke and Stats (1998:6) identified that SIT has focused more on the meaning associated with being a member of a social category.

Turner, Oakes, Haslam and McGarty (1994:456) have argued that because people define themselves in terms of their social group membership and enact roles as part of their acceptance of the normative expectations of in group members, the concept of role is subsumed under the concept of group. However, social identity theorists have generally not focused on these roles. Given their greater emphasis on group identification, they have concentrated more on cognitive outcomes such as ethnocentrism, group polarisation and group cohesiveness (Grant & Brown 1995:199).

When a social identity is activated, people act to enhance the evaluation of the in group relative to the out group and thereby enhance their own evaluation as a group member (Turner 1987). When an employee perceives similarities between the self and other in-group members and identifies with organisational goals and values, organisational commitment increases (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa 1986:501). Although this idea was central to the initial formulation and development of social identity theory, it has not received much empirical support and thus has been downplayed in more recent work (Abrams 1992:70)

2.3.2 TYPES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The three types of organisational commitment are discussed below.

2.3.2.1 Affective commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990:3) refer to affective commitment as the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation. Defined this way, affective commitment involves three aspects: the formation of an emotional attachment to an organisation, identification with and the desire to maintain organisational membership. Allen and Meyer (1990:4) argue that an individual will develop emotional attachment to an organisation when he or she identifies with the goals of the organisation and is willing to assist the organisation in achieving these goals. They further explain that identification with an organisation happens when the employee's own values correspond with organisational values and the employee is able to internalise the values and the goals of the organisation. This leads to a psychological identification with and a pride of association with the organisation.

Jaros *et al.* (1993:954) suggest that affective commitment is the most widely discussed form of psychological attachment to an employing organisation. This could probably be because affective commitment is associated with desirable organisational outcomes. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:312) are of the view that affective commitment has been found to correlate with a wide range of outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Job satisfaction is the extent to which employees like their work whereas affective commitment, involves one's loyalty to the organisation (Jernigan, Beggs & Kohut 2002:567). Affective organisational commitment is conceptualised as "an individual's attitude towards the organisation, consisting of a strong belief in, and acceptance of an organisation's goals, willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation" (Mowday *et al.* 1982:30). Employees with a high degree of affective commitment are likely to contribute more and remain with an organisation because that is what they want, which means the intention to quit is reduced.

Bagraim (2003:13) claims that affective commitment develops if employees are able to meet their expectations and fulfil their needs within the organisation. Affective commitment results in

employees staying with an organisation because they want to, and these employees will generally act in the organisation's best interests and are less likely to leave the company (Jernigan *et al* 2002:565).

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson and Sowa (1986:500) are of the belief that individuals will expend different degrees of effort and maintain differing affective responses to an organisation depending upon perceived commitment of an organisation to an employee within the organisation. Therefore, employees will show organisational commitment in exchange for organisational support and rewards. Wang, Lee and Ho (2012: 45) are of the view that organisational commitment is the solidarity that glues employees together in an organisation, as well as providing them with a proud sense of belonging.

2.3.2.2 Continuance commitment

The second of Allen and Meyer's (1990:4) dimensions of organisational commitment is continuance commitment which is based on Becker's (1960:35) side bet theory. The theory posits that as individuals remain in the employment of an organisation for longer periods, they accumulate investments, which become costly to lose the longer an individual stays. These investments includes time, job effort, organisation-specific skills that might not be transferable or greater costs of leaving the organisation that discourage them from seeking alternative employment, work friendships and political deals (Allen & Meyer 1990:4).

Allen and Meyer (1990:4) maintain that continuance commitment is a form of psychological attachment to an employing organisation that reflects the employee's perception of the loss he or she will suffer if they were to leave the organisation. They explain that continuance commitment involves awareness on the employee's part of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. This then forms the employee's primary link to the organisation and his or her decision to remain with the organisation is an effort to retain the benefits accrued.

According to Laka– Mathebula (2004:30), this type of attachment is described as a transactional attachment. It is argued that employees calculate their investments in the organisation based on what they have put into the organisation and what they stand to gain if they remain with the organisation. For example, an individual might choose not to change employers because of the time and money tied up in an organisation's retirement plan. Such an employee would feel that he

or she stands to lose too much if he or she were to leave the organisation (Laka–Mathebula 2004:30).

Riley (2006:11) is of the belief that continuance commitment refers to what the employee will have to give up if they have to leave the organisation or in other terms, the material benefits to be gained from remaining. Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain with the organisation because they feel they need to do so for material benefits (Meyer & Allen 1991:65). Therefore, if the employees believe that fewer possible alternatives are available; their continuance commitment to their current employer will be stronger.

2.3.2.3 Normative commitment

The third dimension of organisational commitment is normative commitment which reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel they ought to remain with the organisation (Allen & Meyer 1990:4). Normative commitment can be conceptualised as the belief that “employees have a responsibility to their organisation” (Bagraim 2003: 14). Wiener (1982: 471) defines normative commitment as the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way that meets organisational goals. According to Bagraim (2003:14), employees experience normative commitment due to their internal belief that it is their duty to do so. Sparrow and Cooper (2003:325) are of the belief that normative commitment involves an employee’s felt obligation and responsibility towards an organisation and is based on feelings of loyalty and obligation.

Luthans (2005:219) is of the view that normative commitment is the moral obligation the employee develops after the organisation has invested in him or her. Jernigan *et al.* (2002:565) argue that when an employee starts to feel that the organisation has spent either too much time or money developing and training her or him, such an employee might feel an obligation to stay with the organisation. For example, an employee whose organisation paid his tuition while he or she was improving qualifications might believe that he or she can reimburse the organisation by continuing to work for it. In general, normative commitment is most likely when individuals find it difficult to reciprocate the organisation’s investment in them.

According to Jaros *et al* (1993:955), normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought

to remain with the organisation (Bentein, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg & Stinglhamber 2005:469). Jaros *et al.* (1993:955) agree with Allen and Meyer (1990:4) and refer to normative commitment as moral commitment. The difference between this kind of commitment and affective commitment reflects a sense of duty, or obligation or calling to work in the organisation and not emotional attachment (Allen & Meyer 1990:4 & Jaros *et al.* 1993:955). It is described as the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through internalisation of its goals, values and mission. This type of commitment differs from continuance commitment because it is not dependent on the personal calculation of sunken costs (Jaros *et al.* 1993:955 & Allen & Meyer 1990:4).

Laka–Mathebula (2004:32) is of the belief that the multidimensionality of organisational commitment reflects its highly complex nature. The three aspects of organisational commitment seem to have different foundations. As all those forces that are nominated as variables associated with the different forms of commitment co-exist in an organisation, it can be assumed that the three types of commitment can also co-exist (Laka–Mathebula 2004:32). It is important to realise that the three different dimensions of organisational commitment are not mutually exclusive. An employee can develop one or any combination or none of the three aspects of commitment.

These aspects of organisational commitment differ only on the basis of their underlying motives and outcomes. For example, an employee with affective commitment will stay with an organisation and be willing to exert more effort in organisational activities while an employee with continuance commitment may remain with the organisation and not be willing to exert any more effort than that which is expected (Laka–Mathebula 2004:32). In order to understand these different dimensions of organisational commitment better, it is important also to understand how organisational factors associated with it affect the development of commitment.

2.3.3 Biographical determinants of organisational commitment

According to Bull (2005:56), there are number of personal determinants which are associated with organisational commitment. Characteristics such as age, tenure, educational level, job level and gender have been found to influence organisational commitment.

2.3.3.1 Organisational commitment and level of education

Joiner and Bakalis (2006:441) postulate that education level has been inversely correlated with organisational commitment. Highly educated individuals are likely to have higher expectations that the organisation may be unable to meet, thereby reducing their affective commitment. Further, when employees have higher levels of education, it may be more difficult for the organisation to provide sufficient rewards (as perceived by an employee) to equalize the exchange (Joiner & Bakalis 2006:441). Prior research has shown that education is specifically associated with continuance commitment (Angle & Perry 1983:135 & Allen & Meyer 1990:9). Employees with low education levels may be unlikely to have skills transferable to other organisational settings and therefore, education has been found to be negatively related to continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer 1990:9).

Higher levels of education are assumed to enhance the possibility that employees can find alternative employment which may reduce their levels of commitment (Joiner & Bakalis 2006:441). Mowday *et al.* (1982:30) found that highly educated employees had lower levels of organisational commitment. More educated individuals may also be more committed to their profession. As a result, it would become difficult for an organisation to compete successfully for the psychological involvement of these employees (Mowday *et al.* 1982:30). This is because, according to Mathieu and Zajac (1990:180), more highly-qualified individuals have a greater number of alternative work opportunities. However, Billingsley and Cross (1992:461) failed to find support for a relationship between education and commitment.

2.3.3.2 Organisational commitment and age

Laka–Mathebula (2004:34) believes that age has been regarded as a positive predictor of commitment for variety of reasons. Kaldenberg, Becker and Zvonkovic (1995:1365) argue that as workers age, alternative employment options generally decrease, making their current job more attractive. They furthermore state that older individuals may have more commitment to the organisation because they have a stronger investment and greater history with the organisation than younger workers and their level of commitment towards their employing organisations increases (Laka–Mathebula 2004:34).

According to Bull (2005:57), younger employees are generally likely to be more mobile and to have lower psychological investments in the organisation. Older employees become more psychologically committed and are less willing to sacrifice the benefits and personal credits that are associated with their position in the organisation.

2.3.3.3 Organisational commitment and gender

According to Joiner and Bakalis (2006:441), gender and organisational commitment research has also produced inconsistent results. For example, a study among human resource executives found that women showed a higher continuance commitment than men, whereas Ngo and Tsang (1998:259) found no significant relationship between gender and commitment. Further, a meta-analytic study by Mathieu and Zajac (1990:179) found that women are more affectively committed to the organisation than men.

Several explanations have been offered to account for the greater commitment of female employees (Bull 2005:60). Wahn (1998:260) argues that women generally have to overcome more barriers to attain their positions within the organisation. Women concur that the effort required to enter the organisation translates into the higher commitment of female employees. Harrison and Hubbard (1998:618) similarly argue that women display greater commitment because they encounter fewer options for employment.

Bull (2005:61) is of the view that several researchers have failed to find support for a relationship between gender and organisational commitment. It may be concluded that a growing body of evidence appears to support either no gender differences in organisational commitment or the greater commitment of women (Wahn 1998:261).

2.3.3.4 Organisational commitment and tenure

The number of years' experience (tenure) is the most important variable that impacted on organisational commitment, especially continuance commitment (Joiner & Bakalis 2006:442). According to the definition of continuance commitment, any factor that increases positive economic side-bets, such as organisational tenure, should increase commitment, unless outweighed by related negative factors. Essentially, tenure provides an opportunity to develop a sense of belonging and a sense of loyalty with the organisation (Joiner & Bakalis 2006:442).

Research overwhelmingly indicates that tenure has a positive influence on organisational commitment (Bull 2005:58). One potential reason for the positive relationship between tenure and commitment may be sought in the decline of employment opportunities and the increase in the personal investments that the individual has in the organisation. This is likely to lead to an increase in the individual's psychological attachment to the organisation (Bull 2005:58). Laka-Mathebula (2004:36) claims that tenure is associated with some status and prestige, and that this encourages greater commitment and loyalty to the employing organisation.

However, some researchers failed to find support for the relationship between tenure and organisational commitment (Bull 2005:58). Ketchand and Strawser (2001:240) did not find support for this. This is further validated by Cramer (1993:794) who opposes that longer tenure is not associated with greater commitment when age rather than age at joining the organisation is controlled. Nevertheless, it is possible that tenure carries an element of status and prestige, and this induces greater commitment and loyalty to the employing organisation (Bull 2005:58).

2.4 INTENTION TO STAY

Intention to stay refers to employees' conscious and deliberate willingness to stay with an organisation (Cho, Johanson & Guchait 2009:376). Johari, Yean, Adnan, Yahya and Ahmad (2012:398) define intention to stay as employees' intention to stay in the present employment relationship with their current employer on a long-term basis. According to Johari, Yahya and Ahmad (2012:2333) employees are heavyweight components of any organisation and therefore employees are always considered as the greatest asset of an organisation. Without employees, organisations will not be able to produce business results, achieve organisation goals, or meet its financial objectives.

Intention to stay can be defined as how long an employee is willing to stay in an organisation (Ahmad, Shahid, Huma & Haider 2012:125). If an organisation desires to be successful for a long period of time, it must ensure a suitable level of satisfaction amongst their employees (Ahmad *et al.* 2012:125). It has been perceived that, most of the successful organisations have more satisfied employees (Robbins & Judge 2007:345). Satisfied employees are more productive and tend to show positive behaviours like organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Employees are the most valuable asset of an organisation. It is important for

management to understand employee's needs in order to implement the business plan effectively (Ahmad *et al.* 2012:125).

Sanjeevkumar (2012:91) believes that without valuable employees, an organisation cannot generate revenue and prosper. Retention is the most important target for the organisation's Human Resource (HR) Department to achieve and to explore. There are many factors that influence employees' intention to stay in the organisation, for example, the measurement of employee's turnover can be based on the individual organisation or on the industry as a whole. Employees' retention also can be based on whether or not the organisation is employee-friendly. If the organisation experiences low employee turnover, the intention of employees to stay is heightened as this is interpreted as an indication that this organisation is healthier than others (Sanjeevkumar 2012:91).

Employees are keen to stay with the organisation when their self-interest can be fulfilled better by their current organisation than the alternative organisations elsewhere (Sanjeevkumar 2012:91). Mello (2011: 356) makes the point that regardless of the organisation size, the activities it undertakes, or the business environment in which the organisation operates, its success depends on the decisions its employees make with regard to quitting their jobs or staying. Lim, Mathis and Jackson (2010:98) remind us that many organisations have found that turnover is a costly problem for organisations. High employee turnover will bring tremendous cost to the organisation in various ways, such as from the lost sales and related knowledge, reduced productivity and customers' satisfaction, increased work pressure on the remaining employees, costs related to the new recruitment and training for new employees and the reduced morale within the organisation.

According to Zhang and Chen (2010:134), the opposite factors causing employee turnover cannot explain reasons for other employees staying, for example low salary is a major reason for employees to quit their job, but high salary cannot promise that employees will stay in the organisation. The high income employees will face more working pressure, so their intention to stay in the organisation may still be challenged. The relationship is just as in the hygiene factor causing dissatisfaction is different from the motivation factor producing satisfaction. Knowing why people leave is one thing, and knowing why they stay is another.

Most organisations recognise the importance of employees in realising the success of their businesses. A profit-making company may possess the strongest edge, in terms of technology, depth in funding and market location, but without a strong workforce to perform their respective

roles and responsibilities, the company would not be able to progress to meet any of its organisational goals. Employees will leave organisations if they are not happy with various factors related to the company (Johari *et al.* 2012:2333).

Taylor (2002:28) as cited by Johari *et al.* (2012:398) is of the view that employees need to feel that their contributions to the organisation are valued. To keep employees in the organisation, they need to feel part of the organisation. In order to reduce the problem of employees leaving the organisation, many measures need to be taken as organisations, especially hotels that are now competing for talented employees (Mitchell, Holtom & Lee 2001:97). Employees will stay with the organisation if their perceived organisational support and perceived supervisor support is regarded as adequate.

2.4.1 Perceived organisational support and intention to stay

Cho, Johanson and Guchait (2009:376) define perceived organisational support (POS) as employees' perceptions of their organisation's commitment to them. Erdogan and Enders (2007:325) argue that POS refers to the degree to which an individual believes that the organisation cares about him or her, values his or her input and provides him or her with help and support. Eisenberger *et al.* (1986:501) propose that "employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being." Employees with high perceived organisational support feel obligated to respond favourably to the organisation in the form of positive job attitudes and organisational behaviours and also support organisational goals (Beheshtifar & Herat 2013:307).

According to Perryer, Jordan, Firms and Travaglione (2010:919) employees are more committed and likely to stay with the organisation if they feel that the organisation acted positively towards them and less likely to remain with the organisation if they do not feel that there is positive support from the organisation. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002:701) in their meta-analysis find that one of the substantial consequences of POS is the desire to remain or intention to stay in the organisation. Cho *et al.* (2009:378) are of belief that the increase of POS also increases the employees' intention to stay. In fact, they also believe that the effect of POS on intention to stay is twice as much as the effect of POS on intention to leave. Unfortunately, there have not been many studies undertaken that investigate the relationship between POS and intention to stay (Nashuki, Ghazali & Othman 2013:282).

Unless employees perceive organisations as supportive, the employees may view their tasks as unpleasant and this may lead to employees quitting their jobs (Colakoglu, Culha & Atay 2010:129). In other words, employees are satisfied with their jobs if they perceive that the organisational support is given to employees who are considered valuable in their organisations. Several methodological studies showed that employees who are supported by their organisation are satisfied with their jobs and they stay with their organisations (Colakoglu *et al.* 2010:129).

Eisenberger, Fasolo and LaMastro (1990:55) are of the view that employees tend to seek a balance in their exchange relationships with their organisations, by forming attitudes and behaviour based on how much the employers are committed to their employees. Beheshtifar and Herat (2013:307) opine that employees who perceive the organisation as caring for their well-being are, therefore more likely to respond positively not only in engaging in various forms of pro-social behaviour directed towards the benefit of the organisation, but also by developing a stronger sense of organisational commitment.

2.4.2 Perceived supervisor support and intention to stay

Perceived supervisor support (PSS) is defined as employee views concerning the extent to which supervisors' value employees' contribution and care about their well-being (Cho *et al.* 2009:377). Sawers (2011:8) defines PSS as employees' perceptions regarding the level and quality of support that is available to them from their supervisor. Cho *et al.* (2009:377) state that supervisors act as organisational agents who are accountable for guiding and evaluating subordinates' performance; causing employees to view their supervisors' attitudes and behaviour toward employees as indicative of the organisation's support of employees.

Chew and Chan (2007:509) are of the view that strong supervisor support can reduce the employees' burnout and depression, and can increase employees' intention to stay on the job. At the same time, supervisor support can make employees feel that they are cared for and valued by the organisation, which will easily create the feeling of belonging.

Based on the principle of reciprocity, Cho *et al.* (2009:377) argue that enhanced PSS increases obligations (loyalty and commitment) of employees to the supervisor. Some prior studies found a positive relationship between loyalty to a supervisor and intention to stay, but the relationship was mediated by organisational commitment (Cho *et al.* 2009:377). Cho *et al.* (2009:377) propose that

loyalty to supervisors would lead to loyalty (commitment) to the organisation as supervisors are considered organisational agents, and loyal employees intend to stay with the organisation. Few studies found a direct positive relationship between loyalty (commitment) to supervisors and intention to stay (Chen 2001:654). Previous studies provide evidence of a relationship between PSS and intention to stay, but in most studies the relationship is indirect, facilitated by organisational commitment, loyalty, or commitment to supervisors (Chen 2001:654).

2.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDY CONSTRUCTS

2.5.1 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment

There is no doubt that job satisfaction leads to organisational commitment and that job satisfaction has been recognised as a component of organisational commitment (Sharma & Bajpai 2010:9). Job satisfaction can be understood as a predictor of organisational commitment. LaLopa (1997:17) observe that job satisfaction is a substantial predictor of organisational commitment. According to Adekola (2012:4), many studies use different facets of satisfaction to predict employee attributes such as performance, organisational commitment and service quality.

Eslami and Gharakhani (2012:87) are of the belief that most of the research has treated job satisfaction as an independent and organisational commitment as a dependent variable. Commitment and job satisfaction may be seen in several ways. Job satisfaction is a kind of response to a specific job or job-related issues whereas commitment is a more global response to an organisation (Mowday *et al.* 1982:27). Feinstein and Vondrasek (2001:6) are of the view that commitment is more consistent than job satisfaction over time and lasts longer when one is satisfied with his or her job. Feinstein and Vondrasek (2001:10) analyse the effects of job satisfaction on organisational commitment among restaurant employees and the findings prove that satisfaction levels can predict their commitment to the organisation.

Buitendach and De Witte (2005:31) also find that the relationship between affective organisational commitment and job satisfaction show statistically significant correlation, suggesting that the higher the level of job satisfaction, the higher the level of affective commitment within the organisation. Organisational commitment is distinguished from job satisfaction in that organisational commitment is “an affective response to the whole organisation, while job satisfaction is an affective response to specific aspects of the job” (Morrison 1997:51).

Strong positive relationships have been observed between organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane & Ferreira 2011:107). Research results indicate that satisfied employees tend to be committed to an organisation, and employees who are satisfied and committed are more likely to attend work, stay with an organisation, arrive at work on time, perform well and engage in behaviours helpful to the organisation (Lumley *et al.* 2011:107). According to Kotze and Roodt (2005:50), a strong correlation has been empirically established between job satisfaction and employee commitment. Job satisfaction relates significantly and positively to organisational commitment. Since there is a statistically positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the impression is that if employees' level of satisfaction improves, then levels of organisational commitment would improve too.

2.5.2 Job satisfaction and intention to stay

Several studies found that turnover has become a serious problem in the hotel industry due to the fact that employees are usually under-trained, under-paid, and overworked (Dimitriou 2012:23). Tsourela, Mouza and Paschaloudis (2008: 252) are of the view that job satisfaction is considered a strong predictor of overall individual well-being and also a good predictor of intentions or decisions of employees to stay in the job. Employers will have more to gain when their employees are satisfied because it is within their interest to have low staff turnover and higher productivity hence this is more likely to happen if their employees are highly satisfied with their jobs (Tsourela *et al.* 2008: 252).

A good way to explore the subject of intention to stay in relation to job satisfaction is to refer to the commitment that the employees have to the organisation and to find out what influences these levels of commitment. Jang and George (2012: 590) are of the view that in the hospitality context, some empirical evidence supports the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. For example, Lam *et al.* (2001: 161) examined the specific facets of job satisfaction among Chinese restaurant managers in Hong Kong and found that financial reward, good work environment, and the job itself are vital factors in predicting overall job satisfaction.

Yang (2008:440) used a multiple regression analysis for hotel employees in Taiwan and found that job satisfaction significantly affected affective commitment, which could lead to turnover intention. Yang (2010:615) studied frontline employees working in international tourist hotels in Taiwan and confirmed that affective commitment and job satisfaction are powerful contributors to

the turnover intentions. It is quite likely that employees who have high levels of job satisfaction are more likely to stay with their organisations.

Chiang, Back and Canter (2005:100) found that job satisfaction strongly influences the employees' intention to stay with an organisation and that employees with higher levels of job satisfaction tend to be more productive and stay on the job. On the other hand, employees who are dissatisfied with their job may show a behavioural intention to quit and to search for another job. Job satisfaction relates significantly and positively to employees' intention to stay.

The researcher concludes that there is a positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and intention to stay. Saporna and Claveria (2013:2) also concluded that a significant and positive relationship existed between job satisfaction and intention to stay. Employees with high levels of job satisfaction tend to stay with their organisations for longer periods of time (Saporna & Claveria 2013:2).

2.5.3 Organisational commitment and intention to stay

A committed employee is one that will stay with the organisation. Several research studies have been conducted to determine the accuracy of this statement. Many have concluded that committed employees stay with the organisation for longer periods of time than those who are less committed (Brum 2007:2). According to Mowday *et al.* (1982:30), employees committed to an organisation tend to believe strongly in and accept the organisation's goals and values, employ significant effort on behalf of the organisation, and continue membership with the organisation.

Cho *et al.* (2009:377) affirm that numerous studies found a positive relationship between organisational commitment and intention to stay and literature provides sufficient support for a link between commitment and intention to stay. Hansen, Sandvik and Selnes (2003:365) found a significant and strong impact of customers' affective commitment to an organisation and intention to stay where nearly 40% of the variance in intention to stay was explained by affective commitment. The researchers found that customers' high affective commitment to a service organisation results in a desire to stay with the firm.

Brum (2007:2) is of the belief that the more committed an employee is, the less desire he or she has to terminate their employment with the organisation. The highly committed employees are found to have higher intention to stay with the organisation, a stronger desire to attend work, and

a more positive attitude about their employment. Steers (1977:54) concludes that commitment is significantly and inversely related to employee turnover.

High levels of commitment is achieved when employees feel that they are being accepted and supported by the supervisors and co-workers and this increases their intentions to stay and become part of the organisation's brand (Nashuki *et al.* 2013:282). Nashuki *et al.* (2013: 282) also found that with greater organisational commitment, employee's intention to stay is higher and turnover lower. Cho *et al.* (2009:379) propose that if the employees have high organisational commitment, it will inspire them to be more devoted towards the organisation and thus increasing the employees' intention to stay.

There is a relationship between employees' organisational commitment and intention to stay. Employees who are satisfied with their jobs are most likely to be happy, productive and committed and dedicated to their work. Organisations especially hotels should create an environment in which employees are not only satisfied with their jobs but truly committed so that they will stay in the organisation for a long period of time (Saporna & Claveria 2013:4).

2.6 SYNOPSIS

This chapter provided an overview of the variables: job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay. The relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay was discussed at length. The relationship between demographical variables such as gender, age, tenure, level of education, and occupational level was discussed in conjunction with constructs such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay. However, some findings were proven to be contradictory. The next chapter explains the methodology and research design employed in this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the literature review on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay.

This chapter presents the research methodology employed to investigate the relationships among the following variables: job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay. The methodological factors included research design, target population and sampling, data collection, measuring instruments, methods of data collection, pilot study, and data analysis. Methodology is an essential part of research in order to find answers to the research objectives that initiate the research and it therefore comprises a very important part of any study (Holland & Campbell 2005:241).

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Conducting research enables the researcher to answer the research questions or objectives as validly, objectively, accurately, efficiently and effectively in terms of cost and time as possible (Holland & Campbell 2005:166). Essentiality, a research design indicates the type of study undertaken and provides acceptable answers to the research problem. If the research design is adequately planned and implemented it can assist in validating the conclusion (Martin 2007:61). Two methodological paradigms of data collections are normally used in research. The two methods are briefly explained below.

3.2.1. Qualitative research

Qualitative research establishes the meaning of relationships in terms of influences and actions (Murphy 1995:32). It can be used to identify the parameters of a research question or problem and can also be used to develop in-depth information about the nature of interaction (Martin & Guerin 2006:173). Qualitative research is a paradigm that seeks to discover the meanings that participants attach to their behaviour, how they interpret it and what their perspectives are on particular issues (Woods 2006:4).

A qualitative method generally involves a range of techniques, such as participant observation, interviews, focus groups which seek to understand the experiences and practices of key informants and to locate them within their settings and contexts (Kura 2012:9). A qualitative study begins with observation of the phenomenon followed by the recording and classification of data (Taylor 2000:164). This method can also be used to study facts, observations and experiences that can be used as empirical indicators when developing an instrument (Pett, Lackey & Sullivan 2003: 25).

3.2.2. Quantitative research

In the quantitative approach, numbers are often what are considered (Martin & Guerin 2006:173). These numbers are used in inferential statistics formulae to test the relationship between two or more variables. Researchers who use quantitative research employ experimental methods and quantitative measures to test hypothetical generalisations which emphasise the measurement and analysis of causal relationship between variables (Golafshani 2003:597). Quantitative research is a system of subjecting data or information to empirical analysis to assist the researcher in reaching a decision (Edem & Lawal 1997:53). Edem and Lawal (1997:53) further postulate that utilising quantitative method introduces an approach through which a researcher could systematically and logically construct a methodology to resolve a complex set of socio-economic and technological problems common to a service provider.

It is an approach involving the use of structured questions, in which the response options have been predetermined and a large number of respondents are involved. Its purpose is very specific, and data formats as well as sources are clearly defined and the compilation and formatting of the data gathered follows an orderly procedure (Burns & Bush 2006: 202).

For the purpose of this study, a quantitative research approach was chosen because the study was descriptive in nature with survey method and forms of numerical measurement utilised. This research method was also chosen because quantitative research allows the researcher to examine relationships and differences among variables (Golafshani 2003:597).

3.3 THE SAMPLING DESIGN PROCEDURE

The following steps outlined by Tustin, Ligthelm, Martin and Van Wyk (2005: 339), were used in the sampling design procedure.

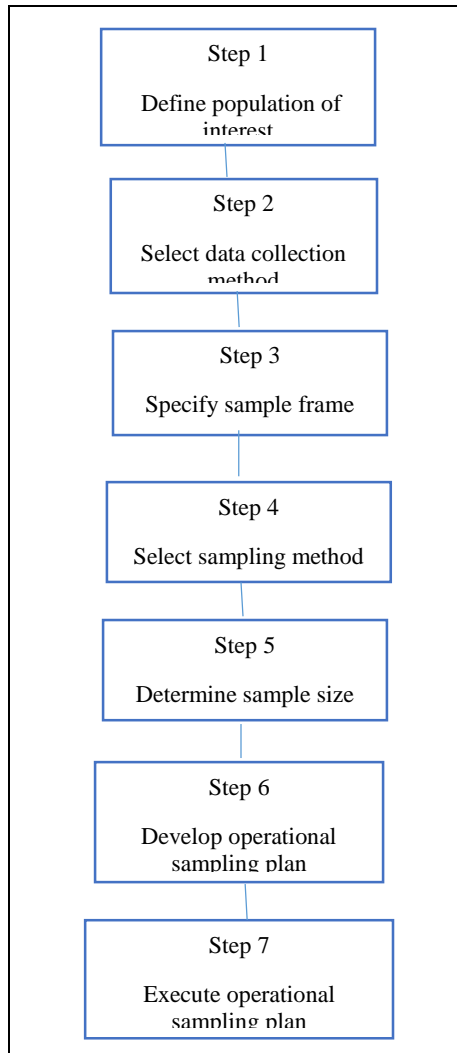


Figure 6: Steps used in developing a sampling design procedure (Tustin *et al.* 2005: 339).

3.3.1 The target population

Cant, Gerber–Nel, Nel and Kotzé (2003:125) define target population as the collection of elements from which information is to be gathered to solve the research problem. Elements could be people from which information must be gathered. Target population determines which elements can and cannot be included in the sample, which is why the target population must be defined precisely. The target population can, for example, be based in a geographic location or it may have demographic characteristics (McDaniel & Gates 2001:330).

For the purpose of this study, the target population was set at N=440 employees drawn from the current database of the hotel. Data was sourced from indefinite (permanent), fixed and casual employees of an international hotel in Lesotho.

3.3.2 The sampling frame

Sampling frame is a list of population elements or members from which the sample is selected (McDaniel & Gates 2001:333). The definition also encompasses the purpose of sampling frames, which is to provide a means for choosing the particular members of the target population that are to be used in the survey (Turner 2003:3). In this study, the human resource department records were used as a sample frame from which the sample was drawn.

3.3.3 The sampling method

A probability sampling technique and a simple random sampling were used in this study. Mugo (2002:7) states that a probability sampling allows a known probability that each elementary unit will be chosen. Bless *et al.* (2007:101) are of the view that simple random sampling is a sampling procedure which provides equal opportunity of selection for each element in a population. The random method was used in this study; the list of employees formed a sample frame from which the researcher used the lottery technique to select employees at random by assigning a number to each name, placing it in a container, mixing well and picking the numbers from a container (Bless *et al.* 2007:101).

3.3.4 The sample size

The sample size refers to how many elements of the population should be included in the sample (Burns & Bush 2006:33). The determination of a sample size is usually a subjective, intuitive judgment made by the researcher based on past studies (Zikmund 2000: 519). In quantitative research, the size of the sample should be calculated at the design stage (Proctor, Allan & Lacey 2010:97). A comparison of past research studies (historical evidence method) was used to choose the size of the sample. Sample size determination was based on the studies of Dimitriou (2012:36) who used sample size of 300, Mguqulwa (2008:17) who used a sample size of 390, and Brown (2003:35) who used a sample size of 230. A sample size of 250 was deemed appropriate for this particular study.

3.3.5 Data collection and measuring instrument

The data collection method used in this study was the survey method using closed-ended questionnaires, which were more efficient and less time-consuming for the respondents that were used in this study. Instructions were clear.

The survey method is one of the most dependable primary data collection methods (Burns & Bush 2003:233). A survey method is defined as a plan according to which the researcher will obtain suitable participants (subjects) and collect relevant information from them (Welman & Kruger 2002:46). Through the survey method “respondents may be asked a variety of questions regarding attitudes, awareness, behaviour, intentions, motivations and demographic characteristics” (Malhotra & Birks 2007:224).

Creswell (2003:117) clarifies that a survey provides a quantitative description of the sample being studied, through the data collection process of questioning. This author states that through the quantitative data collection or the use of a survey, the researcher will be able to generalise the findings from the sample of responses to the population.

The questionnaire comprised closed-ended questions. In accordance with the conceptual framework of this study, the questionnaire was divided into four sections:

- **Section A:** Demographic information of the employees
- **Section B:** Questions related to job satisfaction.
- **Section C:** Questions based on organisational commitment
- **Section D:** Questions based on employees’ intention to stay

3.3.5.1 Job satisfaction survey

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was developed by Spector (1985:699) to evaluate worker’s attitudes concerning aspects of their jobs using a Likert-type rating scale format. This instrument is a multidimensional and was developed for the social service sector. However, it has been used in various studies in different organisational sectors in different cultures (Astrauskaite, Vaitkevicious & Perminas 2011:41). Since this study aims to assess global job satisfaction without referring to any specific facets, a short version of JSS was used with a summated rating scale

format with five agree – disagree choices: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree and strongly agree. The researcher confirmed that the JSS has been tested for reliability and validity across different studies before using the JSS for this study. The reliability of the JSS was previously tested by means of the internal consistency and it showed reliability of 0.91 (Amburgey 2005:65). The researcher's choice to use this instrument was also informed by the fact that JSS uses a Likert scale.

3.3.5.2 Organisational commitment questionnaire

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed by Allen and Meyer (1990:862) to measure organisational commitment as a tri-dimensional construct. This instrument has been developed, tested and validated mainly in the United States of America (Lee & Gao 2005:378). However, Bagraim (2004:8) found that OCQ is appropriate in the South African context. The OCQ is a self-scoring instrument which comprises a five point Likert scale with nineteen items. The scale is intended to measure three components of organisational commitment: affective, continuance and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen 1997:121). The scale range from strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree and strongly agree. Several studies have been conducted to examine the reliability and validity of OCQ with positive results. Meyer and Allen found reliability of 0.79, while Pretorius and Roodt (2004:70) found reliability of 0.91. The researcher decided to use this instrument as it has preliminary evidence that it is a valid instrument to measure organisational commitment.

3.3.5.3 Intention to stay questionnaire

The Intention to Stay Questionnaire (ISQ) was adopted from Lambert and Hogan (2009:114) and was developed to measure employees' intention to stay with the organisation. A short version of ISQ was used which consists of five items that were measured on a five-point intensity response scale. The scale ranges from strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree and strongly agree. The studies that have made use of ISQ reported good reliability at above 0.70 hence the researcher chose this instrument. Jacobs (2005:341) found an alpha range of 0.913, Martin (2007:147) found reliability of 0.895 and Jacobs and Roodt (2011:4) found reliability of 0,839.

3.4 FIELDWORK AND ADMINISTRATION OF QUESTIONNAIRES

The method of data collection used in order to elicit information regarding the study consisted of a paper and pen-based self-administered questionnaire. In order to facilitate the research project timeously, the researcher and two research assistants administered the questionnaires. According to Malhotra (2007:414) adequate training of interviewers, research assistants and field work is a precondition of any research. The research assistants were trained prior to the execution of the duties. Training was done to give research assistants clear instructions about their duties. The training spent one hour. The researcher discussed all questions in the questionnaire with the research assistants. Research assistants then distributed the questionnaire to the employees to complete and those questionnaires were later collected by the research assistants upon agreed dates.

3.5 PRE- TESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Burns and Bush (2006:321) are of the view that a pre-test is a dry run of a questionnaire to find and repair difficulties that respondents encounter while taking the survey. It is very important that pre-test participants are in fact representative of the target population under study. According to Aaker, Kumar and Day (2004:330), the following issues should be pre-tested:

- Flow of the questionnaire;
- Skip patterns;
- Length; and
- Respondent interest and attention.

Bryman and Bell (2007:273) noted that pre-testing has a role in ensuring the research instruments as a whole function well in order to eliminate variation in respondents' understanding and interpretation of the questionnaire in terms of ambiguity. The draft questionnaire was submitted to three research professors and two academics to evaluate questionnaire items in terms of interpretation, relevance and clarity. Thereafter changes were made to the questionnaire with specific reference to wording, sequence, relevance and language.

3.6 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study is a small-scale preliminary study conducted in order to evaluate feasibility, time, cost, adverse events, and effect size (statistical variability) in an attempt to predict an appropriate sample size and to improve upon the study design prior to performance of a full scale research project (Cant *et al.* 2003:29). According to Cooper and Schindler (2006:88) a pilot study is conducted to detect weaknesses in research methodology and data collection instruments, as well as to provide proxy data for selection of a probability sample.

The questionnaire was pilot tested with 50 respondents. The pilot study was initially undertaken to ascertain the reliability of the questionnaire. After the pilot study, changes were made to the questionnaire in order to prepare the main survey instrument. The results for pilot study are reported in chapter four under section 4.2.

3.7 DATA PREPARATION

According to Cant *et al.* (2003:149), data preparation refers to the process of checking the quality of the data gathered during fieldwork and converting it into an electronic format so that it can be read and manipulated by computer software. Its objective was to ensure that high quality data was available for statistical analysis.

The two major phases of data preparation which the researcher employed in this study were coding and data editing. Coding is assigning a code, usually a number, to each possible response, to each question and the code includes an indication of the column position (field) and data record it will occupy (Malhotra 2007: 8).

Cant *et al.* (2003:153) are of the view that coding refers to the process of assigning a code or symbol, preferably a number to each answer to a particular question. The purpose of coding is to transform respondents' answer to survey questions into codes or symbols that can easily be entered into and read by a statistical analysis software package.

Aaker *et al.* (2004: 433) define editing as a process to identify omissions, ambiguities and errors in the responses while McDaniel and Gates (2001:292) define it as checking the questionnaire to ensure that skip patterns are followed and the required questions filled out. Cant *et al.* (2003:151) define editing as the process whereby the raw data are checked for mistakes made by either the

interviewer or the respondent. Questionnaires also have to be checked more thoroughly for ambiguities, inconsistencies, omissions or other errors.

3.7.1 Editing

Aaker, Kumar, Leaone and Day (2013:346) are of the view that the role of editing process is to identify omissions, ambiguities and errors in the responses. Editing should be conducted in the field by the interviewer and field supervisor, as well as by the analyst just prior to data analysis. While McDaniel and Gates (2005:320) describe editing as going through each questionnaire to ensure that the skip pattern is monitored and the required questions are filled out. Editing requires a process of ensuring that questionnaires are filled out correctly and entirely. The questionnaire was examined by the researcher, supervisor and co-supervisor in order to identify questions that were answered incorrectly or not answered at all. The questionnaire was edited before the responses were processed to determine whether or not the data recorded in the questionnaire was acceptable for use and to prepare it for coding and capturing.

3.7.2 Coding

Coding is assigning a code, usually a number, to each possible response, to each question and the code includes an indication of the column position (field) and data record it will occupy (Malhotra 2007: 8). Campbell (2000: 9-10) asserts that before the survey data is analysed, the verbal interview responses must be represented by numeric codes. Below are the guidelines that were followed during the coding process.

- Identification of variables. Providing enough space at the beginning of the record to accommodate all identification variables.
- Code categories. Categories will be mutually exclusive, exhaustive, and precisely defined.
- Series of responses. When more than one column was required to handle a series of responses.

Aaker *et al.* (2013: 347) maintain that it is easier to code closed-ended questions than to code open-ended questions. Coding enables other kinds of comparisons to be made, provided that the comparisons are independent or orthogonal (Hardy & Bryman 2004: 26). For the current study,

numbers were used where male was coded 1 and female coded 2. Again a five point Likert scale was used where strongly agree was coded 5 and strongly disagree was coded 1.

3.8 ETHICAL ISSUES

Research is a process based on trust, that a survey was conducted using professional standards, that a respondent's identity would be kept confidential and that a client would not publicly misrepresent survey findings. Dutka and Lester (2006:145) emphasised that in order to maintain this trust, researchers should behave in an ethical and respectful manner to respondents, clients and the public in general. Ethical considerations are concerned with matters such as plagiarism and honesty in reporting of results (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:181). Ethics refer to moral principles or values governing the conduct or behaviour of an individual or a group (McDaniel & Gates 1996:84).

The following ethical issues that were relevant for a study were adhered to: the researcher requested permission to have respondents' time to complete the questionnaires and the respondents were informed about the purpose of the survey. Participation in the study was voluntary and respondents were not forced to participate in the study. Personal data of respondents was processed fairly and lawfully and used only for the purpose of the study. Personal responses from individuals were not ascribed to any individual. All data was computed in aggregate, and not ascribed to any respondent. The questionnaire did not contain the names of respondents, anonymity of respondents was maintained throughout the study, and professional competence in the data collection and analysis was maintained.

3.9 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

According to Bogdan and Biklen (1982:154), analysis of data condenses dealing with data organisation and breaking it down searching for patterns and discovering what is important to be learned and deciding what to tell others. All data was entered into an Excel spreadsheet and then copied to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences SPSS (Version 22.0 for Window) to analyse the data as advised by Walters and Freeman (2010:78). Initially, descriptive analysis was undertaken regarding the composition of the sample. In addition, correlations and regression analysis were also undertaken to examine associations and differences in the sample.

3.9.1 Descriptive statistics

According to Aaker *et al.* (2013:351) descriptive statistics are statistics normally associated with a frequency distribution that helps summarise the information presented in the frequency table. Churchill and Brown (2004:545) describe descriptive statistics as the distribution of responses on a variable, including measures of central tendency such as mean, median and mode measures of the spread or variation in the distribution such as range, variance and standard deviation. The descriptive statistics approach was used to describe the basic features of this study through the use of biographical analysis (refer to section 4.3.1).

3.9.2 Correlations

According to Malhotra and Birks (2007:573) correlation is defined as the simplest way to understand the association between two metric variables. The relationship is a consistent and systematic link between two or more variables. The correlation coefficient is a mathematical measure of the relation between two data sets (Awan, Azam & Asif 2008:59). It is the standard measure used by researchers to determine if there is some common factor that causes two data sets to move together, rising and falling in a similar fashion. Churchill and Iacobucci (2002: 734) asserted that the relationship can either be positive or negative depending on the direction of the relationship between the variables.

Gray (2009:485) claims that when a relationship is measured numerically, the researcher gets a correlation coefficient that indicates the strength and the direction of the relationship between variables, and it can range from -1.00 to +1.00. The value of -1.00 represents a perfect negative correlation while a value of +1.00 represents a perfect positive correlation. A value of 0.00 means there is no relationship at all. This method was appropriate for this study as it accommodated the measurement of employees' job satisfaction, their organisational commitment and intention to stay and their interrelationships. It also indicated the degree of their relationships by means of linear correlations and the results are reported in section 4.3.3.1 of the next chapter.

3.9.3 Regression analysis

Aaker *et al.* (2013:631) define regression analysis as a statistical technique that develops an equation that relates a dependent variable to one or more independent (predictor, explanatory) variables. The objective in regression analysis is to build a regression model or a prediction

equation relating the dependent variable to one or more independent variables. The model can then be used to describe, predict and control the variable of interest on the basis of independent variables (Aaker *et al.* 2013:407). Regression analysis is reported in section 4.3.3.2 of the study. Job satisfaction was regressed with organisational commitment and intention to stay in order to establish any causal relationships.

3.10 RELIABILITY ISSUES

Malhotra and Peterson (2006:273) refer to reliability as the degree to which a scale produces consistent results if repeated measurements are made. Therefore, reliability can be defined as the extent to which measures are free from random error (Malhotra & Peterson 2006:273). McDaniel and Gate (2010:140) refer to reliability as the consistency with which a measure produces the same results with the same or comparable populations. Reliability is determined by repeatedly measuring the concept or variable of interest. The higher the degree of association between the scores derived through this repeated measurement, the more reliable the scale (Malhotra & Peterson 2006:273).

Reliability for quantitative research focuses mainly on stability and consistency (Polit & Beck 2010:45). Whether or not questions measure the same concept is checked by an internal consistency check (Jones & Rattray 2010:1003). Consistency is checked by using Cronbach's alpha, as described by Polit *et al.* (2010:199). Cronbach's alpha has a range of values between 0.00 and 1.00, and a value of > 0.7 is acceptable. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were reported in section 4.3.3.3 of this study.

3.11 VALIDITY ISSUES

According to Malhotra and Peterson (2006:274), validity is defined as the extent to which differences in observed scale scores reflect true differences in what is being measured, rather than systematic or random error. McDaniel and Gate (2010:140) define validity as the degree to which a measure reflects the characteristics of interest. In other words, a validity measure provides an accurate reading of whatever the researcher is trying to measure. A scale with perfect validity would contain no measurement error, that is no systematic error and no random error. Researchers may assess validity in different ways: content validity, criterion validity and or construct validity (Malhotra & Peterson 2006:274).

Polit *et al.* (2010:198) define validity of a questionnaire as the degree to which the instrument measures exactly what it purports to measure. The questionnaire should adequately address all aspects of the issues under study. Convergent validity is assessed through the computation of correlations among the sub-scales. Predictive validity of the scale would be a positive causal relationship between job satisfaction and intention to stay, or organisational commitment and intention to stay. Malhotra and Peterson (2006:274) define the following types of construct validity:

- **Discriminant validity:** a type of construct validity that assesses the extent to which a measure does not correlate with other constructs from which it is supposed to differ.
- **Convergent validity:** a measure of construct validity that measures the extent to which the scale correlates positively with other measures of the same construct. In this study, convergent validity was produced through correlation analysis. Convergent validity is reported in section 4.3.3.4.2 of the study.
- **Predictive validity:** a type of validity that assesses the relationship between theoretical constructs. It seeks to confirm significant correlations between the constructs predicted by theory. In this study, predictive validity was assessed by indicating that intention to stay predicts organisational commitment and job satisfaction and also job satisfaction predicts organisational commitment. Predictive validity is reported in section 4.3.3.4.3 of the study.
- **Content validity:** the adequacy with which the important aspects of the characteristics are captured by the measure. After conducting pilot study, some questions were deleted from the questionnaire. Content validity is reported in section 4.3.3.4.1 of the study.

In the current study content, convergent and predictive validity were used to measure validity

3.12 SYNOPSIS

This chapter covered the research methodology and a brief overview on the statistical methods used in the collection and analysis of data. The sample design procedure was explained. A probability sampling technique and a simple random sampling were used in this study. The methods of data collection, pre-testing and pilot testing were also discussed. The quantitative

research method was appropriate for this study as it involves the use of a large sample size which gives an accurate representation of the entire population.

Various statistical procedures were highlighted as well as the reliability and validity assessment procedures used. The next chapter provides analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings in line with the objectives of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an overview of the design and research method employed in the study. The procedure followed to collect, capture, process and analyse the data was provided. Issues relating to reliability and validity were also highlighted.

This chapter concentrates on the findings of the empirical study through an analysis of the results. The Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22.0 for Windows, was used to analyse the data. In order to ensure internal consistency of the instrument, the results of the pilot study are briefly discussed, followed by a discussion of the main study results. Descriptive analysis, correlations and regression analysis were used to present the results. Finally the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument were ascertained.

4.2 PILOT STUDY RESULTS

In establishing the reliability of the pilot questionnaire, a Cronbach alpha coefficient was computed for the 40-item scale. A reliability value of 0.70 is an acceptable reliability coefficient but lower thresholds are often reported in the literature, depending upon the nature and context of the study (Santos 1999:2). Generally, higher reliability coefficients are indicative of satisfactory reliability of a research instrument. The sample of the pilot test consisted of 50 respondents.

The initial questionnaire measuring job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee intention to stay comprised 5-point Likert-scaled items ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The results of the pilot study are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Pilot study reliability statistics

Variable	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Job satisfaction	.826	5
Organisational commitment	.882	20
Intention to stay	.910	5

On examination of the inter-item correlation and alpha coefficients, two items from the initial questionnaire of employee organisational commitment and intention to stay were deleted. The items deleted from the scales are reported in Table 4.

Table 4: Items deleted from the scale

Item	Item description
C4	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one
D5	I am not even planning of looking for a new job

4.3 ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN SURVEY

Of the 250 questionnaires that were distributed, 220 usable questionnaires were returned.

4.3.1 Descriptive statistics of the demographic data

A descriptive analysis of section A is discussed in the foregoing section which consists of the following aspects: age category, gender, qualification, length of service and status of the contract of employment.

4.3.1.1 Age category

Table 5 below presented the frequency of the age group of the respondents and Figure 8 presented these graphically.

Table 5: Categories of age group

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Younger than 20 year	3	1.4	1.4	1.4
20-30 years	110	50.0	50.0	51.4
31-40 years	65	29.5	29.5	80.9
41-50 years	29	13.2	13.2	94.1
51-60 years	10	4.5	4.5	98.6
Above 60 years	3	1.4	1.4	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

4.3.1.1.1 Age category

Figure 7 shows the percentage of respondents based on their reported age categories.

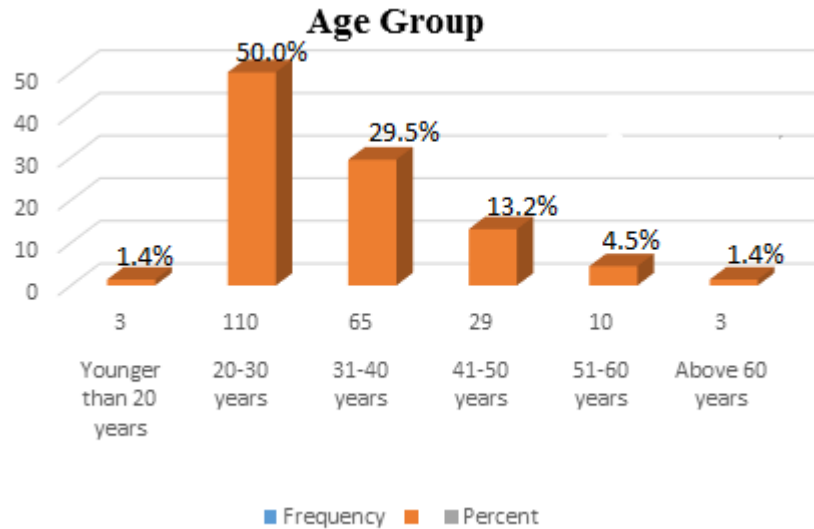


Figure 7: Frequency and percentage of age group

Table 5 and Figure 8 indicated that the majority of the respondents 50% (n = 110) were in the age group 20-30 years, while 29.5% (n=65) were in the age group 31-40 years. Twenty nine respondents 13.2% fall in the age category 41-50 years, and a further 4.5% (n =10) of the respondents were in the age group 51- 60 years. Both younger than 20 years old and above 60 years old got the same respondents rate of 1.4% (n=3). Employing young employees is good for industry, as the industry needs young and energetic people because it is a busy and demanding industry.

4.3.1.2 Gender category

Table 6 below presented the frequency of the gender group of the respondents and Figure 9 presented these graphically.

Table 6: Categories of gender group

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Male	111	50.5	50.5	50.5
Female	109	49.5	49.5	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

4.3.1.2.1 Gender category

Figure 8 shows the percentage of respondents based on their reported gender categories.

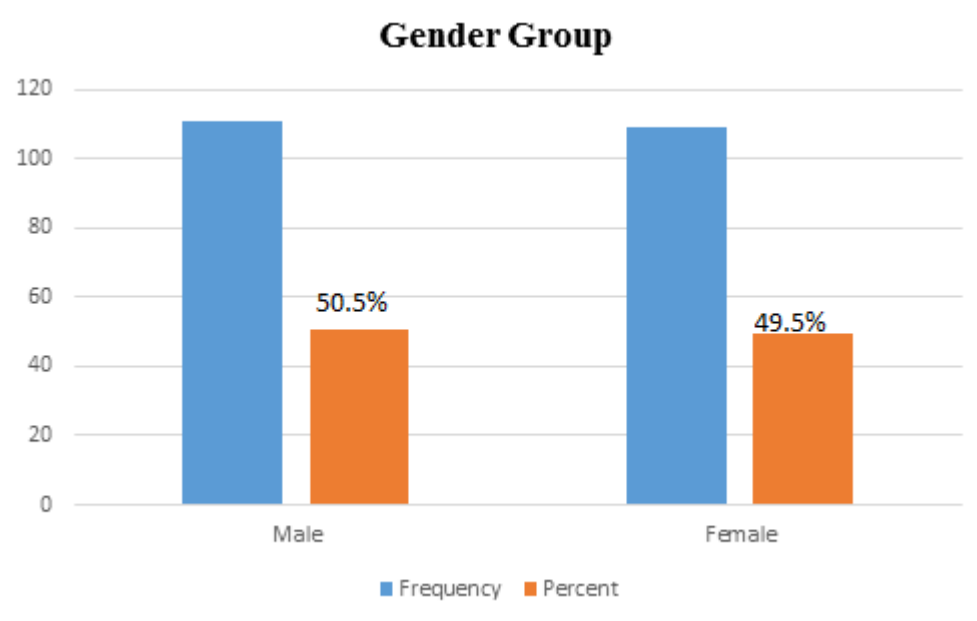


Figure 8: Frequency and percentage of the gender group

Table 6 and Figure 8 above showed that approximately 50.5% (n=111) males and 49.5% (n=109) females participated in the study. This indicated that there was not much gender difference in the employees of this hotel, since the difference was only 1 per cent between males and females.

4.3.1.3 Academic qualification category

Table 7 below presented the frequency of the qualification of the respondents and Figure 9 presented these graphically.

Table 7: Categories of academic qualification

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Less than grade 12	17	7.7	7.7	7.7
Grade 12/ Matric	95	43.2	43.2	50.9
Diploma/Advance certificate	71	32.3	32.3	83.2
Bachelors degree/Btech	28	12.7	12.7	95.9
Honours degree	3	1.4	1.4	97.3
Masters degree	6	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

4.3.1.3.1 Academic qualification category

Figure 9 shows the percentage of respondents based on their reported academic categories.

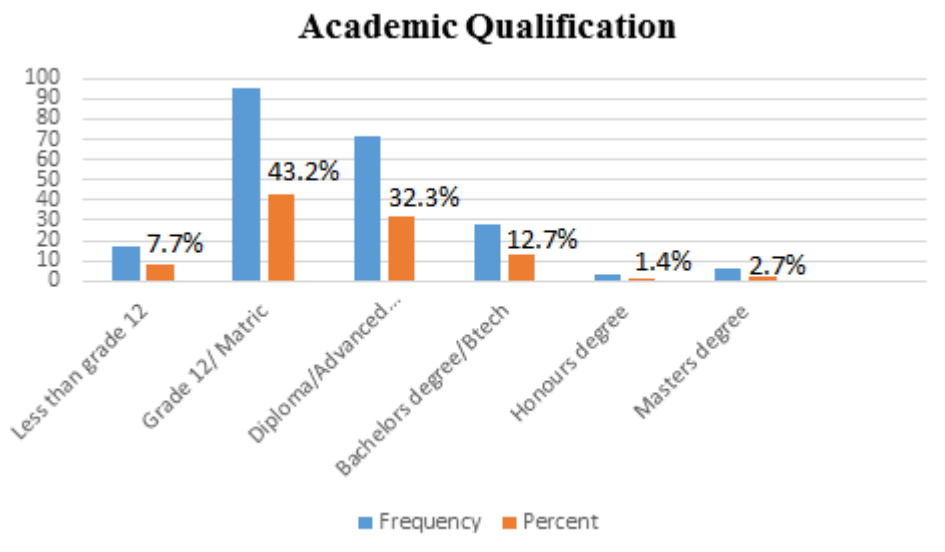


Figure 9: A bar chart showing the frequency of the academic qualification categories in the sample

From Table 7 and Figure 9, it was clear that the majority of employees have grade 12 or matric qualifications with 43.2% (n=95) followed by employees with a diploma or advanced certificate with 32.3% (n=71). Twenty eight respondents 12.7% had Bachelors/Btech degree. Seventeen respondents 7.7% had less than grade 12, while six respondents 2.7% had master's degree and three respondents 1.4% had honours degree. Having many employees with matric is not a problem, since most of the employees work as waiters, waitress, cleaners and food servers.

4.3.1.4 Marital status category

Table 8 below presented the frequency of the marital status of the respondents and figure 10 presented these graphically.

Table 8: Categories of marital status

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Single	97	44.1	44.1	44.1
Married	97	44.1	44.1	44.1
Divorced	14	6.4	6.4	94.5
Widowed	12	5.5	5.5	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

4.3.1.4.1 Marital status category

Figure 10 shows the percentage of respondents based on their reported marital status categories.

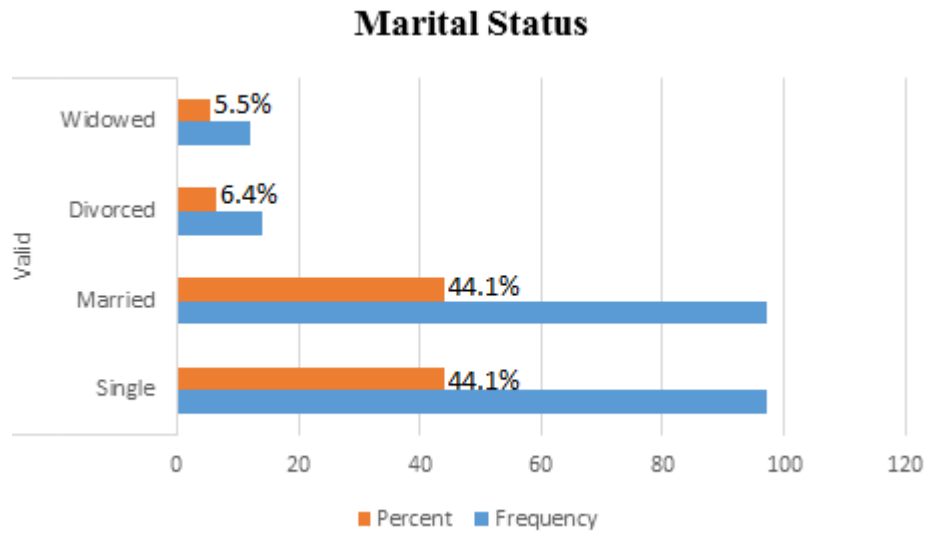


Figure 10: Frequency and percentages of marital status

Figure 10 and Table 8 illustrate that of the 220 respondents who participated, 97 (44.1%) of the respondents were married, 97 (44.1%) were single, and 14 (6.4%) were divorced. Twelve (5.5%) of the respondents were widowed.

4.3.1.5 Experience category

Table 9 below presented the frequency of the marital status of the respondents and Figure 11 presented these graphically.

Table 9: Categories of experience

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Less than 1 year	28	12.7	12.7	12.7
1-10 years	148	67.3	67.3	80.0
11-20 years	31	14.1	14.1	94.1
21-30 years	13	5.9	5.9	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

4.3.1.5.1 Experience category

Figure 11 shows the percentage of respondents based on their reported experience categories.

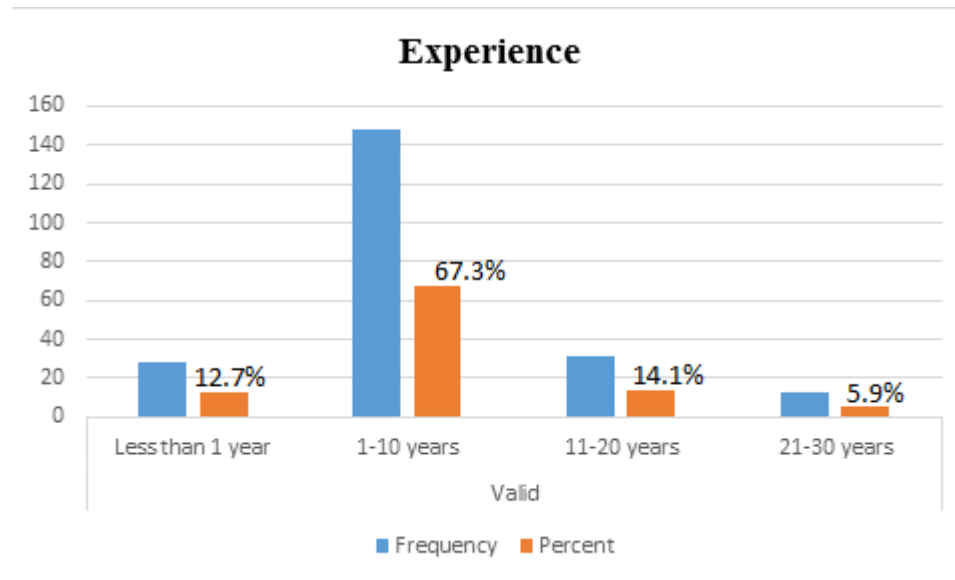


Figure 11: Frequency and percentage of experience

Table 9 and Figure 12, indicate that the majority of the respondents 67.3% (n =148) had 1-10 years of experience. The second biggest group of respondents, 14.1% (n =31) had 11-20 years of experience. A further 28 respondents 12.7% had less than 1 year of experience. Only 5.9% of the respondents (n =13) had 21-30 years of experience.

4.3.1.6 Employment status category

Table 10 below presented the frequency of the employment status of the respondents and Figure 12 presented these graphically.

Table 10: Categories of status of employment

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Indefinite contract (permanent)	51	23.2	23.2	23.2
Fixed contract	51	23.2	23.2	46.4
Temporary contract	118	53.6	53.6	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

4.3.1.6.1 Employment status category

Figure 12 shows the percentage of respondents based on their reported employment status categories.

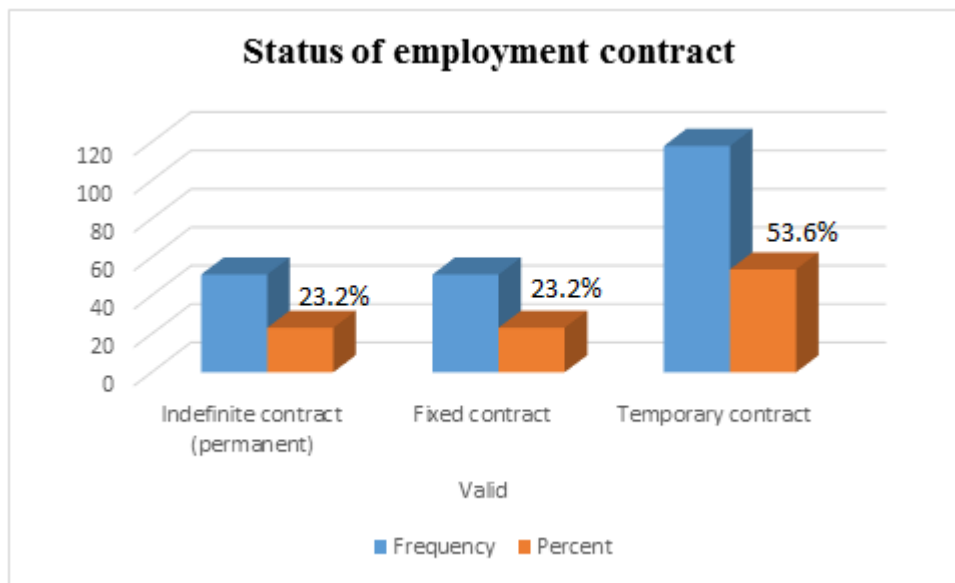


Figure 12: Frequency and percentages of status of employment

With respect to the employment category, the majority of respondents, 53.6% (n =117) are employed on a temporary basis. Only, 23.2% (n =51) of respondents were permanently employed, and a further 23.2% (n =51) were employed on a fixed contract basis.

4.3.1.7 Service department category

Table 11 below presents the frequency of the service department of the respondents and Figure 13 presents these graphically.

Table 11: Categories of service department

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Front office	17	7.7	7.7	7.7
Restaurants	30	13.6	13.6	21.4
Kitchen	35	15.9	15.9	37.3
Bar section	26	11.8	11.8	49.1
Banqueting	22	10.0	10.0	59.1
Room service	14	6.4	6.4	65.5
House-keeping	22	10.0	10.0	75.5
Switchboard/ reservations	13	5.9	5.9	81.4
Others	41	18.6	18.6	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

From Table 11 above and Figure 14 below, it was clear that the majority (15.0%, n=35) of respondents worked in the kitchen and restaurant 13.6 % (n=30). As indicated in Table 7, many employees had matric or grade 12 hence it was understandable why the kitchen and restaurant had many employees. Working in the kitchen does not necessarily require an employee to have qualification unless she or he is a chef, but if she or he is a cook, dishwasher, cleaner or food server, matric is still considered sufficient to work in the kitchen. Also working in the restaurant does not necessarily require an employee to have qualification, as long as the employee has matric.

4.3.1.7.1 Service department

Figure 13 shows the percentage of respondents based on their reported service department categories

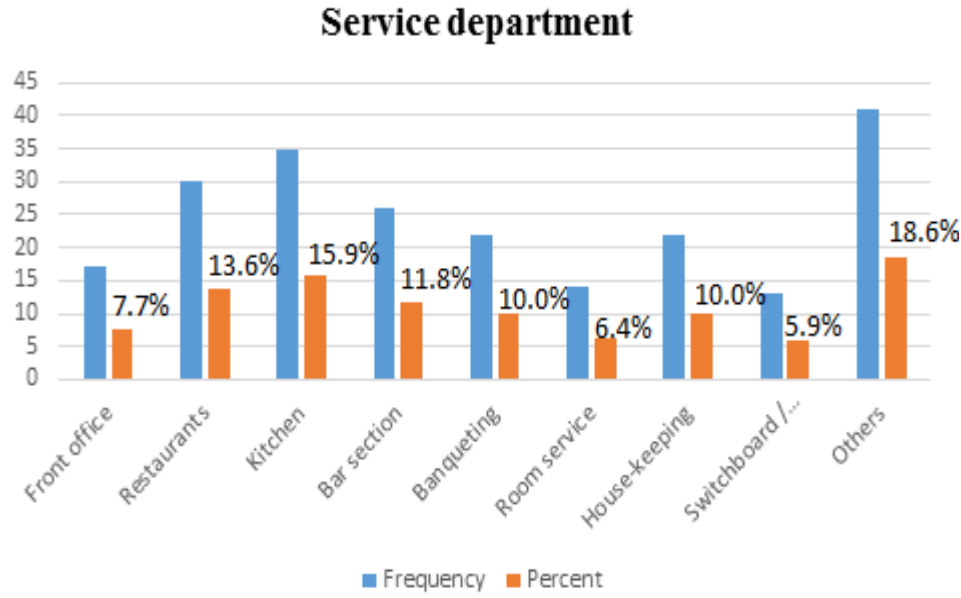


Figure 13: Frequency and percentage of service department

4.3.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations were computed for the various items assessed by the Job Satisfaction (JS), the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and Intention to Stay (ITS). The results were presented in Tables 12, 13 and 14.

4.3.2.1 Results of the job satisfaction questionnaire

Table 12: Means and standard deviations for job satisfaction

Descriptive	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
B1 I definitely like my job	4.3636	.71164	220
B2 I like my job better than the average worker does	3.6818	.76369	220
B3 Most days I am enthusiastic about my job	4.3000	.64885	220
B4 I find real enjoyment in my job	4.4318	.72142	220
B5 I feel fairly well satisfied with my job	4.3045	.72966	220

The arithmetic means for B1, B3, B4 and B5 were all higher than that for B2. Based on these mean scores, it indicated that the majority of the employees in the sample were

satisfied with their work. The majority of respondents definitely liked their jobs (Mean = 4.3636, SD = .71164), most of the days I am enthusiastic about my job (Mean = 4.3000, SD = .64885), I find real enjoyment in my job (Mean = 4.4318, SD = .72142) and I feel fairly well satisfied with my job (Mean = 4.3045, SD = 0.72966) and less satisfied with I like my job better than the average worker does (Mean = 3.6818, SD = .76369). Most of the employees are satisfied with their jobs, although Bull (2005:95) in his study, found that the overall job satisfaction of the employees was relatively low. Masemola (2011:105) also found that the respondents were satisfied with what they do.

4.3.2.2 Results of the organisational commitment questionnaire

Table 13 depicts the arithmetic mean and standard deviation for the organisational commitment of the sample of 220 employees.

Table 13: Results of the organisational commitment questionnaire

ITEMS	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Affective Commitment			
C1 (I am very happy being a member of this organisation)	4.4636	.60707	220
C2 (I enjoy discussing about my organisation with people outside it)	4.2227	.68275	220
C3 (I real feel as if this organisation's problems are my own)	3.5136	.85196	220
C4 (I feel 'part of the family' at my organisation)	4.3455	.78730	220
C5 (I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation)	4.2500	.91972	220
C6 (This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me)	4.1909	.89131	220
C7 (I feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organisation)	4.4682	.71761	220
Continuance Commitment			
C8 (I worry about the loss of investments I have made in this organisation)	4.0273	.91121	220

C9 (If I wasn't a member of this organisation, I would be sad because my life would be disrupted)	3.1955	.98062	220
C10 (I am loyal to this organisation because I have invested a lot in it, emotionally, socially and economically)	4.3500	.84952	220
C11 (I often feel anxious about what I have to lose with this organisation)	4.0136	.75537	220
C12 (Sometimes I worry about what might happen if something was to happen to this organisation and I was no longer a member)	3.3182	.89066	220
C13(I am dedicated to this organisation because I fear what I have to lose in it)	3.9545	.80960	220
Normative Commitment			
C14(I feel that I owe this organisation quite a bit because of what it has done for me)	4.3364	.85236	220
C15 (My organisation deserves my loyalty because of its treatment towards me)	4.3000	.68313	220
C16 (I feel I would be letting my co-workers down if I wasn't a member of this organisation)	3.6500	.83324	220
C17 (I am loyal to this organisation because my values are largely its values)	4.3273	.80647	220
C18 (This organisation has a mission that I believe in and am committed to)	4.4182	.80955	220
C19 (I feel it is 'morally correct' to dedicate myself to this organisation)	4.3636	.67880	220

Table 13 above indicates that the majority of the respondents were committed to their organisation. The respondents in general had affective commitment towards their organisation. However, C3 had the lowest mean score from the other items (mean = 3.5136; SD = .85196), meaning that substantial number of employees did not feel as if their organisation's problems were their own.

Table 13 also indicated that most of the respondents had continuance commitment towards their organisation as in their responses to items (C8, C10 and C11) with the (mean = 4.0273, SD = .91121, mean = 4.3500, SD = .84952 and mean = 4.0136, SD = .75537) respectively. Responses to other items (C9, C12 and C13) show a split with (mean = 3.1955, SD = .98062, mean = 3.3182, SD = .89066 and mean = 3.9545, SD = .80960) respectively, suggesting that some of the respondents were forced by circumstances to stay with the organisation rather than staying voluntarily.

The majority of the respondents had normative commitment towards their organisation as in their responses to items (C14, C15, C17, C18 and C19) (mean = 4.3364, SD = .85236, mean = 4.3000, SD = .68313, mean = 4.3273, SD = .80647, mean = 4.4182, SD = .80955 and mean = 4.3636, SD = .67880) respectively. Although C16 indicated less mean score (mean = 3.6500, SD = .83324), majority of the respondents were committed to their organisation. These findings are in line with those of Bull (2005:97) who found that teachers from disadvantaged schools evidence below average levels of organisational commitment. Given that the teachers' levels of organisational commitment were lower than what constitutes an average level, it can be concluded that respondents display below average belief in the organisation's goals and values, express below average willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and have a below average desire to maintain membership of the organisation. Masemola (2011:106) found that the respondents showed better affective commitment than normative and continuance commitment.

4.3.2.3 Results of intention to stay questionnaire

Table 14 indicated that almost all the employees had the intention to stay with their organisation.

Table 14: Descriptive statistics for intention to stay

Descriptive	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
D1 I will most probably stay in this company in the foreseeable future	4.3182	.84866	220
D2 I will definitely intend to maintain my current relationship with this company	4.4591	.67110	220
D3 I have no intention of leaving this company	4.3864	.81694	220
D4 I want to continue working 5 years from now in my current job	4.2682	.81978	220

The mean for all the items in this section for the employees' intention to stay range from 4.2682 to 4.4591 which was an indication that most employees agree that they will probably stay in this company in the foreseeable future (D1), they definitely intended to maintain their current relationships with their company (D2), and they had no intentions of leaving their company (D3), as they still wanted to continue working five years from now in their current jobs (D4). Employees found it important for them to continue maintaining their future relationships with their current organisation. These findings are consistent with those of Masemola (2011:106) who also found the majority of the respondents from Turfloop campus (73.3%) intended to stay in the institution.

4.3.3 Inferential Statistics

The following section addressed the results obtained for the inferential statistics to ascertain the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to stay, and the relationship between organisational commitment and intention to stay.

4.3.3.1 Correlation analysis

In harmony with the study objectives, it was imperative to examine the relationships between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intentions to stay. Therefore, it was necessary to employ correlations analysis among the mentioned constructs to determine the strength of the underlying relationship. The Pearson correlation coefficient

was used to measure the significance of linear bivariate between the independent and dependent variables in the study (Sekaran 2003). Table 15 reflects that the marked correlations were significant at $p \leq 0.01$.

Table 15: Correlations between constructs

ITEMS	JS	AC	CC	NC	ITS
JS Pearson Correlation	1				
Sig. (2-tailed)					
N	220				
AC Pearson Correlation	.770**	1			
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
N	220	220			
CC Pearson Correlation	.683**	.752**	1		
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000			
N	220	220	220		
NC Pearson Correlation	.698**	.789**	.792**	1	
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		
N	220	220	220	220	
ITS Pearson Correlation	.681**	.725**	.623**	.721**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
N	220	220	220	220	220

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

The results indicated that there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment ($r = 0.770$, $n = 220$, $p < 0.000$). This implies that if employees are satisfied with their jobs, they will stay with the organisation because they want to. However, Bull (2005:90) found a moderate relationship between affective commitment and job satisfaction among teachers from disadvantages school. Job satisfaction and continuance commitment ($r = 0.683$, $n = 220$, $p < 0.000$) and there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment ($r = 0.698$, $n = 220$, $p < 0.000$). Bull (2005:90) also found that there was a significant relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction and also there was a significant relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction and intention to stay also had a significant relationship ($r = 0.681$, $n = 220$, $p < 0.000$). This implies that if the employees are satisfied with their jobs they are likely to be committed to the organisation and stay with their current organisation. Tsai *et al*

(2010:4127) found that job satisfaction influence organisational commitment positively and significantly. Bull (2005:90) reported a significant relationship between total organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

The results also indicated that there was a significant relationship between affective commitment (AC) and continuance commitment (CC) ($r = 0.752$, $n = 220$, $p < 0.000$) and there was also a strong and positive relationship between affective commitment and normative commitment (NC) ($r = 0.789$, $n = 220$, $p < 0.000$). Affective commitment had a positive relationship with intention to stay ($r = 0.725$, $n = 220$, $p < 0.000$). Continuance commitment had a strong and positive relationship with normative commitment ($r = 0.792$, $n = 220$, $p < 0.000$) and there was also a significant relationship between continuance commitment and intentions to stay ($r = 0.623$, $n = 220$, $p < 0.000$). There was a significant relationship between normative commitment and intention to stay ($r = 0.721$, $n = 220$, $p < 0.000$). This study found support in Aref and Aref (2011:490) study where they found that there is a significant relationship between affective commitment and job satisfaction amongst the sample of teachers ($r = 0.546$, $p < 0.01$). There was also a significant relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction ($r = 0.690$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, there was a moderate relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction ($r = 0.345$, $p < 0.05$).

4.3.3.2 Regression analysis

Regression is an equation to predict the dependent variable from several independent variables. Regression analysis is the most widely applied data analysis technique for measuring linear relationships between two or more variables (Kumar, Ramendran & Yacob 2012:21). It was important to establish the strength of predictive relationships between the variables. The regression analysis was used to test three regression models. To test these predictive relationships, job satisfaction and intention to stay were used as dependent variables and continuance commitment, affective commitment, normative commitment and job satisfaction were used as independent variables. The results of the regression analysis are reported below.

4.3.3.2.1 Model 1: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment as predictors of intention to stay

Table 16 presents the regression model summary of intention to stay with affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

Table 16: Regression analysis: Organisational commitment and intention to stay

Model 1: Dependent variable: Intention to stay		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.268	.226		1.186	.237
	Affective Commitment	.504	.089	.415	5.671	.000*
	Continuance Commitment	.016	.076	.016	.212	.833
	Normative Commitment	.454	.090	.399	5.045	.000*
R=.783 ^a R ² = 0.613 Adjusted R ² = 0.607 * significant at p< 0.05						

a. Dependent Variable: ITS

The predictors that were held constant were (independent variables) OC and ITS the dependent variable that was entered into the prediction model. On examination of the relationship between variables, the adjusted $R^2 = 0.607$, indicates that independent variables explained 60.7 % of variance on intention to stay. This implies that 60.7% of intention to stay predicts organisational commitment.

The beta coefficients in table 16 indicate that all three independent variables contribute positively to the prediction of intention to stay. The beta coefficient of ($\beta=0.415$) suggested that there was a strong positive relationship between AC and ITS, followed by NC ($\beta=0.399$), then by CC ($\beta=0.016$) in hotel industry employees. The result from multiple regression analysis in Table 16 indicates that there is significant relationship between affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment on intention to stay. Thus, hypothesis 1 was accepted.

4.3.3.2.2 Model 2: job satisfaction as predictors of affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment

Table 17 presents the regression model summary of job satisfaction with affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

Table 17: Regression analysis: job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Model 2: Dependent : Job satisfaction		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
2	(Constant)	.968	.178		5.435	.000*
	Affective Commitment	.508	.070	.523	7.265	.000*
	Continuance Commitment	.140	.059	.171	2.350	.020
	Normative Commitment	.137	.071	.150	1.930	.055
R=.790 ^a R ² = 0.625 Adjusted R ² = 0.607 * significant at p< 0.05						

a. Dependent Variable: JS

The results of the regression analysis show an R² of 0.625 which implies that 62.5% of the variation of an employee's job satisfaction is explained by affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The beta coefficients in table 17 indicate that all three independent variables, namely affective commitment ($\beta=0.523$), continuance commitment ($\beta=0.171$) and normative commitment ($\beta=0.150$) contributed positively to the prediction of job satisfaction. Affective commitment variable explained most of the variance. This finding indicates that employees' commitment increases the level of their job satisfaction in their organisation. The result from multiple regression analysis in Table 17 indicates that there is significant relationship between affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment on job satisfaction. Thus, hypothesis 2 was accepted. The results were compared to those of Ismail (2012:51) study who found that there was no significant relationship between affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment on job satisfaction, while Aref and Aref

(2011:490) found that there was a significant relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

4.3.3.2.3 Model 3: intention to stay as predictor of job satisfaction

Table 18 presents the regression model summary of intention to stay with job satisfaction.

Table 18: Regression analysis: intention to stay and job satisfaction

Model 3: Intention to stay		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
3	(Constant)	0.733	0.261		2.810	0.005
	Job satisfaction	0.863	0.061	.690	14.069	0.000
R=.690 ^a R ² = 0.476 Adjusted R ² = 0.473 * significant at p< 0.05						

a. Dependent Variable: ITS

The results of the regression analysis show an R² of 0.476 which implies that 47.6% of the variation of an employee's intention to stay can be explained by the impact of job satisfaction. In terms of the beta weights, job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.690$) made the highest contributions in predicting employees' intention to stay with the organisation. These results find support in studies undertaken by Masemola (2011:105) who found that most of the respondents are more satisfied with what they do which lead to the majority of the respondents from Turfloop campus (73.3%) intending to stay in the institution. The result from multiple regression analysis in Table 18 indicates that there is significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to stay. Thus, hypothesis 3 was accepted.

4.3.3.3 Results of the reliability analysis

The reliability tests were employed to test the initial consistency of the study. The measurement was employed to make sure that the developed factors will measure consistently the items intended to be measured. As a result, Cronbach's alpha coefficient for job satisfaction was 0.813, for organisational commitment was 0.937 and for the intention to stay was 0.827. The reliability values for all variables were satisfactory as they were above the benchmark level of 0.70 (Zikmund & Babin 2007:320). Table 19 illustrates the reliability of the study:

Table 19: Reliability results

Dimension description/ construct	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha (a)
Section B Job satisfaction	5	0.813
Section C Organisational commitment	19	0.937
Section D Intention to stay	4	0.827

4.3.3.4 Results of validity analysis

Validity is arguably the most important criteria for the quality of a test. Different forms of research validity were assessed using a variety of measures. The following sections highlighted the types of research validity and the assessment techniques which were applied to justify the findings of this study.

4.3.3.4.1 Content validity

Content validity was conducted in the pilot study for which 50 respondents were chosen to participate. The inter-item correlation was examined in order to identify low or negative correlations among variables. Subsequently, changes were made to the questionnaire where two items were deleted from organisational commitment and intention to stay.

4.3.3.4.2 Convergent validity

For the purpose of this study, Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to assess convergent validity for statistical significance and to measure the degree of linear association of three variables. Correlation ranges from -1.00 to +1.00. In order to establish the convergent validity, variables were grouped in the same order in which they appeared in the questionnaire. A -1 indicates perfect linear negative relationship between three variables and +1 indicates perfect positive linear relationship and 0 indicates lack of any linear relationship (Nikoloski *et al.*, 2005: 240-241). Five items comprised job satisfaction variables, nineteen items made up the organisational commitment variables and five items

made up intention to stay variables. The significance test was run at $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$ levels of significance.

4.3.3.4.3 Predictive validity

Predictive validity was assessed using regression analysis. The three variables were used. Significant causal relationships were found among the variables, thus providing evidence of predictive validity (refer to tables 16, 17 and 18).

4.4 SYNOPSIS

The research framework was adequate to address the objectives of the study. Its implementation delivered valuable bases for future research and contributed to the development of useful theoretical bases to establish job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay. The study employed a pilot test to test its reliability. Out of the 30 items on the initial questionnaire, 2 items were deleted and 28 items were retained.

Pearson correlation coefficients were undertaken for measuring the degree of linear association between the three variables: job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to assess the internal consistency of the instrument. Convergent and predictive validity were applied to measure the degree of validity of the instrument. In the final chapter conclusions, limitations, recommendations and implications for future research originating from the study are discussed.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter reported on the results and analysis of empirical findings of the study. The pilot study and main study results were reported and analysed. The reliability, validity and regression analyses were undertaken. Figures and tables were utilised to report on the empirical findings. This chapter focuses on the evaluation of the major findings of the research in order to draw conclusions. Recommendations, limitations and implications for future research are also provided.

5.2 REVIEW OF OBJECTIVES

The main purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay at an international hotel in Lesotho. In order to achieve this objective, the variables: JS, OC and ITS were thoroughly investigated. The relationship between JS, OC and ITS were also investigated. Based on the results of this study, a number of conclusions are drawn. The theoretical and empirical objectives are revisited in the next section in order to illustrate their attainment within the framework of the study.

5.2.1 Theoretical objectives

The theoretical objectives for this study were achieved in chapter two through analysis of relevant literature as explained below:

Objective 1: Conduct a literature review on job satisfaction

This objective was addressed in sections 2.2, 2.2.1, 2.2.2 and 2.2.3. A thorough literature review was undertaken on job satisfaction, theories of job satisfaction and factors influencing job satisfaction. When satisfaction was measured at a broader level, it was found that the organisations with more satisfied workers are more effective than those with less satisfied workers. It was also found that job satisfaction theories are categorised into either content theories or process theories. Content theories are based on various factors

which influence job satisfaction. Process theories, on the other hand, take into account the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values, and comparisons interact with the job to produce job satisfaction. In accordance with the literature, several factors which influence job satisfaction were identified.

Objective 2: Carry out a review of the literature on organisational commitment

This objective was addressed in sections 2.3, 2.3.1 and 2.3.2. The examination of literature on organisational commitment has revealed that this concept has emerged as an important construct in organisational research. According to Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982:606), people who are committed are more likely to stay in an organisation and work towards the organisation's goals. Steers (1977:49) indicates that organisational commitment is a useful tool to measure organisational effectiveness.

Objective 3: Conduct a literature review on employees' intention to stay

This objective was addressed in sections 2.4, 2.4.1 and 2.4.2. A thorough literature review was undertaken on employees' intention to stay. The literature has indicated that the traditional perspective of why people stay on a job includes the factors from the turnover research (e.g., satisfied with job or no alternatives), plus other attitudes or affective reactions (positive feelings) about the job, including organisational commitment and perceived organisational support. If employees like their jobs, are committed to their organisation, and believe the organisation also is committed to them, they stay. According to (Taylor 2002:28), the research has revealed that for employees to stay in the organisation, they need to feel that their contributions to the organisation are valued. To keep employees in the company, they need to feel part of the organisation.

Objective 4: Conduct a literature review on the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay

This objective was addressed in sections 2.5, 2.5.1, 2.5.2 and 5.5.3. The relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay had been reviewed. It was found that there is no doubt that job satisfaction leads to organisational commitment and that job satisfaction has been recognised as a component of

organisational commitment (Sharma & Bajpai 2011:70). A committed employee is one that will stay with the organisation and the literature review has proved that committed employees stay with the organisation for a longer period of time than those who are less committed (Brum 2007:2). The literature has also revealed that when employees are satisfied at work, they become committed which in turn may lead to the intention to stay with the organisation and that there is a relationship between employees' job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay.

5.2.2 Empirical objectives

5.2.2.1 To determine the level of job satisfaction of employees in the hotel

With reference to this empirical objective, conclusions are drawn based on the findings in section 4.3.2.1 of this study. The results demonstrate that the majority of the employees in the sample are satisfied with their work. The mean obtained in section 4.3.2.1 when analysing the participants' responses established that individuals definitely like their jobs. The respondents were found to have high levels of job satisfaction while Bull (2005:95) found that the results indicate the mean for the total job satisfaction of the sample is 113.234 with a standard deviation of 14.320. In terms of the JDI, an average level of job satisfaction, is indicated by approximately 144. Hence, it may be concluded that the overall job satisfaction of the sample is relatively low.

5.2.2.2 To determine the degree of organisational commitment of employees

This objective was achieved in section 4.3.2.2, where dimensions of organisational commitment were extracted. Organisational commitment was measured by utilising three constructs, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. The results demonstrate that three dimensions exist upon which employees base their commitment to their organisations in relation to the degree at which they are committed to their organisation. Bull (2005:97) found that the results indicate that teachers from disadvantaged schools display below average levels of organisational commitment. Given that the teachers' levels of organisational commitment was lower than that which constitutes an average level, it can be concluded that respondents display below average belief in the organisation's goals and values, express below average willingness to exert considerable

effort on behalf of the organisation, and have a below average desire to maintain membership of the organisation.

5.2.2.3 To determine the level of employees' intention to stay in the organisation

This objective was achieved in section 4.3.2.3 (refer to table 14) where the results showed almost all the employees have the intention to stay with their organisations. The mean for all the items in this section for the employees' intention to stay range from 4.2682 to 4.4591 which is an indication that most employees agree that they will probably stay in this company in the foreseeable future (D1), they definitely intend to maintain their current relationships with their company (D2), and they have no intentions of leaving their company (D3), as they still want to continue working five years from now in their current jobs (D4). Masemola (2011:106) found that The majority of the respondents from Turfloop campus (73.3%) intended to stay in the institution while all respondents from Medunsa intended to leave the institution at some point.

5.2.2.4 To determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Sections 4.3.3.1 and 4.3.3.2.2 (refer to tables 15 & 17) referred to this objective where job satisfaction was correlated with organisational commitment. Job satisfaction has a significant correlation with organisational commitment. Regression analysis reported that organisational commitment is a significant predictor of job satisfaction with beta coefficient of satisfaction ($\beta = 0.523$) which suggests that there is a strong positive relationship between AC and JS. There is also a positive relationship between CC and job satisfaction and there is a relationship between NC and job satisfaction, although the relationship is not strong. Bull (2005:111) also found that the results indicate that there is a moderate relationship between affective commitment and job satisfaction amongst the sample of teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape. There was also a significant relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction. Moreover, there was a significant relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction. There was also a statically significant relationship between total organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

5.2.2.5 To determine the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to stay

This objective was also achieved by section 4.3.3.1 and section 4.3.3.2.3 (refer to table 15 and 18) where job satisfaction was correlated with intention to stay. Job satisfaction has a significant correlation with intention to stay. Regression analysis also showed that intention to stay is a significant predictor of job satisfaction and there is a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and intention to stay with beta coefficient ($\beta = 0.690$). Many studies conducted in different settings found a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and intention to stay. Rahman, Naqvim and Ramay (2008:48) found that job satisfaction had a negative effect on turnover intentions of IT professionals.

5.2.2.6 To determine the relationship between organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay

This objective was achieved in sections 4.3.3.1 and 4.3.3.2.1 (refer to table 15 & 16). Organisational commitment (AC, NC & CC) was significantly correlated with intention to stay. Saporna and Claveria (2013:3) found that no relationship exists between organisational commitment and turnover intentions. This only proves that commitment will not keep employees in the organisation. With this, the results can be used by the hotel owners as a basis in their human resource planning. Employees who are satisfied with their jobs are most likely to be happy, productive and committed and dedicated to their work.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study and a review of relevant literature, several recommendations are made for hotel management. The findings of this research indicate that the hotel management needs to develop strategies to deal with the needs of those employees who experience lower levels of organisational commitment (specifically CC and NC). When the categories of status of employment are considered, it is evident that most of the employees are employed on temporary contract (53%). Although, this has not affected employees' JS, OC and ITS now, it will in the future. Proactive attention to this should demonstrate a preparedness on the side of the hotel management to address employees' concerns and thereby absorb some of the employees working on temporary contract to

increase organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to stay amongst employees.

For any organisation the most important challenge is to retain the talented work force and in order to retain the talented work force it is recommended that the management need to identify what will satisfy the employees. The most important satisfying factors for hotel employees are to employ a work force on permanent contracts, with promotion/growth potential and appreciation for work executed. The findings of this study provide valuable insights for the management to create a satisfied and committed workforce.

The management should try as much as possible to give constant attention to matters that can enhance job satisfaction. This is necessary because frustrated staff who had been very committed for a long time in carrying out his or her duties can be involved in strikes to demonstrate his or her dissatisfaction which can cause huge problems for the organisation. For example, if the hotel employees go on strike, this means that there will be no guests in the hotel, which means a loss of business for the organisation. Schneider and Bowen (1985:429) found that those employees who describe their work more positively were less likely to resign.

There is a significant positive correlation of job satisfaction with affective commitment and normative commitment, and a positive correlation with continuance commitment. An employee who is affectively committed, strongly identifies with the goals of the organisation and desires to remain a part of the organisation. This employee commits to the organisation because he or she 'wants to'. As there is a high correlation between job satisfaction and affective commitment, organisation should concentrate on developing affective commitment-oriented organisation policies.

5.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

The research examined whether or not a relationship exists between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay in an international hotel and the results do suggest that such a relationship indeed exists in an international hotel in

Lesotho. It is recommended that the same research methodology be extended to other hotels in Lesotho to support the reliability and validity of these results.

This study was able to prove that there is a relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay, but the researcher would encourage further research to explore the relationship between these constructs and engagement and productivity as well. It would be constructive to conduct longitudinal studies to overcome the limitations discussed. Longitudinal research will yield data that could provide useful insights into, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intentions to stay literature. It would enable stronger causal predictions to be made in the employees' intentions to stay process. Future studies should consider incorporating other predictors of intention to stay. This is because intention to stay is attributed to many factors, not limited to job satisfaction and organisational commitment only. There may be other situational as well as personal predictors of intention to stay that should be scrutinized in future studies.

5.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There were several limitations in this study. First of all, due to the study being carried out at one hotel, there might be large differences in the perception of employees from other hotels in other districts. This might cause the result to be less accurate. The sample size in this study was relatively small and could decrease the degree of accuracy of this study. No management members were interviewed or responded to the distributed questionnaire. Therefore, there was no representation of management in the study. The final limitation is the reliance on self-reported questionnaire data. With the use of self-reported questionnaires, it is impossible to control respondent behaviour and the opportunity to clarify uncertainties is also lost, which may result in the validity of the data being compromised (Rossouw 2003:129).

5.6 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

This study advances knowledge regarding the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay at an international hotel in Lesotho. The information gathered through this research may assist in the establishment of

an optimal mix of motivating or job satisfaction factors that will aid in retaining current employees. In addition, the findings of this study may assist management in creating a desirable working environment for existing and new employees. This research also serves as reference material for the rest of the organisation, both nationally and internationally, as well as similar organisations.

5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study examined the level of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and employees' intention to stay at an international hotel in Lesotho. Also investigated were the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' intention to stay. The intention was to explore whether job satisfaction and organisational commitment are significant variables in securing an intention to stay among employees in the hotel industry.

From the research, it is clear that these concepts do not exist in isolation but are closely related. Employees are not committed to the organisation by a single dimension of organisational commitment and are not satisfied with their jobs simply by experiencing satisfaction with only one aspect of their job. Rather, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are the results of a combination of several different elements.

The findings of this research may improve organisations' awareness of the assistance of work environments with regard to job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay. The challenge is to find the optimum combination of these elements in order to ensure satisfied employees. Having achieved this, organisations will be able to retain their most valued employees.

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APPENDIX A

INVITATION LETTER

Box 23988
Penelope Street
Bedworth Park 1940

17 October 2013

Dear participant:

My name is Mankhabe Peete and I am a postgraduate student at Vaal University of technology studying towards Magister Technologiae: Business Administration. As a part of my studies, I am conducting an academic research project titled, *Employees' job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay at an international hotel in Lesotho*.

I am inviting you to participate in this research study by anonymously completing the attached questionnaire. This questionnaire consists of four sections and the completion of the questionnaire will take approximately 10 minutes. Your anonymity will be maintained and the results of this study will remain absolutely confidential. Please do not write your name anywhere on the questionnaire. On completion of the research a copy of completed research report will be made available to you upon request. You have the option to terminate your voluntary participation at any time. If you have any queries concerning the nature of this research or you are unclear about any question please contact me at peetemankhabe@yahoo.com or (+27)735994704.

Thank you for your kind consideration and participation in this research project. I deeply appreciate your contribution.

Sincerely,

Ms Peete

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS

Please fill in the appropriate block by means of cross (x).

A1. Please indicate your age group. [In complete years]

Younger than 20	1
20 – 30	2
31 – 40	3
41 – 50	4
51 – 60	5
Above 60	6

A2. Please indicate your gender?

Male	1	Female	2
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A3. What is your highest academic qualification?

Less than Grade 12	1
Grade 12/ Matric	2
Diploma	3
Bachelors degree/ B Tech	4
Honours degree	5
Masters degree	6
Doctorate	7

A4. What is your marital status?

Single	1
Married	2
Divorced	3
Widowed	4

A5. How many complete years have you been working for this hotel?

Less than one year	1
1 – 10 years	2
11 – 20 years	3
21 – 30 years	4
More than 30 years	8

A6. What is the current status of your contract of employment?

Indefinite contract (permanent)	1
Fixed term contract	2
Temporary/casual	3

A7. Under which category of service are you employed at the hotel?

Front office	1
Restaurant	2
Kitchen	3
Bar	4
Banqueting	5
Room service	6
House keeping	7
Switchboard	8
Others	9

SECTION B: JOB SATISFACTION

This part of the questionnaire is designed to measure the extent to which you are satisfied/dissatisfied with your job. You are requested to make a cross (x) in the appropriate block.

In my current job, this is how I feel about		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
B1	I definitely like my job	1	2	3	4	5
B2	I like my job better than the average worker does	1	2	3	4	5
B3	Most days I am enthusiastic about my job	1	2	3	4	5
B4	I find real enjoyment in my job	1	2	3	4	5
B5	I feel fairly well satisfied with my job	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: EMPLOYEE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The following statements describe the level of commitment you have to your organisation. Choose the single answer that best describes the commitment you have to your organisation. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by ticking (X) on the appropriate number.

Affective Commitment		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
C1	I am very happy being a member of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C2	I enjoy discussing about my organisation with people outside it	1	2	3	4	5
C3	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
C4	I feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C5	I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C6	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
C7	I feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
<hr/>						
Continuance Commitment		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
C8	I worry about the loss of investments I have made in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C9	If I wasn't a member of this organisation, I would be sad because my life would be disrupted	1	2	3	4	5
C10	I am loyal to this organisation because I have invested a lot in it, emotionally, socially, and economically	1	2	3	4	5
C11	I often feel anxious about what I have to lose with this organisation	1	2	3	4	5

C12	Sometimes I worry about what might happen if something was to happen to this organisation and I was no longer a member	1	2	3	4	5
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C13	I am dedicated to this organisation because I fear what I have to lose in it	1	2	3	4	5
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Normative Commitment		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
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C14	I feel that I owe this organisation quite a bit because of what it has done for me	1	2	3	4	5
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C15	My organisation deserves my loyalty because of its treatment towards me	1	2	3	4	5
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C16	I feel I would be letting my co-workers down if I wasn't a member of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
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C17	I am loyal to this organisation because my values are largely its values	1	2	3	4	5
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C18	This organisation has a mission that I believe in and am committed to	1	2	3	4	5
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C19	I feel it is 'morally correct' to dedicate myself to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
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SECTION D: INTENTION TO STAY

I would like to find out a little more about your intentions to stay in your current job. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 5 (Strongly agree).

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
D1	I will most probably stay in this company for the foreseeable future.	1	2	3	4	5
D2	I will definitely intend to maintain my current relationship with this company.	1	2	3	4	5
D3	I have no intention of leaving this company.	1	2	3	4	5
D4	I want to continue working 5 years from now in my current job.	1	2	3	4	5
D5	I am not even planning of looking for a new job	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your participation. The time that you have taken to complete this questionnaire is much appreciated.