

**THE EFFECT OF JOB SATISFACTION ON THE  
ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT OF ADMINISTRATORS AT A  
UNIVERSITY IN GAUTENG**



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Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

**MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE**

in the discipline of

**BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION**

in the

**FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES**

in the department of

**HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

of the

**VAAAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**

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September 2016

Vanderbijlpark

## DECLARATION

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

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

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## **DEDICATION**

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This dissertation is dedicated to my son, Nthole Thabane, for his patience while I spent time away completing this study. May this achievement be an example that with hard work, dedication and perseverance, anything is possible. This work is also dedicated to my mother, Mtsabile Regina Kgomo, for all her unconditional love, support and encouragement. Ultimately, you are responsible for my successes in life.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

---

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to the following people for the valued support they offered me towards the completion of this dissertation:

- To God, the Almighty, thank you Lord for the wisdom, grace and strength I needed to make this dream a reality.
- My husband, Selimo Thabane, for all his unwavering support, motivation, love, and understanding.
- My sincere appreciation goes to my supervisor, Dr. Patrick Radebe, for the advice, guidance and support. The completion of this dissertation would not have been possible without his valuable input and expertise.
- To my co-supervisor, Prof. Roy Dhurup, for his contribution, feedback and assistance, particularly with the statistical aspect of the study.
- Ms. Linda Scott for assisting with the language editing of the dissertation.
- Ms. Aldine Oosthuyzen for helping with the technical editing of the document.
- To my friend and colleague, Thembi Motaung, thank you for walking this journey with me. I am profoundly grateful for all your help and encouragement throughout this journey.
- To my uncle, Lethunya Makume, thank you for always believing in me and for inspiring me to always dream big.
- Finally, my sincere gratitude to my family, friends and colleagues for all the support and encouragement.

## ABSTRACT

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**Key words:** job satisfaction, organisational commitment, higher education, university, administrative staff members

Administrative staff members are important human capital in higher education because they perform diverse duties that are essential to the day-to-day operations of universities. As a result, their job satisfaction and organisational commitment are imperative to universities. However, there is a paucity of research focusing on the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of administrative staff members in the South African higher education sector. The primary objective of this study was to investigate the effect of overall job satisfaction on the organisational commitment of administrators at a university in Gauteng.

To achieve the aforementioned objective, a quantitative survey approach was used to examine the relationship between overall job satisfaction and organisational commitment among 383 administrative staff members. Descriptive statistics was used to determine the levels of both job satisfaction and organisational commitment, results of which were significant, revealing that the administrative staff members were satisfied and committed to the university. Statistics using Spearman's *rho* correlation analysis showed that there was a significantly strong correlation between job satisfaction and affective commitment; and significantly moderate correlations between job satisfaction and moral imperative and indebted obligation. However, weak correlations were found between job satisfaction and continuance commitment. Regression analysis revealed that job satisfaction contributed positively to the prediction of affective commitment, moral imperative, indebted obligation and continuance commitment.

The findings suggest that managers at the university could enhance the commitment of the administrative staff members by increasing the levels of job satisfaction. The levels of job satisfaction of the administrative staff members at the university could be enhanced through job design, career advancement opportunities and the introduction of fair and transparent policies and rules. Organisational commitment could be improved through the provision of job security, equitable salaries and conducive working conditions.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS

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<b>BCEA:</b>	Basic Conditions of Employment Act
<b>HE:</b>	Higher education
<b>KMO:</b>	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
<b>PCA:</b>	Principal component analysis
<b>SPSS:</b>	Statistical Package for Social Sciences



# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

---

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been important focus areas of research over the past two decades. The international and national literature constantly reflect on the role and significance of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in organisations, including institutions of higher education (HE) (Kipkebut 2010:12; Sonia 2010:11; Celik 2011:141; Masemola 2011:5-6). The popularity of the concepts stems from the relationship they have with several important employee behaviours such as tardiness, low productivity, absenteeism and turnover (Aydogdu & Asikgil 2011:44-45). These concepts have also been linked with positive behaviours such as job performance, increased motivation, improved productivity and organisational effectiveness (Bull 2005:13; Kipkebut 2010:1).

Armstrong (2006:264) defines job satisfaction as “the attitudes and feelings people have about their work”. It is the extent to which a worker is content with the rewards received from the job. When employees have positive and favourable attitudes towards their jobs, they tend to be more satisfied. On the contrary, negative and unfavourable attitudes towards the job may lead to job dissatisfaction (Statt 2004:78).

Organisational commitment is the degree to which an employee identifies with the organisation and desires to continue to participate actively and contribute to the organisation’s success (Newstrom & Davis 1996:211); it is the extent to which an individual identifies with an employing organisation and its goals (Bergh & Theron 2006:178).

Although there is increasing interest in job satisfaction and organisational commitment in HE (Kipkebut 2010:76), the review of the related literature has led to the identification of the gap that exists in studies conducted relating to these variables, specifically in the context of administrative staff members at South African HE institutions. Consequently, this study aims to investigate the effect of job satisfaction on organisational commitment in the context of administrative staff members at a university in Gauteng.

## **1.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW**

The current research study is premised on theoretical frameworks such as the Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction, Becker's side-bet theory and Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organisational commitment. These research frameworks are embedded in human behaviour studies that have been conducted by researchers in the past (Becker 1960:32-42; Bull 2005:28-31; Luddy 2005:22-29; Maniram 2007:16-18; Van Stuyvesant Meijen 2007:56-59; Mguqulwa 2008:23-24; Kipkebut 2010:60-66; Ramasodi 2010:8-10).

With regard to job satisfaction, several theories have been used by researchers to explain the concept. These include Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954), Herzberg's two-factor theory (1959) and McGregor's theory X and Y (1960) amongst others. Herzberg's two-factor theory focuses on factors that are responsible for job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction (Maniram 2007:17). The two dimensions are known as hygiene factors and motivator factors that drive people towards achievement (Luddy 2005:29). The hygiene factors, also known as extrinsic factors, include better rewards, better supervision, good working conditions, job security, and consistent company policies. They prevent dissatisfaction, but they do not necessarily lead to satisfaction (Ramasodi 2010:9). The motivator factors, also known as intrinsic factors, include positive job opportunities such as achievement, responsibility, growth, work itself, and recognition. These factors influence the level of satisfaction (Ramasodi 2010:10).

Organisational commitment has been theorised by numerous researchers over past decades (Becker 1960:32-42; Mowday, Porter & Steers 1982:26-27; Meyer & Allen 1984:372-378). As a result, researchers have used different approaches and theories to explain and measure organisational commitment. These include, but are not limited to, the side-bet theory, social exchange theory, attitudinal approach and behavioural approach (Van Stuyvesant Meijen 2007:56-59; Kipkebut 2010:60-66).

Becker's side-bet theory posits that commitment in general is a disposition to engage in "consistent lines of activity" as a result of the accumulation of "side-bets" that would be lost if the activity were discontinued (Becker 1960:33). Side-bets generally refer to anything of value or investments such as time, effort, money and pension fund benefits. It

is the perceived threat of loss that commits a person to the organisation, aggravated by a perceived lack of alternatives to replace or make up for the lost investments (Meyer & Allen 1984:373). In Meyer and Allen's three-component model, this view of commitment is labelled as continuance commitment.

Mowday *et al.* (1982:27) then theorised organisational commitment as attitudinal. This approach perceives commitment as an employee's psychological attachment to the organisation. Mowday *et al.* (1982:27) characterised attitudinal commitment by three related factors, namely: "(i) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (ii) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (iii) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation". This theory is referred to as affective and normative commitment in Meyer and Allen's three-component model.

### **1.2.1 Job satisfaction**

Research studies on job satisfaction consistently observe that personal factors such as an individual's needs and aspirations, along with group and organisational factors such as relationships with co-workers, supervisors, working conditions, work policies, and compensation, determine one's attitude towards his or her job. (Griffin & Moorhead 2012:76). Other personal factors such as age, health, length of job experience, emotional stability, social status, leisure activities, and family and other social relationships, have also been shown to influence job satisfaction (Kipkebut 2010:84-88).

Vecchio (2003:267) classifies sources of job satisfaction into two categories, namely the intrinsic and extrinsic components. Intrinsic sources originate from within the individual and have psychological value. This type of satisfaction is essentially self-administered. In contrast, extrinsic sources of job satisfaction originate from outside the individual; they come from his or her environment, and are usually forces beyond the individual's control. Hitt, Miller and Colella (2009:164) posit that organisations need to be concerned with the job satisfaction of their employees, because job satisfaction is linked to many important behaviours, including organisational citizenship behaviour, absenteeism, turnover and organisational commitment. For the organisation, job satisfaction of its workers must translate to a motivated and committed workforce in order to generate high quality performance of employees.

## **1.2.2 Organisational commitment**

Organisational commitment is an employee's strong belief in and acceptance of an organisation's goals and values, the effort to reach these goals and objectives on behalf of the organisation, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Mayer & Schoorman 1998:21). Organisational commitment is an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Adekola's (2012:2) view on organisational commitment concurs with this definition, that it is a feeling of dedication to one's organisation, the willingness to work hard for that employer, and the intent to remain with the organisation.

A review of the literature demonstrates that organisational commitment generally is considered a multidimensional construct, which comprises the dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen 1997:16; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky 2002:21; Bagraim 2003:6; Boehman 2006:22). Adekola (2012:3) and Hartman (2000:97) describe affective commitment as an employee's emotional attachment to the organisation. Affectively committed employees are seen as having a sense of belonging and identification that increases their involvement in the organisation's activities, their willingness to pursue the organisation's goals, and their desire to remain in the organisation (Rhoades, Eiseinberger & Armeli 2001:825). Continuance commitment is characterised by a more rational analysis of the costs of staying versus those of leaving the organisation. The potential costs of leaving an organisation include the threat of wasting the time and effort spent acquiring non-transferable skills, losing attractive benefits, giving up seniority-based privileges, or having to uproot family and disrupt personal relationships. Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to (Coetzee 2005:55).

Normative commitment is a sense of moral obligation to stay with the organisation (Adekola 2012:3). It requires a feeling of moral obligation to continue working for a particular organisation. Therefore, reasons such as a feeling of indebtedness, the need for reciprocity or organisational socialisation may result in normatively committed employees feeling that they ought to remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen 1991:65; Coetzee 2005:55).

Meyer *et al.* (2002:32) state that the main difference between organisational commitment and job satisfaction is that, while organisational commitment can be defined as the emotional responses, which an employee has towards the organisation, job satisfaction is the response that an employee has towards the job. These two variables are considered highly interrelated. In other words, while an employee has positive feelings towards the organisation, its values and objectives, it is possible for that employee to be dissatisfied with that job within an organisation.

### **1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Research on job satisfaction and organisational commitment in HE has been undertaken by numerous researchers over the past decades (Martin & Roodt 2008:23-31; Masemola 2011:104-111; Ismail 2012:44-51; Verret 2012:57-74). However, there has been limited research focusing on the effect that job satisfaction has on the organisational commitment of administrative staff members at HE institutions. Administrative staff members face the challenge of withstanding and surviving the changes in the modern office. These changes and challenges can be seen in innovation and invention pertaining to equipment, furniture, form designs, nomenclature, environment, technology, attitudes, dress, responsibilities, training, skill, ability and knowledge (Onifade 2010:39).

As the HE sector continues to evolve, job satisfaction and organisational commitment have become critical (Kipkebut 2010:1). HE institutions face an increasing number of obstacles in the changing global environment. Some of the challenges that must be considered by the management of these institutions include the availability and subsequent management of human resources (Strydom 2011:15).

A study conducted by the Blueprint for the Secretarial and Office Administration Profession (2001:20) found that administrative staff members leave the profession for various reasons, amongst which are:

- Frustration at lack of opportunities
- Limited scope and responsibilities
- Lack of promotion opportunities
- Salaries that do not match the responsibilities

- Unhappy working conditions
- Lack of recognition
- Work no longer satisfying
- Colleagues/supervisors hindering progress
- New qualification acquired.

Over the past 10 years, South African HE institutions have experienced a high turnover of administrative staff (Netswera, Rankhumise & Mavundla 2005:37). The university in this study is no exception to this problem. Information gathered from the university's Human Resources Department and Institutional Planning Unit indicated that, between 2005 and 2013, the university recorded a high administrative staff turnover rate of 14.6 percent. This had affected the university negatively in terms of replacement costs and disrupted work.

## **1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

### **1.4.1 Primary objective**

The primary objective of the study was to investigate the effect of overall job satisfaction on the organisational commitment of administrators at a university in Gauteng.

### **1.4.2 Theoretical objectives**

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives were developed:

- To conduct a literature synthesis on job satisfaction and the underlying theories of job satisfaction
- To carry out a literature review on organisational commitment and the underlying theories relating to organisational commitment
- To examine the literature on the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

### **1.4.3 Empirical objectives**

The following empirical objectives were formulated to support the primary and theoretical objectives:

- To determine the level of overall job satisfaction of administrators at a university
- To establish the level of organisational commitment of administrators at a university
- To examine the relationship between overall job satisfaction and the organisational commitment of administrators at a university.

## **1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This section aimed to explain and justify the research methodology chosen for this study. This included the literature review, research design, population, sampling, data collection instrument and procedures to be used for data analysis.

### **1.5.1 Literature review**

A literature study of relevant sources was carried out to determine the salient elements of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The review also focused on the analysis of the effects of job satisfaction on organisational commitment. In order to establish a theoretical background and a solid foundation for the research, the literature was drawn from textbooks, journals, articles, publications and Internet searches.

### **1.5.2 Empirical study**

Empirical research is research based on observed and measured phenomena. It reports research based on actual observations or experiments using quantitative research methods and may generate numerical data between two or more variables (Moody 2002:1). The empirical segment of this study comprised the following:

#### **1.5.2.1 Research design**

A research design is the plan according to which research participants are selected and information is collected from them (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:52). The research design utilised for this study was a quantitative survey approach, which made use of a structured questionnaire. Maree and Pietersen (2007:145) state that quantitative research

is a process that is systematic and objective in its ways of using numerical data from only a selected group of a population in order to generalise the findings to the population that is being studied. Using a quantitative approach, the relationship between the variables was analysed.

#### **1.5.2.2 Target population**

Babbie and Mouton (2003:100) define a population as “a group of people, items, objects, or elements that meet the designated set of criteria for the study and about which one wants to draw a conclusion or conclusions”. The target population in this study comprised 765 administrative staff members of the university. The scope of the study was limited to administrative staff members who were employed by the university on contract or permanent basis. These included male and female executive administrators, senior administrators, administrators and junior administrators.

For the purpose of this study, administrators at the university are described as employees who possess a mastery of office skills and abilities needed for carrying out the day-to-day administrative support activities that are required to accomplish the work of a specific office/department. These include executive secretaries/administrators, senior secretaries/administrators, secretaries/administrators, and administrative assistants. In this study, administrators as defined above, are collectively referred to as administrative staff members, and the two terms are used interchangeably.

#### **1.5.2.3 Sampling frame**

A sampling frame is a list of the elements that make up the population from which the sample is to be drawn (Mann & Richards 2012:1). The list of all administrative staff members was obtained from the Human Resources Department of the university. However, the list was incomplete because the internal university system failed to track administrative staff members that had since moved to different departments or promoted to other administrative posts within the university. As a result, the non-probability method using the convenience sampling technique was utilised to select participants in the study as explained in Section 1.5.2.4.



#### **1.5.2.4 Sampling method and sample size**

The convenience sampling method was utilised for this study for reasons explained in the previous section. The drawing of sample participants in this manner expedited their selection (Wagner, Kawulich & Garner 2012:92). In this study, a sample of 383 (n= 383) was selected out of a target population of 765 administrative staff members using Leedy and Ormrod's (2013:216) guideline of sample size selection. The guideline is explained in Section 3.4.4 of Chapter 3.

#### **1.5.2.5 Method of data collection and measuring instrument**

Schultz and Schultz (2006:233) state that the best approach to apply when measuring employee attitudes is using anonymous questionnaires, typically distributed to employees. For the purpose of this study, data were collected through a pre-tested questionnaire comprising the following sections:

- **Section A** - Demographic variables: The first section of the questionnaire focused on obtaining demographic information such as age, gender, marital status, race, educational background, income, length of service and job status in the university. It was important to obtain this general information, as it would have a bearing on the results of the survey.
- **Section B** - Measurement of independent variable (job satisfaction): This part of the questionnaire was adopted from the overall job satisfaction scale designed by Brayfield and Rothe in 1951. This scale (Appendix A) was used because the emphasis in this study was to examine overall job satisfaction and not the facets of job satisfaction. The aim of the study was to investigate the effect of overall job satisfaction in relation to the dimensions of organisational commitment. The overall job satisfaction scale is a rating scale of various levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. It comprises five items and uses a five-point Likert-type scale labelled 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree or agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.
- **Section C** - Measurement of dependent variable (organisational commitment): This part of the questionnaire consists of the organisational commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) to measure the participants' commitment to their organisations (Brown 2003:40). The adopted version (Appendix A) was drawn from

Jaros (2007:23), and consists of 20 items divided into sub-scales that measure the four factors of organisational commitment, namely affective commitment, continuance commitment, indebted obligation, and moral imperative, based on a five-point Likert scale labelled 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree or agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

#### **1.5.2.6 Statistical analysis**

Statistical techniques were utilised to analyse the results. Statistics is a body of methods and theory that is applied to quantitative data when making decisions in the face of uncertainty (Hussey & Hussey 1997:187). Descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviation were utilised to analyse the data. Factor analysis was used to extract the underlying factors, which accounted for as many variables as possible in the organisational commitment section of the questionnaire. Spearman's *rho* correlation coefficient was utilised to analyse and measure the relationship between the two variables, namely job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Finally, regression analysis was used to examine the nature of the relationship between the variables further. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 23.0 for Windows, was used to process the data obtained from the returned questionnaires.

#### **1.5.2.7 Reliability and validity**

Reliability has to do with the consistency or repeatability of a measuring instrument. Thus, high reliability is obtained when the instrument yields the same results if the research is repeated on the same sample (Maree & Pietersen 2007:147). In order to measure the internal consistency (reliability), Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated, as it is the measure most widely used by researchers using attitudinal scales.

Validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure in a consistent and accurate manner (Maree & Pietersen 2007:147; Babbie 2010:153). The researcher strived to achieve face, content, construct, convergent and predictive validity.

### **1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Research ethics is defined by Marshall (1998:1) as "the application of moral rules and professional codes of conduct to the collection, analysis, reporting, and publication of information about research subjects". Most ethical issues in research fall into four

categories, namely protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy, and honesty with professional colleagues (Leedy & Ormrod 2013:104). These ethical issues are described in detail in Section 3.10 of Chapter 3.

## **1.7 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION**

### **Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study**

The current chapter comprised the background to and the scope of the study. It focused on the objectives of the study, the problem statement and the theoretical framework. The research methodology and ethical considerations were also outlined in this chapter.

### **Chapter 2: Job satisfaction and organisational commitment**

This chapter included an overview and review of all the information collected regarding job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The chapter reviewed the effects that job satisfaction had on organisational commitment.

### **Chapter 3: Research methodology**

Chapter 3 focused on the sampling and data collection, as well as on how the acquired data were analysed. Attention was given to the techniques that were utilised in order to ensure that efficient, effective and reliable results were obtained in the interpretation of the responses.

### **Chapter 4: Results and findings**

This chapter dealt with the statistical analysis, interpretation and evaluation of the research findings derived from the data collected through questionnaires.

### **Chapter 5: Conclusions, recommendations and limitations**

The conclusions drawn were based on the findings reported in Chapter 4. Recommendations were made with a view to improve the job satisfaction levels and organisational commitment of administrative staff of the university.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

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#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter focused on the objectives of the study, problem statement, the theoretical frameworks underpinning the study and ethical considerations. In the current chapter the theoretical background of the variables, namely job satisfaction and organisational commitment were explained. The importance of job satisfaction and organisational commitment was discussed. The antecedents as well as the consequences of job satisfaction and organisational commitment were unraveled. The previous literature was utilised as a basis for describing the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

#### **2.2 THE DESCRIPTION OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Job satisfaction is a broadly researched phenomenon and researchers have varying ways of defining the concept (Al-Aameri 2000:532). Spector (1997:2) defines job satisfaction as “how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs”. The literature on job satisfaction shows that it can be studied from two slightly different perspectives. First, job satisfaction may be treated as a single, overall feeling towards a person’s job. Alternatively, it may be treated as a multidimensional construct, where researchers focus on the different aspects that impact upon a job.

Luthans (2005:212) views job satisfaction as a multidimensional construct that has three generally accepted dimensions. First, that it is an emotional response to a job situation, thus it cannot be seen, but can only be inferred. Secondly, it is determined often by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. Thirdly, it represents several related attitudes. These attitudes are the most important characteristics of a job about which people have affective responses. These include the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and coworkers’ relationships. Whilst definitions can provide a broad understanding of what job satisfaction entails, it remains a complex concept

illustrated by the multiple variables that have been studied in relation to it (Ravari, Mirzaei, Kazemi & Jamalizadeh 2012:98).

Vecchio (2003:266) groups sources of job satisfaction into two categories, namely intrinsic and extrinsic. The author explains that intrinsic sources originate from within the individual and have psychological value, whereas extrinsic sources originate from outside the individual, for example, the environment. Job satisfaction is a worker's sense of achievement and success on the job. It implies doing a job one enjoys, doing it well and being rewarded for one's efforts. It also implies enthusiasm and happiness with one's work (Aziri 2011:78).

Having discussed the various definitions of job satisfaction, it is important to explore the content theories that are pertinent to this study and used by researchers in this similar field. This is done with the aim of providing a framework for understanding job satisfaction in this study.

### **2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF JOB SATISFACTION**

There are numerous competing motivation theories used to explain the nature of job satisfaction. These theories attempt to explain the behaviour of people, how they feel and how they think (Booyesen 2008:12). In order to understand job satisfaction fully, it is pivotal to understand what motivates people within organisations. The study of motivation is concerned with why people behave in a certain way. It is described as the direction and persistence of action (Mullins 2002:418). Motivation theories are categorised into two contrasting approaches, namely content and process theories (Mullins 2005:478-480).

Content theories attempt to determine what it is that motivates people to work, and are concerned with identifying the needs and drives that people have and how these needs and drives are prioritised (Luthans 2008:168). These theories focus on the individual factors within each person that initiate, guide, sustain and stop behaviour (Amos, Ristow, Ristow & Pearce 2008:175). Peerbhai (2006:21) emphasises this point by stating that the basic principle is that people have needs, thus, they will be motivated to behave in a manner that will result in these needs being satisfied. The major content theories of motivation include Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Alderfer's modified need

hierarchy theory, McClelland's achievement motivation theory and Herzberg's two-factor theory (Mullins 2010:260).

In contrast, process theories are characterised by a dynamic character, not as static as content theories. The main concern is not what motivates people but how motivation occurs (Kirstein 2010:14). These theories attempt to identify the relationships among the dynamic variables, which make up motivation and the actions required to influence behaviour and actions (Mullins 2002:435). These theories include Adams' equity theory, Vroom's expectancy theory, Locke's goal theory and Heider and Kelly's attribution theory.

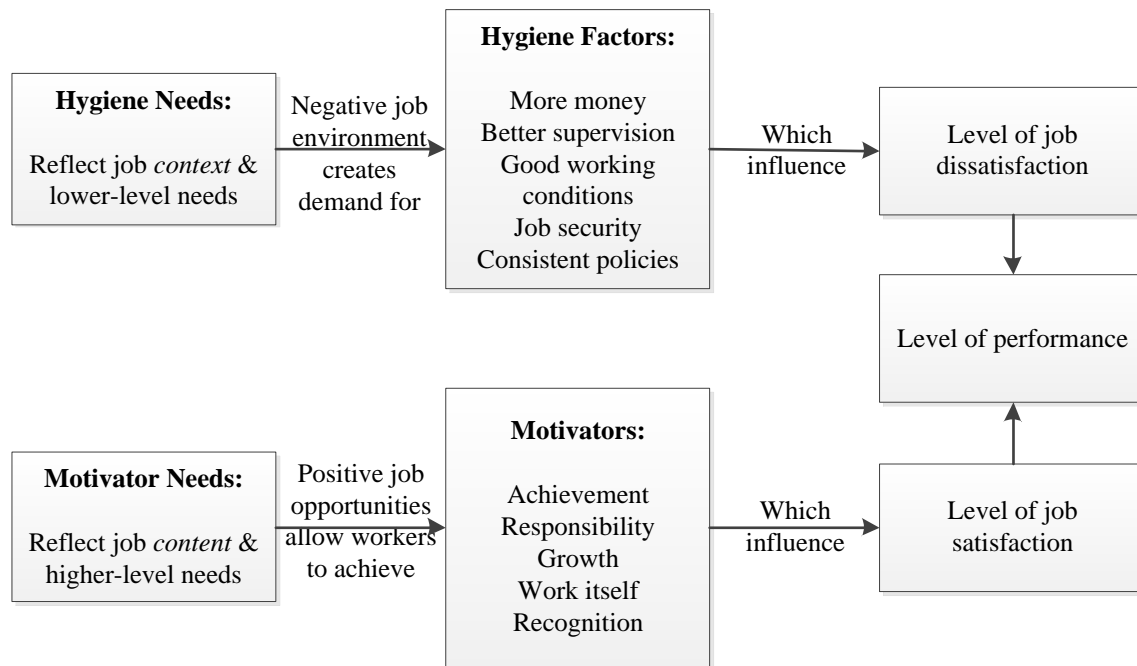
The study uses Herzberg's two-factor theory to explore the nature of job satisfaction. However, it also is important to briefly discuss other content theories closely related to Herzberg two-factor theory. Herzberg, as a basis in developing his two-factor theory, used these theories.

### **2.3.1 Herzberg's two-factor theory**

Herzberg's two-factor theory forms the foundation for understanding the nature of job satisfaction in this study. This theory is not new and dates back to 1959. It is related closely to Maslow's need hierarchy (Luthans 2005:243) and stems from the extension of a research study on job attitudes conducted by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman. In the study, Herzberg interviewed 203 accountants and engineers, chosen because of the growing importance of these fields in the business world. The participants were requested to relate times when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their present job or any previous job. They were asked to give reasons and a description of the sequence of events giving rise to that feeling. Responses to the interviews generally were consistent on revealing that there were two different sets of factors affecting motivation and work. The results subsequently led to the two-factor theory that focuses on factors that are responsible for job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction (Mullins 2010:265).

The key to understanding Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory is to recognise that satisfaction is not the opposite of dissatisfaction as was traditionally believed. Herzberg theorises that the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but no job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no

dissatisfaction (Van der Zee 2009:32). Figure 1 depicts Herzberg's two-factor theory and how the hygiene/motivation factors affect job satisfaction.



**Figure 1: Herzberg's two-factor theory: Factors affecting job satisfaction**

Source: Grobler, Warnich, Carell, Elbert and Hatfield (2009:219)

Grobler *et al.* (2009:219) posit that hygiene factors reflect the context of the job. These factors are external to the employee and to the job. For this reason, they can be thought of as extrinsic in nature. They are factors that essentially are controlled by someone other than the employee and they represent lower-level needs. They include salary, supervision, working conditions, job security, and consistent management policies and rules (Figure 1). Hygiene factors are difficult to control effectively because they do not provide long-term motivation and essentially are controlled by someone other than the employee. These factors, however, are vital for preventing dissatisfaction and their absence keeps the employee from concentrating on higher-level needs.

Hygiene factors do not motivate employees to perform. In other words, these factors do not lead to higher levels of motivation but, without them, there is dissatisfaction about their jobs (Hyun 2009:8). Ncube and Samuel (2014:269) agree with this by stating that employees are not particularly motivated by factors, which Herzberg considered extrinsic (hygiene) to the job but may be present in the organisation to satisfy employees. Job

dissatisfaction thus occurs when the hygiene factors are either not present or not sufficient.

In contrast to hygiene factors, Grobler *et al.* (2009:220) postulate that motivators are intrinsic in nature and they reflect the content of the job. These factors represent higher-level needs. They are work conditions related to the satisfaction of the need for psychological growth (Ncube & Samuel 2014:270). No superior dispenses them to employees. Instead, each employee controls and administers them personally, and they include achievement, responsibility, growth, the work itself and recognition (Figure 1). They affect the level of satisfaction and focus on the satisfaction that comes from accomplishing a particular challenging job (Grobler *et al.*, 2009:220). Unlike hygiene factors, motivation factors can truly encourage employees to work hard and enjoy their jobs. These factors involve what people actually do on the job and should be engineered into the jobs employees do in order to develop intrinsic motivation within the workforce (Hyun 2009:8).

The two-factor theory, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are totally separate dimensions (Riley 2005:7). Herzberg's two-factor theory stresses that there are factors in the workplace that create satisfaction (motivators) and those that lead to dissatisfaction if they are not present (hygiene factors). This theory argues that meeting the lower-level needs (extrinsic or hygiene factors) of individuals would not motivate employees to exert effort, but would only prevent them from being dissatisfied. In order to motivate employees, higher-level needs (intrinsic or motivation factors) must be provided (Wan, Tan & Mohamed 2013:19). The hygiene and motivation factors listed in Table 1 are discussed.



**Table 1: Job satisfaction factors**

<b>Hygiene factors (Extrinsic factors)</b>	<b>Motivators (Intrinsic factors)</b>
Company policy and administration	Achievement
Supervision	Recognition
Interpersonal relations with co-workers	Work itself
Work conditions	Responsibility
Salary/Pay	Advancement
Status	Growth
Job security	

Source: Pride, Hughes and Kapoor (2010:285)

### **2.3.1.1 Hygiene factors**

The hygiene factors include company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations with co-workers, work conditions, salary/pay, and status and job security.

- **Company policy and administration**

Company policy and administration is the single most important factor in determining bad feelings about a job (Herzberg *et al.*, 1959:71). Riley (2005:9) explains that an employee's perception of whether the policies in place are good or bad changes the level of job satisfaction that an employee would experience. This factor also deals with poor communication, lack of delegated authority, policies, procedures and rules that may affect the satisfaction of employees.

- **Supervision**

The quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship will have a significant, positive influence on the employee's overall level of job satisfaction (Bull 2005:37). Luthans (2005:213) posits that there are two dimensions of supervisory style that affect job satisfaction, namely employee centeredness, which is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes a personal interest and cares about the employee. The other dimension is participation or influence, as illustrated by managers who allow their employees to participate in decisions that affect their jobs.

- **Interpersonal relations with co-workers**

The importance of co-workers figures prominently as a factor in studies of job satisfaction (Paul 2004:25). Van der Zee (2009:57) postulates that job satisfaction may be impacted negatively if colleagues are difficult to work with. This implies that having friendly and supportive colleagues contributes to increased job satisfaction.

- **Working conditions**

Motazz and Pottas cited in Paul (2004:20) state that working conditions refer to the extent to which there are adequate resources, physical facilities, workload, work hours, rest pauses and autonomy, which are all determinants of an employee's job satisfaction. Working conditions have a modest effect on job satisfaction (Luthans 2005:214). Grobler *et al.* (2009:219) posit that poor working conditions result in job dissatisfaction, yet ideal working conditions do not necessarily lead to job satisfaction. Sonia (2010:11) affirms that working conditions determine job satisfaction and work in two ways. First, these provide means for job performance. Secondly, provision of favourable working conditions affects the individual's perception about the organisation. If these factors are favourable, individuals experience higher levels of job satisfaction.

- **Salary/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 (Bull 2005:353 & Van der Zee 2009:53). Despite the tendency in recent years to downgrade the importance of pay as an organisational reward, there is ample evidence that money can be positively reinforcing for most people, and if the pay system is designed properly to fit the strategies, it can have a positive impact on individual, team, and ultimately, organisational performance (Luthans 2005:133). In Herzberg's two-factor theory, pay does not motivate but it is necessary to prevent dissatisfaction.

- **Status**

Status refers to changes in status or a position of an employee in an organisation. When employees are provided with a private office, secretary, or company car, and conferred with an ingenious title, the status of such an employee improves and in turn impact positively on job satisfaction (Smerek & Peterson 2007:231).

- **Job security**

Job security is another very important factor that may affect employee job satisfaction. Employees will often feel their jobs are secure if they believe that they would not be dismissed or terminated due to the economy, prevailing business conditions, or the employee's personal capacity in the organisation (Tanjeen 2013:81).

### **2.3.1.2 Motivation factors**

Motivation factors (Table 1) include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement and possibility of growth.

- **Achievement**

In Herzberg's study, achievement was the most frequently appearing factor that related to what makes people satisfied in their jobs. The findings reveal that achievement can be identified by successfully completing a task, finding a solution to problems, showing proof of work, and seeing the results of one's work and efforts (Herzberg *et al.*, 1959:45).

- **Recognition**

Recognition is any act of acknowledgement from a supervisor, any other individual in management, a peer, professional colleague, or the general public (Fugar 2007:120). When employees receive the acknowledgement they deserve for a job well done, the satisfaction would increase (Riley 2005:8). On the contrary, if employees' work were overlooked or criticised it would have the opposite effect. It therefore seems that recognition would enhance job satisfaction (Smerek & Peterson 2007:231).

- **The work itself**

The content and nature of the work itself is a major factor that influences job satisfaction. Employees derive job satisfaction from work that is interesting and challenging and a job that provides them with status (Luthans 2005:212). The concept of work itself is referred to by Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003:77) as "the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning, personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results".

- **Responsibility**

Responsibility involves the degree of freedom an employee has to make his/her own decisions and implement his/her own ideas. The more freedom an employee has to take on that responsibility, the more inclined he/she may be to work harder on the project, and the more satisfied he/she will be with the result (Riley 2005:8).

- **Advancement**

Advancement is the actual change in status or position of an employee in an organisation, which also includes the possibility of advancement (Fugar 2007:120). This refers to the expected or unexpected possibility of promotion in the workplace (Riley 2005:9). Employees might be affected adversely if they thought that they would not have much promotion opportunities (Aydogdu & Asikgil 2011:44). Promotion opportunity is considered to be one of the factors that meet the psychological needs of the employee (Altinoz, Cakiroglu & Cop 2012:323), and is likely to exert an influence on job satisfaction (Van der Zee 2009:55). Opportunity for promotion is also an important determinant in job satisfaction as it provides the platform to advance and learn new skills (Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx & Van der Schyf 1999:561).

- **Growth**

One of the four top factors identified as contributing to job satisfaction was the opportunity to grow. This motivation factor includes the chance one might have to learn a new skill or trade (Riley 2005:9). Employees would be more satisfied with their existing job if they saw a path available to move up the ranks of an organisation. Organisations can thus persuade employees to learn sophisticated skills or to demonstrate what they need to do in order to be on a path to progression within the organisation (Tanjeen 2013:81).

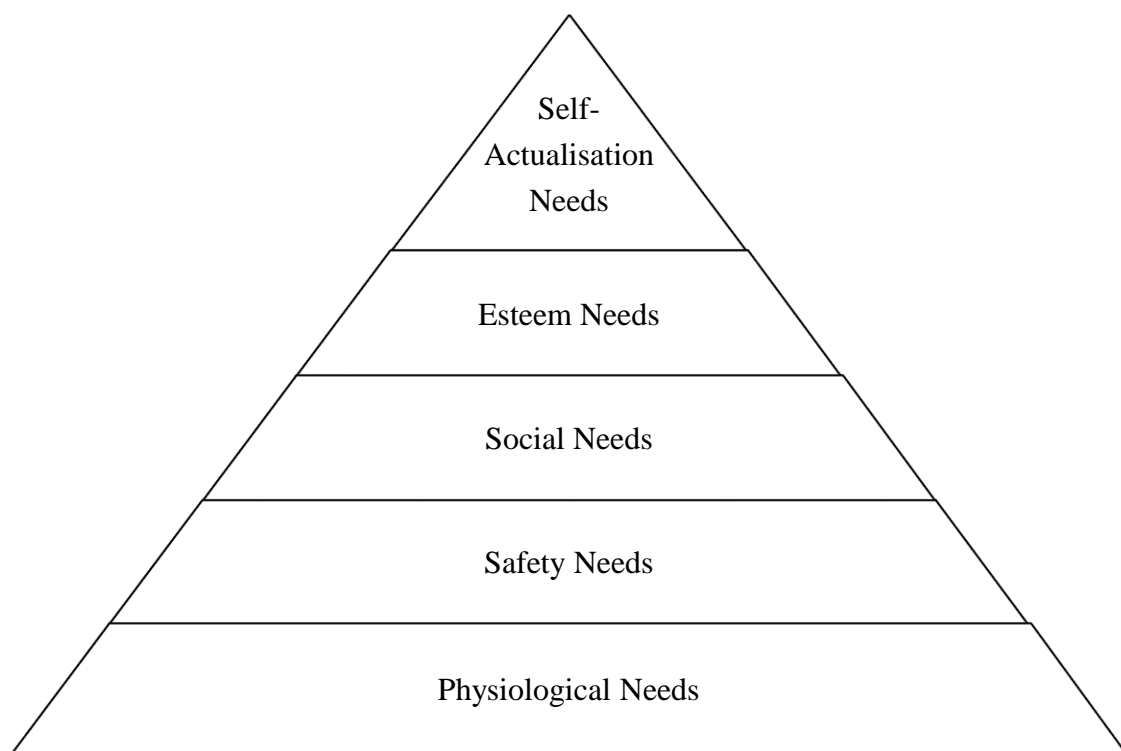
Herzberg's theory, however, is a source of frequent debate. Many other studies tested the theory with mixed conclusions. Some studies provide support for the theory, whilst other researchers have criticised the theory (Tyilana 2005:34). A prevalent criticism of Herzberg's two-factor theory revolves around the small sample of accountants and engineers used as subjects for the study and whether the small sample could be generalised to other occupational groups and other countries (Tyilana 2005:34). Mullins (2010:265) identified the following common general criticisms of Herzberg's theory:

- The theory is strictly applicable to labour-intensive workers
- The theory adheres to a particular methodology
- The theory applies least to unskilled employees whose work is tedious, monotonous and limited in scope
- The critical incident method, and the elaboration of events that evoke positive or negative feelings, has an impact on the results.

Despite various criticisms, there is still evidence of support for the continuing relevance of the theory, hence it has been used and continues to be used as a foundational theory of numerous studies dealing with job satisfaction (Riley 2005:9), including this study.

### 2.3.2 Maslow's needs theory

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a motivation theory by Maslow (1943), which proposes that individuals' motivation is the desire for the gratification of five basic needs, namely physiological, safety, love/social, esteem and self-actualisation (see Figure 2).



**Figure 2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs**

Source: Maslow (1943:375)

The five levels in Maslow's need hierarchy are explained as follows:

*Physiological needs:* are the most basic level of Maslow's hierarchy and include the needs for food, water, sleep, oxygen, warmth and freedom from pain. If these needs are unsatisfied, an individual's actions will be dominated by attempts to fulfill them (Vecchio 2003:73).

*Safety needs:* these include safety and security, freedom from pain or threat of physical attack, protection from danger or deprivation, the need for predictability and orderliness (Mullins 2010:261). At this level, the employer must provide a safe working environment, while the onus rests with individuals to ensure their own personal safety outside of the workplace (Luddy 2005:24).

*Social needs:* include needs for love, affection, sense of belonging, social activities, friendships and both the giving and receiving of love (Mullins 2010:261).

*Esteem needs:* esteem needs include the desire for achievement, prestige and recognition as well as appreciation and attention from others (Vecchio 2003:73). They also include both self-respect and the esteem of others. Self-respect involves the desire for confidence, strength, independence and freedom, and achievement (Mullins 2010:261).

*Self-actualisation needs:* this category includes the desire for self-fulfillment (Vecchio 2003:73), and the drive to become what one is capable of becoming, *inter alia* growth and achieving one's potential (Robbins 2001:156).

Researchers have noted that Maslow's needs theory was the first motivation theory that laid the foundation for the other theories of job satisfaction (Saif, Nawaz, Jan & Khan 2012:1386). This theory thus serves as a foundation from which researchers conceptualise problems of job satisfaction. Hygiene factors, also known as extrinsic factors, are positive job opportunities that correspond to Maslow's lower order of needs (Ramasodi 2010:9), and are the characteristics associated with dissatisfaction. Luthans (2005:244) relates Herzberg's theory with Maslow's and concludes that the hygiene factors are similar but not identical to Maslow's lower-level needs. These hygiene factors prevent dissatisfaction, but they do not necessarily lead to satisfaction. Several theories have since been developed, but almost all begin with a brief on Maslow's ideas.

### 2.3.3 Alderfer's ERG theory

Alderfer's ERG theory condenses Maslow's five levels of need into three levels. Mullins (2010:264) describes these levels as follows:

- *Existence needs:* are concerned with sustaining human existence and survival and cover physiological and safety needs of a material nature.
- *Relatedness needs:* are concerned with relationships to the social environment and cover love or belonging, affiliation and meaningful interpersonal relationships of a safety or esteem nature.
- *Growth needs:* are concerned with the development of potential and cover self-esteem and self-actualisation.

Alderfer's theory suggests that individuals move up the hierarchy from existence needs to relatedness needs and to growth needs, as the lower-level needs become satisfied. In this respect, his theory is similar to Maslow's theory. Alderfer's theory, however, differs in two major areas (Srivastava 2005:72). First, in content or the number of need levels in the hierarchy. Alderfer established only three level needs, instead of Maslow's original five level needs. Secondly, in terms of the process of how people move from one level to the next, the ERG theory includes a unique frustration-regression component. In Maslow's theory, an individual must satisfy a lower-level need before moving on to the next higher level (Tyilana 2005:28). However, in Alderfer's theory, if an individual is continually frustrated in his/her attempts to satisfy a higher-order need (e.g. growth needs), then relatedness needs (lower-order needs) may re-emerge as primary ones. An individual may then re-direct his/her efforts toward the lower-order needs (Van der Zee 2005:29).

Herzberg, Maslow and Alderfer's theories are all based on the same foundation and assumption that individuals are born with certain needs that must be satisfied (Van der Zee 2005:33). However, these theories differ in that Maslow focused on five needs, which were condensed by Alderfer to three needs, and further reduced by Herzberg to two basic sets of needs (Table 2).

**Table 2: Linking Maslow, Alderfer and Herzberg's theories of motivation**

Maslow's hierarchy of needs	Alderfer's ERG theory	Herzberg's two-factor theory
Physiological	Existence	Hygiene factors
Safety		
Love	Relatedness	Motivators
Esteem		
Self-actualisation	Growth	

Source: Mullins (2010:266)

### **2.3.4 McClelland's need theory**

McClelland's need theory focuses on three aspects, namely the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards and to strive to succeed. McClelland subsequently expanded the theory by investigating the needs for affiliation and power (Robbins 2001:162). The need for affiliation motivates people to make friends, to become members of groups and to associate with others. The focus is on human companionship, interpersonal relations and concern for others (Grobler *et al.*, 2009:218). The need for power reflects an individual's need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise. This includes the desire to influence, coach, teach, or encourage others to achieve (Kreitner & Kinicki 2001:213).

### **2.3.5 McGregor's theory X and Y**

McGregor proposed two distinct views of human beings, namely theory X and theory Y. Theory X labelled individuals as negative (Robbins 2001:156). This theory posits that the average human being is lazy and self-centred, lacks ambition, dislikes change and longs to be told what to do (Stewart 2010:1). In contrast to theory X, theory Y labelled human beings as positive (Robbins 2001:156). It maintains that human beings are active rather than passive shapers of themselves and of their environment. They long to grow and assume responsibility. The best way to manage them, then, is to manage as little as possible (Stewart 2010:2).

Theory X focuses on the following negative assumptions held by managers:

- employees essentially dislike work and will attempt to avoid it whenever possible



- since employees dislike work, they must be pressurised, controlled, or threatened with punishment to attain goals
- employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible
- most workers display little ambition and place security above all other factors associated with work.

In contrast, theory Y focuses on the following positive assumptions:

- employees can view work as being natural as rest or play
- employees will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the goals
- the average employee can learn to accept or strive for responsibility
- under the circumstances of the current modern life, the intellectual potential of the average human being is partly utilised.

## **2.4 ANTECEDENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION**

It is important to value and understand the impact of demographics on job satisfaction because this knowledge can be used to design future policies that will help increase job satisfaction and overall organisational effectiveness (Govender 2010:22). Job satisfaction can be measured by various personal or demographic factors. Studies on job satisfaction have identified certain demographic characteristics, which influence job satisfaction in some way or another and which are used to measure job satisfaction. These demographic variables include age, race, gender, marital status, educational level and tenure (Booyesen 2008:31).

### **2.4.1 Age**

Many studies have been conducted over the past decades, with contradictory results, which have left the true nature of the relationship between age and job satisfaction unclear and unresolved (Martin 2007:47). It is believed generally that job satisfaction increases linearly with age, which is most employees seem to derive better job satisfaction with advancement in age (Ncube & Samuel 2014:272). However, there are persuasive arguments and some empirical evidence suggesting that the relationship is U-

shaped, declining from a moderate level in the early years of employment and increasing steadily up to retirement (Clark, Oswald & Warr 1996:57). According to Ramasodi (2010:8), older employees generally are satisfied with their jobs, although this may change as their chances of advancement are reduced due to the reality of retirement.

#### **2.4.2 Race**

Studies focusing on the relationship between race and job satisfaction within the South African context are limited (Luddy 2005:37). Previous research regarding the relationship between race and job satisfaction has yielded inconsistent results. Several studies have found that race as an antecedent of job satisfaction can be attributed to group homogeneity. The results from these studies reflect that as homogeneity in the group increases, members of the group experience an increase in job satisfaction (Luddy 2005:36). In a study conducted by Erasmus (1998:28), it was found that White females were more satisfied with their jobs than their African female colleagues were. The researcher highlighted factors such as pay and benefits as causes of job dissatisfaction amongst African females.

#### **2.4.3 Gender**

There is a growing interest in attempting to explain the gender – job satisfaction relationship by researchers because it has become pivotal to understand how men and women may be different in their job attitudes (Booyesen 2008:32). Several studies conducted with regard to the relationship between gender and job satisfaction have yielded inconsistent results (Bull 2005:45; Booyesen 2008:32; Mohammed & Eleswed 2013:44). One of the most popular explanations is that men and women attach value to different aspects of the job (Bull 2005:46). Some studies report that women have higher levels of job satisfaction, whereas other studies find that men are more satisfied, yet other studies find no significant difference between the genders (Bull 2005:45; Booyesen 2008:32; Azim, Haque & Chowdhury 2013:495). Miller and Wheeler (1992:467) maintain that women are inclined to be less satisfied in their jobs because they tend to hold positions at lower levels in the organisational hierarchy where pay and promotion prospects are less attractive. One of the most popular explanations is that men and women attach value to different aspects of the job.

#### **2.4.4 Marital status**

Another influential biographic variable that might have a bearing on job satisfaction is the marital status of employees (Azim *et al.*, 2013:491). In a study conducted by Scott, Swortzel and Taylor (2005:109), there was no significant relationship found between marital status and job satisfaction. Previous research indicates that married employees are more satisfied with their jobs than their unmarried co-workers. This may be due to the fact that marriage may impose increased responsibilities that may make a steady job more valuable and important (Azim *et al.*, 2013:491).

#### **2.4.5 Educational level**

Previous studies have found that education increases job satisfaction. Bull (2005:50) explains that better 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. However, Scott *et al.* (2005:109) found no significant relationships between the demographic factor and job satisfaction. The only low relationship found in their study was between education and satisfaction with pay. Franek and Vecera (2008:64) further explain that education, which does not lead to extrinsic rewards (money, prestige, authority, and autonomy), would lead to job dissatisfaction due to unfulfilled expectations and aspirations.

#### **2.4.6 Tenure**

Previous research suggests that there is a positive relationship between tenure and job satisfaction. Okpara (2004:335) asserts that employees with longer job experience are more satisfied with their jobs in comparison with those with lesser years of experience. Okpara (2004:335) provides an explanation for this positive correlation and suggests that over time employees eventually settle into their jobs, which may result in an increase in organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Vecchio (2003:270) attributes this to the possibility that “long-termers” tend to be in higher-level jobs, and thus more satisfied. Spector (1996:230) emphasises that longer tenure can be associated with higher job satisfaction because of the rewards that accompany it. In contrast, other researchers suggest that employees who have longer job experience are less satisfied due to the fact

that holding the same job for a longer period may result in employees becoming bored and start experiencing lower levels of job satisfaction (Booysen 2008:35).

## **2.5 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Previous research shows that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction can have positive or negative consequences for employees and organisations (Maniram 2007:26). This is because of its correlation with important variables such as tardiness, organisational commitment, performance, turnover and absenteeism that have a direct impact on an organisation's effectiveness (Kreitner & Kinicki 2001:226; Peerbhai 2006:49). Subsequently, the general concern for management is what the outcome will be should an employee be satisfied or dissatisfied with his/her job and how this will have an overall effect on the organisation (Maniram 2007:26). The consequences of job satisfaction identified above will now be discussed.

### **2.5.1 Turnover**

Previous studies have shown, with a fair degree of consistency that dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit. The specific influence of job dissatisfaction on the decision to quit may be only moderate because a variety of factors are involved (Vecchio 2003:270). Luthans (2005:215) indicates that high job satisfaction will not, in and of itself, keep turnover low, but it does seem to help. Added to this, if there is considerable job dissatisfaction, there is likely to be high turnover. Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:228) advise managers to try to reduce turnover by increasing the levels of employee job satisfaction, because it both disrupts organisational continuity and it is very costly.

### **2.5.2 Absenteeism**

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:228), managers are constantly on the lookout for ways to reduce absenteeism in the workplace, due to the fact that it is costly. Previous research (Robbins 2001:78) has demonstrated a negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism, but the correlation is moderate. Although high job satisfaction will not necessarily result in low absenteeism, low job satisfaction is more likely to bring about absenteeism (Luthans 2005:216). While it makes sense that dissatisfied workers are more prone to miss work, other aspects have an impact on the relationship and reduce the correlation coefficient. One possible reason for the small

relation between job satisfaction and absenteeism is that an employee can be absent for many reasons, including employee illnesses, family member illness, personal business and fatigue as well as just not feeling like going to work (Paul 2004:31).

### **2.5.3 Tardiness**

Company rules and regulations for employees contain a section stating an organisation's policies for handling employee lateness or tardiness because it is associated with negative implications such as lost productivity, time supervisors spend in activities such as counselling and disciplining late employees and the negative impact on other workers who have to pick up the slack (Blau 1995:1483). It is for this reason that employee tardiness requires monitoring and control. Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:227) found a negative and weak correlation between job satisfaction and tardiness.

### **2.5.4 Performance**

Spector cited by Paul (2004:37) postulates that although it is clear that performance and job satisfaction are related, there are two opposite explanations. First, job satisfaction might lead to performance, that is, people who are satisfied with their jobs work harder and, therefore, perform better. Secondly, performance might lead to job satisfaction. People who perform well are likely to benefit from that performance, and those benefits could enhance job satisfaction. Luthans (2005:125) cautions that although there is supporting research evidence on the causal direction showing that job satisfaction influences performance rather than vice versa, there seems to be many possible moderating variables, for an example, rewards. Employees will thus be satisfied if they receive equitable rewards, and this is likely to lead to greater performance efforts.

### **2.5.5 Productivity**

Productivity is when an organisation achieves its goals effectively and efficiently, and does so by transferring inputs to outputs at the lowest cost (Paul 2004:35). When job satisfaction and productivity data are gathered for the organisation as a whole, rather than at the individual level, it is found that organisations with more satisfied employees tend to be more productive than organisations with less satisfied employees. However, at an individual level the evidence is often inconsistent in terms of the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity (Robbins 2001:77).

### **2.5.6 Organisational commitment**

Organisational commitment refers to the extent to which an individual identifies with an organisation and is committed to its goals. The influence of job satisfaction and its components is one of the more thoroughly investigated topics in the organisational commitment literature. Past research has found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Paul 2004:65). Several studies found a direct link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, whereby job satisfaction is an antecedent of organisational commitment. Van der Zee (2009:64) postulates that this thought process assumes that an employee's orientation toward a specific job precedes his or her orientation toward the entire organisation. Thus, managers are strongly advised to increase job satisfaction in order to elicit higher levels of commitment. Consequently, higher commitment can facilitate higher productivity (Kreitner & Kinicki 2001:227).

## **2.6 THE DESCRIPTION OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Robbins (2001:69) defines organisational commitment as “the extent to which an individual identifies with an organisation and is committed to that organisation, the attainment of its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation”. Organisational commitment is an important construct because it contributes to the prediction of important outcome variables such as performance and withdrawal behaviours (Döckel 2003:34).

Organisational commitment is founded on two approaches, namely attitudinal and behavioural approaches (Morrow 1993:45; Manetje 2005:37). As an attitude, Meyer and Allen (1991:67) view organisational commitment as “a psychological state that characterises the employee's relationship with the organisation, and that has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organisation”. From an attitudinal perspective, organisational commitment is defined by Luthans (2005:217) as “a strong desire to remain a member of a particular organisation, a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organisation, and a definite belief in and acceptance of, the values and goals of the organisation”. Morrow (1993:46) agrees with the preceding definition by stating that organisational commitment as an attitude reflects feelings such as attachment, identification and loyalty to the organisation. In Meyer and Allen's three

component model, the affective and normative components reflect employees' attitudinal dispositions of organisational commitment. This conception will be expanded upon later in the chapter.

As behaviour, organisational commitment refers to when individuals are committed to a particular course of action rather than an entity (Allen & Meyer 1990:9). The behavioural approach is premised on the assumption that employees retain their membership with an organisation because the perceived cost of doing otherwise is likely to be high. This approach emphasises the view that an employee remains committed to an organisation because investments such as time spent in the organisation, friendships formed within the organisation and pension benefits, tie the employee to the organisation (Morrow 1993:47). In Meyer and Allen's three component model, the continuance component reflects employees' behavioural nature of organisational commitment.

Organisational commitment is premised on the theories such as the side bet theory and the social exchange theory. In order to understand the construct, it is important to explain these theories.

## **2.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

The two theories that underpin organisational commitment are Becker's side-bet theory, and Gouldner and Blau's social exchange theory.

### **2.7.1 Side-bet theory**

Developed in 1960, Becker's side-bet theory posits that commitment in general, is a disposition to engage in consistent lines of activity as a result of the accumulation of side-bets that would be lost if the activity was discontinued (Becker 1960:33). Meyer and Allen (1984:373) describe side-bets as anything of importance that an employee has invested, such as time, effort and money that would be lost or devalued at some cost to the employee, if he or she left the organisation or occupation. It is the perceived threat of loss that commits a person to the organisation, aggravated by a perceived lack of alternatives to replace or make up for the lost investments (Meyer & Allen 1984:373).

Becker (1960:32) proposes that commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity. The effect of making side-bets is to increase the cost of failing to persist in a course of action. In the case of organisational commitment, the course of action is staying with the organisation (Powell & Meyer 2004:158).

Powell and Meyer (2004:158) opine that side-bets can take various forms, which include generalised cultural expectations about responsible behaviour, self-presentation concerns, impersonal bureaucratic arrangements, individual adjustment to social positions and non-work concern:

- Generalised cultural expectations about responsible behaviour refer to the expectations of important reference groups regarding what constitutes responsible behaviour, for example, how long one should stay at a job.
- Self-presentation concerns arise when a person attempts to present a consistent public image that requires behaving in a particular manner.
- Impersonal bureaucratic arrangements are rules or policies such as a seniority-based compensation system, put in place by the organisation to encourage or reward long-term employment.
- Individual adjustment to social positions refers to efforts made by an individual to adapt to a situation, but that make him or her less fit for other situations, for example, investment of time and effort to acquire organisation-specific skills.
- Non-work concerns are side-bets made outside the organisation itself, as when an employee establishes roots in a community that would be disrupted if he or she were to leave the organisation and be forced to seek employment in another geographic location.

The basic strategy in testing Becker's side-bet theory has been to demonstrate that organisational commitment increases as the number or size of side-bets increases (Meyer & Allen 1984:373).

Although Becker described only these five side-bets, he did not suggest that the list was exhaustive. He, however, argued that side-bets could be combined in complex ways to



increase the cost associated with discontinuing a course of action, and thereby increase organisational commitment (Powell & Meyer 2004:159).

### **2.7.2 Social exchange theory**

The social exchange theory is among the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behaviour (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005:874). The early works of Gouldner (1960) and Blau (1964) have influenced much of today's research on social exchange in the workplace. Together, Gouldner's norm of reciprocity and Blau's social exchange theory attempt to explain the giving and taking that occurs within organisations (Bernerth & Walker 2009:218). The social exchange theory suggests that when a person gives another person a reward, resource or other perceived commodity, there is an expectation of future return from the other party (Bernerth & Walker 2009:217).

Blau (1964:93) defines a social exchange relationship as involving unspecified obligations in which there are "favors that create diffuse future obligations, not precisely defined ones, and the nature of the return cannot be bargained about but must be left to the discretion of the one who makes it". Wikhamn and Hall (2012:57) further explain that an exchange starts with one party giving a benefit to another. If the recipient reciprocates, and consequently a series of beneficial exchanges occur, feelings of mutual obligation between the parties are created. Blau (1964:137) considers the social exchange theory as based on assumptions that individuals generally are rational and engage in calculations of costs and benefits in social exchanges. They exist as rational actors and reactors in social exchanges. Those engaged in interactions are rationally seeking to maximise the profits or benefits to be gained from those situations, especially in terms of meeting basic individual needs. In this respect, social exchanges between two or more individuals are efforts by participants to fulfil basic needs.

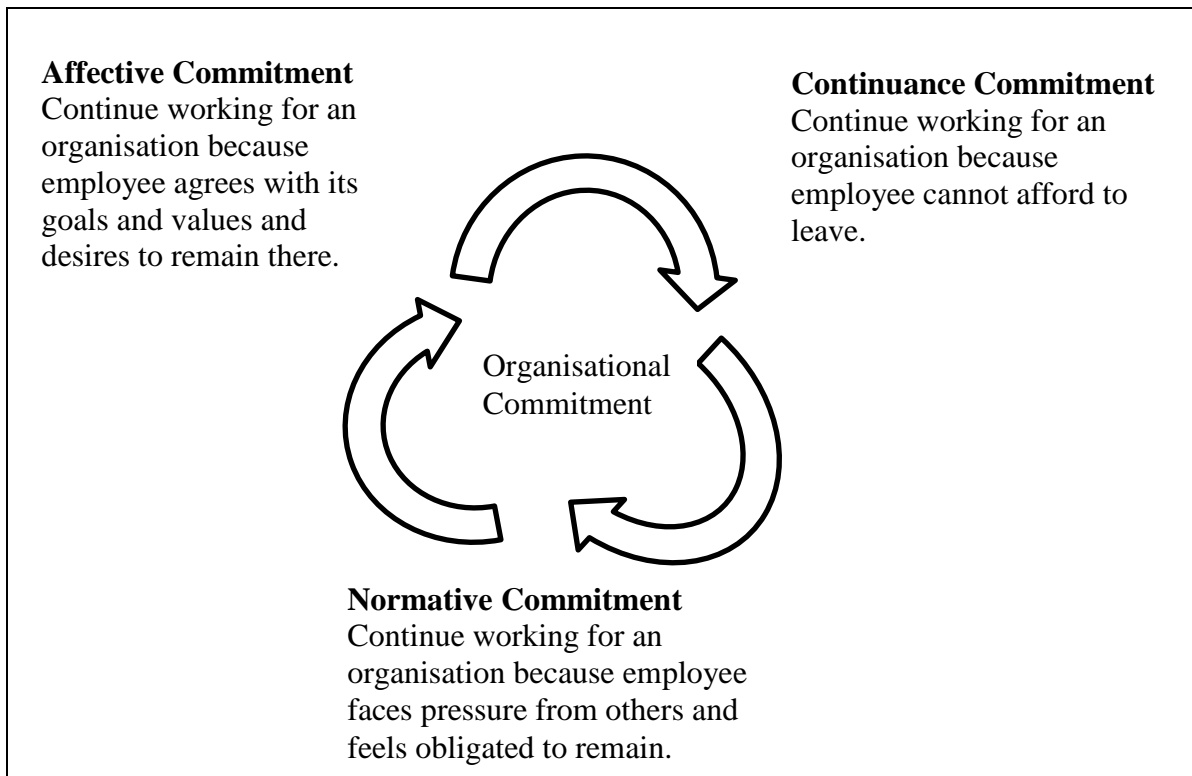
From an employee-employer relationship perspective, the social exchange theory suggests that employees respond to perceived favourable working conditions by behaving in ways that benefit the organisation and/or other employees (Kipkebut 2010:61). Similarly, employees retaliate against dissatisfying conditions by engaging in negative work attitudes such as absenteeism, lateness, tardiness or preparing to quit the organisation. According to the exchange theory, the individual's organisational commitment depends on his or her perceived balance of reward utilities over input

utilities (Gouldner 1960:163). This approach emphasises the current exchange relation between individuals and organisations; the more favourable the exchange from the employee's perspective, the greater his or her commitment to the organisation.

## **2.8 MEYER AND ALLEN'S THREE COMPONENT MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

The three-component model of commitment developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) dominates organisational commitment research. This model proposes that the employee experiences organisational commitment as three simultaneous mind-sets encompassing affective, normative, and continuance commitment (Jaros 2007:7). Meyer and Allen (1984:375) initially viewed organisational commitment as a two-dimensional concept, namely affective and continuance. In 1990, they reviewed their initial concept by adding a third dimension, namely normative commitment, thus developing their three component model of organisational commitment (Jaros 2007:23).

Meyer and Allen (1991 & 1997) in their three component model (Figure 3) describe organisational commitment first, as affective (desire-based), which is an employee's emotional attachment to the organisation. Secondly, as continuance commitment (cost-based), which refers to the costs an employee would incur if they left the organisation. Lastly, as normative (obligation-based), which is based on an employee's feeling of moral obligation to stay with the organisation. The three dimensions are discussed.



**Figure 3: Three component model of organisational commitment**

Source: Greenberg and Baron (2003:162)

### **2.8.1 Affective commitment**

Meyer and Allen (1997:11) define affective commitment as “an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation”. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they want to do so. Employees strongly identify with the goals of the organisation and desire to remain part of the organisation. Employees are affectively committed to the organisation because they want to (Daneshfard & Ekvaniyan 2012:169). Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari (2003:714) are of the opinion that an affective commitment to an organisation is the emotional attachment to the goals and values of the organisation, as well as to the employee’s role in relation to those goals and values.

### **2.8.2 Continuance commitment**

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation (Meyer & Allen 1997:11). Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain in the organisation because

they need to do so. Daneshfard and Ekvaniyan (2012:169) state that continuance commitment occurs when the individual commits to the organisation because the costs of leaving are too high. The employee remains in the organisation because he/she has to. The fewer possible job alternatives employees have at various organisations, the stronger their continuance commitment to their current organisation will be (Rashid *et al.*, 2003:714).

### **2.8.3 Normative commitment**

Normative commitment refers to individuals who commit to remaining with an organisation because of feelings of obligation to be loyal to the organisation. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel they ought to remain in the organisation (Meyer & Allen 1991:67). This may also reflect an internalised norm, developed before the person joins the organisation through family or other socialisation processes, that one should be loyal to one's organisation. Meyer and Allen (1991:67) argue that employees with a strong normative commitment remain with an organisation by virtue of their belief that it is the right and moral thing to do. Rashid *et al.* (2003:714) maintain that an employee's past experience of an organisation, whether they were members of an organisation or not, will influence this type of commitment.

Current research indicates that the concept of normative commitment and its measurement using the normative commitment scale of Meyer and Allen has been problematic (Bergman 2006; Jaros 2007). Furthermore, normative commitment has been found to correlate strongly with affective commitment and to share many of the same antecedents and consequences (Meyer *et al.*, 2002:21). As a result, some authors have questioned the value of retaining normative commitment as a distinct component in the Meyer and Allen three component organisational commitment scale (Jaros 1997:13). In a study conducted by Bergman (2006:648), it was noted that despite changes in the definition of normative commitment, the normative commitment scale has not been revised to reflect the indebted obligation and moral imperative dimensions proposed by Meyer, Allen and Smith in 1993. Thus, the modification of the normative commitment items is needed in order to align it with the current conceptualisations of the construct (Klein, Becker & Meyer 2009:351).

Several researchers postulate that normative commitment has a dual nature, namely it can be experienced either as a moral duty or a sense of indebtedness, each having different implications for work behaviour (Markovits, Ullrich, Van Dick & Davis 2008:485; Meyer & Parfyonova 2010:283). It is argued further that normative commitment manifests itself differently depending on the strength of other components in an employee's commitment profile. In a review by Meyer and Parfyonova (2010:285) that seeks to re-establish the theoretical and practical significance of normative commitment, the following are hypothesised:

- that the affective commitment/normative commitment dominant profile is characterised by a moral duty mindset and is associated with positive beliefs (e.g. inherent goodness; meaningfulness) and affect (e.g. optimism, inspiration) with regard to the target and behavioural implications of the commitment
- that the continuance commitment/normative commitment dominant profile is characterised by an indebted obligation mindset and is associated with less positive beliefs (e.g. indebtedness; inconvenience) and affect (e.g. guilt, frustration) with regard to the target and behavioural implications of the commitment.

Gellatly, Meyer and Luchak (2006:342) state that the nature of employees' normative commitment changes as a result of the strength of the other two components, namely affective and continuance commitment. When employees feel a strong sense of affective commitment, obligations might be experienced as a moral imperative (i.e. this is the right thing to do and I want to do it). In this case, employees may be inclined to do whatever it takes to achieve organisational objectives even if it is not required by the terms of the commitment.

In contrast, when affective commitment is low and continuance commitment is high, normative commitment might be experienced as an indebted obligation (i.e. something one has to do to meet obligations and/or save face). Meyer and Parfyonova (2010:287) agree with the above by stating that the affective commitment/normative commitment dominant and continuance commitment/normative commitment dominant profiles are characterised by distinct mindsets. The affective commitment/normative commitment dominant reflects a sense of moral duty and the continuance commitment/normative commitment dominant reflects a sense of indebted obligation. A moral duty mindset carries with it a strong sense of desire to pursue a course of action of benefit to a target,

namely the organisation, because it is the right and moral thing to do. An indebted obligation mindset reflects a sense of having to pursue a course of action of benefit to a target to avoid the social costs of failing to do so.

Based on the above, Jaros (2007:23) revised the original commitment scale of Meyer and Allen (1990) to reflect the indebted obligation and moral imperative dimensions of normative commitment. The scale was revised to “resolve the discriminant validity issues regarding affective commitment and continuance commitment”, and to ensure that normative commitment is measured with the appropriate items (Jaros 2007:13). This revised scale will be adopted for this study.

## **2.9 ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

A number of studies have investigated the personal correlates of organisational commitment. Characteristics such as age, race, gender, marital status, educational level and tenure have been found to influence organisational commitment (Bull 2005:56; Dey, Kumar & Kumar 2014:282).

### **2.9.1 Age**

Cohen (1993:144) posits that age is one of the most important antecedent of organisational commitment, primarily because it is considered as the main indicator of side-bets (Becker 1960), a term that has been used to refer to the accumulation of investments valued by the individual, which would be lost if he or she were to leave the organisation. There are contradictory findings in previous studies regarding the relationship between age and organisational commitment (Martin 2007:47). Some studies found no relationship between age and organisational commitment. In contrast, other researchers have found a positive relationship between age and organisational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1984:377) posit that age may affect organisational commitment differently across different age groups. They argue that younger employees may be more committed to their organisations because of their awareness that, with less work experience, they often have fewer job opportunities. As younger employees gain experience, alternative employment opportunities may increase. This decreases the magnitude of one important cost of leaving, that of having no other job. Chughtai and Zafar (2006:42) state that another possible explanation for this relationship is that there

are few employment options available to older employees, and older employees realise that leaving may cost them more than staying.

### **2.9.2 Race**

In a study conducted by Martin and Roodt (2008:29), which focused on the perceptions of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in a post-merger South African tertiary institution, a significant relationship was found between organisational commitment and race. In this study, Black respondents from the sample were found to be more positive about the commitment to the organisation than their White counterparts. South Africa is continually changing; weeding out the inequalities of the past and, therefore, Black staff will feel more committed to the changes than their White counterparts who may feel intimidated.

### **2.9.3 Gender**

Previous research on gender and organisational commitment has yielded contradictory results. Mohammed and Eleswed (2013:46) postulate that the influence of gender on organisational commitment remains unclear. Mowday *et al.* (1982:31) suggest that women may place greater value on their organisations and jobs than their male counterparts may since they have had to overcome more barriers to attain their positions in organisations. The effort required to enter the organisation translates into higher organisational commitment of female employees. Wahn (1998:259) concluded that the literature appears to support greater commitment of women to their organisations because they encounter fewer options for employment.

### **2.9.4 Marital status**

Marital status has emerged as a consistent predictor of organisational commitment. Thus, marital status has been shown to be positively related to organisational commitment. Married people are likely to be more committed to their current organisation than their unmarried counterparts because they have more family responsibilities and need more stability and security in their jobs (Chughtai & Zafar 2006:43).

### **2.9.5 Educational level**

Research generally indicates an inverse relationship between organisational commitment and an individual's level of education (Mowday *et al.*, 1982:30). A number of researchers maintain that the higher an employee's level of education, the lower the level of organisational commitment. The negative relationship may result from the fact that highly qualified employees have higher expectations that the organisation may be unable to fulfil, thus resulting in the loss of organisational commitment (Mowday *et al.* 1982:30; Mohammed & Eleswed 2013:46). In contrast, other researchers postulate that higher levels of education enhance the possibility that employees can find alternative employment, which may reduce their levels of organisational commitment (Mowday *et al.*, 1982:30). Martin and Roodt (2008:29) support this finding by stating that organisational commitment may not be a psychological predisposition, but rather in this case the confidence one has about finding alternative work. Therefore, the commitment to the organisation will be lowered as less dependence is placed on the organisation.

### **2.9.6 Tenure**

Meyer and Allen (1984:377) perceive an individual's length of service with a particular organisation to increase because he/she may develop an emotional attachment to the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1984:378) further state that the longer an individual works in a particular organisation the more likely it is that the individual may develop an emotional attachment with the organisation, making it difficult for that individual to switch jobs. Meyer and Allen (1997:15) also suggest that the results of a positive relationship between tenure and organisational commitment might be due to the fact that uncommitted employees leave an organisation, and only those with a high commitment remain. Tenure was significantly correlated with the affective measures of organisational commitment, adding to a substantial body of literature suggesting that employees who are older and who have been employed longer with a particular organisation have a stronger affective commitment to it (Cohen 1993:143).

## **2.10 CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Various research studies have taken place examining the consequences of organisational commitment (Allen and Meyer 1990; Somers 1995; Kreitner and Kinicki 2001; Schultz



2002; Stallworth 2004; Ramay 2010 & Sharma & Bajpai 2010). Turnover, absenteeism, job performance and job satisfaction are consequences of organisational commitment that are widely studied in organisational behaviour (Schultz 2002:7).

### **2.10.1 Turnover**

Given the large investment made in the selection, training and development of personnel, turnover is always costly to organisations in all sectors (Stallworth 2004:945). The consequences of organisational commitment vary according to the individual's basis of attachment. Allen and Meyer (1990:3) state that employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they need to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to do so.

### **2.10.2 Absenteeism**

Previous research indicates that organisational commitment is related negatively to absenteeism. In a study examining a group of nurses, Somers (1995:54) found employees with lower levels of organisational commitment had higher levels of absences. Blau and Boal (1989:117) studied a group of insurance workers and also found that the employees who had higher levels of commitment to the organisation had lower levels of absenteeism. Thus, employees who are strongly committed to the organisation will avoid withdrawal behaviour such as absence from work, and maintain continued attachment to work and to the organisation.

### **2.10.3 Job performance**

Randall (1990:362) states that job performance is one variable that remains under-researched in relation to organisational commitment. In a study investigating the impact of organisational commitment on employee job performance, Khan, Ziauddin, Jam and Ramay (2010:292) discovered that a positive relationship between organisational commitment and employees' job performance existed. All three types of organisational commitment had a positive relationship with employee job performance. However, the findings also revealed that demographic variables such as the age of the respondents, both in public and private sectors, had no significant impact on job performance (Khan *et al.*, 2010:296).

#### **2.10.4 Job satisfaction**

A study conducted in Chhattisgarh, India by Shah, Guha, Singh and Singh (2012:181) found a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. They postulated that this was due to the fact that the more an employee was satisfied with his or her job, the more he or she was committed to the organisation. This means that employees who are satisfied with their jobs are more committed to their organisation. The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is explored further in the next section.

### **2.11 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are two of the most prevalent work attitudes examined in the organisational behaviour literature (Mohammed & Eleswed 2013:43). Managers nowadays consider employees' job satisfaction more important than before because the more satisfied employees are, the more committed they are to their organisations (Mohammed & Eleswed 2013:453). Although job satisfaction and organisational commitment are related, they do not mean the same thing (Igbeneghu & Popoola 2011:8). Job satisfaction is a kind of response to a specific job or job related issues, whereas, organisational commitment is a more global response to an organisation. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are important for determining individual and organisational outcomes (Chiu & Ng 2013:80). Past research has found a positive correlation and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Kreitner & Kinicki 2001:227).

Van der Zee (2009:64) states that there is a direct link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, where job satisfaction is an antecedent of organisational commitment. This thought process assumes that an employee's orientation toward a specific job precedes his or her orientation toward the entire organisation. While there have been many proposed antecedents to organisational commitment, job satisfaction has, perhaps, received more attention than other precursors of organisational commitment. Researchers postulate that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are inversely related. This confirms that there is a strong relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Sharma & Bajpai 2010:10).

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment do not necessarily occur simultaneously, thus it is possible that an employee may exhibit high levels of job satisfaction without having a sense of attachment to, or obligation to remain in, the organisation (Van der Zee 2009:66). Based on this finding, Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:227) advise managers to increase job satisfaction in order to elicit higher levels of commitment, which in turn, will facilitate higher levels of productivity in organisations.

## **2.12 CONCLUSION**

This chapter focused on the theoretical background and definitions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It explored some of the research related to both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Based on the literature above it is evident that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are important for both the employer and the employees. These variables are important because they have an impact on important factors such as turnover and absenteeism. Job satisfaction has an effect on determining whether to stay in or leave the organisation. Employees who are dissatisfied with their work are most likely to leave their organisations. If employees believe that they are treated fairly and rewarded, they are unlikely to leave the organisation.

The next chapter will focus on the research design and methodology that will be used for this study.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

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#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter presented the review of the literature on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The chapter also explored the nature of the relationship between the two constructs based on previous literature. The aim of Chapter 3 was to outline the research methodology used to address the research objectives discussed in Chapter 1. This chapter focused on defining the research design and the research approach used in this study. The sampling procedures, namely the identification of the target population, determination of the sample frame, selection of the sampling method, and determination of the sample size were outlined. The data collection method, measuring instrument, pilot study, and statistical data analysis methods were described, and finally, the ethical considerations and confidentiality aspects of this study were addressed.

#### **3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

A research design is the plan according to which information is collected from research participants (Welman *et al.*, 2005:52). It is used to describe how information will be collected from the participants, in what way will the participants be selected, how the collected information will be analysed, and in what manner the findings will be reported. This is done with a view of reaching conclusions about the research problem as validly, objectively, accurately and economically as possible (Kumar 2014:123). According to Punch (2014:206), the four main ideas of a research design are the strategy, the conceptual framework, the question of who or what will be studied, and the tools to be used for collecting and analysing data. It is the type of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approaches that provides specific direction for procedures in a research study (Creswell 2014:12). Research designs can be classified into three main categories, namely exploratory, descriptive and experimental research designs. Exploratory research designs are flexible and versatile in their nature. In contrast, descriptive designs are well developed, planned and structured, whereas experimental

designs involve some degree of manipulation of one or more variable (Singh & Sahu 2015:33). In this study, the descriptive survey design was adopted.

A descriptive study describes and interprets what is, and in descriptive studies, the role of the researcher is to observe and not intervene in the events as they occur. In order to take note and describe what exists at a particular time in a given situation, researchers make use of a technique known as a survey (Monsen & Van Horn 2008:5). The main focus of descriptive research designs is formulating the objective of the study, designing the method of data collection, selecting the sample from the target population, collecting the data, processing and analysing the data, and reporting the findings (Kothari 2004:37).

A survey involves acquiring information about one or more groups of people, including information about their characteristics, opinions, attitudes, or previous experiences. It is the process of surveying a sample by asking questions and tabulating answers, with the ultimate goal of learning about a large population (Leedy & Ormond 2013:188). Survey approaches typically employ a face-to-face interview, a telephone interview, or a questionnaire. According to Mangal and Mangal (2013:72), survey methods are advantageous in that they:

- assist in measuring and evaluating the advancement of an introduced phenomenon
- are useful in studying the human behaviour in its original form
- are useful for analysing the characteristics of a population
- are helpful in producing a large amount of statistical information quickly and economically
- enable researchers to generate a number of valuable instruments, tools and techniques required to conduct research effectively
- help in exploring relationships between variables in correlation studies

The research approach selected for this study is discussed in the next section.

### **3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH**

In research, approaches are plans and procedures that explain the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation. The selection of a research approach is determined by the nature of the research problem or

issue being addressed in the study (Creswell 2014:3). There are three main approaches that can be applied in research, namely qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches. The difference between qualitative and quantitative research approaches is that the former deals with subjective data produced by the minds of respondents or interviewees, whereas the latter is used to evaluate objective data consisting of numbers (Dawson 2002:14). Furthermore, qualitative research involves small samples of people, studied by means of in-depth methods. In contrast, quantitative approaches usually aim for large numbers of cases and the analysis of results is usually based on statistical significance (Welman *et al.*, 2005:8). Mixed method approaches are relatively new and involve the combination of both qualitative and quantitative data in response to research questions or problems (Creswell 2014:17). The research approach that is adopted in this study is a quantitative approach.

The purpose of conducting quantitative studies is to seek explanations and predictions that will be generalised to persons and places. The intent is to establish, confirm, or validate relationships and to develop generalisations that contribute to existing theories (Leedy & Ormrod 2010:95). Maree and Pietersen (2007:145) describe quantitative research as a process that is systematic and objective by way of using numerical data from only a selected group of a population being studied. The quantitative research approach has three main purposes, namely it conceptualises reality in terms of variables; it measures these variables; and it studies the relationships between these variables (Punch 2014:206).

The quantitative research approach was selected for this study mainly to determine the relationship between the two variables, namely job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The next section deals with the sampling procedure for the study.

### **3.4 SAMPLING PROCEDURE**

Sampling is an important aspect of quantitative research methodology. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:100) stipulate that procedures of sampling arise directly out of the issue of defining the population on which the research will focus. The four key factors in sampling are the sample size, representativeness and parameters of the sample, access to the sample, and the sampling strategy to be used. In view of the aforementioned, the next

section focuses on identifying the target population, determining the sampling frame, selecting the sampling method and determining the sample size.

### **3.4.1 Identifying the target population**

A population encompasses the total collection of all units of analysis about which the researcher wishes to make specific conclusions. It is the full set of cases from which a sample is taken (Welman *et al.*, 2005:52). The population targeted in this study was 765 permanent and contract administrative staff members employed by the university. The population was segmented by seven demographic categories, namely gender, marital status, race, age, education level, income category, length of service and job status. The university has four campuses; thus, all administrative staff members at all the campuses were included in the population. These employees were from four racial groups, namely African, Coloured, Indian and White, and comprised of males and females employed at the university.

### **3.4.2 Determining the sample frame**

A sampling frame is a list of participants in a target population from which a sample is drawn. The purpose of sampling frames is to provide means for choosing the participants that are to be surveyed from the target population (Turner 2003:3). In this study, a list of all administrative staff members was obtained from the Human Resources Department of the university.

### **3.4.3 Selecting the sampling method**

Sarantakos cited in De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2011:224) states that the most important reason for sampling is feasibility, because the complete coverage of the total population is seldom possible. Thus, the observation or study of a phenomenon in its entirety would be tedious and time consuming, and would produce a massive amount of data, which by implication would be difficult to process, analyse and interpret. In research, there are two standard categories of sampling. These two categories are called probability sampling, based on randomisation, and non-probability sampling, which is done without any randomisation (De Vos *et al.*, 2011:228). In this study, the non-probability sampling method was used.

Non-probability sampling does not follow the theory of probability in the choice of sample elements. It is used when either the number of elements in a population is unknown or the elements cannot be individually identified (Kumar 2014:242). In non-probability sampling, the researcher has no way of predicting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample (Leedy & Ormrod 2013:214). Huysamen cited in Wagner *et al.* (2012:92) postulates that non-probability sampling is quite useful for survey research. There are four types of non-probability sampling methods that are used in quantitative research. These include quota sampling, convenience sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling. The convenience sampling method was utilised for this study. Wagner *et al.* (2012:92) conceive that it is the most expedient form of sampling because the researcher uses those in the population who are readily available. Kumar (2014:244) further explains that convenience sampling is primarily guided by convenience factors such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, known contacts, ready approval for undertaking the study, or being a part of the group. The convenience sampling method was utilised for this study due to the fact that the university has four campuses in different geographical areas, thus it was expedient to select participants who were readily available to participate in the study.

#### **3.4.4 Determining the sample size**

According to De Vos *et al.* (2011:224), the larger the population, the smaller the percentage of that population needs to be sampled and vice versa. However, larger samples enable researchers to make representative and accurate conclusions and to make more accurate predictions than in smaller samples.

Leedy and Ormrod (2013:216) advise that if the population is around 1 500, 20 percent of the respondents should be sampled. Following Leedy and Ormrod's advice, a sample of 383 (20% x 765) was selected out of a target population of 765 administrative staff members.

### **3.5 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION AND MEASURING INSTRUMENT**

In descriptive survey research, data are collected by means of a questionnaire. Kumar (2014:178) defines a questionnaire as a "written list of questions, the answers to which are recorded by respondents". In research, there is a large range of questionnaire types.



Cohen *et al.* (2007:322) suggest that the larger the size of the sample, the more structured, close-ended and numerical the questionnaire may have to be, and the smaller the size of the sample, the less structured, more open-ended and word-based the questionnaire may be. For this study, a structured questionnaire with close-ended statements was utilised to collect data from the participants, with the purpose of determining the effect of job satisfaction on the organisational commitment of administrative staff at the university.

Close-ended statements prescribe the range of responses from which the respondent may choose. Highly structured, closed-ended questionnaires are advantageous, in that they:

- generate frequencies of responses which are suitable for statistical analysis
- enable comparisons to be made across groups in the sample
- are quicker to code and analyse than word-based data
- are direct to the point
- are deliberately more focused than open-ended questions (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:321).

The researcher was personally responsible for the administration and collection of all questionnaires. De Vos *et al.* (2011:188) stipulate that the advantages of self-administering questionnaires include saving time and increased response rates due to the personal contact factor. The measuring instrument (Appendix A) comprised the following three sections:

- **Section A – demographic variables**

The first section of the questionnaire focused on obtaining demographic information such as age, gender, marital status, race, educational background, income, length of service and job status in the organisation.

- **Section B – overall job satisfaction scale**

Section B of the questionnaire was adopted from Brayfield and Rothe's overall job satisfaction scale developed in 1951. The overall job satisfaction scale is a rating scale of various levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. It consists of five items and uses a five-point Likert-type scale labelled 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree or agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree. In South Africa, this scale was previously tested and used by Radebe and Dhurup

(2015:716) and obtained acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.90. Internationally, the scale was also used by Allen, Lambert, Pasupuleti, Cluse-Tolar and Ventura (2004:177) and yielded a satisfactory Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.82. This indicated that the measuring instrument adopted is reliable.

- **Section C – organisational commitment scale**

Section C of the questionnaire is the organisational commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) to measure the participants' commitment to their organisations. The adopted version is from Jaros (2007:23), revised to reflect the indebted obligation and moral imperative dimensions of normative commitment. The scale consists of 20 items divided into sub-scales that measure four factors, namely affective commitment, continuance commitment, indebted obligation, and moral imperative. It uses a five-point Likert-type scale labelled 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree or agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree. The adopted measuring instrument was previously used and tested by Mashego and Radebe (2015:107), and achieved a high Cronbach alpha coefficient rate of 0.88. This demonstrated that the adopted measuring instrument is reliable.

### **3.6 PILOT STUDY**

In research, a pilot study refers to “a feasibility study which is a small scale version, or trial run, done in preparation for the major study” (Polit, Beck & Hungler 2001:467). The main purpose of a pilot study is to detect possible flaws or errors in the measurement procedures and to identify unclear or ambiguously formulated items (Welman *et al.*, 2005:148). The pilot for this study was conducted from 04 – 22 May 2015. The questionnaire was distributed to 50 administrative staff members and 43 completed questionnaires were completed and returned. The De Vos *et al.* (2011:177) guideline presupposes that a Cronbach alpha coefficient closer to one, namely >0.70, which indicates high reliability. In the pilot of this study, the overall job satisfaction scale achieved an acceptable initial reliability level of a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.852. Subsequently, this scale was used to investigate the level of job satisfaction among administrative staff at the university. The organisational commitment scale obtained a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.803. This coefficient is acceptable (De Vos *et al.*,

2011:177) and the scale was also utilised to examine the level of commitment the administrative staff members have to the employing university.

### **3.7 STATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS**

Data analysis is the process of describing, categorising and interpreting the data collected (Leedy & Ormrod 2013:97). Welman and Kruger (2004:194) state that data are analysed by means of statistical techniques in order to investigate variables and their effects. The purpose of collecting research data is to make relevant conclusions about the problem that is being investigated and to use the data to answer the research questions (Wagner *et al.*, 2012:176). Quantitative data from the returned questionnaires were coded and entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. SPSS version 23.0 was used to analyse the data. The following section focuses on descriptive statistics and inferential statistics.

#### **3.7.1 Descriptive statistics**

Descriptive statistics are procedures used to summarise, organise and make sense of a set of scores or observations (Privitera 2014:5). Descriptive statistics include frequencies, means and standard deviations and are typically presented graphically, in tabular form (in tables), or as summary statistics (single values). In this study, the SPSS program was used to determine the frequencies, the mean and the standard deviation.

##### **3.7.1.1 Frequencies**

When raw data are organised into frequency distribution, it is easier to understand the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. The frequency is a summary display of how often a category, range or range of scores occurs (Privitera 2014:32). The demographic data collected in respect of gender, marital status, age, education level, income category, length of service in the workplace and current job status, were organised through frequency tables and presented in charts, using Microsoft Excel. This was done in order to present the data graphically.

##### **3.7.1.2 The mean**

The purpose of calculating the mean is to find a score that best represents all of the scores for a construct. It is calculated by adding together all the scores and then dividing the total by the number of scores (Wagner *et al.*, 2012:177). In this study the mean was utilised to

determine the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst the administrative staff at the university.

### **3.7.1.3 The standard deviation**

The standard deviation is by far the most frequently used index of variability. It is the most stable measure of variability and includes every score in its calculation (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen & Walker 2013:129). In essence, the standard deviation helps in understanding approximately how much a particular score deviates from an average score. These standard deviation scores were demonstrated in tabular form for both job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

## **3.7.2 Statistical analysis**

Cohen *et al.* (2007:504) explain that inferential statistics strive to make inferences and predictions based on the data gathered. Inferential statistics are also used to draw conclusions about significant relationships between variables (Vanderstoep & Johnston 2009:94). These will include correlation analysis, regression analysis and factor analysis.

### **3.7.2.1 Correlation analysis**

Correlations are used to describe relationships between variables (Welman *et al.*, 2005:234). A correlational study examines the extent to which differences in one characteristic or variable are related to differences in one or more other characteristics or variables (Leedy & Ormrod 2013:185). It is used to summarise the strength of association between two or more variables (Malhotra & Birks 2006:512). Spearman's *rho* correlation coefficient was utilised to determine the extent and strength of the relationship between two variables, namely job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Spearman's *rho* correlation coefficient was appropriate because the non-probability sampling method was utilised in this study.

### **3.7.2.2 Regression analysis**

Cohen *et al.* (2007:537) state that regression analysis enables the researcher to predict the specific value of one variable when values of the other variable(s) are known or assumed. It is a way of modelling the relationship between variables. For the purpose of this study, a simple linear regression was used, which focused on one explanatory variable (the

independent variable – job satisfaction) and one explained variable (the dependent variable – organisational commitment).

### **3.7.2.3 Factor analysis**

Factor analysis is a method of grouping together variables which have something in common. It is a process which enables the researcher to take a set of variables and reduce them to a smaller number of underlying factors, which account for as many variables as possible. It detects structures and commonalities in the relationships between variables (Malhotra, Birks & Wills 2013:364). Thus, it enables researchers to identify where different variables are addressing the same underlying concept (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:566). In this study, factor analysis for organisational commitment was performed using the SPSS program in which 20 variables were grouped into four factors. The factor analysis output of organisational commitment is explained in Chapter 4.

## **3.8 RELIABILITY**

Reliability is the extent to which an instrument yields the same results across different times and groups of people. Thus, reliability is about consistency (Vanderstoep & Johnston 2009:62). Leedy and Ormrod (2013:91) identify four different types of reliability, namely inter-rater reliability, test-retest reliability, equivalent forms reliability and internal consistency reliability. In this study, the internal consistency reliability was utilised to determine the consistency of the measuring instruments.

### **3.8.1 Internal consistency reliability**

Cohen *et al.* (2007:506) state that internal consistency reliability refers to the correlation of each item with the sum of all the other items. It is a measure of the internal consistency among the items that determines the average correlation among all the items in question, and is used for multi-item scales. A high internal consistency implies a high degree of generalisability across the items within the measurement. The internal consistency is measured by means of Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Welman *et al.*, 2005:146). Cohen *et al.* (2007:506) suggest that the following guidelines for the Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be used:

**Table 3: Guideline for Cronbach's alpha coefficient**

<b>Cronbach's alpha coefficient</b>	<b>Reliability</b>
0.90	very highly reliable
0.80 – 0.90	highly reliable
0.70 – 0.79	reliable, satisfactory
0.60 – 0.69	marginally/minimally reliable

Source: Cohen *et al.* (2007:506)

### **3.9 VALIDITY**

Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:59) stipulate that a measure shows validity if it actually measures what it claims or is intended to measure. An indicator is valid to the extent that it empirically represents the concept it purports to measure (Punch 2014:239). The different types of validity are discussed in the next section.

#### **3.9.1 Face validity**

Face validity is a simple measure of validity, but also the most innocuous measure of validity. An instrument is said to have face validity when it appears to measure the intended construct (Royce 2008:153). Face validity alone is not sufficient to meet accuracy of tests of validity, content and construct validity also need to be measured. How face validity was measured is explained in Section 4.8.2 of Chapter 4.

#### **3.9.2 Content validity**

Content validity is the extent to which statements or questions represent the issue they are supposed to measure (Kumar 2014:214). In order to assess content validity, the researcher compared the content of the items in the measuring instrument with the relevant content domain for the construct being measured (Wagner *et al.*, 2012:81). Content validity of the measuring instrument is presented in Section 4.8.2 of Chapter 4.

#### **3.9.3 Construct validity**

Construct validity is the extent to which an instrument measures a characteristic that cannot be directly observed but is assumed to exist based on patterns in respondents' behaviour (Leedy & Ormrod 2013:90). There are two types of construct validity, namely

convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity focuses on establishing whether the measures that should be related are indeed in reality related. In contrast, discriminant validity shows that measures that should not be related are in reality not related (Wagner *et al.*, 2012:81). The results for the two types of construct validity are presented in Section 4.8.2 of Chapter 4.

### **3.9.4 Predictive validity**

Predictive validity is a type of criterion validity that refers to whether or not the instrument being used predicts the outcomes for which it is theoretically expected to (Muijs 2011:58). It is used when the purpose of the instrument is to predict or estimate the occurrence of a behaviour or event (DePoy & Gitlin 2011:205). In this study, predictive validity was used to ascertain whether the measuring instrument assessed the predictive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The measurement of predictive validity is discussed in Section 4.8.2 of Chapter 4.

## **3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Punch (2014:36) defines research ethics as “a branch of applied ethics focused on the specific contexts of planning, conduction, communicating and following up research”. Ethics relate to two groups of people, namely those conducting research, who should be aware of their obligations and responsibilities, and the participants, who have basic rights that should be protected. Israel and Hay cited in Creswell (2014:92) state that researchers need to protect their research participants, develop trust with them, promote the integrity of research, guard against misconduct and impropriety that might reflect on their organisations or institutions, and cope with new challenges and problems. In this study, the researcher obtained ethical clearance, permission to conduct the study and informed consent from participants.

Ethical clearance and permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Ethics Research Committee of the university (see Appendix B for a copy of the letter of permission). Informed consent from the participants was obtained. Brink and Wood (1998:200) define informed consent as “a legal requirement before one can participate in a study”. The nature of the study was explained to all participants. Prior to administering the questionnaires, the aims and objectives of the study were explained clearly to the

participants. By agreeing to complete the questionnaire, participants gave consent to participate in the study (see Appendix C – letter of consent to participants). Participants were further informed that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study at any time if they wished to do so.

The results were reported in aggregate form with no indication or identification of the respondents in order to maintain the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants. Confidentiality is a basic ethical principle that arises from respect for the right to privacy and functions as a precautionary measure (Punch 2014:47). The questionnaire was completed anonymously and the privacy and confidentiality of data collected were maintained.

### **3.11 CONCLUSION**

This chapter focused on describing the research methodology of this study. The research design and approach used to attain the objectives of the study were discussed. The chapter also outlined in detail the sampling procedures, namely identifying the target population, determining the sample frame, selecting the sampling method and determining the sample size. The method of data collection and the measuring instruments were discussed. The statistical data analysis used to describe, categorise and interpret the data collected, were also outlined. The manner in which the questionnaire was piloted was explained. The validity and reliability of the measuring instruments were explained, and finally, the ethical issues pertaining to this study were addressed.

The next chapter focused on presenting the results and findings of the data obtained from the distributed questionnaires.



## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS AND FINDINGS**

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#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter focused on defining the research design and research methodology used for this study. The research approach, sampling procedure, method of data collection, ethical issues and the statistical analysis were outlined. In this chapter, the collected research data pertaining to the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the administrative staff at the university were presented and analysed. The data collected from the questionnaire were used to assess the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Furthermore, the effect of job satisfaction on the organisational commitment of the administrative staff at the university was analysed. For analysing data, the statistical package program SPSS version 23.0 for Windows was utilised. In this chapter, the sample was described, descriptive and inferential statistics generated for the sample were provided and analysed. Correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Regression analysis was used to determine the predictive relationship between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment. Finally, the reliability and validity of the overall job satisfaction scale and organisational commitment scale were reported.

#### **4.2 PILOT STUDY RESULTS**

The main purpose of a pilot study was to test the reliability of the measuring instrument, to detect any possible flaws or errors in the measurement procedures and to identify unclear or ambiguously formulated items (Welman *et al.*, 2005:148). The adopted questionnaire was distributed to 50 administrative staff and 43 questionnaires were completed and returned during the period of 04 – 22 May 2015. The questionnaire consisted of three sections. Section A dealt with the demographic profile of the pilot respondents, Sections B and C were the overall job satisfaction scale and the organisational commitment scale adapted from Brayfield and Rothe (1951) and Jaros (2007), respectively. The results of the pilot study are presented in Table 4.

**Table 4: Reliability statistics of the measuring instrument**

Sections	No of items	Cronbach's alpha
Section B – Overall job satisfaction scale	5	.852
Section C – Organisational commitment scale	20	.803

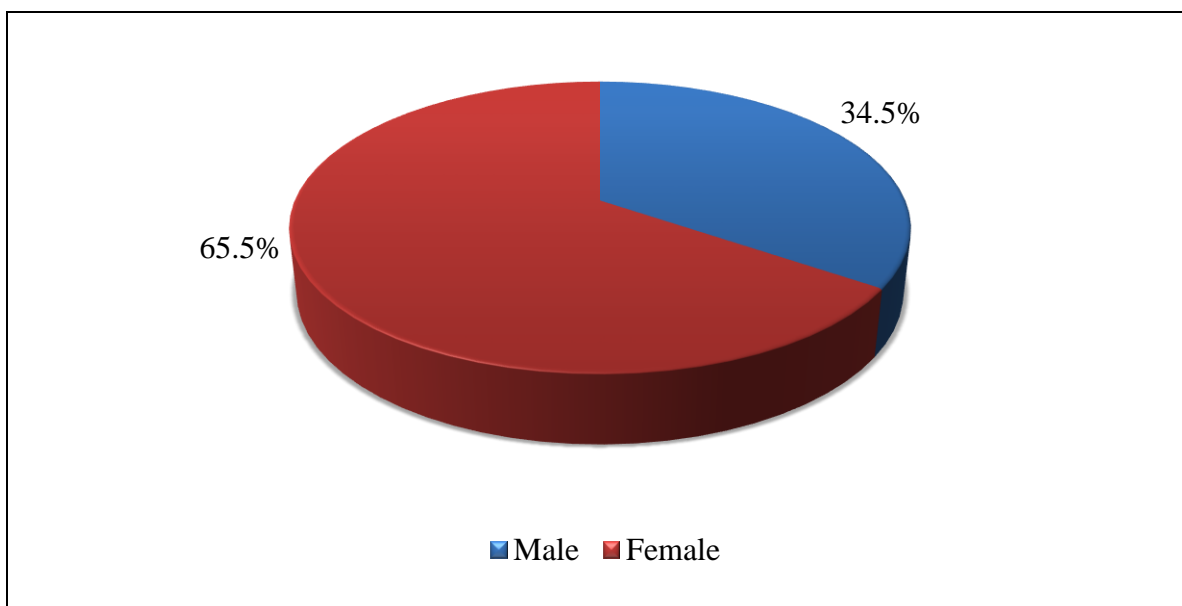
The results of the pilot study indicated that the overall job satisfaction scale achieved an acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficient score of .852. The organisational commitment scale obtained a Cronbach alpha coefficient value of .803. The latter coefficient was also deemed adequate. Subsequently, both measuring instruments were utilised to measure the levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the administrative staff members at the university. The research instruments were also utilised in the determination of the effect of job satisfaction and organisational commitment among the administrative staff members at the university. The next section presents the description of the sample.

### **4.3 SAMPLE DESCRIPTION**

The sample of this study comprised administrative staff members at a university in Gauteng. A total of 383 questionnaires were distributed to the administrative staff members. Of the 383 questionnaires distributed, 210 questionnaires were completed and returned, four of which were discarded because some sections were incomplete. Only 206 questionnaires were usable, and this translated to a total response rate of 51.5 percent. To ensure the representativeness of the sample respondents in survey research, Rubin and Babbie (2010:177) postulate that a response rate of at least 50 percent is usually considered adequate for analysis and reporting. Section A of the questionnaire focused on the demographic profile of the sampled respondents in which participants were required to provide information about gender, marital status, age, education level, income category, length of service in the workplace and current job status.

#### **4.3.1 Gender distribution**

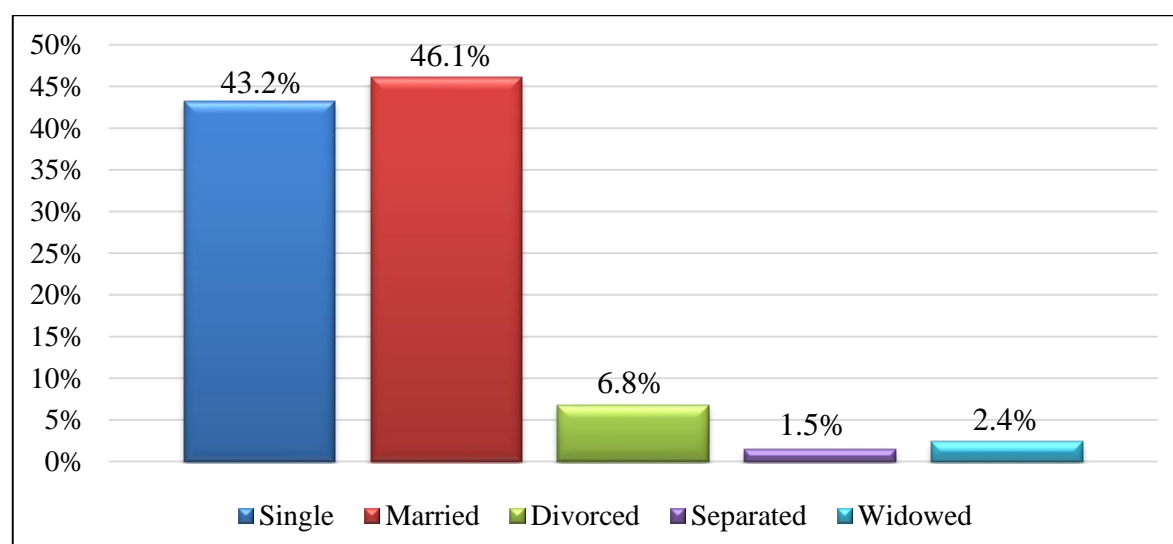
The sample composition presented in Figure 4 indicated that there were less male respondents (34.5%; n= 71) as compared to the females (65.5%; n= 135).



**Figure 4: Sample composition by gender**

#### 4.3.2 Marital status distribution

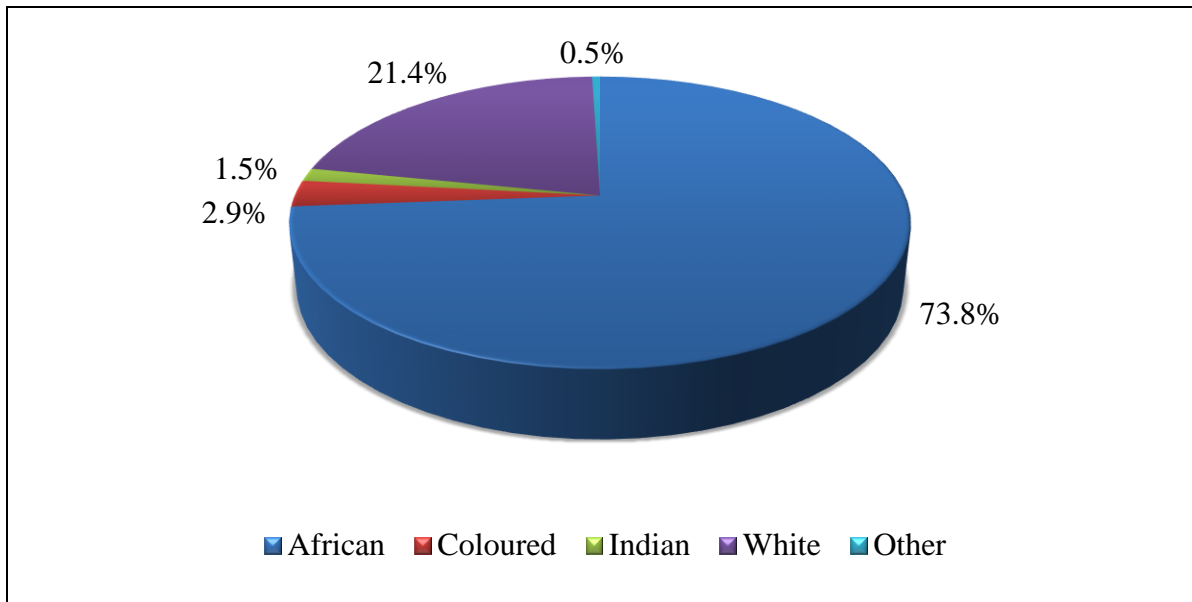
The marital status distribution presented in Figure 5 indicated that there was almost an equal distribution of single and married respondents, with 46.1 percent (n= 89) indicating they were married and 43.2 percent (n= 95) showing they were single. A small component of the sample (6.8%; n= 14) was divorced, while 2.4 percent (n= 5) was widowed and 1.5 percent (n= 3) was separated.



**Figure 5: Sample composition by marital status**

### 4.3.3 Race distribution

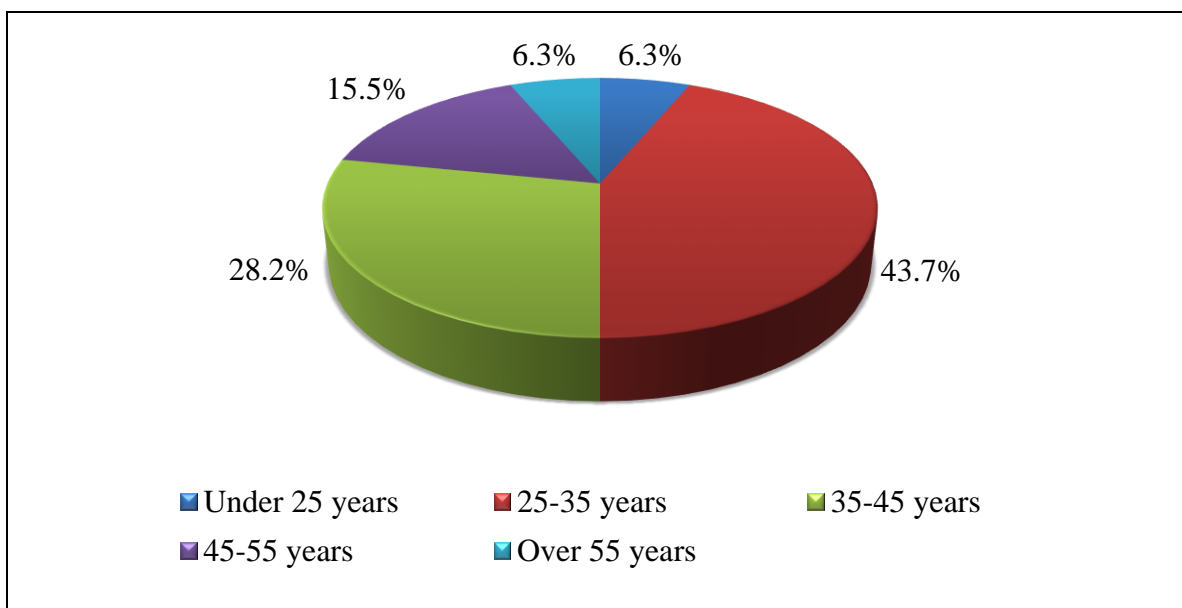
The race distribution of the sample presented in Figure 6 demonstrated that the majority of administrative staff members at the university were African (73.7%; n= 152). The second largest race was White (21.4%; n= 44). This was followed by other minority racial groups, namely Coloured (2.9%; n = 6), Indian (1.5%; n= 3) and other (0.5%; n= 1).



**Figure 6:** Sample composition by race

### 4.3.4 Age distribution

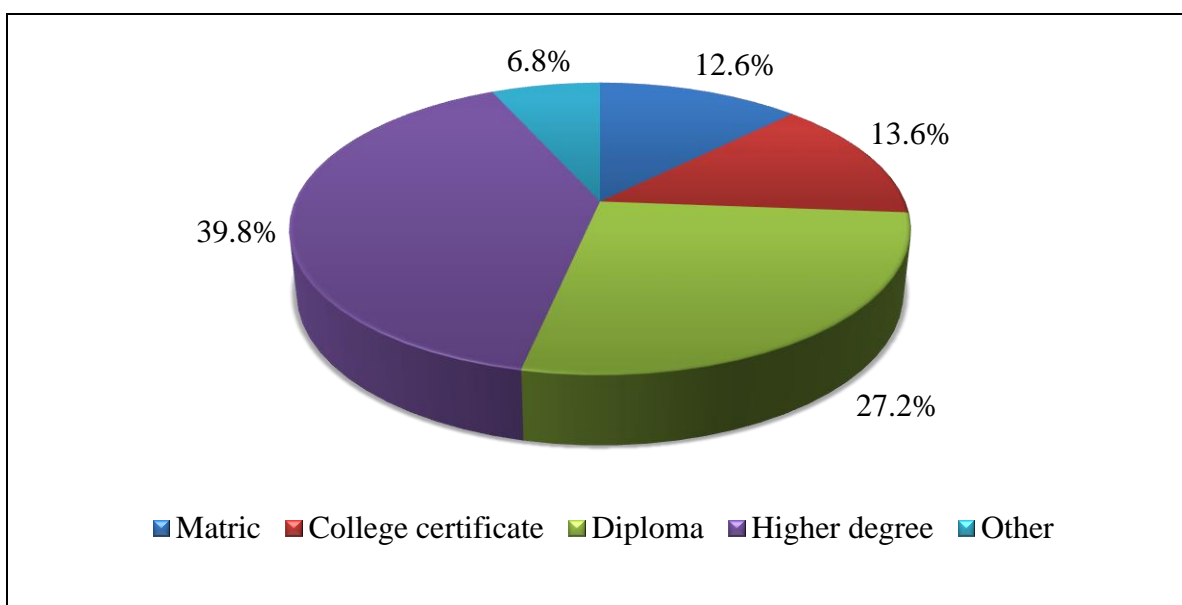
The age distribution of the sample is presented in Figure 7. The majority (43.7%; n= 90) of the administrative staff members were between the ages of 25 and 35, followed by 28.2 percent (n= 58) who were between the ages of 36 and 45. Only 15.5 percent (n= 32) of the respondents were between the ages of 46 and 55, while 6.3 percent (n= 13) were under the age of 25, and over the age of 55 years.



**Figure 7: Sample composition by age**

#### 4.3.5 Education level of respondents

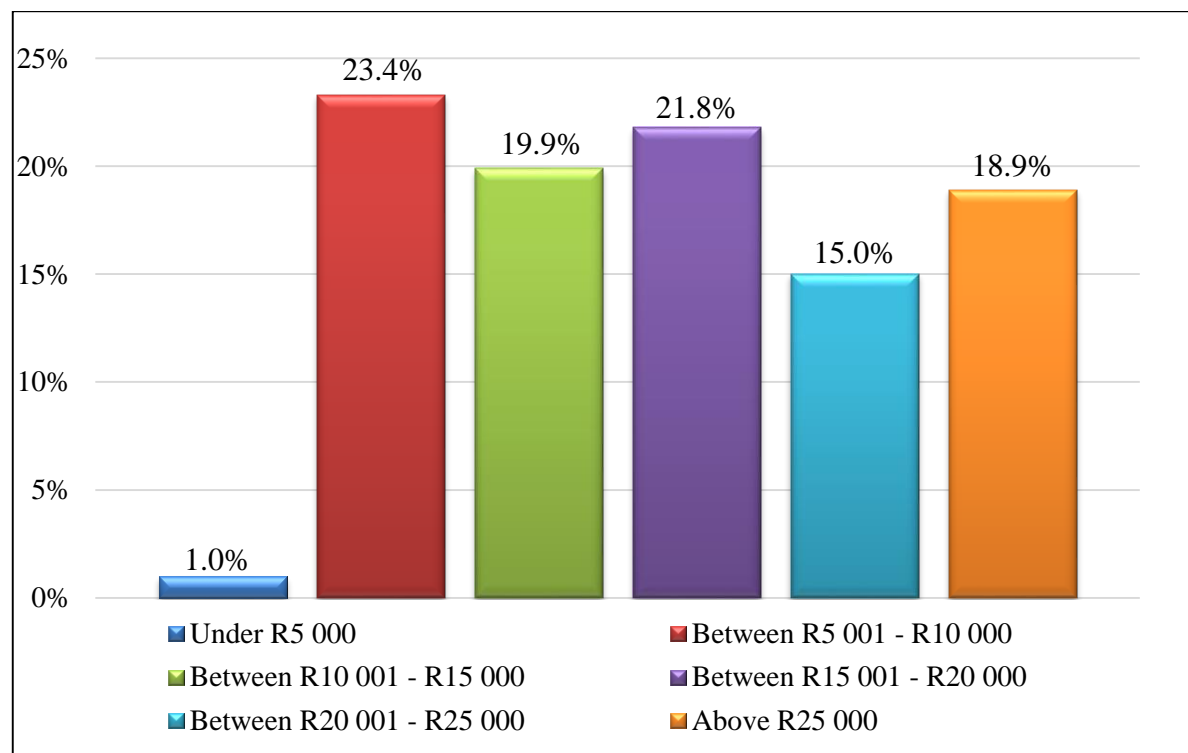
The education level of respondents presented in Figure 8 indicated that 39.8 percent (n= 82) of the administrative staff at the university had a higher degree, followed by 27.2 percent (n= 56) who held a national diploma. A slightly higher percentage (13.6%; n= 28) of respondents indicated that they were in possession of a college certificate, while 12.6 percent (n= 26) had matric as their highest qualification. Only a small component of the sampled respondents (6.8%; n= 14) indicated that they had other qualifications.



**Figure 8: Sample composition by education level**

#### 4.3.6 Income category of respondents

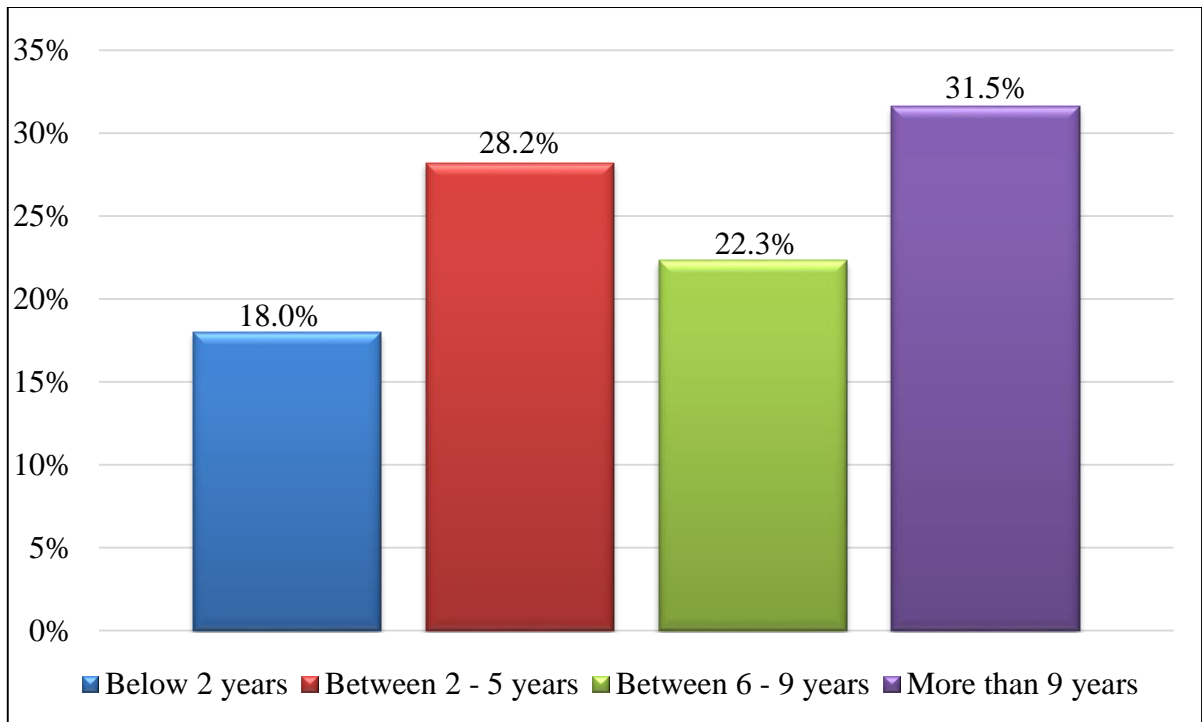
Figure 9 shows that the majority (23.4%; n= 48) of the administrative staff members at the university earned between R5 001 and R10 000 a month. This was closely followed by 21.8 percent (n= 45) who earned between R15 001 and R20 000, and 19.9 percent (n= 41) who earned between R10 001 and R15 000 a month. A relatively higher percentage (18.9%; n= 39) of the respondents earned R25 000 and above, in comparison to 15 percent (n= 31) in the monthly income bracket of R20 001 and R25 000. Lastly, 1 percent (n= 2) of the sampled respondents indicated that they earned less than R5 000 a month.



**Figure 9: Sample composition by income category**

#### 4.3.7 Length of service in the workplace

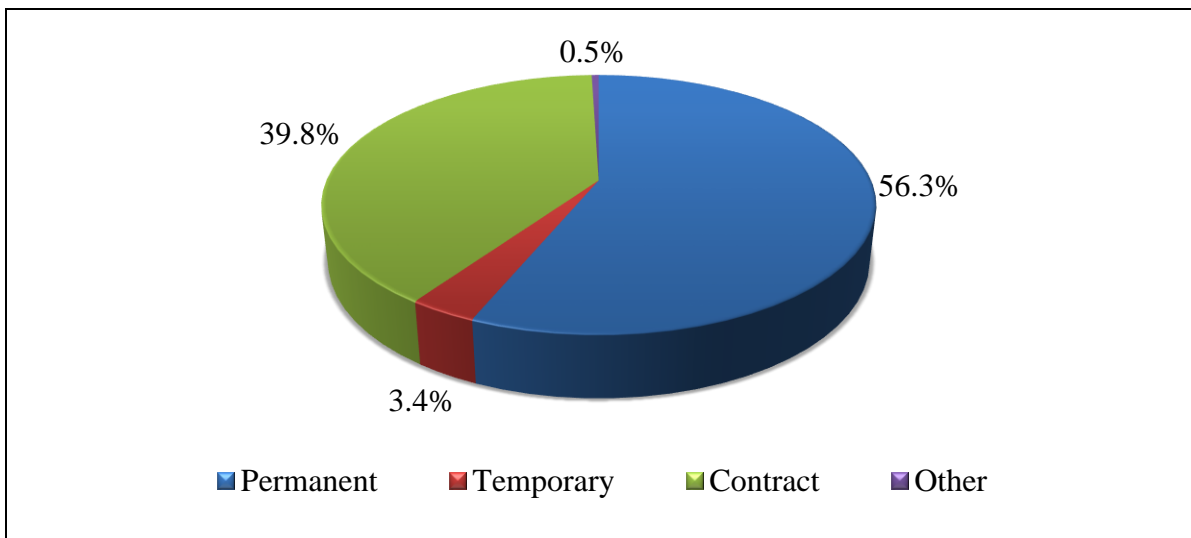
Figure 10 represents the length of service the administrative staff members had with the university at the time of the collection of the data. A fairly large component of the sample (31.5%; n= 65) were employed by the university for a period of more than 9 years. This was closely followed by 28.2 percent (n= 58) who were employed for a period of 2 – 5 years. However, only 22.3 percent (n= 46) were employed for 6 – 9 years, and those who had less than 2 years length of service at the university were in the minority (18%; n = 37).



**Figure 10: Sample composition by length of service in the workplace**

#### 4.3.8 Current job status

Figure 11 illustrates that a large proportion of the sample (56.3%; n= 116) were employed permanently as administrative staff at the university. This was followed by 39.8 percent (n= 82) of the sample that was employed on contract. Only a small component of the sampled respondents (3.4%; n= 7) were employed temporarily, while 0.5 percent (n= 1) of sampled employees indicated other job status.



**Figure 11: Sample composition by current job status**

The next section focuses on presenting the results of the analysis of descriptive statistics.

#### 4.4 ANALYSIS OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

This section focuses on the analysis of the means of data from sections B and C of the questionnaire. The sections pertain to job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The results of the means analysis of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are discussed in the following sub-sections.

##### 4.4.1 Means analysis of job satisfaction

The overall job satisfaction scale (Appendix A) was utilised to measure the level of job satisfaction among the administrative staff members at the university. Respondents were requested to stipulate their level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their current job. The rating scale used a five-point Likert-type scale labelled 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree or agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree. The minimum and maximum values were based on the lowest and highest values on a five-point Likert scale. The results are reflected in Table 5.

**Table 5: Means analysis of job satisfaction**

Scale description	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.
B1 – I definitely like my job	206	1.0	5.0	4.10	0.94
B2 – I like my job better than the average worker does	206	1.0	5.0	3.82	0.93
B3 – Most days I am enthusiastic about my job	206	1.0	5.0	3.84	0.99
B4 – I find real enjoyment in my job	206	1.0	5.0	3.78	1.02
B5 – I feel fairly well satisfied with my job	206	1.0	5.0	3.61	1.09
<b>Overall mean score for job satisfaction</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>5.0</b>	<b>3.82</b>	<b>0.82</b>
Valid N (list wise)	206				

The mean rating in terms of the level of job satisfaction of the administrative staff members are reported in Table 5. Item B1 recorded the highest mean score (M= 4.10).



This showed that the majority of the administrative staff members agreed that they definitely liked their current jobs. The second highest mean score was for item B3 ( $M=3.84$ ) where the respondents agreed that most days they were enthusiastic about their jobs. Item B2 reflected a mean score of 3.82 which indicated that the respondents liked their jobs better than the average worker did. Items B4 and B5 had mean scores of 3.78 and 3.61 respectively. These two items showed that the administrative staff members found enjoyment in their jobs, and felt fairly well satisfied with their jobs. The overall mean score for job satisfaction of the administrative staff members ( $n=206$ ) was 3.82. This implied that the majority of the respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their current job at the university.

The standard deviation provides an indication of how far the individual responses deviate from the mean. The smaller the standard deviation, the more tightly the values are clustered around the mean (Babbie 2008:453). The overall standard deviation ( $SD=0.82$ ) showed an acceptable distribution of responses within the sample.

Herzberg's two-factor theory suggests that motivators are factors that may contribute a great deal to the level of job satisfaction among employees. These motivators include factors such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth (Herzberg *et al.*, 1959:45). Thus, the satisfaction of the administrative staff members with their jobs could be attributed to these intrinsic factors or motivators.

The results of the means analysis for organisational commitment are presented in the next section.

#### **4.4.2 Means analysis of organisational commitment**

The organisational commitment scale (Appendix A) was utilised to determine how committed the administrative staff were to the employing university. Respondents were requested to specify the extent of disagreement or agreement with the statements, using a five-point Likert scale labelled 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree or agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree. First, factor analysis was performed to determine the number of factors in the 20 items of the organisational commitment scale. A four factor structure emerged from the factor analysis procedure. The four factors were classified as affective commitment, continuance commitment, indebted obligation and moral imperative. The results of the factor analysis are reported in Section 4.5.1 of this chapter.

**Table 6: Means analysis of organisational commitment**

Scale description	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.
Factor 1: Moral imperative	206	1.0	5.0	3.48	0.93
Factor 2: Continuance commitment	206	1.0	5.0	3.09	0.83
Factor 3: Indebted obligation	206	1.0	5.0	3.30	0.93
Factor 4: Affective commitment	206	1.0	5.0	3.60	0.86
<b>Overall mean score for organisational commitment</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>5.0</b>	<b>3.37</b>	<b>0.89</b>
Valid N (list wise)	206				

The affective commitment factor recorded the highest mean score ( $M = 3.60$ ). This indicated that the administrative staff members remained members of the university because they wanted to. This also showed that the administrative staff members could easily identify with, were involved in, and emotionally attached to the university. The moral imperative factor recorded a mean score of  $M = 3.48$ . This revealed that the administrative staff members maintained their membership at the university because they felt a sense of loyalty or moral obligation toward the university. The continuance commitment factor obtained a mean score of ( $M = 3.09$ ), which pointed out that the administrative staff members remained in the university because they needed to and that they recognised the costs associated with leaving the university. Lastly, the indebted obligation factor achieved the lowest mean score ( $M = 3.30$ ), which implied that the administrative staff members remained members of the university in order to meet certain obligations. The results of the means analysis presented in Table 6 also indicated that the mean score for all four organisational commitment factors was above 3.00 ( $M = 3.37$ ), which pointed out that the administrative staff members ( $n = 206$ ) were committed to the university. The overall standard deviation ( $SD = 0.89$ ) showed an acceptable distribution of responses within the sample.

The organisational commitment of the administrative staff members to the university could be as a result of valued investments such as time, effort and money that would be lost or deemed worthless if the administrative staff members were to leave the university (Meyer & Allen 1984:373). Becker's side-bet theory described this type of commitment

as engaging in consistent lines of activity as a result of the increased side-bets that would be lost if the activity was discontinued (Becker 1960:33). When used to explain commitment to the organisation, the consistent line of activity refers to maintaining membership in the organisation. In Meyer and Allen's three-component model, this view of commitment was labelled as continuance commitment. Subsequent to the side-bet theory, Meyer and Allen (1997) added the affective and normative commitment dimensions to develop the three-component model.

The next section focuses on reporting the results about factor analysis, correlations between job satisfaction and organisational commitment and the predictive relationship between the two constructs using regression analysis.

## **4.5 FACTOR ANALYSIS**

This section focuses on factor analysis by means of which items were reduced and grouped into intercorrelated variables. Prior to conducting the factor analysis procedure, it was necessary to perform the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and the Bartlett tests in order to determine whether factor analysis was appropriate for the data set in this study.

### **4.5.1 KMO and Bartlett tests**

The KMO is a measure based on the principle that if variables share common factors, then partial correlations between pairs of variables should be small when the effects of the other variables are controlled. A KMO measure should be greater than 0.50 for a satisfactory factor analysis to proceed (Munro 2005:336). In this study, the KMO and Bartlett tests were conducted for organisational commitment. The KMO measure for organisational commitment, as shown in Table 7, was 0.866, which was greater than 0.50, which meant that the data set for this study was suitable for factor analysis.

The KMO measure is supported by the Bartlett's test of sphericity, which is used to evaluate whether a correlation matrix is suitable for factor analysis. Table 7 indicates that the Bartlett's associated probability for organisational commitment was significant at  $p < .001$ .

**Table 7: KMO and Bartlett tests**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy.		0.866
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	1186.662
	df	91
	Sig.	0.000

The KMO and Bartlett test results indicated that the variables have some correlation with each other and that the data set was suitable for factor analysis. Thus, a factor analysis was performed on organisational commitment. The next section presents the results of the factor analysis for organisational commitment.

#### **4.5.1.1 Factor analysis for organisational commitment**

In this study, factor analysis was used to determine the number of factors that accounted for the inter-correlations among the 20 items of organisational commitment and to determine how strongly each item is related to the factors. This was done with the purpose of investigating the types of commitment that the administrative staff members had to the university. The results of the factor analysis for organisational commitment, that is, the eigenvalues, the percentage of variance and the cumulative percentage of the four factors, are presented in Table 8.

**Table 8: Eigenvalues, percentage of variance explained and cumulative percentage of organisational commitment**

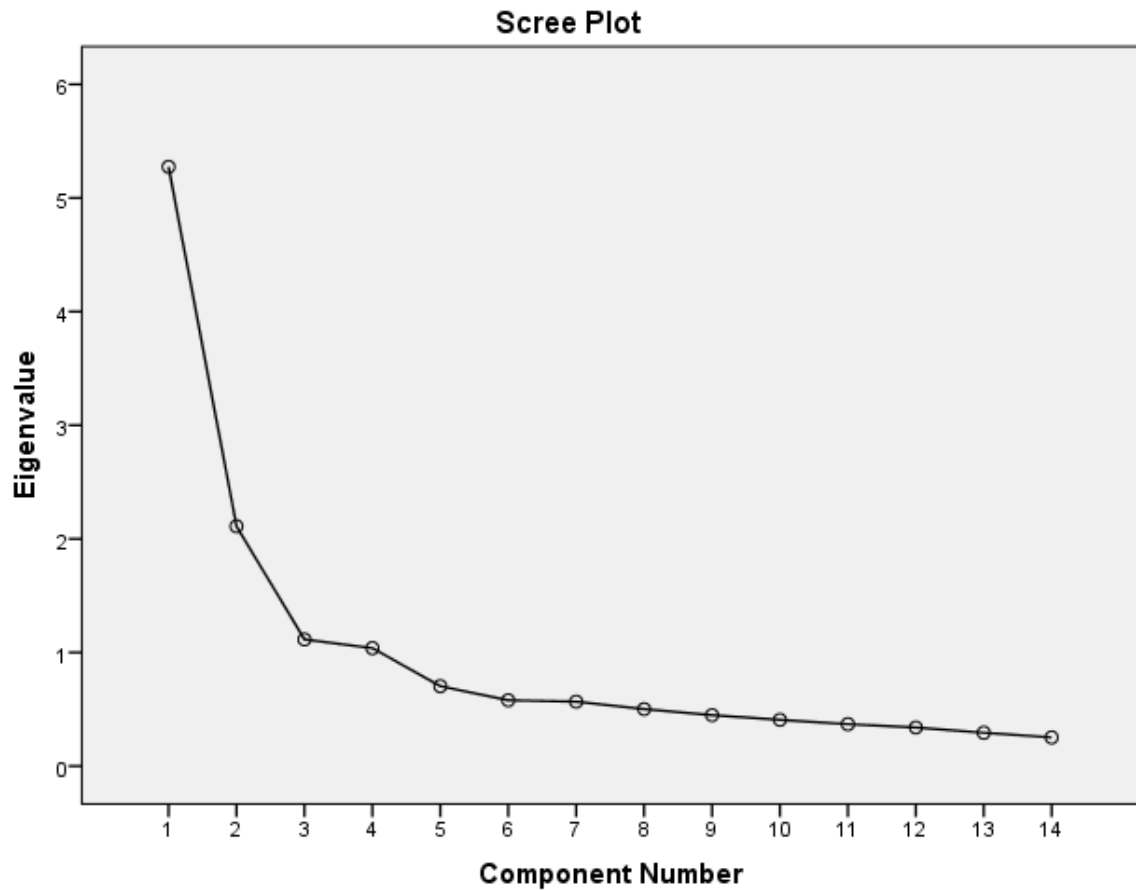
Dimension description	No of items	Eigenvalues	% of variance	Cumulative %
Moral imperative	4	5.275	37.675	37.675
Continuance commitment	4	2.111	15.076	52.751
Indebted obligation	3	1.114	7.960	60.711
Affective commitment	3	1.038	7.415	68.126

Using the Kaiser-Guttman rule, also referred to as the Kaiser criterion or the eigenvalues >1.0 rule, only factors with eigenvalues equal to or greater than 1.0 were considered significant. Brown (2015:23) stipulates that the logic of the Kaiser-Guttman rule is that

when an eigenvalue is less than 1.0, the variance explained by a factor is less than the variance of a single indicator, and is thus insignificant. The extraction method utilised during factor analysis was the principal component analysis (PCA) through varimax with Kaiser normalisation.

The PCA is a factor extraction method introduced by Karl Pearson in the early 1900s, used to discover and interpret the dependencies that exist among variables and to examine relationships that occur among variables (Timm 2002:445.). A variable was considered significant and included in a factor when its factor loading was equal to or greater than 0.50. For scale refinement items C3, C4, C9, C11, C15 and C17 were omitted from further analysis. These items were removed because their values for factor loading were low ( $< 0.50$ ). Varimax minimises the number of variables that have high loadings on each factor with the goal of making small loadings even smaller, but maximises the number of high loadings on each variable. The main purpose of factor rotation is to attain an optimal simple structure, which attempts to have each variable load on as few factors as possible (Yong & Pearce 2013:84). As a result, a four factor structure emerged from the PCA through varimax with Kaiser normalisation procedure. The four factors were categorised as moral imperative, continuance commitment, indebted obligation and affective commitment.

The scree test, developed by Raymond Cattell in 1966, is an alternative test to methods such as the Kaiser-Guttman test for determining the number of factors in a factor analysis that explain the amount of the variance that is shared between common variables (Lewis-Beck, Bryman & Liao 2003:1005). The scree plot shows the eigenvalues on the y-axis and the number of factors on the x-axis. The downward curve on the scree plot displays the number of factors shared between common variables. The point where the slope of the curve is clearly leveling off (the elbow), indicates the number of factors that should be generated by the analysis. In this study, the scree plot presented in Figure 12 suggested four factors of organisational commitment due to the way the slope levels off after the fourth factor. The point of inflexion on Figure 12 is indicated by the arrow on the scree plot. The scree test confirmed that there were four factors identified for organisational commitment.



**Figure 12: Scree plot of eigenvalues of organisational commitment**

Table 9 displays the factor loading matrix of the measuring instrument, which represents the summary of the final factor structure of organisational commitment.

**Table 9: Factor loading matrix of organisational commitment**

Scale description	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
C16. My organisation deserves my loyalty because of its treatment towards me	.832	.237	.091	.129
C18. I am loyal to this organisation because my values are largely its values	.730	.254	.186	.262
C19. This organisation has a mission that I believe in and am committed to	.745	.101	.187	.340
C20. I feel it is 'morally correct' to dedicate myself to this organisation	.765	.219	.174	.195
C10. If I wasn't a member of this organisation, I would be sad because my life would be disrupted	.245	.638	.109	.021
C12. I often feel anxious about what I have to lose with this organisation	.100	.725	-.070	.210
C13. Sometimes I worry about what might happen if something was to happen to this organisation and I was no longer a member	.068	.746	.000	.236
C14. I am dedicated to this organisation because I fear what I have to lose in it	.278	.785	-.044	.009
REVC5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation	.146	-.130	.830	.135
REVC6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation	.086	.056	.787	.245
REVC8. I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organisation	.218	.056	.819	.024
C1. I am very happy being a member of this organisation	.300	.200	.187	.747
C2. I enjoy discussing about my organisation with people outside it	.146	.144	.104	.837
C7. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.313	.122	.163	.705

Extraction method: PCA with varimax with Kaiser normalisation. Rotation converged in six iterations.

Factor 1, labelled moral imperative, comprised four variables which accounted for 38 percent of the variance explained by the factor. Employees with this type of attachment to organisations strive to meet valued outcomes (Jaros 2007:12). Employees, with moral imperative, reported stronger intentions to stay in the organisation, and greater discretionary performance (Barling & Cooper 2008:44). A moral duty mindset is associated with positive beliefs such as inherent goodness, meaningfulness, optimism and inspiration (Meyer & Parfyonova 2010:287). When employees feel a strong sense of affective commitment, obligations might be experienced as a moral imperative, that is, ‘this is the right thing to do and I want to do it’. In this case, employees may be inclined to do whatever it takes to achieve organisational objectives even if it is not required by the terms of the commitment (Markovits *et al.*, 2006:6).

The second factor was labelled continuance commitment and comprised four variables. The variables accounted for 15 percent of the variance explained. Employees with a strong continuance commitment remain with the organisation because they feel they need to (Allen & Meyer 1990:3). Powell and Meyer (2004:159) further explain that continuance commitment is expected to develop in response to conditions that increase the cost of leaving (side-bets). This means that employees commit to the organisation because the costs of leaving are too high (Daneshfard & Ekvaniyan 2012:169).

Factor 3 was labelled indebted obligation comprising three variables which accounted for 8 percent of the variance explained. Employees with this kind of commitment reflect the perceived need to meet others’ expectations (Jaros 2007:12). Meyer and Parfyonova (2010:287) suggest that the mindset of such employees reflects a sense of having to pursue a course of action of benefit to a target, to avoid the social costs of failing to do so. It is associated with less positive beliefs (e.g. indebtedness, inconvenience, guilt, and frustration). In contrast to the moral imperative dimension of commitment, when affective commitment is low and continuance commitment is high, normative commitment might be experienced as an indebted obligation, that is, ‘something one has to do to meet obligations and/or save face’ (Markovits *et al.*, 2006:6).

Finally, the fourth factor, labelled affective commitment, comprised three variables that accounted for 7 percent of the variance explained. Employees who are affectively committed are emotionally attached to their organisations (Jaros 2007:12). Employees with a strong affective commitment can identify with the organisation and continue



employment with the organisation because they want to do so (Meyer & Allen 1991:67). Powell and Meyer (2004:159) state that affective commitment is expected to have the strongest positive effect on desirable work behaviours such as attendance, performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (Powell & Meyer 2004:159). Employees who are affectively committed to their organisations continue working for an organisation because they agree with its goals and values and they desire to remain members of that organisation (Greenberg & Baron 2003:162). Beck and Wilson cited in Mguqulwa (2008:30) state that members who are committed on an affective level stay with the organisation because they view their personal employment relationship as congruent to the goals and values of the organisation.

The four factors of organisational commitment accounted for 68 percent of the total variance explained.

The next section focuses on correlation analysis, which aims to establish if any correlational relationship existed between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment.

#### **4.6 CORRELATION ANALYSIS**

In this study correlation was used to analyse the relationship, positive or negative, between the two variables, namely job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The method used to analyse and test the nature of the relationship between these variables was the Spearman's *rho* correlation coefficient test. Spearman's *rho* correlation coefficients vary between -1 and +1, with +1 indicating a perfect positive relationship (a high score on variable X = a high score on variable Y), -1 indicating a perfect negative relationship (a high score on X = a low score on Y), and zero indicating no relationship (Vaughan 2001:143). The correlation guide that was used to interpret the strength of the relationship between variables is reflected in Table 10.

**Table 10: Guideline on strength of the relationship between variables**

Value of <i>r</i>	Strength of relationship
0.5 – 1.0	Strong
0.3 – 0.5	Moderate
0.1 – 0.3	Weak
0.0 – 0.1	Very weak

Source: Adapted from Taylor (1990:37)

Correlational relationships can be very weak, weak, moderate, strong or very strong depending on their absolute values (Taylor 1990:37). Table 11 presents the relationship between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment in this study.

**Table 11: Correlations between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment**

Spearman's <i>rho</i>		Moral Imperative	Continuance Commitment	Indebted Obligation	Affective Commitment	Job Satisfaction
<b>Moral imperative</b>	Correlation coefficient	1.000				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.				
	N	206				
<b>Continuance commitment</b>	Correlation coefficient	.455**	1.000			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.			
	N	206	206			
<b>Indebted obligation</b>	Correlation coefficient	.374**	.061	1.000		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.382	.		
	N	206	206	206		
<b>Affective commitment</b>	Correlation coefficient	.589**	.334**	.378**	1.000	

Spearman's <i>rho</i>		Moral Imperative	Continuance Commitment	Indebted Obligation	Affective Commitment	Job Satisfaction
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	
	N	206	206	206	206	
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	Correlation coefficient	.442**	.133	.309**	.504**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.057	.000	.000	.
	N	206	206	206	206	206

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

The correlation results in Table 11 revealed a significantly strong relationship ( $r = .504^{**}$ ;  $p < .000$ ) between job satisfaction and affective commitment. This indicated that as the job satisfaction of the administrative staff members increased, they were inclined to develop an emotional attachment to the university. This correlation also implied that the more satisfied the administrative staff members was with their current jobs, the more likely they were to retain membership of the university because they regarded the goals and values of the university as their own. The administrative staff members would stay committed to the university because they desired to do so. These results are supported by the findings of Imam, Raza, Shah and Raza (2013:273) who also established positive correlations between job satisfaction and affective commitment. Paul (2004:139) states that employees with strong affective commitment were characterised by a sense of personal involvement in the organisations for which they work.

On the relationship between job satisfaction and moral imperative, there seemed to be a moderately significant and positive correlation among the variables ( $r = .442^{**}$ ;  $p < .000$ ). These results showed that as the job satisfaction of the administrative staff members continued to improve, the more they felt morally obliged to continue employment with the university. The administrative staff members might be inclined to do whatever it took to achieve the objectives of the university even if it was not required of them. The administrative staff members would stay in the employment of the university because they felt they wanted to and that it was the right thing to do. Employees who were satisfied with their jobs displayed a moral duty mindset that carries with it a strong sense

of desire to remain committed to an organisation because it is the right and moral thing to do (Meyer & Parfyonova 2010:287).

The results of the correlation analysis also revealed a moderately significant relationship between job satisfaction and indebted obligation ( $r = .309^{**}$ ;  $p < .000$ ). These results indicated that an increased level of indebted obligation among administrative staff at the university was associated with job satisfaction. The results are consistent with the findings of Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane and Ferreira (2011:111) who also found significant positive correlations between job satisfaction and indebted obligation. Lumley *et al.* (2011:113) state that employees who are satisfied with their jobs feel more obliged to remain with their respective organisations. The positive correlation was also attributed to job satisfaction factors such as pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, co-workers, nature of the work and communication. These factors of job satisfaction were significant in terms of explaining the employees' commitment to their organisations. Meyer and Parfyonova (2010:287) postulate that as a result of high job satisfaction levels, employees' inclination is to develop a positive belief of indebtedness about an organisation and feelings of guilt or frustration if they are to fail to assist an organisation to achieve its targets.

A weak relationship was observed between job satisfaction and continuance commitment ( $r = .133$ ;  $p < .000$ ). This indicated that the continuance commitment of the administrative staff members to the university was not associated with the job satisfaction of the administrative staff members in their current jobs. These results are consistent to the findings of Sonia (2010:89) whose study also found a weak correlation between job satisfaction and continuance commitment. Contrary to this finding, Meyer *et al.* (1993:547) opine that continuance commitment developed when an employee made investments (e.g. the time and effort put into acquiring profession-specific knowledge and skills) as a result of higher levels of job satisfaction.

Other than the positive relationships between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment, correlations were also observed between the factors of organisational commitment. In this regard, a significantly strong relationship was found between affective commitment and moral imperative ( $r = .589^{**}$ ;  $p < .000$ ). This finding is supported by the assertion of Gellatly *et al.* (2006:342) that employees who have a strong sense of obligation to an organisation feel that they have a moral duty to stay with the

employing organisation. Meyer and Parfyonova (2010:285) add that employees have the propensity to do whatever it takes to achieve the objectives of the organisation even if it is not required by the terms of the commitment.

The results also reflected a significant moderate relationship between continuance commitment and moral imperative ( $r = .455^{**}$ ;  $p < .000$ ). Similar findings were reported by Meyer and Parfyonova (2010:286) who also found a modest correlation between continuance commitment and normative commitment. Gellatly *et al.* (2006:342) postulate that the nature of employees' normative commitment changed as a result of the strength of the other two components, namely affective and continuance commitment. Meyer and Parfyonova (2010:287) established that when continuance commitment was high, normative commitment might be experienced as an indebted obligation rather than a moral imperative. Markovits *et al.* (2008:485) advise that the moral imperative factor of organisational commitment stemmed from the dual nature of normative commitment, that it can be experienced either as a moral duty or as a sense of indebted obligation.

On the relationship between indebted obligation and moral imperative, there seemed to be a statistically significant but moderate correlation ( $r = .374^{**}$ ;  $p < .000$ ). This suggested that the administrative staff members remained committed to the university not only because of feelings of indebtedness, but also because they felt it was the morally right thing to do. This correlation is plausible since indebted obligation and moral imperative both originate from the normative commitment factor of Meyer and Allen's three component model of organisational commitment. Gellatly *et al.* (2006:342) explain that normative commitment, experienced as indebted obligation, occurs when an employee retains membership with an organisation because the investments made by the organisation are too high; and that normative commitment, experienced as moral imperative, happens when employees maintain membership in an organisation because they want to and feel it is the right thing to do. In this case, employees may be persuaded to do whatever it takes to achieve the objectives of the organisation.

Similar significant but moderate correlations were found between affective commitment and continuance commitment ( $r = .334^{**}$ ;  $p < .000$ ). This implied that the administrative staff members that were committed to the university because of their emotional attachment, were also likely to remain in the employment of the university because the costs associated with leaving were too high. These results are supported by the findings of

Kipkebut (2010:160) who also obtained positive correlations between continuance commitment and affective commitment. Kipkebut (2010:227) argues that the accumulation of investments or costs that bind an employee to an organisation can result in the development of an affective attachment to the organisation. Cohen (2003) cited in Kipkebut (2010:228) adds that employees become affectively attached to their organisations in order to reduce the painful reality of being trapped in their organisations because of the high costs associated with leaving.

Lastly, the relationship between affective commitment and indebted obligation (normative commitment experienced as a sense of indebtedness) also revealed statistically significant but moderate correlations ( $r = .378^{**}$ ;  $p < .000$ ). These results are similar to the findings of Meyer *et al.* (2002:28) whose study also achieved significant correlations between affective commitment and normative commitment. Meyer *et al.* (2002:40) posit that the positive work experiences that contribute to strong affective commitment also contribute to feelings of obligation to reciprocate. The strength of the correlation between affective and normative commitment was also attributed to the scale used to measure the correlation between the constructs.

The next section presents the results of the regression analysis, which was used to further analyse the predictive relationship between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment.

#### **4.7 REGRESSION ANALYSIS**

Regression analysis is a statistical technique that focuses on investigating and modelling the relationship between variables (Montgomery, Peck & Vining 2012:1). In this study regression analysis was used to establish the predictive relationships between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment, namely moral imperative, continuance commitment, indebted obligation and affective commitment. All four factors of organisational commitment were specified in the model and analysed for model fit. Job satisfaction was entered into the regression equation as the independent variable, and the four factors of organisational commitment were entered as dependent variables. The results of the regression analysis are presented in Table 12.

**Table 12: Regression analysis of job satisfaction as a predictor of the four factors of organisational commitment**

Model 1	Dependent variable: Factor 1 – Moral imperative				
Independent variable: Job satisfaction	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std. error	Beta		
	.551	.069	.488	7.984	.000
R= .488 <sup>a</sup> ; R <sup>2</sup> = .238; Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = .234; Std. Error of the Estimate= .81412; R <sup>2</sup> Change= .238; F Change= 63.739					
Model 2	Dependent variable: Factor 2 – Continuance commitment				
Independent variable: Job satisfaction	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std. error	Beta		
	.232	.069	.231	3.385	.001
R= .231 <sup>a</sup> ; R <sup>2</sup> = .053; Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = .049; Std. Error of the Estimate= .81013; R <sup>2</sup> Change= .053; F Change= 11.456					
Model 3	Dependent variable: Factor 3 – Indebted obligation				
Independent variable: Job satisfaction	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std. error	Beta		
	.347	.076	.306	4.589	.000
R= .306 <sup>a</sup> ; R <sup>2</sup> = .094; Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = .089; Std. Error of the estimate= .89387; R <sup>2</sup> Change= .094; F Change= 21.063					
Model 4	Dependent variable: Factor 4 – Affective commitment				
Independent variable: Job satisfaction	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std. error	Beta		
	.566	.061	.543	9.228	.000
R= .543 <sup>a</sup> ; R <sup>2</sup> = .294; Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = .291; Std. Error of the estimate= .72460; R <sup>2</sup> Change= .294; F Change= 85.149					

Model 1 represents the regression analysis results of job satisfaction as a predictor of the moral imperative factor. In examining the results of the first regression model displayed in Table 12, the beta coefficient ( $\beta = .488$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ) indicated that job satisfaction had a positive predictive relationship with the moral imperative factor. These results indicated that job satisfaction of the administrative staff members at the university contributed significantly to the prediction of moral imperative. This suggested that the administrative staff members who were satisfied with their jobs stayed committed to university because they felt they ought to. Administrative staff members who were morally committed would strive to meet the objectives of the university. The results of the regression analysis in Model 1 also showed that 23 percent ( $R^2 = .234$ ) of the variation in the moral imperative dimension of organisational commitment could be attributed to job satisfaction. This suggested that if the job satisfaction of the administrative staff members were to change, then the moral imperative factor of organisational commitment would change accordingly. This finding is supported by the study of Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011:51) who found that job satisfaction contributed significantly in the prediction of organisational commitment, which is based on a strong belief that being a member of an organisation is the right and moral thing to do. The study attributed this predictive relationship to internal job satisfaction factors such as the use of skills, job variety, experience and performing things for others, and external job satisfaction factors such as pay, promotion, supervision and working condition.

Model 2 reveals the results of the regression analysis of job satisfaction as a predictor of continuance commitment. The results in Table 12 pointed out that job satisfaction contributed positively to the prediction of continuance commitment ( $\beta = .231$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). This implied that the job satisfaction of the administrative staff members at the university contributed significantly to the prediction of continuance commitment. The more satisfied the administrative staff members were with their jobs, the more committed they would be to the university due to the high costs associated with leaving. The results of the second regression model analysis revealed that job satisfaction accounted for 5 percent ( $R^2 = .049$ ) of the variation in continuance commitment. This finding is consistent with the results of a study conducted by Imam *et al.* (2013:274) who also found a significant predictive relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment. The results of the study established that an increase in the level of job satisfaction of employees would increase the continuance commitment of those employees. Employees, who were



satisfied with their jobs, tended to display high levels of continuance commitment, thus they continued working for the organisation. Continued membership of an organisation could be ascribed to amicable employee relationships, non-transferable funds and investments like allowance, retirement fund or retirement remuneration, all of which have been found to be sources of job satisfaction (Imam *et al.*, 2013:272).

Model 3 reflects the results of the regression analysis of job satisfaction as a predictor of the indebted obligation. The results presented in Table 12 indicated that job satisfaction contributed positively to the prediction of indebted obligation with a beta coefficient of .306 at a significant level of  $p < 0.000$ . This inferred that an increase in the level of job satisfaction of the administrative staff members at the university contributed significantly to the prediction of indebted obligation. Administrative staff members who were satisfied with their jobs would remain committed to the university because they felt they were obliged to. Model 3 suggested that the job satisfaction of the administrative staff members at the university accounted for 9 percent ( $R^2 = .089$ ) of the variation in the prediction of indebted obligation. These results are in line with the findings of Lumley *et al.* (2011:113) who also reported that there was a positive predictive relationship observed between the job satisfaction and the normative commitment variables. This indicates that employees who are satisfied with their jobs seem to feel more obliged to remain with their respective organisations because of social norms that are epitomised by obligations in an employment relationship. These norms are characterised by the obligations that create a psychological contract between an employer and an employee. The obligations are both objective economic exchanges (contingent pay, working overtime, giving notice and high performance-based pay) and subjective social exchanges (employee loyalty, job security and co-worker relationships). Meyer *et al.* cited in Bergman, Benzer, Kabins, Bhupatkar & Panina (2012:155) posit that indebted obligation are exchange-based commitments, which last as long as situational signs are present. When such signs are removed, the situational identity is diminished and the exchange-based commitment is reduced.

Model 4 displays the results of the regression analysis of job satisfaction as a predictor of affective commitment. The regression results in Table 12 revealed that job satisfaction displayed significant predictive relationship with the affective commitment dimension of organisational commitment ( $\beta = .543$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). Similarly, a study conducted by Lumley

*et al.* (2011:112) obtained a significant predictive relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment. The positive association observed between job satisfaction and the affective commitment variable suggests that employees who were satisfied with their jobs felt more emotionally attached to and involved with their respective organisations. The results of the regression analysis in Model 4 also demonstrated that job satisfaction accounted for 29 percent ( $R^2 = .291$ ) of the variation in the affective commitment of the administrative staff members at the university. These findings are consistent with those of Rhoades *et al.* (2001:825) who asserted that affectively committed employees were seen as having a sense of belonging and identification that increased their involvement in the organisation's activities, their willingness to pursue the organisation's goals, and their desire to remain in the organisation. Finally, Meyer *et al.* (2002:38) state that job satisfaction and affective commitment should both be considered in efforts to understand and manage employee behaviour because of the strength of the correlation between the two constructs.

In summary, the regression analysis results showed that job satisfaction had a significant predictive relationship with affective commitment ( $\beta = .543$ ), followed by moral imperative ( $\beta = .488$ ) and indebted obligation ( $\beta = .306$ ). Continuance commitment was the lowest, with a beta coefficient of .231. These results showed that job satisfaction contributed positively to the prediction of all four factors of organisational commitment. From the above results, it could be concluded that the more satisfied the administrative staff members were with their current jobs, the higher their level of commitment to the university.

The next section presents the results of the reliability and validity analysis of the measuring instrument.

#### **4.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ANALYSIS**

Cronbach's coefficient alpha was utilised to determine the internal consistency of the measuring instruments. The results of the reliability of the overall job satisfaction scale and the organisational commitment scale are presented in the next sub-section.

#### **4.8.1 Reliability of the overall job satisfaction scale and the organisational commitment scale**

The results of the reliability analysis of the measuring instrument reflected in Table 13 indicated that the overall job satisfaction scale, Section B of the measuring instrument, consisted of five items, and yielded a satisfactory reliability value of .884. The value of Cronbach's alpha for the organisational commitment scale, Section C, was .863 indicating a high degree of internal consistency. The organisational commitment scale initially consisted of 20 items, and during the factor analysis process, a total of six items with a low or negative inter-item correlation were deleted from the scale. The overall Cronbach alpha for the entire scale also yielded an acceptable reliability value of .874.

**Table 13: Internal reliability statistics**

<b>Sections</b>	<b>No of items</b>	<b>Deleted items</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>
Section B Global satisfaction index	5	0	.884
Section C Organisational commitment scale	14	6	.863
<b>Overall Cronbach alpha for the entire scale</b>			<b>.874</b>

The next section focuses on explaining how the validity of the measuring instruments was established in this study.

#### **4.8.2 Validity of the overall job satisfaction scale and the organisational commitment scale**

In research, a measure shows validity if it actually measures what it purports to measure. For surveys, validity refers to the accuracy of measurement. The different types of validity ascertained in this study were face, content, construct, convergent and predictive validity.

Face validity was established through the pilot study. A total of 50 administrative staff members who were employed by the university were used for the pilot study. The results of the pilot study were reported in Section 4.2 of this chapter. The respondents assessed the questionnaire in terms of its clarity, understandability, flow and construction. No

changes were made to the questionnaire and the questionnaire was adopted for the main study.

Content validity was achieved by evaluating if the statements in the questionnaire were relevant for the measurement of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The supervisor and co-supervisor in this study, both experts in the field of organisational behaviour, evaluated the questionnaire to assess the validity of the questions asked, and to identify if any duplication existed in the questionnaire. Minor changes were made to the questionnaire.

Construct validity was ascertained through exploratory factor analysis. Through factor analysis, four factors of organisational commitment were identified from the original 20 items of the organisational commitment scale. The four factors were moral imperative, continuance commitment, indebted obligation and affective commitment. The results of the factor analysis presented in Section 4.5.1 of this chapter showed that all items loaded onto distinct factors with no cross loadings, thus affirming construct validity.

Convergent validity was measured through the computation of Spearman's *rho* correlations among the variables in the study. The results of the correlation analysis reported in Section 4.5.2 of this chapter indicated that there was a strong correlation between job satisfaction and affective commitment. The results also showed that there was a moderate correlation between job satisfaction and moral imperative; and job satisfaction and indebted obligation. There was a weak but significant correlation between job satisfaction and continuance commitment. Job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment showed significant positive inter-correlations, thus providing evidence of convergence among the constructs.

Predictive validity was determined through regression analysis. The results of the regression analysis in Section 4.5.3 of this chapter provided evidence of predictive validity, whereby, a predictive relationship was established between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment.

## **4.9 CONCLUSION**

This chapter presented the results of the study using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive and inferential statistics were carried out using SPSS version 23.0 for

Windows. First, the results of the pilot study, testing the reliability of the measuring instrument, that is, the overall job satisfaction scale and the organisational commitment scale, were presented. As a result of the findings of the pilot study, the measuring instrument was adopted. Secondly, the results of the sample description (Section A) were presented. Thirdly, the analysis of descriptive statistics for both job satisfaction and organisational commitment were carried out. Factor analysis was performed on Section C of the measuring instrument, namely the organisational commitment scale, in order to identify the underlying factors of organisational commitment. Subsequently, four factors of organisational commitment were identified.

Correlation analysis was used to determine if job satisfaction correlated with all four factors of organisational commitment. A clear presentation of results enabled an identification of a moderate positive relationship between job satisfaction and moral imperative and job satisfaction and indebted obligation. There was a strong relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment and a weak but significant relationship between job satisfaction and the continuance commitment. Thereafter, regression analysis was used to determine the predictive relationship between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment. Regression analysis proved that job satisfaction had an effect on the organisational commitment of the administrative staff members at the university. Finally, the reliability of the measuring instrument was established using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, the results of which were acceptable; and validity was established through face, content, construct, convergent and predictive validities respectively.

The next chapter presents the summary of the pertinent findings of the study. Recommendations and limitations of the research are also discussed.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSIONS, REALISATION OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS**

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#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter analysed and interpreted the results of the descriptive and inferential statistics. The results of the pilot study, testing the reliability of the measuring instrument, were presented. Descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviation pertaining to job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the administrative staff members were discussed. The multivariate statistics, which included factor analysis, Spearman's *rho* correlation and regression analysis, were also interpreted. Finally, the results of the reliability and validity analysis of the measuring instrument were presented.

In this chapter an overview of the study is presented. This chapter also summarises how the primary, theoretical and empirical objectives of this study were achieved. It provides conclusions and recommendations that can be drawn from the research findings, and also outlines the limitations of this study. Finally, it presents recommendations for future research opportunities on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

#### **5.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY**

In Chapter 1, the background to and the scope of the study was presented. The primary objective of the study was outlined, which was to investigate the effect of job satisfaction on the organisational commitment of administrative staff members at a university in Gauteng. In this chapter, the theoretical and empirical objectives of the study were formulated and defined. The problem statement was discussed, and finally, an outline of the remaining chapters was presented.

Chapter 2 of the study focused on providing an overview and review of all the literature pertaining to the two key variables, namely job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It also focused on discussing the theoretical background underpinning the variables. The importance of job satisfaction and organisational commitment was

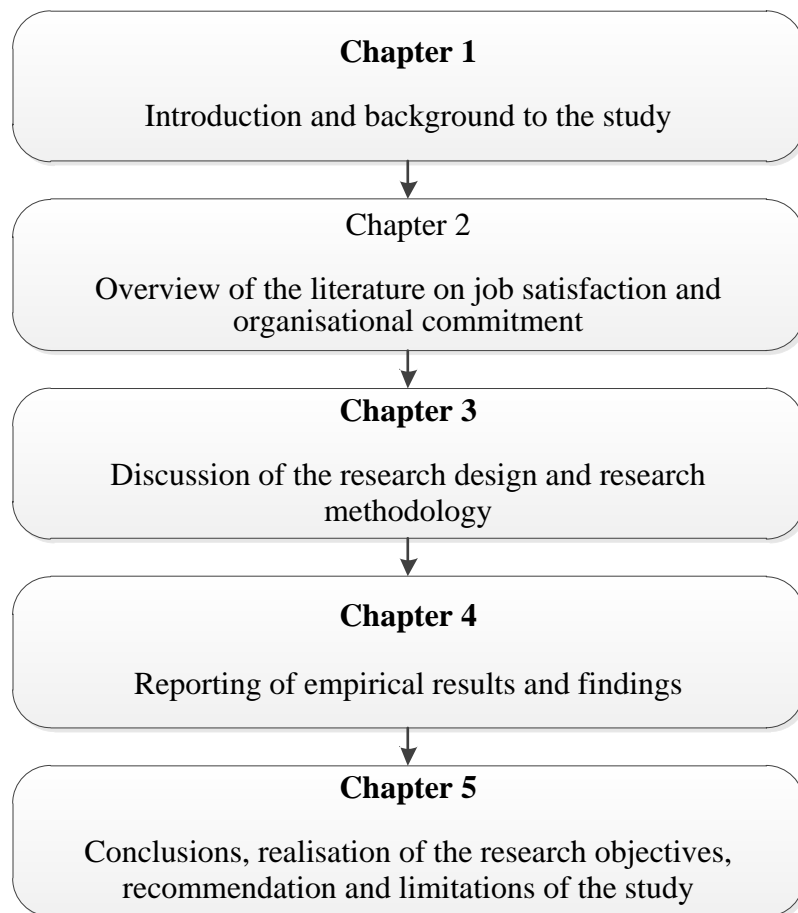
discussed. The chapter also presented the literature that was used as a basis for describing the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Chapter 3 presented and outlined the research methodology used to address the research objectives of this study. It focused on defining the research design and the research approach used in this study. In this chapter, the target population was identified, the sample frame was determined, the sampling method was selected, and the sample size was determined. The data collection method and the measuring instrument were described. Finally, the ethical considerations and confidentiality aspects of this study were addressed.

In Chapter 4, the focus was on presenting, analysing and interpreting the results of the research data collected from the administrative staff members at the university in Gauteng. For analysing data, the statistical package program SPSS version 23.0 for Windows was utilised. In this chapter, the sample was described, and descriptive and inferential statistics generated from the sample were provided and analysed. This chapter also included an analysis of the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument.

Finally, Chapter 5 provided a summary of the salient research findings emanating from the research. Conclusions drawn from the research were discussed, suggestions for future research into job satisfaction and organisational commitment were presented, and the limitations of this study were outlined.

Figure 13 summarises the outline and sequence of all the chapters.



**Figure 13: Chapter outline and sequence**

The next section focused on describing how the primary, theoretical and empirical objectives of this study were attained.

### **5.3 REALISATION OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The primary, theoretical and empirical objectives of the study were clearly outlined in section 1.4 of Chapter 1. The next section described how and to which extent the formulated objectives of the study were achieved.

#### **5.3.1 Primary objective**

The primary objective of this study was to investigate the effect of overall job satisfaction on the organisational commitment of administrative staff members at a university in Gauteng. In order to achieve the primary objective, theoretical and empirical objectives were formulated and addressed.



## **5.3.2 Theoretical objectives**

The following theoretical objectives were articulated and addressed in this study:

### **5.3.2.1 Conduct a literature synthesis on job satisfaction and the underlying theories of job satisfaction**

In this study, job satisfaction was identified as the independent variable. The literature from previous research revealed that job satisfaction has received extensive attention over the past decades in organisational behaviour research. In order to understand job satisfaction fully, it was essential to understand what motivates people within organisations. Thus, process and content theories such as the Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Alderfer's modified need hierarchy theory, McClelland's achievement motivation theory and Herzberg's two-factor theory were reviewed. Herzberg's two-factor theory formed the basis of understanding job satisfaction in this study. This section of the literature review also focused on discussing the antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction. The literature pertaining to job satisfaction and its underlying theories was presented in sections 2.2 – 2.5 of Chapter 2.

### **5.3.2.2 Carry out a literature review on organisational commitment and the underlying theories relating to organisational commitment**

The review of the literature revealed that organisational commitment can be experienced either as an attitude or as a behaviour. Meyer and Allen (1997) developed a three-component model of organisational commitment that has been used as a basis of many organisational commitment research studies. In their model, they described organisational commitment as affective (desire-based), continuance (cost-based), and normative (obligation based). The normative commitment dimension of organisational commitment was later reviewed by Bergman (2006) and Jaros (2007) to reflect the moral imperative and indebted obligation aspects of this construct. Several definitions were discussed in Section 2.6 of Chapter 2, and theories such as the side-bet theory, the social exchange theory, and Meyer and Allen's three-component model were identified as theories that underpin organisational commitment in this study. These theories were explored in detail in Section 2.7 of the literature review chapter. The previous literature also revealed that it is important for organisations to nurture and to determine what affects organisational commitment, because the effects of organisational commitment such as low productivity,

absenteeism and turnover are costly for organisations. Subsequently the antecedents and consequences of organisational commitment were reviewed. In this study, organisational commitment was identified as the dependent variable, and the literature review on this variable was presented in sections 2.6 – 2.10 of Chapter 2.

### **5.3.2.3          Examine from the previous literature the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment**

This objective was realised through presenting the previous literature on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The existing literature in the study of job satisfaction and organisational commitment postulated that the two constructs are positively related. From the previous literature, it was clear that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are two of the most prevalent variables researched in the organisational behaviour literature (Mohammed & Eleswed 2013:43). Organisations, therefore, should be concerned about the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of its employees because these two constructs affect important organisational behaviour consequences such as tardiness, productivity, turnover, absenteeism and job performance (Kreitner & Kinicki 2001:226; Schultz 2002:7). The literature in relation to the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment was presented in Section 2.11 of Chapter 2.

The next section focused on summarising how the empirical objectives of this study were achieved.

### **5.3.3          Empirical objectives**

The conclusions drawn from the results pertaining to the empirical objectives of the study were summarised as follows:

#### **5.3.3.1          To determine the level of overall job satisfaction of administrative staff members at a university in Gauteng**

In this study, means analysis were used to determine the extent to which the administrative staff members at the university were satisfied with their jobs. The results of the means analysis of the overall job satisfaction scale were presented in Section 4.4.1 of Chapter 4. The mean score for all five job satisfaction items was above 3.00, which

implied that the majority of the respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their current jobs at the university.

#### **5.3.3.2 To establish the level of organisational commitment of administrative staff members at a university in Gauteng**

Through the analysis of means, the level of commitment of the administrative staff members to the university was established. The organisational commitment scale adopted from Jaros (2007) consisted of 20 items, and was utilised to determine how committed the administrative staff members were to the employing university. The analysis results, namely the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of organisational commitment were presented in Section 4.4.2 of Chapter 4. The mean score for the organisational commitment scale was above 3.00, which pointed out that the administrative staff members at the university was committed to the university.

#### **5.3.3.3 To examine the relationship between overall job satisfaction and the organisational commitment of the administrative staff members at a university in Gauteng**

Spearman's *rho* correlation analysis was conducted in order to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment. The results of the correlation analysis were presented in Section 3.5.2 of Chapter 4. The correlation results implied that the more satisfied the administrative staff members were with their current jobs, the more likely they were to maintain membership of the university because they viewed the goals and values of the university as their own; hence, the development of an emotional attachment to the university.

Lastly, since there were positive associations between job satisfaction and the four factors of organisational commitment, regression analysis was utilised to ascertain whether job satisfaction predicted the four factors of organisational commitment. The results of the regression analysis were presented in Section 4.5.3 of Chapter 4. Overall, the results showed that job satisfaction contributed positively to the prediction of all four factors of organisational commitment. This implied that the more satisfied the administrative staff members were with their current jobs, the higher their level of commitment to the university.

The next section presents recommendations emanating from the findings of this study.

## **5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Stemming from the findings of the research carried out on the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the administrative staff members at the university, the following recommendations were made:

- The results of the overall mean score ( $M= 3.82$ ) for job satisfaction was satisfactory but could still be improved. To improve the level of job satisfaction among administrative staff members at the university, management could consider introducing job design through which administrative staff members' jobs could be enlarged and rotated. The jobs of the administrative staff members could be enlarged through the incorporation of new and more complex tasks in order to reduce the monotony associated with doing the same tasks every day. The jobs could also be redesigned through assigning the administrative staff members to alternative jobs on a temporary basis in order to offer them a chance to gain new skills, provide them with a broader perspective about the university, and increase their value to the university.
- The management of the university could introduce institutional policies and rules that are fair and transparent to all administrative staff members in order to improve their job satisfaction. This could be achieved through encouraging participation by administrative staff members in the development and implementation of such policies. Furthermore, the policies and rules should be communicated to the administrative staff members through induction and orientation workshops aimed at creating awareness of existing and new policies.
- Job satisfaction could also be improved through the provision of opportunities for career advancement and promotion opportunities. The university should thus invest in ongoing career advancement initiatives such as seminars, workshops, short courses, and coaching and mentoring programs, aimed at improving the skills and competencies of the administrative staff members. Such opportunities would increase the level of job satisfaction, and in turn improve the moral imperative of the administrative staff members. When provided with career advancement and promotion opportunities, the administrative staff members would be able to develop and expand their skills and abilities.

- The overall mean score ( $M=3.37$ ) of organisational commitment among the administrative staff members at the university was satisfactory, but it could also be improved by providing job security to the administrative staff members. Job security could be provided through the conversion of existing contract positions to permanent appointments. The conversion process should be fair and transparent in order to be accepted by concerned employees and their representative trade unions.
- The weak correlation and insignificant predictive relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment led to the recommendation that equitable salaries should be offered to the administrative staff members. In essence, equitable salaries and benefits should be competitive and market related. The salaries should be perceived as congruent to the efforts expended by the administrative staff members in the normal course of their work. Additionally, the salaries should be compatible with skills that the administrative staff members have acquired. The implementation of the aforementioned recommendations pertaining to salaries would improve the level of job satisfaction and in turn increase the level of continuance commitment.
- Lastly, the moderate correlation between job satisfaction and indebted obligation necessitated the recommendation that the university should provide conducive working conditions in accordance with the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (75 of 1997) (BCEA). This could be done through the regulation of working hours and compensating the administrative staff members for overtime worked. Such favourable working conditions would enhance the job satisfaction of the administrative staff members and increase their levels of commitment to the university.

It is clear that the higher the levels of job satisfaction of the administrative staff members, the more committed they would be to the university. Thus, the importance of job satisfaction cannot be overlooked if the university intends to improve the level of commitment of its administrative staff members.

## **5.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS**

The following limitations were identified in this study:

- In this study only the administrative staff members of one university in South Africa were sampled. Consequently, the results of the study should be interpreted with caution because the results may only be generalised to the sample that was selected

for the investigation, and may not be generalised to other staff at the university or at any other higher education institution in South Africa.

- The generalisability of the results may be viewed with caution due to the small sample size. In this study, a total of 383 administrative staff members were sampled from a target population of 765. Questionnaires were physically distributed to the sample, with only 206 successfully completed and returned. Statistical surveys require a larger sample size to ensure a representative distribution of the population.
- The process of physically distributing questionnaires was very tedious and time-consuming. As a result, a combination of both electronic and physical distribution methods should be considered in order to reduce the time spent in this process. Administrative staff members work with, and have easy access to computing equipment on a daily basis. Thus, they are expected to have the necessary skills and abilities required to use computers effectively, and to complete online surveys without difficulty.

## **5.6 FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES**

The main objective of this study was to investigate the effect of job satisfaction on the organisational commitment of administrators at a university in Gauteng. While the objectives of this study were successfully realised, the following future research opportunities were suggested:

- The mediating role of demographic factors such as gender, marital status, age, education level, income category, length of time in the workplace and current job status, in the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment could be explored.
- The moral imperative and indebted obligation dimensions of normative commitment are fairly new in the organisational commitment literature. As organisational commitment continues to evolve, future studies should consider exploring and researching these dimensions of normative commitment extensively.
- The scope of the study could be broadened to include administrative staff members at all higher education institutions in South Africa. This would subsequently assist with improving the generalisability of the results.

- Future studies should also consider the relationship of job satisfaction or organisational commitment with other variables such as turnover intention, tenure and trust in leadership among the administrative staff members at the university. The inclusion of such variables would further enhance the understanding of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Despite the above mentioned limitations, the results of this study are significant in the analysis and understanding of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Therefore, this study may be used as a guideline and basis for understanding the relationship between the variables measured.

## **5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS**

This chapter provided a summary and sequence of all the chapters; discussed how the objectives of the study were achieved; made recommendations in respect of the findings; discussed the limitations of this study; and outlined the future research opportunities emanating from this study. The primary objective of this research was to investigate the effect of job satisfaction on the organisational commitment of the administrative staff members at a university in Gauteng. The results revealed that there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Therefore, it was concluded that the more satisfied the administrative staff members were with their current jobs, the higher the level of commitment to the university. Finally, the findings were also very informative in exploring and explaining problems associated with behavioural aspects in organisations, particularly factors that contributed toward the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of administrative staff members at the university.

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## APPENDIX A

### MEASURING INSTRUMENT

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#### **SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE**

In this section we would like to find out a little more about you. Please place a cross (X) in the appropriate block.

<b>A1</b>	<b>Gender</b>	Male	Female
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<b>A2</b>	<b>Marital status</b>	Single	Married	Divorced	Separated	Widowed
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<b>A3</b>	<b>Race</b>	African	Coloured	Indian	White	Other (specify)
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<b>A4</b>	<b>Age category</b>	Under 25 years	25 – 35 years	36 – 45 years	46 – 55 years	Over 55 years
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<b>A5</b>	<b>Education level</b>	Matric	College Certificate	Diploma	Higher Degree	Other (specify)
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<b>A6</b>	<b>Income category</b>	Under R5 000	Between R5 001 – R10 000	Between R10 001 – R15 000	Between R15 001 – R20 000	Between R20 001 – R25 000	Above R25 000
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<b>A7</b>	<b>Length of service in the workplace</b>	Below 2 years	Between 2 – 5 years	Between – 9 years	More than 9 years
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<b>A8</b>	<b>Current job status</b>	Permanent	Temporary	Contract	Other (specify)
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**Please turn the page for Section B.**



## **SECTION B: JOB SATISFACTION**

In this section we would like to know more about your job satisfaction in the organisation that you work for. Please indicate the extent of your disagreement or agreement with the statements by placing a cross (X) on the corresponding number between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree). If you are unsure on your choice, please choose among the options that seem appropriate to you.

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

**Please turn the page for Section C.**

## **SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

In this section we would like to know more about your commitment to the organisation that you work for. Please indicate the extent of your disagreement or agreement with the statements by placing a cross (X) on the corresponding number between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree). If you are unsure on your choice, please choose among the options that seem most appropriate to you.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree or agree	Agree	Strongly agree
C1	I am very happy being a member of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C2	I enjoy discussing about my organisation with people outside it	1	2	3	4	5
C3	I really feel as this organisation's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
C4	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one	1	2	3	4	5
C5	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C6	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C7	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
C8	I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C9	I worry about the loss of investments I have made in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C10	If I wasn't a member of this organisation, I would be sad because my life would be disrupted	1	2	3	4	5
C11	I am loyal to this organisation because I have invested a lot in it, emotionally, socially and economically	1	2	3	4	5
C12	I often feel anxious about what I have to lose with this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C13	Sometimes I worry about what might happen if something was to happen to this organisation and I was no longer a member	1	2	3	4	5
C14	I am dedicated to this organisation because I fear what I have to lose in it	1	2	3	4	5
C15	I feel that I owe this organisation quite a bit because of what it has done for me	1	2	3	4	5
C16	My organisation deserves my loyalty because of its treatment towards me	1	2	3	4	5
C17	I feel I would be letting my co-workers down if I wasn't a member of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
C18	I am loyal to this organisation because my values are largely its values	1	2	3	4	5
C19	This organisation has a mission that I believe in and am committed to	1	2	3	4	5
C20	I feel it is 'morally correct' to dedicate myself to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5

**Thank you for your time and cooperation. Your views are much appreciated.**

## APPENDIX B

### LETTER OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY

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VAAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY  
**RESEARCH & INNOVATION ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**

Applicant:	Kgomo LJ
Project:	The effects of job satisfaction on organizational commitment: A case for Administrators at the Vaal University of Technology
Institution:	Vaal University of Technology
Date Approved:	2012/10/29
Ethical Clearance Number:	20121029-3
Approved: Yes/No	Yes

Approved by:  Date: 2012-10-30  
Dr BJ Johnson  
Chairperson: Research & Innovation Ethics Committee

## **APPENDIX C**

### **LETTER OF CONSENT BY PARTICIPANTS**

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Dear Participant

I am studying towards an MTech Degree in Business Administration at the Vaal University of Technology. Kindly assist me by spending 10 minutes on completing this questionnaire. The information aims to investigate the effects of job satisfaction on the organisational commitment of administrators at a university in Gauteng.

All data collected will be kept confidential and your identity will be kept anonymous. By completing this questionnaire, you indicate that you voluntarily participate in this research.

The questions focus on the following:

- Section A            -        demographic profile;
- Section B           -        what brings you job satisfaction; and
- Section C           -        your commitment to this organisation.

All results will be presented in aggregate form. Results may be used in the publication of articles. However, the participants will remain anonymous at all times.

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

Thank you for your time.

---

**MRS LJ THABANE**

**RESEARCHER**

061 249 1482

[leratok@vut.ac.za](mailto:leratok@vut.ac.za)

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**DR PQ RADEBE**

**SUPERVISOR**

078 102 6736

[patrick@vut.ac.za](mailto:patrick@vut.ac.za)

**APPENDIX D**  
**LANGUAGE EDITING DOCUMENT/PROOF**

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Ms Linda Scott  
English language editing  
SATI membership number: 1002595  
Tel: 083 654 4156  
E-mail: lindascott1984@gmail.com

**16 May 2016**

To whom it may concern

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

**Lerato Judith Thabane**

for the degree

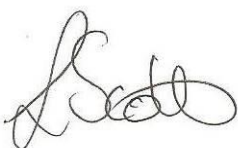
**Magister Technologiae in Business Administration**

entitled:

***The effect of job satisfaction on the organisational commitment of administrators at  
a university in Gauteng***

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

Yours truly,



Linda Scott