

**JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT, TURNOVER  
INTENTION, ABSENTEEISM AND WORK PERFORMANCE AMONGST  
ACADEMICS WITHIN SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES OF TECHNOLOGY**

**by  
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**September, 2015**

## DECLARATION

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## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance amongst the academics within South African universities of technology (UoTs). South African higher education has gone through numerous changes in terms of restructuring and transformation. Rapid changes of this nature within a higher education system necessitate alternative work restructuring and arrangements, which could have a potential negative influence on the behaviour of academic staff. Research addressing these problems on the academic staff within UoTs in the context of developing countries such as South Africa has remained scarce. This study, therefore, was conducted to fill this gap.

Universities of technology in South Africa employ approximately 2987 (N) academic employees. In order to measure the study constructs, the survey material was designed interactively in a form of a structured questionnaire. Participants were asked to complete five test instruments, namely, job satisfaction survey (JSS), organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ), intention to stay questionnaire (ISQ), absenteeism questionnaire (AQ), and individual work performance questionnaire (IWPPQ). 600 questionnaires were distributed to the identified sample of academics of which 494 (n) responded.

A correlation analysis was conducted to evaluate the strength and effect size of the relationship between the variables. The maximum correlation value between the constructs were 0.442 thus providing evidence of discriminate validity. Factor analysis was performed for organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) and individual work performance questionnaire (IWPPQ) through statistical software package SPSS version 22.0. Organisational commitment revealed four factors and all of them accounted for satisfactory total variance explained of 65.2%. Work performance revealed three factors, which also accounted for satisfactory total variance explained of approximately 65%. The Mann-Whitney U-test was used to test whether males and females were similar in perception in terms of study constructs. Statistically significant differences were found between gender and four study constructs except work performance. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to examine the differences of the

various age categories, which revealed statistically significant differences between the various age categories and study constructs. The reliability results confirmed that all constructs reached the generally agreed upon minimum scale range for Cronbach's alpha of 0.70. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to establish scale accuracy. All measures conformed to acceptable model fit and composite reliability (CR) and revealed that the scales used in this study are reliable. Finally, the structural model was tested; seven postulated hypotheses were supported and one hypothesis (H8) that postulated the relationship between organisational commitment and work performance was rejected. As such, it was concluded that the conceptual model captured accurate relationships among the variables and that organisational commitment has no significant influence on work performance.

After reviewing the results, the conclusion was drawn that the study has both theoretical and practical value as envisaged. Theoretically, this research has contributed by further strengthening organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct. Contrary to some previous studies that reported high levels of significance between organisational commitment and work performance this study found no significance between these constructs. These results contribute more to the expanding body of knowledge. The current study added practical value by providing an integrative model that can be used as an important tool by management within the South African universities of technology to understand and manage job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance of academics. The results of this study can also be used for future organisational planning and policymaking. A number of recommendations have been made for the attention of relevant stakeholders in the academic environment. Future research possibilities and limitations of the study have also been highlighted.

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## GLOSSARY OF TERMS

ANOVA	Analysis of variance
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
SEM	Structural equation modeling
AMOS	Analysis of movement structures
N	Target population
n	Sample
BTech	Baccalaureus technologiae
MTech	Magister technologiae
DTech	Doctor technologiae
PhD	Doctor of philosophy
JS	Job satisfaction
TI	Turnover intention
ABS	Absenteeism
OC	Organisational commitment
WP	Work performance
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MSA	Measure of sampling adequacy
$\chi^2$	Chi-square value
UK	United kingdom
OB	Organisational behaviour
df	Degree of freedom
GATB	General aptitude test battery
MIS	Moral imperative scale
CCS	Continuance commitment scale
IOS	Indebted obligation scale
ACS	Affective commitment scale
TPS	Task performance scale
CPS	Contextual performance scale
APS	Adaptive performance scale
CA	Cronbach's alpha
CR	Composite reliability
AVE	Average value extracted

P	Path coefficient
IFI	The incremental fit index
TLI	The Tucker-Lewis index
CFI	The comparative-fit-index
RMSEA	The root mean square error of approximation
H	Hypothesis
JSS	Job satisfaction survey
OCQ	Organisational commitment questionnaire
ISQ	Intention to stay questionnaire
AQ	Absenteeism questionnaire
IWP	Individual work performance questionnaire
SPSS	The statistical package for social sciences
KWT	Kruskal-Wallis test
GFI	Goodness-of-fit statistic
AGFI	Adjusted goodness-of-fit statistic
NFI	Normed-fit index
UoT	University of technology

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM ORIENTATION**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

This thesis focuses on the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism and performance amongst academics within South African universities of technology. This chapter provides the background and motivation for the study. The problem statement is discussed and the objectives are specified. The paradigm perspective of the research is given. Thereafter, the context and the setting in which the research took place and the research approach used, is described.

### **1.2 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION**

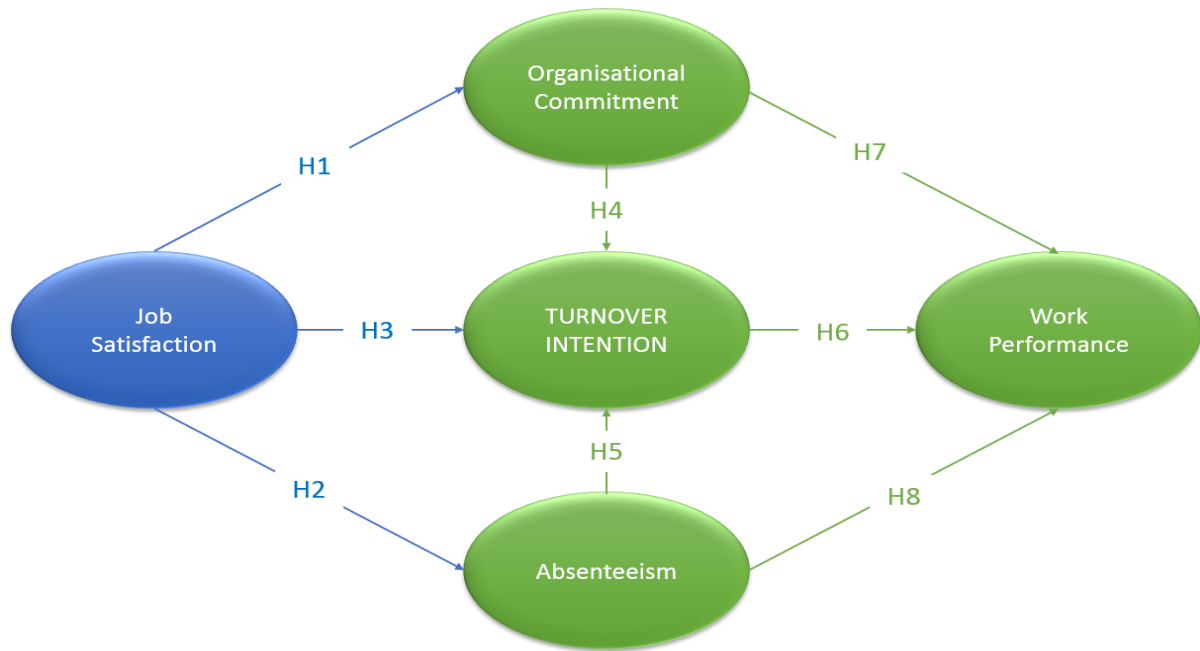
Most developing countries are building complex research universities, but little attention is given to the academics who are responsible for teaching and research in those universities (Altbach 2003:1). Some academics have high turnover intentions, high levels of absenteeism and fail to perform to the required standard because of low levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Narimawati 2007:549). South African higher education, in particular, has gone through numerous changes (Singh 2001:8). These changes resulted in the establishment of traditional, comprehensive and technology universities (Du Pré 2009:7). In 1967, the South African government established six colleges of advanced technical education, which were later transformed into technikons in 1979 (Du Pré 2009:6). Technikons were designed for career-focused education incorporating work-integrated learning (Koen 2003:4). Technikons focused more on teaching and in consequence, this resulted in low research outputs. This was further aggravated by the fact that the majority of academics within these institutions held qualifications lower than a master's degree (Cooper 1995:244). In 2003, six technikons were transformed into universities of technology (UoTs) while other technikons merged with universities and became comprehensive universities (Du Pré 2009:7).

Subsequent to the establishment of the current six UoTs, their research capacity and ability to offer core degree programmes has been questioned and criticised by traditional universities. There was also a fear that these universities would lower the envisaged university standard (Winberg 2004:39). The transformation of technikons into UoTs has implications for less qualified academics to join the ranks of acknowledged academics. This pressurised academics in UoTs to upgrade their professional status by improving their qualifications, building research track records through publication in peer-reviewed journals, conference presentation and postgraduate degree programmes (Jansen 2003:9).

Restructuring and transformation of higher education has resulted in many debates and dialogues on the role of UoTs (Singh 2001:8). South Africa is not alone in these substantial changes of size and shape of higher education where academics become victims of the process (Jansen 2003:11). Some countries experiencing a similar situation are Greece (Platsidou & Diamantopoulou 2009:535-545), Bangladesh (Ali & Akhter 2009:167-175), Malaysia (Awang, Ahmad & Zin 2010:241-255) and Australia (Bentley, Coates, Dobson, Goedegebuure, & Meek 2013:29-53). According to Masemola (2011:54), rapid changes of this nature within a higher education system have potential negative effects on job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees. Awang, Ahmad and Zin (2010:241) are of the view that UoTs management should try hard to get their academic staff committed to their jobs because they are performance-oriented organisations, which are always under the spotlight of society for the quality education they offer.

This study intends exploring the influence of job satisfaction on organisational commitment, and various outcomes of organisational commitment. Perhaps the most compelling argument for investigating the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism, and performance among academics within UoTs is provoked by the fact that previous studies on these constructs have focused primarily on traditional universities. The hypothesised relationships between the study constructs are depicted in Figure 1.1.

### 1.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK



**Figure 1.1:** Conceptual model

The researcher aims to test a conceptual model for the understanding of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance in the academic setting. Understanding how these variables interrelate is likely to offer university managers with guidelines to address the plight of academics. As shown in the above conceptual model, job satisfaction is the predictor while organisational commitment, turnover intentions and absenteeism are mediators. Work performance is the single outcome variable. This proposed model has been tested through empirical investigation.

Due to the importance of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, many research studies have been done in various professions such as nursing (Knoop 1995:643-649; Lok & Crawford 1999:365-374), education (Bayram, Gursalkal, & Bilgel 2010:41-53), accounting (Norris & Niebuhr 1984:49-59; Aryee, Wyatt, & Min 1991:545-556), engineering (Baugh & Roberts 1994:108-114; Keller 1997:539-542) and journalism (Russo 1998:72-111; Beam 2006:169-185). Schulze (2006: 319) asserts that empirical results on job satisfaction and organisational commitment from other professions could not be used to understand the factors influencing the commitment and job satisfaction of

academics in higher education. This is because different organisations have unique cultures, values, norms and various management models, hence different employees' needs (Chen, Yang, Shaiu & Wang 2006:489).

Job satisfaction has been highly interrogated and refined since the Herzberg study in 1959 (Lacy & Sheehan 1997:305). Chimanikire, Mutandwa, Gadzirayi, Muzondo and Mutandwa (2007:167) define job satisfaction as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job, an affective reaction to one's job and an attitude towards one's job. Grobler and Warnich (2007:128) define job satisfaction as the difference between the amount of some valued outcome a person receives and the amount of that outcome the person thinks he or she should receive. Most theories of job satisfaction propose that it is derived from three elements, namely who the employee is, the kind of working environment, or the conditions of employment under which the employee works (Pryce-Jones 2010:9).

Job satisfaction is arranged into two dimensions: an intrinsic satisfaction and an extrinsic satisfaction (Hirschfeld 2000:256). Extrinsic satisfaction is associated with employment aspects which have nothing to do with the nature of the work itself, such as conditions of employment, relationship with colleagues, salary, leadership and organisational culture (Buitendach & Rothmann 2009:2). Intrinsic satisfaction is associated with tasks directly related to the job (job content) itself, such as utilisation of skill, variety, and autonomy (Randolph, 2005:49). Employees, therefore, evaluate their jobs based on the factors which they value as important to them (Sempane, Rieger & Rood 2002:25). One of the shortcomings of the theories of job satisfaction is that they pay less attention to differences between workers (Oshagbemi 2003:1210). According to Buitendach and Rothmann (2009:2) what is valued by one employee in terms of his/her job is often different from what is valued by another employee occupying the same or similar position.

Werner, Sono and Ngalo (2011:503) assert that job satisfaction has a significant effect on organisational commitment. Job satisfaction differs from organisational commitment in that overall satisfaction places emphasis on the job, while organisational commitment places emphasis on the organisation (Allen & Wilburn 2002:24). According to Lok and Crawford (2004:321), job satisfaction and

organisational commitment are useful attitudes to assess employees' intention to stay or leave an organisation.

Organisational commitment is defined as a strong desire to remain a member of a particular organisation, a willingness to exert high levels of efforts on behalf of the organisation, and a definite belief in and acceptability of the values and goals of the organisation (Tella, Ayeni & Popoola 2007:6). Organisational commitment serves as a measure to determine whether employees are retained or whether they leave the organisation (Colquitt, Lepine & Wesson 2009:67). Allen and Meyer (1990:847-858) developed a framework for commitment in which workers develop affective, normative and continuance commitments. Employees with affective commitment do not intend leaving the organisation because they perceive their personal employment relationship is in harmony with the values and goals of the organisation (Mguqulwa 2008: 30). Normative commitment is seen when an employee, receiving a benefit, undertakes a normative obligation to pay back the benefit in some way (McDonald & Makin 2000:85). Continuance commitment refers to instrumental attachment to the organisation based on economic benefits that would be lost if one leaves the organisation (Buitendach & De Witte 2005:29).

Empirical results in a number of studies revealed organisational commitment as a dependent variable of job satisfaction (Hrebiniak & Alutto 1972:55-72; Bartol 1979:95-112; Yousef 1998:94-184; Gaertner 1999:79-93; Eslami & Gharakhani 2012:85-91). The study conducted by Gunlu, Aksarayli, and Percin (2010:706) further revealed that when employees are not satisfied with their job, there is no way in which they can be committed to the organisation. According to Chua (2010:2), for the academics to execute their roles and responsibilities effectively, they require a lot of commitment, and this has to do with their emotional or affective attachment to their job and the workplace.

When employees' commitment is high, their performance improves and the company experiences excellence in productivity (Singh 2000:19). Nyengane (2007:2) justifies the latter by stating that no university can perform at its peak unless each academic staff member is committed to its objectives. Colquitt *et al.* (2009:37) define job performance as "the value of the set of employee behaviours that

contribute, either positively or negatively, to organisational goal accomplishment.” For any university to be competent in the market, it relies heavily on its academia, since academics are central to address the core business of the university (Bentley *et al.*, 2012:1). Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011:73) stress that satisfied workers become better performers. An example will be that of an employee who is satisfied with his job, becomes fully committed to the organisation and performs duties accordingly (Awang *et al.*, 2010:241).

The opposite of the above is also true; workers who are not committed are prone to absenteeism and sometimes leave the organisation (Eslami & Gharakhani 2012:85). Previous studies (Alexander, Lichtenstein & Ullman 1998:515-427; Becton, Matthews, Hartley & Whitaker 2009:189-202) found turnover intention to be influenced by organisational commitment. Randhawa (2007:48) defines turnover intention as “an individual’s behavioural intention to cease working.” High turnover intentions among employees have implications for the survival of the organisation since employees who intend to leave can influence quality of service or production negatively (Barak, Nissly & Levin 2001:627). Employees with high turnover intentions are characterised by low organisational commitment (Mak & Sockel 2001:268). Similarly, Pryce-Jones (2010:119) established that an academic staff member who has a high level of commitment shows maximum belief in the vision of the organisation and intends to stay in his job 75% longer than his/her colleagues or peers who do not think or feel the same way.

Eisenburger, Fasalo and Davis-Lamastro (1990:51-59) found that the level of absenteeism becomes high when employees feel that management does not give them adequate support or recognition. De Boer, Bakker, Syroit and Schaufeli (2002:184) define absenteeism as “the employee’s reduced ability to go to work, due to experienced problems caused by stressful work conditions.” In some cases, lack of employees’ commitment to the organisation is demonstrated by frequent absenteeism (Gaziel 2004:422). There are two types of absenteeism, namely voluntary absenteeism and involuntary absenteeism. Voluntary absenteeism occurs frequently but is of short duration, whereas involuntary absenteeism occurs occasionally and is beyond employees’ control (Pizam & Thornburg 2000:1). When



employees are highly committed to the organisation, the level of absenteeism declines (Nyengane 2007:3).

Within the context of continuous reflections and arguments on the plight of academics, it becomes necessary to learn more about their conditions of employment, activities and their perceptions. All these aspects will provide a clear picture of their level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism and work performance. According to Welch (1998:14), academic professionals face high demands in terms of accountability where they become subject to measurement by performance indicators. This means every university must properly manage and measure its academics' performance in ensuring continuous excellence (Yu, Hamid, Ijab & Soo 2009:814).

#### **1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

UoTs are under pressure to produce top quality employable and entrepreneurial graduates who can make a positive impact on society (Du Pré 2009:7). This goal cannot be achieved if dissatisfaction exists and levels of satisfaction are low amongst the academics (Eyupoglu & Saner 2009:609). In this context, UoTs need academics that are committed to the values and goals of the university. Hence, their level of job satisfaction and commitment is of utmost importance as it affects their performance (Mguqulwa 2008:6). Academics are entrusted with the responsibility of generating and transmitting complex knowledge, and their duties are characterised by a high degree of disposition with regard to the goals they have to achieve and the set procedures to achieve those goals (Enders 1999:72). These professionals work under critical conditions of employment where their profession is not well managed (Quinn 2012:70). Their involvement in institutional governance is limited, and the autonomy to build their academic career and academic programmes appears constrained (Altbach 2003:1). Grobler and Warnich (2007:128) identified absenteeism, turnover intention and employee grievances as costly problems that can result from dissatisfied employees. This can exacerbate the low level of commitment to the organisation resulting in poor performance of the academics' daily execution of tasks.

Werner, Sono, and Ngalo (2011:255) report that South Africa is facing high levels of labour turnover in the teaching industry because of poor working conditions that academics have to endure. Enders (1999:77) found that many academics consider their overall teaching workload too high, while junior academics in many countries point out the problem of lack of opportunities for career advancement. According to Chua (2008:67), some of the critical problems facing academics include unreasonable demands from line managers, holding many responsibilities not related to the core areas of teaching, working without adequate resources, uncooperative supporting staff, unrealistic deadlines, excessive paper work, and attending countless meetings. Broomberg (2012:1) asserts that the latter results in dissatisfied and uncommitted staff who develop intentions to quit their jobs and frequently absent themselves from work. Losing highly skilled academics could result in certain university degree programmes phasing out since the pool of talent in this industry is limited (Mguqulwa 2008:7). In addition, academics with high levels of turnover intentions do not concentrate on their jobs and this weakens universities' competitive positions (Mak & Sockel 2001:269).

Schulze (2006:318) posits that job satisfaction in relation to commitment among the academic staff is under-researched, especially in South Africa. Aarrevvra and Dobson (2010:251), based on the latter, caution that it is essential for university management to understand the potential causes of dissatisfaction and lack of commitment among academics. In this regard, a model depicting the relationship among the constructs is proposed for the study.

## **1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES**

Based on the illustrated relationships, this study projects eight hypotheses and posits that:

H1: Employees' job satisfaction has a significant positive effect on their organisational commitment.

H2: Employees' job satisfaction has a significant negative effect on their absenteeism.

H3: Employees' job satisfaction has a significant negative effect on their turnover intentions.

H4: Employees' organisational commitment has a significant negative impact on their turnover intentions.

H5: Employees' absenteeism has a significant negative impact on their turnover intentions.

H6: Employees' turnover intentions have a significant negative impact on their performance.

H7: Employees' organisational commitment has a significant positive impact on their performance.

H8: Employees' absenteeism has a significant negative impact on their performance.

## **1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

Objectives are categorised into primary and secondary objectives. The secondary objectives are divided into theoretical and empirical objectives.

### **1.6.1 Primary objective**

The primary objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, employees' turnover intentions, absenteeism and performance in order to address the plight of academics and add to the body of knowledge.

### **1.6.2 Theoretical objectives**

- To conduct a literature review on employees' job satisfaction.
- To conduct a literature review on employees' organisational commitment.

- To conduct a literature review on employees' turnover intention, absenteeism, and work performance.
- To conduct a literature review on the causal relationships between employees' organisational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance.

### **1.6.3 Empirical objectives**

- To establish whether there are any significant differences between age of academics and their perceptions of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism and work performance.
- To establish whether there are any significant differences between gender of academics and their perceptions of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism and work performance.
- To investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment among academics.
- To investigate the effect of job satisfaction on absenteeism.
- To investigate the effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention.
- To investigate the effect of organisational commitment on turnover intention.
- To investigate the effect of absenteeism on turnover intention.
- To investigate the effect of turnover intention on work performance.
- To investigate the effect of organisational commitment on work performance.
- To investigate the effect of absenteeism on work performance.

## **1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

Significance of this study is projected to be drawn from both theoretical and practical values.

### **1.7.1 Proposed theoretical value**

During the last five decades, research findings highlighted the importance of examining the reactions of academics towards any new educational innovation and change (Fuller 1969:217). A number of research studies have been devoted to job

satisfaction and organisational commitment in various professions. However, there is limited research published on job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism, and performance amongst academics within South African universities of technology. In a rapidly developing country such as South Africa, particularly within the higher education sector, there is a great need to understand the attitudes of academics towards their new amended working conditions. In support of this notion, this study will contribute to the body of knowledge by exploring causal relationships between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and performance in a complete and understandable sequence. The proposed sequence of employees' emotions, attitudes and behaviour (conceptual framework) has important implications for researchers in improving the theoretical basis. Some previous studies (Price & Mueller 1981:543-563; Cavanagh & Coffin 1992:1369-1376) treated job satisfaction as directly influencing work performance while this study claims that this variable is the outcome of organisational commitment. Other studies only investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment without indicating the consequences of commitment. The conceptual framework (proposed model) in this study put job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism, and work performance together to attain synergistic benefits through a staircase causal relationship.

### **1.7.2 Proposed practical value**

The results of this study will serve as awareness to the management of UoTs of what their academic staff is going through and be encouraged to act upon such problems. The study will thus help management to identify areas of employment aspects that academics perceive to be good practice. This will contribute to a harmonious relationship between the academics and their management. This study will also, benefit academics, as each academic will get a chance to state his/her individual perceptions of the work, the organisation, and give their feelings regarding job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Determining the levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in relation to their turnover intention, absenteeism, and performance could lead to positive improvements in the workplace. This would help them remain satisfied and committed to their jobs.

## **1.8 LITERATURE STUDY**

In order to achieve the aim of the study, an appropriate literature study utilising both national and international sources was conducted. This provided a clear understanding as to how study constructs influence each other. The researcher examined key concepts, conclusions, theories and arguments that underlie research in this study area. These provided a platform to analyse the literature by comparing and constructing the perspectives, viewpoints and arguments by other researchers in similar studies. Sources of the literature, such as textbooks, articles, newspapers, theses/dissertations, as well as information on the Internet were used to develop a theoretical background.

## **1.9 EMPIRICAL STUDY**

An empirical investigation was undertaken to provide the practical basis in ensuring that a reasonably accurate version is given to measure the purpose of the study. A quantitative research approach was used in this study. Quantitative design is helpful in testing hypotheses in research projects (Welman & Kruger 2002:178).

## **1.10 RESEARCH DESIGN**

This study was conducted within the positivistic paradigm, which involves the scientific exploration and objective collection and judgment of facts in order to arrive at a positive truth (Mouton & Marais 1994:50). A cross-sectional survey design was used where selected units were measured on all the variables at a specific time. This method was employed with the aim of obtaining quantitative information that was used to describe and explore concepts in this study.

### **1.10.1 Target population**

Data for this study originated from academic staff from UoTs. There are currently six universities of technology operational in South Africa (Council on Higher Education 2012:1). These universities employed approximately 2987 (N) academic staff (Department of Higher Education 2012:2).

### **1.10.2 Sample size and procedure**

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:214) recommended that if the population size is about 1 500, at least 20% should be sampled. For the purpose of this study, 600 (n) participants were selected from the total population of academic staff (N = 2987), thus targeting approximately 20% of the selected population. Since not all universities of technology employ equal numbers of academics, convenience sampling was used. This is a non-probability sampling procedure (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2009:61).

### **1.10.3 Method of data collection**

A structured questionnaire was developed for this study, containing generic questions, which can be answered by academic employees regardless of location of the university of technology. The self-administered questionnaire was sent to 600 (n) randomly selected academics. The questionnaire was divided into six sections. Section A consisted of questions on the demographic profile of the academics and the university, Section B consisted of questions on job satisfaction, Section C consisted of questions on organisational commitment, Section D consisted of questions on turnover intentions, Section E consisted of questions on absenteeism, and Section F consisted of questions on performance of academics.

### **1.10.4 Measuring instruments**

Five instruments were utilised in measuring job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and performance in this study, namely job satisfaction survey (JSS), organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ), intention to stay questionnaire (ISQ), individual work performance questionnaire (IWPQ) and a six-item scale questionnaire adopted from Hackett, Bycio and Guion (1989:452) to measure absenteeism. JSS was developed by Spector (1997:19) to evaluate workers' attitudes concerning aspects of their jobs using a Likert-type rating scale format. OCQ was developed by Allen and Meyer (1990:862) to

measure organisational commitment of employees. The ISQ was adopted from Lambert and Hogan (2009:114) and was developed to measure employees' intentions to stay or quit the organisation. Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Van Buuren, Van der Beek and De Vet (2012:1) developed IWPQ to measure all individual work performance dimensions.

#### **1.10.5 Data analysis**

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0 (for Windows) was used to analyse data. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the composition and characteristics of the sample, and organising and summarising data into meaningful tables and figures. This enabled the researcher to convert data into frequency distribution tables by forming classes for ease of interpretation. Once data had been prepared, it was subjected to statistical analysis by the use of factor analysis, correlations, *t*-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), AMOS model fit and hypothesis testing using structural equation modeling (SEM). These techniques were selected because they give clear interpretations for data analysis and are considered appropriate for quantitative data (Naidoo & Botha 2012:9223).

#### **1.10.6 Validity**

This study has made use of common techniques to assess the validity of the measuring instrument, namely, face validity, content validity, construct validity, convergent validity and discriminatory validity. Face validity was used to assess the operationalisation of a construct subjectively, in order to meet the criterion of the content validity (Drost 2011:116). Content validity was used to measure how appropriate and comprehensive the content and format of the questionnaire is. Construct validity was used to measure intended mediating variables rather than irrelevant constructs or measurement error (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2009:142). Convergent validity was used to test convergence across different measures or manipulations of the same thing, and discriminatory validity was used for testing divergence between measures and manipulations of related but conceptually distinct things (Gawronski 2002:172).



### **1.10.7 Reliability**

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to measure the internal reliability of the instrument. It is recommended that a reliability coefficient of 0.70 be regarded as acceptable in most applications (Maree 2010:216). This study, therefore, followed the recommendation.

## **1.11 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS**

### **Chapter 2: Job satisfaction**

In chapter 2, previous literature that related to the factors promoting the level of job satisfaction is reviewed. Theories of motivation that relate to job satisfaction are also analysed.

### **Chapter 3: Organisational commitment and its consequences**

This chapter reviewed the literature on organisational commitment and its resultant behaviours. These included turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance. A review of the literature was undertaken to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

### **Chapter 4: Research design and methodology**

This chapter discussed the research paradigm, research design and method of research used in the study. This included sampling technique, data collection method, administration of the questionnaire, the history of the measuring instruments used, their reliability and validity, statistical techniques and the research ethical consideration.

### **Chapter 5: Presentation of findings and analysis**

Chapter 5 presented the findings and analysis. The results of the descriptive, factor analyses and reliability analysis were addressed. It was confirmed that the measuring instruments and variables were reliable and valid for the purpose of the study. Finally, the relationship between sets of key variables was explored in the initial theoretical model in order to present a final predictive model of the selected dependent variable obtained from the SEM.

## **Chapter 6: Summary, conclusions and recommendations**

Chapter 6 contains conclusions drawn from the findings of the study. Limitations of the study, recommendations and suggestions for future research are also presented with the concluding remarks.

### **1.12 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

This chapter serves as a road map for the entire study. The history of the academic environment within the South African context, the nature of the study constructs, namely, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance have been highlighted. The conceptual framework indicating the causal relationships between study constructs, research hypotheses, study objectives, target population, significance of the study and methodology were provided. Lastly, the division of chapters was outlined.

Given the theoretical objectives introduced in this chapter, the next chapter presents the first step in the literature study defining and discussing job satisfaction in depth.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **JOB SATISFACTION**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter one provided a brief overview of the background, research problem, significance of the research and the research process, with specific reference to job satisfaction and organisational commitment as the main concepts for this study. In this chapter, a comprehensive literature study on various aspects pertaining to job satisfaction and its predictors is undertaken.

The main focus of this chapter is on the conceptualisation of job satisfaction. This is done by referring to the definition, theories, predictors, and demographic determinants of job satisfaction. Such theories governed the study and helped the researcher to analyse some of the barriers preventing academics from being satisfied in their jobs. In addition, they have a special explanatory value, particularly important when the focus is on the job satisfaction of academics within South African universities of technology.

#### **2.2 DEFINITION OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Job satisfaction, as an important concept and applicable to all organisations, has different and complementary definitions (Saba 2011:1; Anari 2012:258). In essence, job satisfaction encompasses the feelings of people that are directed to a particular job and its environment (Masemola 2011:30). A number of researchers have attempted to define job satisfaction scholarly.

According to Schneider and Snyder (1975:318), job satisfaction is “a personal evaluation of conditions present in the job, or outcomes that arise as a result of having a job”. Locke (1976:1300) defines job satisfaction as “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience”. According to Hirschfeld (2000:256), job satisfaction is “an affective or emotional reaction to the job, resulting from the incumbent’s comparison of actual outcomes with the required outcomes”. Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969:37) define job

satisfaction as “persistent feelings towards discriminable aspects of the job situation that are thought to be associated with perceived differences between what is expected and what is experienced in relation to the alternatives available in given situation”. Job satisfaction is defined as “individuals’ total feelings about their job and the attitudes they have towards various aspects or facets of their job, as well as an attitude and perception that could consequently influence the degree of fit between the individual and the organisation” (Spector 1997:58).

For the purpose of this study, the definition provided by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969:37) will be adopted to define the concept job satisfaction. It serves as the pertinent definition because it presupposes that job satisfaction is influenced by an employee’s unique circumstances, such as expectations, needs, and values.

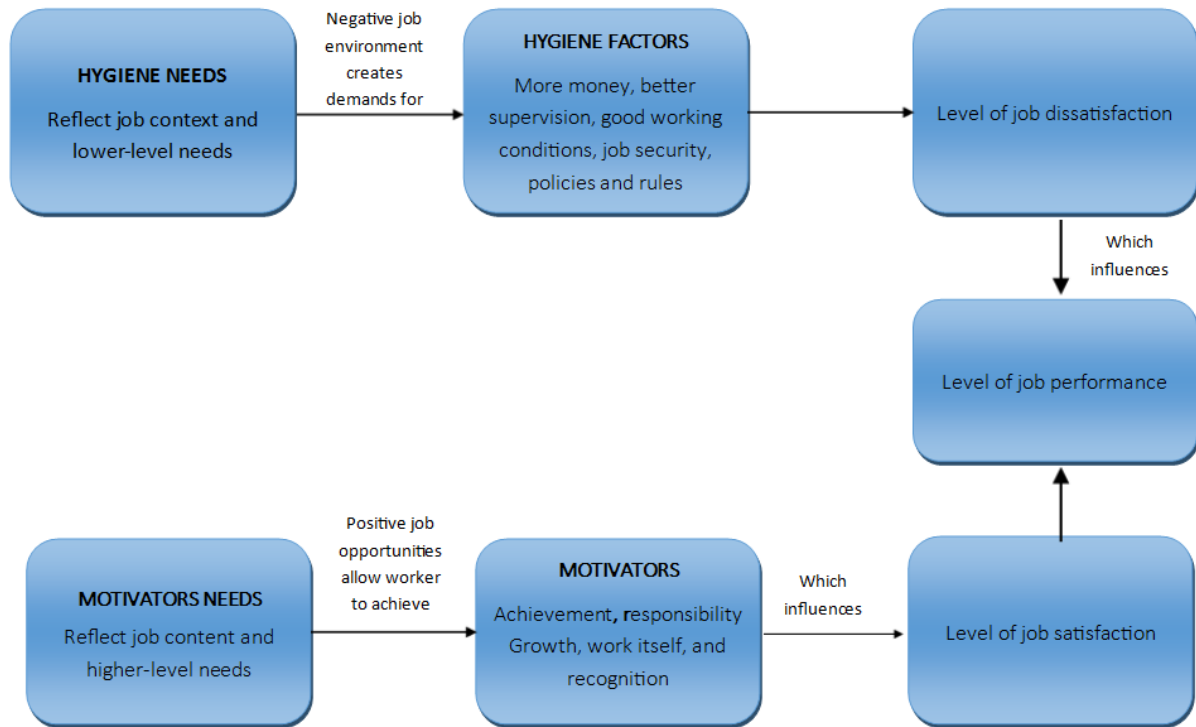
## **2.3 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Since the 1950s, many authors have built on the literature and developed models about the nature of job satisfaction (Ssesanga & Garrett 2005:36). Although many of them are interesting and make sense, some do not settle the addressed problems within specific disciplines (Robbins & Decenzo 2008:270). Though there is no clear guide on how to select the pertinent models to use when investigating and attempting to solve a problem in any area of study (Miner 2005:6), the researcher aims to select models that will fit the problem rather than fitting the problem to a model. For a theory to serve as the base for significant development, it must be scholarly in itself and validated in practical terms (Swanson 2001:2). Since this study takes a problem-centered approach, it will use the models, which are believed to have contributed to the field of human resource management for guidance. The advantage of incorporating such models for this study is to advance knowledge so that the study creates a platform in the creation of new knowledge.

### **2.3.1 Herzberg’s hygiene and motivation theory**

One of the more popular models of motivation is Herzberg’s two factor theory (refer to Figure 2.1) which was formulated in 1959. The theory was designed to test the concept that a human being has two sets of needs: a need to avoid pain and a need

to grow psychologically. Herzberg's theory suggests that the factors involved in producing job satisfaction (and motivation) are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction (Steers & Porter 1975:95; Appleby 1994:200).



**Figure 2.1: Herzberg's theory: factors affecting job satisfaction** (Source: Grobler, Warnich, Carrel, Elbert & Hatfield 2002:107)

According to the two-factor theory of job satisfaction, the primary determinants of job satisfaction are the following intrinsic aspects of the job, also called motivators (Van Antwerpen 2003:73).

- Achievement : opportunity to experience success
- Recognition : the acknowledgement to achievement
- Responsibility : the control over ones work
- Advancement : the promotion awarded for achievement
- Work itself : the content of a career.

On the other hand, the primary determinants of job dissatisfaction are the following extrinsic factors called hygienes (Bergh & Theron 2003:152).

- Company policy and administration,
- Supervision,
- Interpersonal relations,
- Working conditions,
- Salary,
- Personal life, and
- Security,
- Status

It can be seen in Figure 2.1 that the presence of motivation factors, which are positive, may lead to satisfaction, whilst the absence of hygiene factors is negative and clearly is evident of the high levels of job dissatisfaction. Therefore, the concept of satisfaction seems to be related to the quality of the job, which will facilitate personal growth and development. These become motivating factors, which will encourage academics to put more effort into their jobs in order to gain more satisfaction. The hygiene elements of the theory relates to the concept of working conditions, which in its broadest sense refer to constraints and limitations under which employees work (Aamodt, 2004:297). Constant monitoring and adjustment of the hygiene factors, while not creating job satisfaction, could go a long way towards counteracting dissatisfaction (Stafford, 1994:108). Taking it from that point, if the hygiene factors are in place, conditions of employment are then conducive to motivate academics through improving their jobs and incorporating a wider range of skills and a greater opportunity for their personal development and growth.

Herzberg's theory hypothesised that hygiene factors demotivate employees when they are not appropriate, and motivating factors sustain employees' efforts. His theory further informs that the relationship between compensation and job satisfaction is weak (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005:932). This theory does not settle the debate and open doors for further research because of the following criticisms:

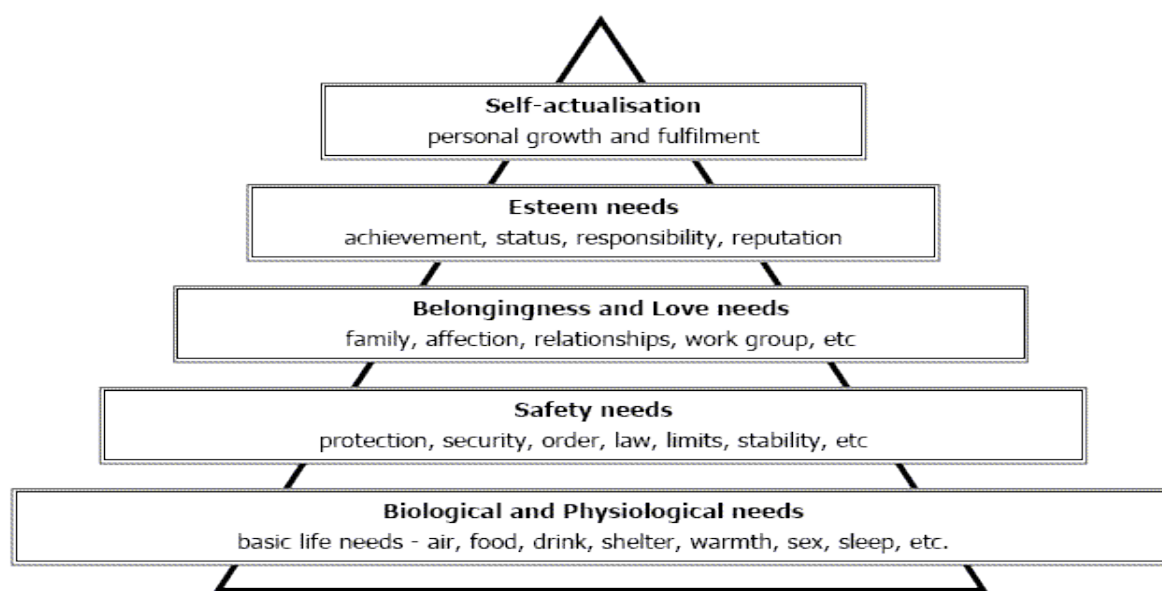
- According to Herzberg (1964:5), the factors that lead to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. The author argues that motivating factors cannot operate in isolation; hygiene factors must always be there for employees to be satisfied with their jobs. Furthermore, the researcher assumes that some hygiene factors can, on their own, result in high levels of job satisfaction. As a matter of justification, employees are satisfied when their jobs provide what they value as more important (Colquitt, Lepine & Wesson, 2009:105). An example will be that of an employee who values a high salary. Such an employee may be highly satisfied at work despite the fact that some motivating factors are at a lower level.
- The procedure used in Herzberg's theory is limited by its methodology. When things are going well, employees tend to take credit themselves, but when things are going wrong, they blame the extrinsic factors (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd 2005:933).
- Herzberg (1964:5) hypothesised a relationship between satisfaction and productivity, but his research methodology focused only on job satisfaction and not on productivity as well.

Robbins (1989:173) states that to make this theory relevant, it should have been hypothesised that there is a strong relationship between job satisfaction and employees' performance. Herzberg's two factor theory makes it easy to understand satisfaction within the employment context by extending Maslow's hierarchy of needs ideas and making them more applicable (Dieleman, Toonen, Toure & Martineau 2006:2). The similarity between these theories is that they suggest that human needs should be satisfied for the workers to be motivated (Smit & de Cronje 2004:348). Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is discussed in the next subsection.

### **2.3.2 Maslow's needs hierarchy theory**

Abraham Maslow formulated the theory of motivation in 1943, in which it was proposed that motivation is a function of five basic needs (refer to Figure 2.2). Maslow arranged

these five needs in a ranking system and believed human needs must appear in a predictable progressive fashion (Steers & Porter 1975:31; Kroon 1996:332). Should any need be fulfilled; an employee will arguably be motivated, leading to job satisfaction. Each need contributes towards job satisfaction and an unfulfilled need might tamper with an employee's progress at work (Waskiewicz 1999:26). An example will be that of an employee who does not get along with colleagues and ultimately fails to fulfil responsibilities at work. In this case, social and esteem needs are at stake (Everingham 2003:246). This means the higher the level of need, the higher the degree of motivation required to notice employees' job satisfaction.



**Figure 2.2 Maslow's hierarchy of human needs** (Source: Bagraim, Potgieter, Viedge & Werner 2003:55)

Each subsequent need is smaller than a need below, indicating that there are fewer yet more important needs at higher levels. The order of the needs holds true for academics. Therefore, the employer should aim at satisfying physiological needs first, since this need is primary in most cases. Unless all levels below have been satisfied no level above can be satisfied. Therefore, to fulfil esteem needs, the four lower levels must have been achieved (Bergh & Theron 2003:170).



As indicated in Table 2.1, it is useful to look at a hierarchy as if it were a staircase that is climbed one step at a time until the top is reached (Aamodt 2004:294).

**Table 2.1 An illustration of Maslow's hierarchy of human needs**

NEEDS	EXPLANATION
<b>Psychological Need</b>	Psychological needs are the primary needs for food, shelter and clothing that can be directly satisfied by compensation: employees who are paid adequately can provide for their basic needs.
<b>Safety Need</b>	Once the psychological needs have been satisfied, the safety or security needs become a motivational factor. Many employees' most important security need is "job security". Other security factors include increases in salary and benefits.
<b>Affiliation Need</b>	On the third level are social needs. At this level, workers desire social relationships inside and outside the workplace. Peer-group acceptance within the workforce is often an important psychological need for employees.
<b>Esteem Need</b>	Once employees have formed friendships within the organisation and feel a part of the peer group, the need self-esteem takes precedence. There is a need to believe that one is worthy, capable, productive, respected and useful, because most people tend to underestimate themselves.
<b>Self-Actualisation Need</b>	The highest needs level is that of self-actualisation. At this stage, employees seek a fulfilling, useful life in the organisation and in society. Employees seek challenging and creative jobs to achieve self-actualisation

**SOURCE:** Maslow (1970:35)

Based on Maslow's hierarchy of human needs academics will climb the ladder of needs fulfilment until they become self-actualised. If any need is not satisfied, an academic will continually strive to fill that need; the need becomes a motivational factor. At any level, needs may be fulfilled outside as well as within the organisation (Grobler *et al.*, 2002:105). Academics may encounter career barriers, which can be destructive in many respects, in such a way that they provoke strong emotions. The concept of motivation helps employees to understand what makes an adaptation encounter personally relevant and a

source of harm or benefit, hence it is emotional in nature (Hanin 2000:41). According to Holman (1996:6), the sense of job satisfaction comes from the true experiences of an individual's own intrinsic value.

Maslow's theory received wider recognition from human resource practitioners. However, research does not validate this theory because it fails to provide empirical evidence (Heslop 2005:30). Alderfer (1969:142-175) re-examined Maslow's theory of needs with the purpose of aligning work with more empirical research, and developed Existence Relatedness and Growth (ERG) theory. This theory is discussed in the next subsection

### 2.3.3 Alderfer' ERG theory

The ERG theory was by developed by Alderfer (196:142-175) with the purpose of aligning Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory with other studies. As depicted in Figure 2.3, the theory groups human needs into three categories, namely existence need, relatedness need an growth need.



**Figure 2.3: The ERG theory** (Source: Hellriegel *et al.*, 2007:269).

Schneider and Alderfer (1973:490) elaborate on these needs as follows:

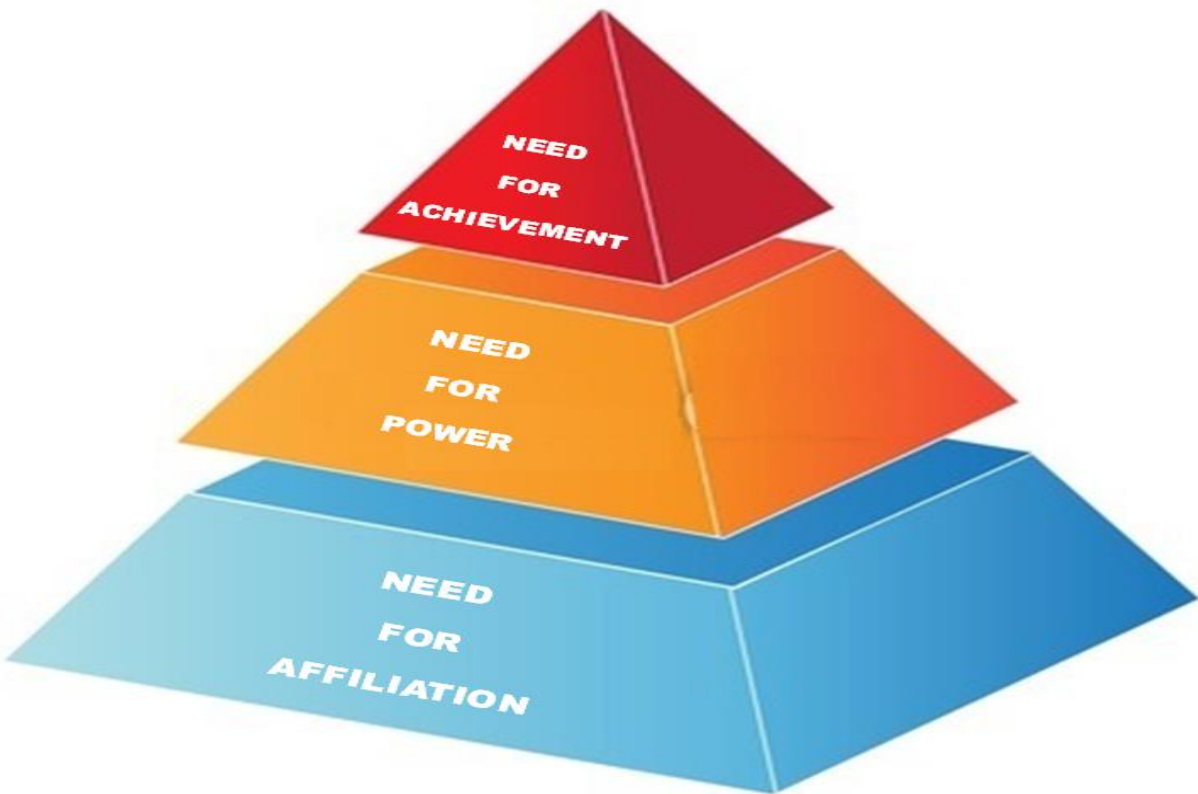
- **Existence needs** refer to employee's physiological and physical needs, such as food, safety, and shelter.
- **Relatedness needs** refer to employee's desire to interact with colleagues, be recognised by others, and interpersonal safety.
- **Growth needs** refer to employee's self-esteem as a result of personal achievement. This need sometimes is referred to as self-actualisation need.

This theory provides a good combination of satisfaction-progression and frustration-regression, where it provides a clear explanation as to why employee's needs change over time (Strydom 2011:140). In addition, as departure from Maslow's hierarchy of needs, employee's different levels of needs can be pursued concurrently. Thus, an employee might strive to satisfy the growth needs despite the fact that the relatedness needs are not entirely satisfied. This means that certain levels of needs can dominate an employee's motivation more than other needs. Once existence needs are fully satisfied, employees strive to achieve relatedness needs as they become more important to them. This is satisfaction-progression (Yang, Hwang & Chen 2011:7886). Employees who find it difficult to satisfy a higher need become frustrated and regress to the lower level need. In a situation where existence and relatedness needs are fully satisfied but growth needs are staged, an employee becomes frustrated and relatedness needs re-emerge as a motivation-dominating source (Arab British for Higher Education 2003:1). The ERG theory, whilst in many ways is similar to Maslow's hierarchy of needs on the needs of human being, the difference is that in terms of the ERG theory when a particular need is frustrated and not fulfilled, employees concentrate on other needs (Grobler *et al.*, 2002:218).

The ERG theory and the McClelland's theory of needs shares the same sentiment that needs deficiencies cause employees to behave in a particular way (Wentland 2003:58). The McClelland's theory is described in the next subsection.

### 2.3.4 McClelland's theory of needs

McClelland (1961) transformed workplace motivation thinking by developing the achievement-based motivational theory (refer to Figure 2.4). Motivation was investigated within the employment context and it was discovered that workers and their managers have needs that influence their work performances. The achievement motivation is one of the needs that refers to an individual's need to achieve realistic goals; get feedback and experience a sense of accomplishment in the workplace (Sokolowski, Schmalt, Langens & Puca 2000:127). In contrast to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, this theory does not view employees' needs as moving in a hierarchical order through which an employee moves.



**Figure 2.4: McClelland's achievement motivation theory** (Source: Robbins & Judge 2007:192)

Some employees have a forceful drive to succeed, but strive for personal achievement rather than for gifts of attainment (Robbins & Decenzo 2008:270). In other words

employees desire to perform and execute job activities in a different, yet more efficient fashion than they were done before. These employees search for working conditions under which they have personal responsibility to find solutions to problems, thereafter receiving feedback on their performance for personal improvement and development. Upon realising improvements, they become satisfied with their jobs as they avoid succeeding by chance. This implicates a need for achievement (Robbins 1989:176).

Employees with a high affiliation need search for friendship and prefer situations which are integrative and friendly (Robbins & Judge 2007:193). The affiliation need is informed by employee's desire to build and uphold close and mutually satisfying relations with co-workers. When the affiliation need is fulfilled, employees tend to be satisfied because their motives to belong to a group enable them to work together in teams where ideas are shared and they sympathise with each other (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2007:269). The affiliation need is most important and relevant to job satisfaction because when it is achieved, employees develop non-conscious concern for building, maintaining and re-establishing close personal relationships with colleagues (Ratzburg 2013:1).

The need for power as indicated in Figure 2.4 is the desire to have the ability to influence the behaviour of other employees. This behaviour does not involve dictatorship but should impact positively on others (Venter & Levy 2011:15). Employees who are in need of power desire to take control and opt to be placed into challenging and rank-orientated situations. Their concern is more on being respected and having an influence over others with effective performance in the workplace (McClelland & Burmham 1976:163).

Table 2.2 provides an illustration of McClelland's achievement motivation theory.

**Table 2.2:** An illustration of McClelland's achievement motivation theory

Need	Functionality
Achievement	The need for achievement is characterised by a wish to take responsibility to search for solutions to the problems, master difficult and critical tasks, set goals, get receive feedback on level of success.
Affiliation	The need for affiliation is characterised by a desire to part of a group, an enjoyment of a team/group work, a great concern about the relationship with colleagues, and a need to reduce uncertainty.
Power	The need for power is characterised by a desire in having the ability to influence the behavior of others in the workplace, a need to defeat in arguments, a need to convince and be victorious.

**Source:** Grobler & Warnich (2011:218)

The presence of these motives drives employees to behave in a positive way. University managers, therefore, should recognise which need is dominant in their academic staff, as it will affect their levels of job satisfaction (Bull 2005:32).

## **2.4 PREDICTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Job satisfaction, as a concept, cannot be understood unless factors that motivate people at work are known and understood (Bull 2005:28). A survey conducted in 2007 shows that there are approximately 15,589 academics employed by South African universities (International Education Association of South Africa, 2012:1). A number of studies conducted on this population concentrated on measuring levels of their job satisfaction rather than evaluating factors contributing to their job satisfaction.

To know how satisfied or dissatisfied the employees are with their jobs is a very complex summation of distinct job variables (Robbins 1989:151). Volkwein and Zhou (2003:151)

identified the following factors as predictors of job satisfaction of workers within the organisations:

- Salary
- Job security
- Interpersonal relationships
- Leadership
- Organisational culture
- Company policies
- Conditions of employment
- Worker autonomy and
- Possibility of growth, development and promotion
- Job content

The value percept theory of job satisfaction (refer to Figure 2.5) serves as a framework for this section as it depicts some important dimensions of job satisfaction in a hierarchical order. However, certain variables that influence job satisfaction were omitted from the model, namely job security, organisational culture, company policies and conditions of employment. These omissions may have been influenced by the setting in which the model was tested because predictors of job satisfaction will differ from one industry/sector to the other (Liu 2006:5). The researcher has incorporated these variables in the model for the purpose of this study, as they should also receive the necessary attention upon discussing predictors of job satisfaction.



**Figure 2.5: The value percept theory of job satisfaction** (Source: Colquitt, Lepine & Wesson 2009:108).

It is necessary to provide a fundamental distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic factors of motivation that lead to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. In the present context, motivation represents psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed (Kreitner & Kinicki 2001:205). Extrinsic factors are termed hygiene factors that involve the context in which the job is performed. Here predictors of job satisfaction are situational and depend on the environment (Rose 2003:506). Intrinsic satisfaction derives from performing the work and consequently experiencing feelings of accomplishment and self-actualisation identity with



the tasks (Martin & Roodt 2008:24). Extrinsic factors are external to the job; while intrinsic factors are thought to measure job satisfaction with intrinsic reinforcement factors (Martin 2007:17). These factors are clearly categorised on Table 2.3.

**Table 2.3:** Intrinsic and extrinsic factors

Extrinsic factors (instrumental material )	Intrinsic factors (quality of work)
Salary Job security Conditions of employment Company policies Leadership Interpersonal relationships Organisational culture	Job content Work autonomy Growth , development & promotion

**Source:** Rose (2003:506)

Employees' levels of job satisfaction around the same factor will always differ; hence, the evaluation of the various factors of the job by employees is subjective in nature (Martin 2007:23). Jones (2000:42) recommended that the following variables be used to determine different sources of job satisfaction:

- Values: this is when an employee is viewing his job as an important aspect of his life where his identity is shaped and defined.
- Nature or characteristics of the job itself: this is when employees are participating in decision-making, and have authority to suggest new ideas.
- Organisational characteristics: this includes opportunities for growth, development and promotion, salary package, and benefits.

### 2.4.1 Job security

In today's world, there are millions of workers who find themselves in the unsecured or contingent labour market (Grobler *et al.*, 2002:486). Consequently, job security has captured the attention of public and professionals since jobs are becoming scarer because of the poor economic climate (Mumford & Smith 2004:1). Job security is defined as "the security of continued employment in the same occupation with the same employer" (Dekker 2010:5). Economic recession, new information technology, industrial restructuring and accelerated global competition contribute to job insecurity as organisations cannot retain employees with lifetime employment (Lincoln 1999:44). Workers who have a sense of insecurity in their employment are less satisfied with their job than those perceiving their employment to be secured (Sverke, Hellgren & Naswall 2002:245).

The perception of high job security is linked frequently to increased levels of job satisfaction (Dachapalli & Parumasur 2012:33). Employees who signed indefinite contracts of employment with their employers feel more secure than those who signed fixed-term contracts. In Europe, for example, job security is high because the government insists on a conclusion of indefinite contracts (Leung 2009:2). When employees' status shift from fixed term contracts to indefinite contracts, they begin to feel secure in their jobs with many accompanying employment benefits. Levels of job satisfaction of such employees increase significantly (Engellandt & Riphahn 2005:282). Some previous studies (Cheng & Chan 2007:272; Arnold & Staffebach 2011:4) found a positive significant relationship between job security and job satisfaction. According to Surujlal (2003:100), job security is of significant importance at three levels, namely the humanitarian level, the economic level and the theoretical level.

- At the humanitarian level, employees are concerned with welfare and performance.
- At the theoretical level, job security is viewed as a direct cause of increased work performance and harmonious employment relations.

- Employees are interested in job satisfaction at the economic level, since job security may lead to increased enthusiasm, increased motivation and fewer conflicts disputes.

#### **2.4.2 Salary**

It is important to explicate salary as a source of job satisfaction encapsulating under the category of extrinsic motivation. The term salary refers to monetary rewards given to workers (Grobler & Warnich 2011:401). Employees who are motivated by money will develop a sense of satisfaction with their job if they are paid well. These employees are extrinsically motivated because their behaviour is provoked by instrumental values (Ryan & Deci 2000:60). A job is just a tool, which is used to satisfy employees' actual needs in a form of salary paid to them (Frey & Osterloh 2001:8). Workers, across industries, consider their salaries insufficient to cover their basic needs (Martineau-t 2003:7).

Financial rewards, within the institutions of higher learning, are used to entice job satisfaction amongst academics (Schifter 2000:16). According to Kohn (1993:4), poor salaries can result in lower levels of job satisfaction. Adam's (1965:267-299) equity theory serves as a good illustration of how salary scales affect employees' job satisfaction. The equity theory illustrates workers' judgments about whether their employer is treating them fairly or not. This happens when workers compare the relationship between their job inputs (such as effort, skills, experience and qualifications) and job outcomes (for example, payment) with the job inputs and job outcomes of their co-workers (Bergh & Theron 2003:163). After comparing, employees may experience one of the following three situations:

- equitably rewarded (equity)
- under rewarded (inequity)
- over rewarded (inequity)

Employees who are over-rewarded perform better, while those who are under-rewarded become dissatisfied and react by producing poor quality of work (Armstrong 2003:223). In most cases, employees will compare their inputs and outputs with employees who occupy similar positions (for example, co-workers, friends, neighbours & professional associates). Information of this nature is usually transmitted through word of mouth, trade unions, job advertisements in newspapers and professional magazines (Werner, Bagraim, Cunningham, Pieterse-landman, Potgieter & Viedge 2011:101). According to Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw and Oosthuizen (2007:274) employees who want to reduce their inequity feelings have the following options:

- Increasing their inputs to justify higher rewards upon feeling that they are over rewarded as compared to their colleagues,
- Decreasing their inputs when they feel that they are being under rewarded,
- Engage into legal action in order to change their salary scale, such as negotiating with management, industrial action, and so on,
- Modifying their comparisons by choosing people who are doing the same job in a similar or same industry with whom to compare themselves,
- Twisting reality by rationalising that inequality is justified,
- Resigning if inequalities cannot be resolved.

Martineau-t (2003:2) is of the view that job satisfaction can be improved if management attends to salary levels. Previous studies affirm that salary is one of the most important variables in understanding job satisfaction (Voydanoff 1980:177-185; Lee & Wilbur 1985:781-791; Clark, Kristensen & Westergard-Nielsen 2009:430-447).

### **2.4.3 Interpersonal relationships**

As employees spend the majority of their time at work, interpersonal relationships are consciously and unconsciously formed (Lee & Ok 2011:1). Interpersonal relationships at the workplace involve daily interactions amongst the employees. Such interactions are a natural and integral part of the working environment and are habitually pleasant, but sometimes create conflict (Stoetzer 2010:1). In environments where employees have a lot in common work closely with one another. When these employees enjoy working together and their working environment is rewarding, there is a desire to form bonds with each other (Morrison & Nolan 2007:34). One of the reasons for encouragement of strong friendships at work is that some workers work long hours with little chance of developing relationships outside their working environments (Riordan & Griffeth 1995:151). Workplace relationships have shown to bear positive results when there is honest and open communication through which workers discuss their feelings relating to their jobs and personal lives (Sias & Cahill 1998:279). Employees who engage in jobs that allow frequent interactions with colleagues are found to be in a good mood during work time and more satisfied with their jobs (Krueger & Schkade 2008:860).

Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, Mcknight and George (2007:4) have revealed that when workers try to distance themselves from their colleagues and supervisors; they seem to aggregate their frustrations and become less satisfied compared to those who have not engaged in such behaviours. Drawing from Maslow's theory of motivation, this is the third level need referred to as "social affiliation", which explains how well employees relate and get along with each other (University of Florida 2013:5).

Numerous studies have also supported the positive relationship between interpersonal relationships at work and job satisfaction of employees (Alderfer & Smith 1982:35-65; Riordan & Griffeth 1995:151; Nielson, Jex & Adams 2000:628-643; Berman, West, & Richter 2002:217-230; Morrison 2004:144-128; Sias 2005:375-395). Tse, Dasborough and Ashkanasy (2008:278) value these findings as the right platform for managers to create and maintain high quality relations amongst the workers. Cohen and Prusak

(2001:81) recommended the following strategies as the best way of creating such strong relations:

- Having Friday afternoon drinks.
- Organising after-work events for workers.
- Granting employees their legal rights of freedom of association.
- Creating coffee corners or canteens where colleagues meet during short breaks and lunchtimes.

#### **2.4.4 Leadership**

Leadership is one of the measuring factors used to determine satisfaction of employees at work (Simkins 2005:9). Leadership is defined as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse 2011:6). A positive employment relationship depends on the ability of an organisation’s leadership. Hence, leaders who secure employees’ support and cooperation will be succeeding in creating a harmonious, conducive, and productive working environment leading to a sound labour relationship (Venter & Levy 2011:19).

Previous research has identified different leadership styles, namely authoritative leadership (autocratic), participative leadership (democratic), delegate (laissez-faire) leadership, and transformational leadership (Cherry 2012:1). Autocratic leaders exercise complete power over their subordinates, so employees have little opportunity to make suggestions (Goodnight 2004:821; Colquitt *et al.*, 2009:478).

Democratic leaders include employees in the process of decision making in a form of joint decision-making, thus encouraging employees to be creative and innovative (Somech 2003:1003). Laissez-faire leaders provide their subordinates with complete freedom to set deadlines for the allocated tasks to be completed. They only provide employees with the necessary resources and advice when needed (Goodnight 2004:822; Nyengane 2007:34). Transformational leaders expect the best from every employee as well as from

themselves. This serves as inspiration as they search for ways to ensure that employees know how to achieve set goals (Parry & Proctor-Thomson 2002:78; Price 2003:68; Bass & Steidlmeier 2006:2). Transactional leaders punish employees if they do not perform up to the required standard (Goodwin, Wofford & Whittington 2001:759; Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson 2003:208).

According to Clark, Hartline and Jones (2009:210), leadership style has a positive significant effect on employees' job satisfaction. There is no single best leadership style leading to job satisfaction. Hence, sound leadership style depends on the situation (Blake & Mouton 1982:39). Stroh (2001:59) outlined that employees' performance may decline because of un-stimulating leadership styles of managers, which could result in decreased levels of job satisfaction and commitment. Webster and Mosoetsa (2002:59) cite that optimism has lost its meaning among the South African academics. Poor supervisory leadership and poor organisational culture inform this condition. High levels of job satisfaction among employees serve as a true reflection of the quality of leadership in the organisation (Nyengane 2007:57). Therefore, there is a need for university leadership to be efficient in such a dynamic environment (Davies, Hides & Casey 2001:1028).

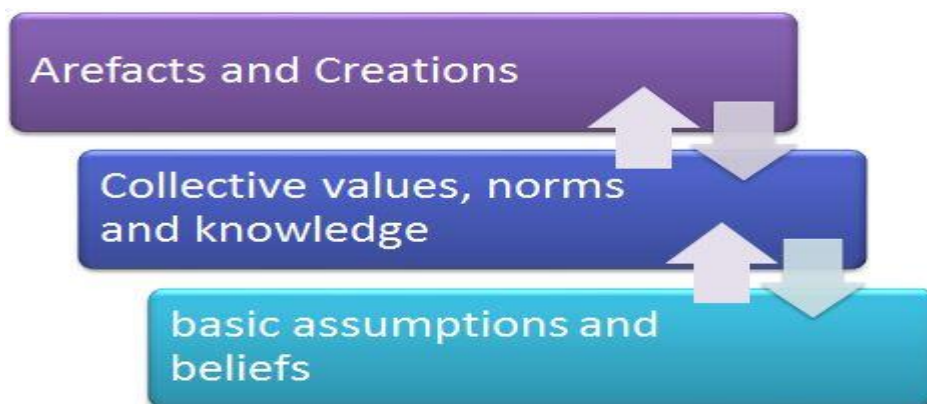
Many departments within organisations work as a team within which a leader is in control. Members of these teams remain dissatisfied because their leaders omit to take their individual needs into account (Robbins & Judge 2007:447). With an attempt to address the above problem, Adair (1983:1-116) developed and applied an action-centered model of leadership. The model consists of three interrelated but distinctive requirements of a leader, namely the leader must clearly define the task, the leader must buildup and coordinate a team successfully to execute the duty, finally the leader must develop and satisfy the employees within the team (Oakland 2001:159). Thus, a good leader is one who caters for the needs of employees by harmonising them in maintaining job satisfaction (National College for School Leadership 2003:2).

Schulze (2006:322) recommends that managerial skills and leadership styles of deans and heads of departments at universities must be considered as crucial factors influencing

positive employee behaviour. Management leadership style, in many organisations, influences the type of culture adopted by organisations. Hence, the organisational culture influences employees' commitment and performance (Lok & Crawford 2004:232). When there are harmonious relationships between management and employees, the mission and objectives of the organisation will be accomplished, leading to high levels of job satisfaction (Tsai 2011:8).

#### 2.4.5 Organisational culture

Organisational culture is defined as a social glue holding employees together by expressing values, social ideas and beliefs that they share (Oakland 2001:6; Lau, Tse & Zhou 2002:539). An organisation's culture becomes its personality (Philips & Gully 2014:35) because every organisation should adopt a unique and inherent culture, which influences their business operations (Fard, Rostamy & Taghiloo 2009:51). Organisational culture is the reflection of how employees profess the characteristics of an organisation, not whether they like them or not (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal & Roodt 2009:424). Schein (1984:3) posits that employers should understand the dynamic force that forms organisational culture. Figure 2.6 illustrates how organisational culture is cultivated. Organisational culture starts with assumptions and beliefs influencing members of the organisation. Culture is then expressed through company rules, regulations and procedures; all shaped by company policies. Ultimately, behaviour of members of the organisation is affected, which results in actions, artifacts and creations.



**Figure 2.6: Organisational culture model** (Source: Schein 2010:299)



Once organisational culture becomes apparent, it would then instill acceptance actions and behavioural patterns amongst members of the organisation from different backgrounds (Von Solms & Von Solms 2004:276). In organisations where employees from different backgrounds and, at different levels describe the organisation's culture in similar terms, an increase in employees' job satisfaction is noticed (Egan, Yang & Bartlett, 2004). Organisational culture influences, consciously and unconsciously, how employees perceive their job in terms of satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Lok & Crawford 2004:323). Various studies have found that organisational culture has a positive impact on job satisfaction (Trice & Beyer 1993; Silverthorne 2004:592-599; Adkins & Caldwell 2004:969-978; Egan, Yang & Bartlett 2004:279-301; Macintosh & Doherty 2010:106-117).

Due to the importance of organisational culture, university managers should recognise and value its underpinning dimensions and its impact on their academics-related variables such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Tsai 2011:1).

#### **2.4.6 Company policies**

Policies are an organisation's on-going guidelines on how resources are to be managed and how members should behave. Policies provide a description of philosophies and values on how people should be treated (Armstrong 2003:129). According to Samson and Daft (2003:227), a company's policies should define boundaries within which organisations make decisions regarding tasks that need to be performed repeatedly. According to Bendix (2010:317) and Squires, Moralejo and Lefort (2007:2), every company should formulate policies reflecting on their objectives, and establish propositions in the light of which relationships with employees are to be conducted.

Many organisations devote important resources to developing their policies, but fail to communicate such policies to employees (Mark 2001:1). When employees are given an opportunity to have an input in policy development, it increases levels of job satisfaction (Ahmed, Nawaz, Iqbal, Ali, Shaukat & Usman 2010:72). Poor company policies have

negative impacts on the job satisfaction of employees. Hence, policies that obstruct employees' morale are regarded as a source of dissatisfaction (Scheid 2013:2). Some examples of problems informed by poor policies include environmental tolerance of harassment, discrimination, hostility towards females, promotion, structural integration, transfer, training, and non-implementation of existing policies to combat such problems (Gruber 1998:302; Tinarelli 2011:16).

Policies must be reviewed after a certain period of time and be changed if necessary. Policy redevelopment brings about a positive internal working climate and job satisfaction (Ehlers & Lazenby 2011:344). Since job satisfaction is such a crucial variable, a company policy that results in its highest intensity possible will ensure a positive work climate (Pollnac & Poggie 1998:889). Stamm and Underwood (1993:528-541) revealed that good company policies have a positive association with job satisfaction. Bull (2005:15) cites that employees in other sectors of employment are dissatisfied because management does not consult them when developing and amending policies affecting their rights. Gospel (2003:40) recommends that employers' policies should incorporate the well-being and attitudes of employees. According to Thompson and Prottas (2005:100) employers should adopt and put into practice policies directed at providing employees with resources and boosting their morale.

#### **2.4.7 Conditions of employment**

A conducive working environment is one of the basic human needs that allows employees to execute their duties optimally (Roelofsen 2002:247). It is believed that in a number of sectors of employment, employees are working longer hours than they should with extraordinary overtime. These employees feel less valued as they have less time to rest (Gospel 2003:11). The teaching profession, in particular, is faced with the following issues that perpetuate poor conditions of employment: lack of administrative support, insufficient resources, too large class sizes, unclean and unsafe facilities, unrealistic deadlines, attending countless meetings, and excessive paper-work (Horng 2005:1; Chua 2008:67). These points serve as an indication that employees' capacity to perform up to the required

standard is being compromised by poor conditions of employment under which they are expected to execute their duties (Johnstone 2002:7). This results in work overload denoting the assigned tasks to employees which create excessive demands beyond their abilities resulting in lower levels of job satisfaction (Moyes & Redd 2008:24). Overloading employees does not only affect job satisfaction levels, but also affects quality of products and service (Mokhathi 2012:37).

Organisations should value their employees because employees who experience good conditions at work deliver value out of other factors of production (Mokaya, Musau, Wagoki & Karanja 2013:80). Managers should know the factors affecting satisfaction in order to create an environment enabling job satisfaction (Heartfield 2012:1). Creating a friendly working environment for employees has two positive consequences, namely employees are happier, and productivity is higher. Hence, low levels of job satisfaction can turn an exciting career into a dreaded experience (Stanley 2001:3). Wells (2000:247), who found that making a workplace highly enjoyable increases levels of job satisfaction, pointed out the opposite of this.

#### **2.4.8 Work autonomy**

Work autonomy ranks among the most important factors that contribute to job satisfaction, particularly amongst educated individuals (Landerweerd & Bousmans 1994:208). Finn (2001:349) supplements this statement by stating that autonomy is crucial to any idea of professionalism. Hackman and Oldham (1975:162) define worker autonomy as “the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.” According to Brey (1999:10), worker autonomy is measured in terms of the degree to which employees have control over some or all of the following different job elements:

- Procedures
- Scheduling
- Method of working

- Work criteria
- Pace of work
- Work place
- Work goals
- Work evaluation
- Working hours
- Amount of work
- Type of work.

It was found that employees who have a high degree of freedom embarked upon extra-role behaviours that commanded task behaviours (Smith, Organ & Near 1983:685). Such freedom enables employees to achieve the best of what they are capable of, and this is related strongly to job satisfaction. When perceived within Maslow's hierarchy of needs context, job autonomy contributes towards the self-actualisation need. If this need is limited, workers cannot give equal input into moral principles, hence lower levels of job satisfaction are experienced (Dworkin 1988:30). Satisfaction in the teaching profession is constituted by the liberty to attempt new ideas at a more matured and responsible level (Bull 2005:15). According to Kim (2002:233) employees' satisfaction increases when they are supervised in a very supportive and non-controlling manner. There is empirical support for this statement, as Thomas and Ganster (1995:6-15) revealed that job autonomy is the link between supervisor support and employee job satisfaction. A high level of worker autonomy perceived by employees sends a message that management has confidence in their ability and this allows them to execute allotted duties the way they deem fit (Wang & Netemeyer 2002:219). Gruneburg (1979:53) theorised that occupations that are lacking in a diverse array of duties and autonomy, necessitate low levels of satisfaction because employee's abilities are stretched to the limit. Autonomy and self-regulation at work is valued and supported by many professionals in progressing organisations and excelling universities in the world (Fenwick 2003:2).

#### **2.4.9 Possibility of growth and development**

A number of companies are creating positions that require enhancement, advancement, development, and growth of human resources (Gilley & Eggland 2002:1). Employees who are characterised as high achievers opt to work in challenging jobs that provide opportunities to further their skills and advancement opportunities that lead to self-actualisation (Ramlall 2004:58). This means organisations are faced with a challenge of creating a conducive working environment in which their workers are able to experience growth to the highest degree possible (Steers & Porter 1983:48; Robbins, Judge, Odendaal & Roodt 2009:81). Employees who feel that there is less possibility to grow and few advancement opportunities within the organisation develop negative attitudes towards their jobs and this affects levels of job satisfaction (Waskiewicz 1999:26).

According to Maurer and Rafuse (2001:117), employees should be persuaded to participate in learning and developmental activities because they contribute towards individual improvement and development of career skills. Examples of such activities include workshop attendance, seminars, training programmes, correspondence courses, university or college courses, job rotation, acceptance of delegated duties by line-manager, and special assignments on the job. Fenwick (2003:1) justifies that growth and development activities lead to satisfaction of employees' interests and needs. Table 2.4 illustrates some positive rewards associated with the creation and implementation of individual growth and development plans.

**Table 2.4:** Employer-employee rewards for individual growth and development activities.

Employer's rewards	Employees' rewards
It builds current and future capacity of the company.	It facilitates a discussion with manager regarding potential new responsibilities and future roles.
It aligns employees' skills with company's goals and priorities.	It identifies skill gaps and development needs.
It enhances employee performance and engagement.	It provides a process that supports professional development and career goals.
It focuses on the development resources on areas of greatest impact.	It provides a tool to record and track development actions and results.
It prepares employees for greater responsibility and future heavier roles.	

**Source:** University of Chicago (2013:1)

When employees are satisfied with their jobs it serves as an implication of affective response to some aspects of their jobs, which include *inter alia* growth and development (Cotton & Tuttle 1986:58). A number of studies revealed that employee growth and development has a significant effect on the levels of job satisfaction (Scarpello & Campbell 1983:315-328; Naumann 1993:153-187; Kalleberg & Rognes 2000:315-335). Lee and Bruvold (2003:984) identified three ways to increase levels of job satisfaction by growing and developing employees:

- Employees may regard the company offering them development programmes as representing the company's concern for their long-term growth.
- Growth and development give employees a greater sense of autonomy over their career because of opportunities to improve their skills.
- Availability of employees' growth and development opportunity improves employees' perceptions about the employer and positively impact on job satisfaction.

Employee development programmes, sometimes referred to as career development programmes, assist employees to improve their skills for future promotion opportunities (Tansky & Cohen 2001:286). If an employee is hoping that achieving organisational goals will result in promotional opportunities, this probably will impact positively on job satisfaction (Waskiewicz 1999:26). Evidence from the literature shows that promotional opportunities can also serve as a reliable determinant of job satisfaction, where employees are promoted to higher ranks becoming more satisfied with their jobs than their colleagues at lower ranks (Oshagbemi 2003:1217).

#### **2.4.10 Job content**

Job content refers to dimensions of quantitative job demands such as variety of tasks, difficulty of tasks, job holder's autonomy, routineness of tasks, job holder's identity, and how the job is performed by the job holder (Hoogendoorn, Bongers, De Vet, Ariens, van Mechelen & Bouter 2002:324; Grobler & Warnich 2011:142). If these demands are arranged and structured properly, they have positive outcomes such as high performance and job satisfaction (Schaufeli & Bakker 2004:298). Job content is affected by the company purpose, how demands on achieving that purpose affect employees, activities and processes carried out in the company, type of technology used, rampant changes in that technology, and the environment in which the company operates (Armstrong 2003:338). This necessitates the incorporation of the concept job design since job content is highly dependent on how a job is designed (Morgeson & Humphrey 2006:1322). Job design is a determinant of the way in which an employee accomplishes the allotted tasks; here job satisfaction of an employee is at stake. Employee's positive reaction to job design reflects greater accomplishment, and job satisfaction (Grobler & Warnich 2011:143).

Armstrong (2003:339) encourages organisations to use job design techniques in order to structure job content because job satisfaction in work emanates from the intrinsic content of the job. This will translate into job enrichment with high levels of meaning, discretion and knowledge results (Cummings & Worley 2001:185). Job content that enhances

involvement enables employees to receive intrinsic satisfaction by performing their duties under enriched conditions (Cummings & Worley 2001:178).

## **2.5 BIOGRAPHICAL DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Employment plays an important role in people's lives as it provides the economic basis for employees to earn a living. During this engagement, job satisfaction becomes a major concern because employees spend most hours at work (Koustelios 2001:354). This satisfaction is determined and affected by many personal factors such as age, gender, tenure, race, marital status, and level of education (Masemola 2011:37).

### **2.5.1 Age and job satisfaction**

Kacmar and Ferris (1989:203) proposed that, before analysing the impact of age on the satisfaction of employees, their career stages first must be understood. Employees' careers follow three basic stages, which include young, middle and old adult stages. These stages are illustrated in Table 2.5.

**Table 2.5:** Career stages and development

Stage	Consequence
Young stage	Employees in this stage try to fit into adult working world
Middle stage	Employees in this stage are highly productive
Old adult stage	Employees in this stage attempt to disengage from work

**Source:** Kacmar and Ferris (1989:202)

It was found that many employers are struggling to motivate employees in the young stage. While in many industries middle and old stages employees are responding positively to some predictors of job satisfaction such as pay, company policies and working conditions. This means that employee' job satisfaction increases with age (Altimus & Tersine 1973:53). Janson and Martin (1982:1090) suggest that intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions differ according to the employees' ages. Studies also support the



latter by stating that older employees who have been in the labour market for long are able to accurately predict and avoid workplace frustrations (Johnson & Johnson 2000:361; Heslop 2005:44). According to Spector (1997:83) dissatisfaction among younger workers can be attributed to the following assumptions:

- Less skilled to enjoy and master the jobs/less experience,
- Not yet benefited from advancements and promotions,
- Not yet fully entrenched to conditions of employment,
- High and unrealistic expectations from employment,
- Hungry for power.

Hulin and Smith (1965:209-216) developed a linear model of job satisfaction and a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction was revealed. The model thus explains that as a young person starts the job, the level of job satisfaction is low. Job satisfaction increases for several years, as the person grows older. These results are contrary to Herzburg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell's (1957:5) findings where the relationship between the same variables was found to be curvilinear. Waskiewicz (1999:16) also revealed that age has a positive linear relationship with job satisfaction.

### **2.5.2 Gender and job satisfaction**

The extent to which males and females differ in the aspects of work concerning levels of job satisfaction has created a huge dialogue among researchers who often report on conflicting results (Hodson 1989:386). To date, there is no convincing finding regarding the differing levels of job satisfaction between males and females (Koustelios 2001:354). Females perceive interpersonal relationships at work as the most important job aspect and this correlates with their levels of job satisfaction (Bender, Donohue, and Heywood 2005:482). Females' jobs, on average, are characterised by sexual harassment, less autonomy, limited promotional opportunities, and poorer salaries than males. Thus, one might assume that job satisfaction of females under these conditions should be lower. Nevertheless, their level of job satisfaction is higher (Clerk 1997:342). Bender, Donohue,

and Heywood (2005:480) state that job satisfaction is a result of met expectations or fulfilled needs of an employee. Hence, majority of females have lower expectations and fewer needs, and their needs and expectations are fulfilled easily. Another argument for these positive attitudes towards a job is that the majority of married women rely on their families as a source of satisfaction, and worry less about job-related concerns (Dodson 1989:386). In a similar study, it was reported that educated women are less satisfied with their jobs than less educated female workers in the same or similar jobs (Glenn & Weaver 1982:47).

Lower levels of job satisfaction are reported among males. Among the factors that resulted in these levels are higher educational levels of this group as they form high expectations which are not easily met (Bender & Heywood 2006:253). This continues despite employers' efforts to match educational level with better salaries: because of unrealistic expectations from their jobs; this group becomes easily disappointed and dissatisfied (Clark & Oswald 1996:59; Hamermesh 2000:9). When employees perceive themselves as being disadvantaged due to the discrepancy between outcomes they expected and the actual outcomes, the thought of work-related deprivation affects job satisfaction (Johnson & Johnson 2000:539).

### **2.5.3 Tenure and job satisfaction**

Tenure refers to the period of time an employee has been working for a company (Lim, Teo & Thayer 1998:334). According to Bull (2005:48) employees who have spent an excessive number of years with an employer (longer tenure) have greater opportunity to be satisfied with their jobs than those who have been with the employer for shorter period of time (shorter tenure). Age indirectly affects job satisfaction in a positive way through other variables. Older workers become more satisfied with their jobs because of their longer tenure is an example thereof (Bedeian, Ferris & Kacmar 1992:35). Since tenure is a time-related variable, structural and personal considerations increase the impact of tenure on the job satisfaction during middle and old adult phases of their career (Cohen 1993:146). Some researchers found that when the employee's years of experience grow,

the overall level of job satisfaction increases as well. This is because benefits, such as job security, experience, and a strong bond with colleagues increase in time and are likely to impact on job satisfaction (Masemola 2011:38). The job search theory argues that younger workers do not remain in a particular job for so long as they flirt with different jobs in search of green pastures (Battu, McMaster & White 2002:133).

#### **2.5.4 Race and job satisfaction**

The nature of the workforce in South Africa and in other countries is transiting to be more multicultural and diverse (Venter & Levy 2011:20). When the issue of race and job satisfaction is discussed within the South African context, it might seem easy to find the direct effect of race on job satisfaction. This is because members of a particular group (Whites) in comparison with members of other groups (Blacks) were given an unfair advantage in the past in terms of wages, training, promotion, recruitment, appointment, transfer and retrenchment (Tinarelli 2011:17). These situations prevail with some employers who practice discrimination through job aspects that are difficult to quantify which is referred to as indirect discrimination. In most cases, Blacks have lower job satisfaction than Whites (Bartel 1981:296). Black workers in most sectors have been at the back of the queue when it comes to respect, decent wages, and conditions of employment (Mdladlana 2001:4). Some studies have shown that these aspects have become a source of job dissatisfaction among the Blacks (Shields & Ward 2001). It was reported that levels of job satisfaction among Whites is higher because they have been more privileged than Blacks in many aspects of employment despite the existence of the Employment Equity Act (Vallabh & Donald 2001:39).

According to the dual labour market theory, negative impacts of racial discrimination on job satisfaction cannot be reduced drastically by investment in education and training, unless all races are equally treated. This can be done, for example, by amending and developing policies to eliminate discrimination, better labour market information and reorienting employers (Barker 2009:24). The precise relationship of race and job

satisfaction within the South African context involves complex theoretical issues, which are beyond the scope of this study.

### **2.5.5 Marital status and job satisfaction**

Work and family responsibilities are incompatible in some respects. This becomes a base for researchers to hypothesise that an important determinant of job satisfaction is marital status (Martins, Eddleston & Veiga 2002:339). High levels of job satisfaction, which are reported among employees, are subject to marital status variance (King, Murray & Atkinson 1982:119). When employees get married, their personal lives receive priority over their work. These employees may be dissatisfied when work roles intersect with their family roles, compared to their colleagues who are not married (Blau, Ferber & Winkler 1998:52). Contrary to the latter, some studies report that married females have higher levels of job satisfaction than single and divorced females (Burke & Weir 1976:280; Cetin 2006:80). Married males with working wives report low levels of job satisfaction because they engage to greater responsibilities at home after working hours (Saltzstein, Tin & Saltzstein 2001:453). The degree to which an employee is satisfied with the marriage can affect job satisfaction. Drawing from Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, an employee who is unhappy in the marriage (unsatisfied need) will bring a certain level of dissatisfaction to the job which will manifest itself as dissatisfaction with the job (Waskiewicz 1999:42).

### **2.5.6 Level of education and job satisfaction**

Research results are equivocal with regard to the relationship between educational level and job satisfaction (Bull 2005:49). Many people strive to be educated with the motive of getting a satisfying job (Glenn & Weaver 1982:46). Mottaz (1984:985) argues that education provokes higher aspirations, expectations and work values. These values are intrinsic rewards such as job autonomy, task significance, task involvement, and job security. Masemola (2011:42) cited that the higher the educational status the higher the expectations which are difficult to satisfy. Some researchers found opposite results where

high levels of job satisfaction was reported among highly educated employees compared to those with lower educational levels (Martin 2007:55). Bull (2005:50) recommends that highly educated employees should perform tasks that match their qualifications to avoid an inverse relationship between education and job satisfaction.

## **2.6 CONCLUSION**

The main focus of this chapter included theoretical aspects of the concept of job satisfaction, conceptualisation with specific reference to the definition, models of job satisfaction, predictors of job satisfaction, and demographic determinants of job satisfaction. The literature in this chapter has attested to the significant value of job satisfaction, properly linking it to the following intrinsic and extrinsic factors: salary, job security, interpersonal relationships, leadership, organisational culture, company policies, conditions of employment, worker autonomy, possibility of growth, development and promotion, and job content. As such, job satisfaction can be used as an embracing measure for excellence, efficiency, effectiveness and productivity within organisations.

Some studies have reported conflicting results on certain variables that affect levels of job satisfaction. This is very interesting, because when the literature is not conclusive in a particular area, a research project such as this one has the potential to add value in the body of knowledge. In other words, it is envisaged that the empirical results of this study will shed light on such controversy.

The next chapter focuses on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Organisational commitment will be discussed in more detail, extending to theories of this concept.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT, TURNOVER INTENTION, ABSENTEEISM AND WORK PERFORMANCE**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter explored the theoretical aspects of the concept job satisfaction, with specific reference to the definition, theories, predictors, and demographic determinants of job satisfaction.

This chapter's focus areas include the following theoretical aspects of the concept organisational commitment: definition of the concept, models/theories, dimensions, and approaches. The following concepts are also analysed: turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance. This chapter also reviewed the existing relationships between the following variables: job satisfaction and organisational commitment; job satisfaction and turnover intention, job satisfaction and absenteeism, organisational commitment and turnover intention, absenteeism and turnover intention, turnover intention and work performance, organisational commitment and work performance, absenteeism and work performance, and finally organisational commitment and absenteeism.

#### **3.2 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT (OC)**

Providing a definition of organisational commitment is the first step when conceptualising OC. Many researchers proposed various definitions for OC but no consensus has been reached (Firestone & Pennell 1993:490). Definitions of concepts in the social science studies are usually not right or wrong; they may be more or less helpful for the purpose of analysis (Tustin & Geldenhuys 2011:32). In spite of the disagreements over some elements of the definition of this concept many of the formulated definitions intersect in the idea of a psychological bond, an intrinsic attachment and identification of an employee with something outside of oneself (Firestone & Pennell 1993:490).

Organisational commitment is defined as “a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation” (Robbins 1989:142). According to Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974:603), organisational commitment is “the relative strength of the individual’s identification with, and involvement in, a particular organisation”. O’Reilly (1991:487) defines organisational commitment as “an individual’s psychological bond to the organisation, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty and belief in the values of the organisation”. Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969:58) define organisational commitment as “the extent to which an employee expresses a positive affective orientation toward a job”. Roodt (2004:85) defines organisational as “a cognitive predisposition towards a particular focus, insofar this focus has the potential to satisfy needs, realise values, and achieve goals”. Allen and Meyer (2000:286) define organisational commitment as “a psychological state that characterises an employee’s relationship with the organisation and reduces the likelihood that he/she will leave it”.

For the purpose of this study, the definition provided by O’Reilly (1991:487) has been adopted to define the concept organisational commitment. It serves as the relevant definition because it summarises the items contained in the questionnaire used for this study, namely organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) which was developed by Allen and Meyer (1990:862) to measure organisational commitment of employees.

### **3.2.1 Theories and models of organisational commitment**

All developed theories and models of organisational commitment have the potential to contribute to a better understanding of this concept and thus cannot be ignored in any review of the organisational commitment literature (Weibo, Kaur & Jun 2010:18). Given the enormous quantity of research, the researcher had to concentrate on theories of organisational commitment that were pertinent to the study.

### 3.2.1.1 The side-bet theory

Side-bet theory is one of the earliest theories to examine a conceptual framework of organisational commitment (WeiBo *et al.*, 2010:13). Becker (1960:32) hypothesised that organisational commitment arises when an employee links unrelated interests with a consistent line of activity by making a side-bet. The implication here is that when an employee makes side-bets, the cost of failing to persist in a course of action will increase. The course of action is referred to herein as staying with the organisation. One central theme of the side bets theory is that an employee becomes committed to the organisation when irrelevant situational factors become agents of investment on employee's present actions (Iqbal 2010:17). Side bets fall into the following broad categories: generalised cultural expectation, self-presentation concerns, impersonal bureaucratic arrangements, individual adjustments to social positions, and non-work concerns (Powell & Meyer 2004:158). A full description of these forms is presented on Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1:** Forms of side-bets

Side-bet form	Description
Generalised cultural expectation	This refers to the expectations of important reference groups regarding what shapes responsible behaviour. For example, how long should an employee stay at a job? Violation of these expectations could lead to real or imagined negative consequences.
Self-presentation concerns	This arises when an employee tries to present a consistent public image that requires one to behave in a particular fashion. Should an employee fail to do so this could dent the image.
Impersonal bureaucratic arrangements	These are organisational rules and policies put in place to reward or encourage long-term employment. For example, seniority based compensation system.



Side-bet form	Description
Individual adjustments to social positions	This refers to efforts made by an employee to adapt to a situation, but that make him/her less fit to other situations. For example, investment of time and effort to acquire specific skills for a particular organisation.
Non-work concerns	This refers to side bets made outside the organisation itself, as when an employee establishes roots in a community that would be disrupted if he/she were to leave the organisation and be forced to seek a job in another geographic location.

**Source:** Powell & Meyer (2004:158)

Becker (1960:34) argues that after a certain period of time some costs accrue and this makes it more difficult for an employee to disengage from a course of action. Certain investments have a tendency of yielding additional costs, which are not related directly to the original investment. These types of investments are referred to as structural investments and an employee has little control over them (Gelade, Dobson & Aur 2008:600). Examples of structural investments include employee's marital status, education, length of service with the organisation, age, and job or location assignments with the organisation (Shoemaker, Snizek & Bryant 1977:599; Shore, Barksdale & Shore 1995:1594).

Ritzer and Trice (1969:475-479) re-examined and rejected the side-bet theory. The measurement of this theory was found to be problematic since side-bets can be highly idiosyncratic by their nature. Nevertheless, side-bet theory received support from Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982:26) who described organisational commitment as a behavioural process by which an employee becomes locked into a particular organisation and how employee deals with such problem. Angle and Perry (1983:123-146) further advocated behavioural processes of this theory.

The social identity theory (SIT) is described in the next subsection to shed some light since side-bet theory could not settle the debate on employees' commitment.

### **3.2.1.2 Social identity theory**

Tajfel (1972:293) established the idea of social identity to postulate how people conceptualise themselves in intergroup contexts, and how a system of social categorisation creates and defines an individual's own place in society. Social identity is defined as "part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his/her knowledge of membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership (Tajfel 1978:63). Tajfel and Turner (1979:33-47) developed SIT which explains that apart from the level of "self", a person has various social identities. Social identity is a person's self-concept derived from belonging to a particular social group (Hogg & Vaughan 2002:52). According to SIT this internalised group membership creates in-group or self-categorisation which later manifests into commitment that favours the in-group (University of Twente 2013:1). Previous studies supplement this assertion by stating that in-group identification results in high levels of commitment to the group and less intentions to leave the group, even when the group's status is relatively low (Ellemers, Spears & Doosje 1997:617; Ellemers, Kortekaas & Ouwerkerk 1999:371).

Tajfel and Turner (1979:39) identified three classes of variables that positively contribute to the emergence of in-group favouritism:

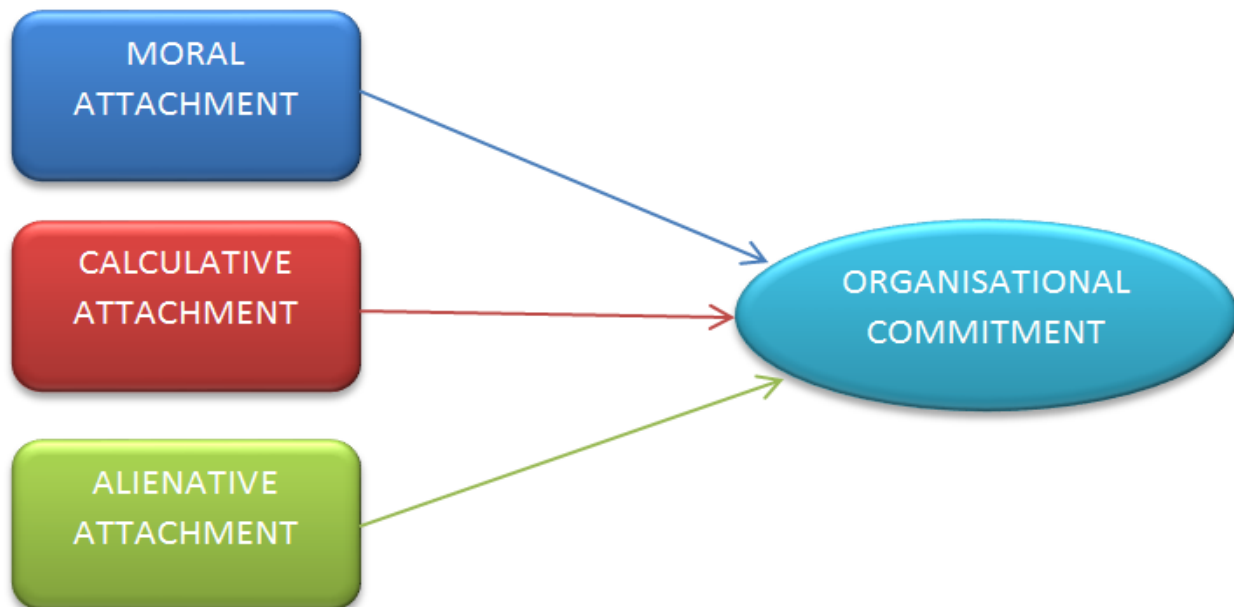
- The extent to which employees identify with an in-group to internalise that group membership as an aspect of their self-concept,
- The extent to which the prevailing context provides ground for comparison between groups, and
- The perceived relevance of the comparison group, which itself will be shaped by the absolute and relative status of the in-group.

The main argument of the SIT is that the extent to which people identify with a particular social group determines their natural tendency to behave in terms of their group membership. Social identification refers to a feeling of affective commitment to a group

(Ellemers *et al.*, 1999:372). According to Stets and Burke (2000:228), the level of identity that an employee achieves depends on situational factors, such as job satisfaction and normative fit. Brown (2000:747) states that in event of unsatisfactory identity (lack of normative commitment), an employee may strive to leave the organisation or find ways of achieving distinctiveness that is more positive. When an employee perceives similarities between the self and other in-group members and identifies with organisational goals and values, organisational commitment increases (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa 1986:501). This is because organisational commitment is an exchange commodity, where employees are likely to become committed to the organisation when there is a sense of belonging (Fuller, Barnett, Hester & Relyea 2003:789).

### 3.2.1.3 Etzioni's model of organisational commitment

A model was developed by Etzioni (1961:41), which offers an appealing way of conceptualising commitment of individual employees to their organisations. Etzioni's model describes organisational commitment in terms of three perspectives, namely: moral commitment, calculative commitment, and alienative commitment (refer to Figure 3.1).



**Figure 3.1: Etzioni's model of organisational commitment** (Source: Etzioni 1961:41)

**Moral commitment** is an employee's positive orientation based on identification and internalisation with organisational goals (Zangaro 2001:15). Congruency between employee's goals and values match with that of the organisation, and makes the employee feel obliged to the organisation (Weiner 1982:421). Calling it moral attachment, Etzioni (1961:9) perceived it as originating from a symbolic compliance structure.

**Calculative commitment** accumulates when an employee receives inducements that match contributions, which can either be positive or negative (Mguqulwa 2008:27). Calculative commitment reflects a sense of being locked into the organisation due to the economic costs of leaving. The employer raises switching costs by locking in an employee who wants to achieve a point tally that earns a desired reward (Mattila 2006:175). Etzioni (1961:50) considered calculative commitment as typical compliance based on exchange, which has conceptual roots from the Barnard's exchange theory. Barnard exchange theory states that employees would be attached firmly to the organisation based on mutual reciprocation of rewards within the employment relationship (Barnard 1968:39)

**Alienative commitment** is described as a negative attachment to the organisation (Nyengane 2007:41). Etzioni (1961:55) defined alienative commitment as "a typical of a prison or military basic training camp in which a coercive compliance system is prevalent". Etzioni borrowed the word "alienation" from the work of Karl Marx who classically defined this concept as "a lack of control which is perceived inability to change or control the organisation" (Bendix 2010:37). When an employee is willing to forfeit organisational membership because of anger towards the organisation, such feelings originate from alienation (Mguqulwa 2008:28). Employees who express alienative commitment continue to behave and perform accordingly at work to the extent that the performance meets minimal standards without any symptoms of the intentions to quit (Jernigan, Joyce, Begs & Kohut 2002:566). Alienative attachment is a pure reflection of a sense of an employee's powerlessness, and an external locus of control (Penley & Gould 1988:44).

Despite its intuitive appeal, Etzioni's model has received little attention in the literature. This may have been caused by its complexity, absence of suitable scales for measuring

the three types of commitment claimed and its macro organisational character (Hutchison, & Huntington 1986:500; Penley & Gould 1988:45). O'Reilly and Chatman's theory is discussed in the next subsection to expand on the Etzioni's model.

#### 3.2.1.4 O'Reilly and Chatman's theory of organisational commitment

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986:492-499) developed a multidimensional framework of organisational commitment. The framework is based on the assumption that commitment resembles an employee's attitudes towards the organisation, and that there is more than one mechanism through which commitment can develop. An employee's attitude within a commitment context is described as "evaluate statements or judgments, either favourable or unfavourable concerning a phenomenon" (Vakola & Nikolaou 2005:162). High levels of organisational commitment tend to be associated with positive personal attitudes, such as feelings of belonging, job security, and efficacy (Du Buisson-Narsai 2005:30). This theory classifies organisational commitment as a multidimensional concept that takes three forms, namely compliance, identification and internalisation (Mguqulwa 2008:26). The psychological attachment of an employee can reflect varying combinations of these forms (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986:493). These forms are thoroughly illustrated in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2:** Independent factors predicting employee's psychological attachment to the organisation

Factor	Description
Compliance	This occurs when employee's attitudes and corresponding behaviours are adopted in order to gain specific rewards.
Identification	This occurs when an employee accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship.
Internalisation	This occurs when influence is accepted because the attitudes and behaviours that an employee is being encouraged to adopt are congruent with existing values.

**Source:** O'Reilly and Chatman (1986:493)

Conceptually, O'Reilly and Chatman's theory provided a clear distinction between two processes of organisational commitment, namely the psychological attachment and the instrumental exchange. The main contribution of this theory is based on the differentiation among the determinants and consequences of organisational commitment and the outcomes for attachment on the other (Meyer & Herscovitch 2001:305). Randall, Fedor and Longenecker (1990:1) supplement this assertion by stating that each dimension of organisational commitment relates differently to work outcomes.

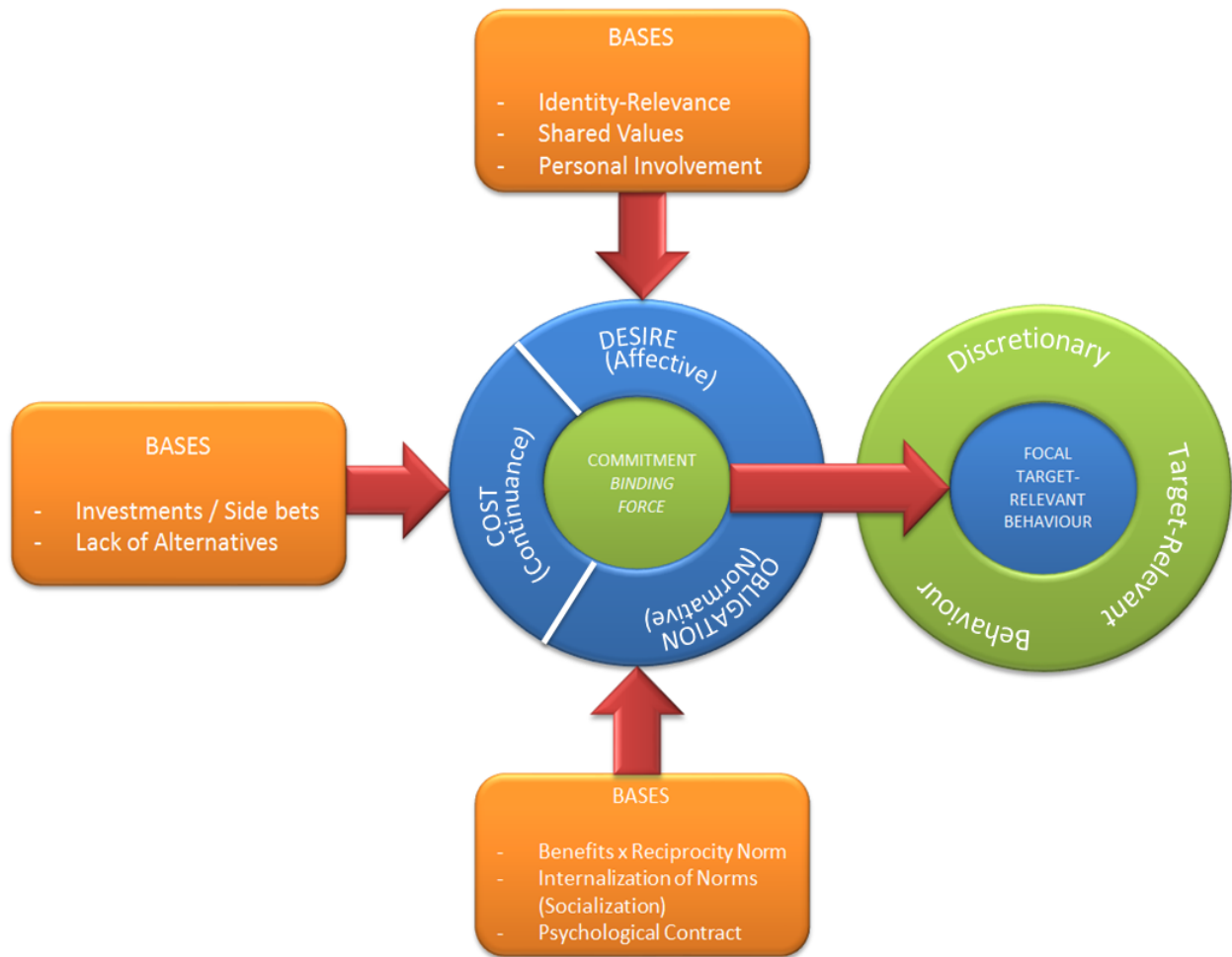
Despite the fact that O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) presented a very interesting approach to organisational commitment, only few researchers followed this approach because of a difficulty in distinguishing identification and internalisation (WeiBo *et al.*, 2010:14).

Meyer and Allen's three-component model is derived from both O'Reilly and Chatman's theory and Etzioni's model but with a better and simplified explanation of commitment. This model is discussed in the next subsection.

#### **3.2.1.5 Meyer and Allen's model of organisational commitment**

The lack of consistent findings on the literal meaning of organisational commitment contributed greatly to its treatment as a multidimensional construct (Meyer & Allen 1991:62). Allen and Meyer (1984:372-378) developed the model of three components which was based on the observation that there were similarities and differences in existing unidimensional conceptualisations of organisational commitment. Similarities were based on the belief that organisational commitment binds an employee to the organisation, while differences were based on the mind-sets presumed to identify characteristics of organisational commitment. These mind-sets produced three distinct themes, namely affective attachment to the organisation, perceived cost of living, and obligation to remain. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:317) incorporated these themes into the model and labeled them affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (refer

to Figure 3.2). All these three dimensions of organisational commitment received strong support from previous and recent studies (Suliman & Iles 2000:77; Bagher 2008:130).



**Figure 3.2: A general model of workplace commitment** (Source: Meyer & Herscovitch 2001:317).

### 3.2.1.5.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment is the first component of organisational commitment in the model which denotes a sense of belonging and emotional attachment of the employee to the organisation (Brown 2003:41). Buchanan (1974:533) defines affective commitment as “the process by which the goals of the organisation and those of the individual become increasingly congruent”. According to Mguqulwa (2008:30), employees with affective commitment do not intend leaving the organisation because they perceive their personal

employment relationship to be in harmony with the values and goals of the organisation. An example is that of workers who put efforts into their work beyond what is instrumentally required for the expected rewards: this behaviour is attributed to affective component of organisational commitment (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001:825). Affective commitment is influenced by the following factors: equity, dependability, role clarity, goal difficulty, feedback, job challenge, personal importance, participation, peer cohesion, and receptiveness by management (Meyer & Allen 1997:49).

#### **3.2.1.5.2 Continuance commitment**

Continuance commitment is perceived as an instrumental attachment to the organisation, because employees associate with the organisation based on economic benefits gained (Beck & Wilson 2000:115; Buitendach & De Witte 2005:29). Kanter (1968:504) defines continuance commitment as “profit associated with continued participation and a cost associated with leaving the organisation”. Lack of employment alternatives and accrued investments force employees to remain committed to their current organisations (Meyer, Allen & Gellatly 1990:715). According to the side-bet theory, employees form sunken costs, such as social, monetary, psychological, physical, and lost opportunities. When an employee develops greater sunken costs with the organisation, the levels of organisational commitment increase (Lambert, Hogan & Jiang 2008:469). This kind of commitment symbolises a sense of being locked within the organisation because of high costs of leaving. In other words, an employee has a willingness to remain in employment because of non-transferable investments such as retirement, formulated bond with colleagues, and training opportunities (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler & Sincich 1993:953). Meyer and Allen regard continuance commitment as a better representation of Becker’s side-bet theory (WeiBo *et al.*, 2010:14).

Despite the above arguments, Cardona, Lawrence and Bentler (2004:7) point out that when employees remain in an organisation based on the evaluation of the economic exchange relationship, this cannot be seen as a real commitment because it does not correlate with organisational citizenship behaviour. This view correlates with the view held



by Nel, Werner, du Plessis, Ngalo and Poisat (2013:15) who stressed that when employees are attached to the organisation, it does not necessitate that they have positive feelings towards the organisation; which revolves around the question of why they retain their membership with the organisation.

#### **3.2.1.5.3 Normative commitment**

Penley and Gould (1988:46) define normative commitment as acceptance of and identification with organisational goals. Jaros *et al.* (1993:955) used the term 'moral commitment' to describe the extent to which an employee is attached psychologically to an organisation through internalisation of its values, goals, and mission. This dimension reflects a sense of moral duty since there is no emotional attachment (Gonzalez & Guillen 2008:404). Employees decide morally to stay with the organisation, regardless of the level of satisfaction or how much status enhancement the organisation provides over the years. This means reciprocal obligation between the organisation and its members (Mguqulwa 2008:32). According to SET an employee who is receiving a benefit from the organisation is under a strong normative obligation to repay the benefit in some way (McDonald & Makin 2000:86). An example is that of an employee who received funds from the employer to complete a university degree: this employee consequently feels obliged to repay a benefit by remaining a member of the organisation.

### **3.2.2 Approaches to organisational commitment**

Since there has been no consensus reached over the general definition of organisational commitment, Scholl (1981:589) recommends this concept should be defined on the bases of the approach to commitment that one adheres to. Theoretical approaches to OC are followed within each research stream (Martin 2007:29). Different approaches of OC are subsumed into three schools of thought, namely behavioural approach, attitudinal approach and psychological approach (Mguqulwa 2008:23).

### **3.2.2.1 Behavioural approach**

The behavioural approach grew out of the side-bet theory. This approach is based on the exchange relationship where employees become committed to the organisation when they accumulate benefits. These benefits are used to describe some commitment behaviours (Mguqulwa 2008:23). Employees become skeptical to leave the organisation because of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. Thus, employees with high costs behave in a particular fashion, not because they deem it fit, but because they believe that they will minimise some costs or derive some reward by doing so (Martin 2007:29). This form of attachment discourages employees from seeking alternative employment because benefits associated in staying with the organisation are higher than the alternative opportunities and costs of leaving (Blau, Boal 1989:116). According to Nyengane (2007:40), when sunk costs are too costly to lose, an employee becomes committed to the organisation. To justify this claim, Kanter (1968:449) defines organisational commitment as “profit associated with continued participation and a cost associated with leaving”.

The behavioural approach failed to differentiate between the antecedents, the state of commitment, and the consequences. Therefore, it lacks empirical evidence that exchange-based measures of commitment are related to particular continuous behavioural outcomes within the organisation (Roodt 2004a:85).

### **3.2.2.2 Attitudinal approach**

Organisational commitment is operationalised in accordance with the attitudinal dimension of psychological identification with the organisation (Sjoberg & Sverke 2000:248). The attitudinal approach conceptualises organisational commitment as the binding of an employee to behavioural actions which occur when an employee attributes an attitude of commitment after engaging in behaviours that are irrevocable, volitional, and explicit (Reichers 1985:465). Such attitude is a learned predisposition to respond in a predictable manner with respect to the object of the attitude. Measurement of attitude

will only be valid if it is done in relation to that object (Florin, Karri & Rossiter 2007:20). Attitudes are developed through experience but are not stable and can change as new experiences are gained or influences observed. Within organisations, they are influenced by behaviour of management, quality of working life, and low levels of satisfaction (Armstrong 2003:208). The attitudinal approach emphasises that commitment is an employee's attitude and more specifically as a set of behavioural intentions. Organisational commitment is viewed as an attitude of attachment to the organisation, which leads to particular employee's behaviour at work. For example, an employee who is committed to the organisation is less often absent, and is less likely to have intentions to leave the organisation voluntarily than an employee who is less committed (Muthuveloo & Rose 2005:1079).

The attitudinal approach is dominating in the research literature (Martin 2007:31). However, Roodt (2004b:1) identified the following limitations that the attitudinal approach holds:

- Conceptualisation of commitment as a multidimensional concept poses problems in predictive models. This means it does not meet the criteria for precision, parsimony, and clarity.
- It includes an affective and cognitive components and this creates a conceptual overlap with job attitudes such as job satisfaction and job dimensions, such as turnover intention respectively.

### **3.2.2.3 Psychological approach**

The psychological approach is established by Kanungo (1982:342) with an attempt to overcome problems and limitations encountered by behavioural and attitudinal approaches. This approach introduces motivation as a process in which the employees' needs are expressed as goals for behaviour in social situations. It explains how cognitive goal-setting processes result in voluntary goal-seeking behaviour (Geen 1995:23). The degree of organisational commitment is operationalised as an employee's cognitive

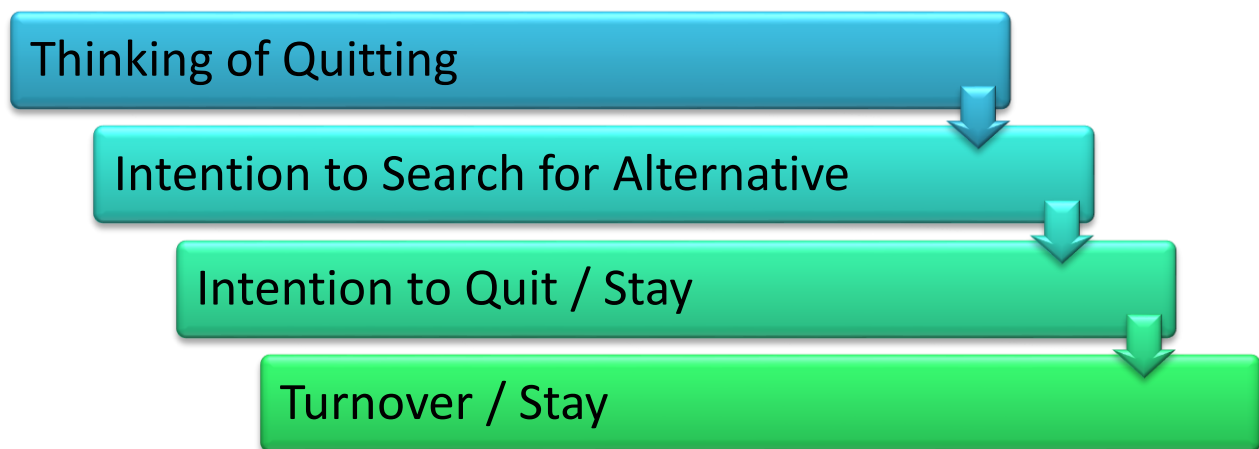
assessment of the potential commitment focus to realise salient values, to satisfy salient needs, and to achieve salient objectives. This process is categorised as a motivational or psychological approach, which sometimes is referred to as internal commitment (Martin 2007:32). An employee is motivated to continue the line of activity or role performance and to invest in the relationship because it enables the achievement of internalised values, goals, and norms. This means that internalisation of values, goals, line of activity, role, and relationship become salient in the employee's self-identity (Shamir 1988:244). Many definitions of organisational commitment are informed by this approach. An example is the one of Weiner (1982:421) who defines organisational commitment as "the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way, which meets organisational goals and interests". This definition focuses specifically on internalised normative pressures because such a definitional focus helps researchers to establish organisational commitment as a distinct and unique construct (Weiner 1982:421).

### **3.3 TURNOVER INTENTION**

Anticipated turnover has gripped the attention of both academics and managers than intention to stay over the years (Martin 2007:19). The bulk of research has been done on turnover intention. Nevertheless, this issue continues to be a serious problem affecting many organisations (Cho, Johanson & Guchait 2009:374). Turnover intention is defined as "the mediating factor between attitudes affecting intent to quit and actually quitting an organisation" (Glissmeyer, Bishop & Fass 2008:90). Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2002:1) define turnover intention as "the reflection of the probability that an individual will change his/her job within a certain time period". For the purpose of this study, turnover intention will be defined as "the degree to which an organisational member believes he or she would terminate his or her position at some unspecified time in the future" (Hinshaw, Smeltzer, & Atwood 1987:8). In the turnover literature, some researchers used synonymous concepts for turnover such as attrition, quit, mobility, exit, migration or succession (Yucel 2012:45). Sager, Griffeth and Hom (1998:255) classified turnover intention as a cognitive decision intervening between an employee's attitudes towards the organisation and subsequent behaviour to either stay or quit the organisation. Hence,

employment aspects that shape employee's attitudes seem to be the source of propensity to leave the organisation (Janssen 1999:1363).

According to Martin and Roodt (2008:25) turnover intention should be regarded as a process which incorporates attitudinal, decisional, and behavioural components. This process is illustrated by Mobley's model in Figure 3.4. Mobley (1977:237-240) pioneered an extensive explanation for the psychological turnover intention process by developing a schematic model. The model reflects a number of possible cognitive processes of an employee's interest to add to the withdrawal decision, which includes intention to search and intention to quit. This is a heuristic process where employees are able to evaluate current jobs in order to decide upon engagement or disengagement to the organisation (Mobley 1977:239). The main emphasis of the model is on the consequences of job attitudes for the turnover intention process than on the determinants of turnover intention (Mowday, Koberg, MacArthur 1984:80).



**Figure 3.3: Mobley's model of employee turnover decision process** (Source: Mobley 1977:238).

When an employee feels dissatisfied after evaluating the job, the consequence is to initiate thought of quitting from the organisation. This though will compel an employee to evaluate the expected utility of searching for possible employment alternatives and the cost of quitting. Should there be a possibility of an alternative coupled with low cost of quitting,

an employee will develop a behavioural intention to search for an alternative job followed by actual search. Thereafter, an employee will compare the current job with the existing alternative. If the comparison advocates the alternative, the behavioural turnover intention will be stimulated, followed up by final decision to leave the organisation (Martin 2007:39; Perez 2008:26).

Mobley's theory has shaped research on turnover intention in the past decades (Barak, Nissly & Levin 2001:628). However, this model lacks empirical evidence for the conceptual distinction among explanatory variables such as thinking of quitting, intention to search for an alternative and intention to quit or stay. Other studies examined Mobley's model and discovered that turnover intention takes place before the intention to search for alternative employment. This was done by examining factors that affect job satisfaction and organisational commitment more precisely (Hom & Griffeth 1981:350).

Actual turnover and turnover intention are two distinct variables and should be measured separately. However, these two concepts have an intimate relationship because actual turnover is expected to increase as the turnover intention increases (Perez 2008:14). This study will focus on turnover intention rather than actual turnover because turnover intention is easier to measure accurately as it is often used as the final outcome variable in similar studies (Lambert & Hogan 2009:98). In addition, turnover records are sometimes not accessible to outside researcher and may not reflect sufficient information (Mitchell, MacKenzie, Styve, & Gover 2000:334). Turnover is defined as "the individual movement across the membership boundary of an organisation (Prince 2001:600). There are two types of turnover, namely voluntary turnover and involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover refers to an employee's choice to terminate the contract of employment with an organisation. This happens when an employee chooses to leave the organisation because of conflict, not fitting into the organisational culture, or finding alternative employment that offers more of what an employee is looking for in a job. Involuntary turnover refers to an employee's discharge by the organisation. Some of the reasons for involuntary turnover include a decline in retrenchment, redundancy, career changes, or

retirement. In most cases involuntary turnover is not avoidable (Thomas 2009:1; Jacobs 2012:1)

There is a substantial economic impact when employees leave an organisation, especially given the knowledge that is lost with the employee's departure (Cho, Johanson & Guchait 2009:374). According to Des and Shaw (2001:447), employers should strive to prevent employees from leaving the organisation to avoid both direct costs and indirect costs. These costs are illustrated in Table 3.3.

**Table 3.3:** Direct and indirect costs of turnover

Direct costs of turnover	Indirect costs of turnover
Loss of expertise of the employee	The loss of social networks
Recruitment costs	Increased use of inexperienced and/or
Training of new hires	tired staff
Induction	Insufficient staffing
Overtime to cover vacated positions	Decreased morale
Administrative time to arrange schedules	
Obtaining approval to hire new staff	

**Source:** Lambert & Hogan (2009:97).

According to Dalessio, Silverman and Schuck (1986:269), turnover intention is a more important stage than the actual act of turnover. This means that, if the sources of turnover intention are understood better, the employer could possibly remedy the situation to affect the intention. Unfortunately, once actual turnover has been effected, there is little that the employer can do. However, Cho *et al.* (2009:374) implicitly assume that intention to stay and intention to leave are two sides of the same coin and are interchangeable since one cannot be studied without the other.

### 3.4 ABSENTEEISM

Absenteeism proved to be a chronic challenge to many organisations (Gaudine & Saks 2001:16) and some scholars have been critical on the failure of research findings and results to provide practical solutions in reducing absenteeism in the workplace (Morgan & Herman 1976:740; Johns & Nicholson 1982:160; Geurts, Schaufeli & Rutte 1999:259; Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton & Holtom 2004:718). Consequently, this study intends to close some gaps in the existing literature on absenteeism and provide practical value. Some scholars treat absenteeism as a unit-level construct because of social and normative expectations particular to work groups. Hence, employees adjust their behaviour according to work group norms. This perspective originated from social learning theory, which establishes that norms and behaviours of employee's unit peers play a strong role in shaping individual absence behaviour (Bamberger & Biron 2007:180). This study will study absenteeism at an individual level of analysis because behaviour is by individual employees, thus many of the presumed determinants of absenteeism reflect characteristics of individuals (Hausknecht, Hiller & Vance 2008a:1223).

Absenteeism is defined as "the failure of workers to report on the job when they are scheduled to work" (Noland 1945:503). De Boer *et al.* (2002:184) define absenteeism as "the employee's reduced ability to go to work, due to experienced problems caused by stressful work conditions". There are two types of absenteeism, namely voluntary absenteeism and involuntary absenteeism (Pizam & Thornburg 2000:1). Voluntary absenteeism is an avoidable absence from work. An example is when an employee takes a vacation or voluntarily chooses to be absent from work due to unnecessary potential personal reasons. The term 'vacation' is used as outcome in voluntary absenteeism because it is typically under an employee's control and constitutes an absence from work (Avey, Patera & West 2006:44). Driver and Watson (1989:110) affirm that an employee is in control of voluntary absences, which are typically short-term, causal and illegitimate. Involuntary absenteeism is an absence from work and this is under normal circumstances, unavoidable by an employee. This may include certified sickness, funeral attendance, and family responsibility issues covered by the Basic Conditions of Employment Act



(Sagie 1998:157). Many organisations make a mess by overlooking preventive measures for reducing this type of absence because of a belief that involuntary situations are not avoidable (Avey, Patera & West 2006:44).

Since absenteeism is treated as a multidimensional construct, voluntary and involuntary absences can be distinguished empirically (Driver & Watson 1989:111). A number of studies on absenteeism have relied upon frequency and time lost indices to measure voluntary and involuntary absenteeism (Gaziel 2004:423). The absences frequency index counts the occurrence interval for each absence over a specified period of time, regardless of the reason for absence. Absence frequency is used to indicate voluntary absenteeism and a function of employees' motivation. In contrast, the time lost index aggregates the total time an employee is absent from work in a given period of time, without considering the explanation given by an employee for the absence. The time lost index is used to indicate involuntary absenteeism that results from the inability rather than the unwillingness to report to work (Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer & Schaufeli 2003:342). The logic behind using these two indirect measures for the two types of absenteeism is that one has more control over the frequency of absence (voluntary) than over its duration (involuntary) (Sagie 1998:158).

Employees' absenteeism is a costly personnel problem that requires serious attendance from managers (Sagie 1998:156). The impact of absenteeism in the workplace is enormous in many respects, including costs such as differed work, elimination of certain services, hiring temporary replacements, maintaining an extra labour-force to cover absenteeism, lost productivity, and quality of service (Mayfield & Mayfield 2009:3111). Absenteeism may result in lower efficiency, such as delays when a replacement cannot be found on time, or when the replacement is not familiar with the work process (Cunradi, Greiner & Ragland 2005:44). Mason and Griffin (2003:667) substantiate that the high cost of absenteeism should be a valid reason for seeking a better understanding of employees' absence behaviour. According to McElroy, Morrow and Fenton (1995:93) managers should be aware of the employees' levels of absenteeism and have some basis for comparison in order to attach some meaning. For example, some employees reserve

absenteeism for medical causes only, others' absenteeism represents a progression of withdrawal behaviours, while others' absenteeism is informed by a lack of attachment to the organisation.

Some studies revealed that employees do not have accurate perceptions on their rate of absenteeism and underestimate their own absenteeism and overestimate the absenteeism of colleagues (Johns 1994:235; Gellatly & Luchak 1998:1098). Thus, employees are egocentric about their own absence behaviour (Gaudine & Saks 2001:16). In an attempt to reduce high levels of absenteeism at work, Frayne and Latham (1987:387) proposed the usage of a 'self-management training intervention'. This training teaches employees the skills in self-observation, to compare their behaviour with goals they set, and administer rein-forcers and punishers to bring about and sustain goal commitment (Frayne 1991:28). This type of training is self-regulatory and teaches employees how to manage personal and social obstacles to job attendance and increased self-efficacy. It has been proven that skill in self-management brings about a relatively permanent change in cognition and effect, in addition to behaviour (Frayne & Latham 1987:390). Latham and Frayne (1989:411-416) conducted a research whereby the self-management training was given to 20 employees in order to increase job attendance. The same training was given to the control group (n=20). Three months later, this group showed the same results as the original training group with regard to increased self-efficacy and a subsequent decrease in absenteeism. The social learning theory states that by arranging environmental contingencies, establishing specific goals, and producing consequences for actions, employees can be taught to exercise control over their behaviour (Bandura 1977:31; Ormrod & Davis 2004:18).

Taking all the facts revealed by the literature into consideration, Noland (1945:504) highlighted that when researchers investigate the attitudes of workers, various spheres of their lives and the association of these attitudes with the work attendance should not be omitted. For example, an employee may feel ill, the babysitter may not report for duty, the vehicle may breakdown, or any other family related problem might arise prompting an employee to depart from habit and consider missing work (Hachett *et al.*, 1989:425;

Goldberg & Waldman 2000:667). These factors are likely to reduce employee's ability or willingness to go to work (De Boer, Bakker, Syroit & Schaufeli 2002:184). Gazieli (2004:422) assumes that if researchers link all the factors related to absenteeism, effective programmes could be designed to reduce poor work attendance.

### **3.5 WORK PERFORMANCE**

According to Riketta (2002:257), one of the main reasons for the extensive and long-lasting research interest in organisational commitment is that it is assumed to influence almost any behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation such as employees' performance. Performance is defined as "how well an employee fulfills the requirements of the job" (Gathungu & Wachira 2013:4). Colquitt *et al.* (2009:37) define job performance as "the value of the set of employee behaviours that contribute, either positively or negatively, to organisational goal accomplishment." Nayyar (1994:50) defines performance as "the degree to which an individual executes his or her role with reference to certain specified standards set by the organisation". Cohen and Keren (2008:433) define performance as "those fundamental responsibilities that employees are hired to perform in exchange for their compensation package." According to Lebas (1995:23) performance can mean anything from efficiency, to robustness or resistance or return on investment. Upon attaching a meaning to these definitions, the researcher acknowledges that employee's performance is an element of attitude. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:6) defined an attitude as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object". An object refers to allotted responsibilities or tasks.

It will be void to study work performance without denoting how organisational context shapes and constrains employees' behaviours that are valued in organisations. The role theory becomes an important approach to this problem as an effort to describe the full set of work responsibilities in a role and to incorporate both employee work behaviour and organisational context (Griffin, Neal & Parker 2007:329). This theory postulates that employee behaviour is directly related to the work performance, and understanding the

determinants of employees' behaviour at work can allow organisations to improve employees' performance (Parker & Wickham 2005:2). Within the organisational context, an employee will take the role required by the employer upon the appointment in a position. The employer then expects an employee to execute an array of roles in task-oriented systems (Madsen 2002:2). Each role assigned to an employee has a set of behaviours that are well defined and underpinned by job description setting performance objectives (Schneider 1994:65; Bowen & Ostroff 2004:205). Thus, role theory concerns itself with a triad of concepts: patterned, and characteristics social behaviours, parts or identities that are assumed by social participants and expectations for behaviour that is understood and adhered to by performers (Biddle 1986:68).

Following the above logic, an employee renders personal services to the organisation in the form of objective performance records such as sales, attendance or units produced. The employer then interprets the meaning of these data and provides a subjective judgment on the values of the numbers (Chen, Tsui & Farh 2002:343). The employee's level of performance required by the employer is not a discretionary behaviour because employees have to meet the basic requirements of the job. Failure to do so may result in disciplinary action or loss of employment (Chen & Francesco 2003:494). However, the attitudes measures used by employers should be related consistently to the pattern of behaviours that an employee engages in with respect to the attitude object (Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton 2001:378). This simply means if employees perceive the outcomes of the evaluations to be fair, they will be likely to reciprocate by performing behaviours to benefit the organisation by going beyond the expected job requirements (Cohen & Keren 2008:433). In support of this notion, Mguqulwa (2008:36) attests that employee's performance can only be evaluated as good or bad if employer and employee agreed upon a standard of work performance.

The literature implicates a general agreement among researchers to treat job performance as a multi-dimensional construct (Murphy & Shiarella 1997:823; Sonnentag, Volmer & Spychala 2008:427). It has been noted from previous studies that a number of employees cannot show maximum capacity in their jobs (Narimawati 2007:549). Many training

programmes are designed to improve work performance and assessments of employees are undertaken to identify their strengths and weaknesses in order to design training programmes (Viswesvaran & Ones 2000:216). This means employers should clearly understand the dimensions of performance before taking corrective measures on poor performance. The dimensions of performance include in-role or formal job performance, task performance, contextual performance, and helping citizenship behaviour (Schepers 2008:11). These dimensions are explored in Table 3.4.

**Table 3.4:** Dimensions of job performance

Dimension	Description
In-role or formal job performance	This includes successful completion of assigned duties, performance of allotted tasks and other formal performance aspects of the job. In-role performance is an integral part of an employee's work performance as it entails demonstration of employee's ability to carry and complete assigned duties.
Task performance	This is the behaviour associated with maintaining and serving the organisation's technical core. Task performance covers an employee's contribution to organisational performance either directly by implementing a part of its technological process or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services. It is also the proficiency with which incumbent perform activities that are formally recognised as part of the job specified in a job description.
Contextual performance	This comprises an employee's efforts that are not directly related to main task functions but are important because they shape the organisational goals, performance, culture and climate. This type of performance is exhibited when employee goes beyond what is formally expected.
Adaptive performance	Adaptive performance measured through employee's ability to handle critical situations, handling work stress, solving problems creatively, dealing with uncertain an unpredictable work

Dimension	Description
	situations, learning work tasks, technologies and procedures, demonstrating interpersonal adaptability, demonstrating cultural adaptability, and demonstrating physical oriented adaptability.
Organisational citizenship behaviour	Organisational citizenship behaviour is defined as an employee's behaviour that is discretionary/extra-role, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregated promotes the organisational effective functioning. Citizenship behaviour reduces friction and increases efficiency in the organisation, and usually is considered a critical aspect of individual performance.

**Source:** Pulakos, Arad, Donovan & Plamondon (2000:613); Mguqulwa (2008:37).

On the most basic level, these dimensions will help employers to distinguish between a process aspect (such as behavioural) and an outcome aspect of performance in order to make genuine decisions regarding poor performing employees. The behavioural aspect refers to what employees do at work, the action itself. Performance encompasses specific behaviour such as assembling parts of a product or sales conversations with customers. This means only actions can be scaled or counted to quantify performance (Sonnentag *et al.*, 2008:427). Previous studies omitted the relevancy of role theory and focused on the process of role development rather than on the context related to the dimensions of performance (Griffin *et al.*, 2007:329).

### 3.6 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE STUDY CONSTRUCTS

This section addresses the postulated relationships between the study constructs, namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance.

### **3.6.1 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment**

The relationship between employees' satisfaction with their jobs and commitment to their organisations has been the subject of a large amount of empirical research, but there is little agreement about the causal connections between these concepts (Rayton 2006:139). In order to find a better understanding of this clearly complex relationship, this study explores the hypothesis that employees' job satisfaction has a significant positive effect on their organisational commitment. The relationship of these variables within the South African universities of technology has been explored sufficiently. Since the causal order of job satisfaction and organisational commitment has practical implications for organisations (Curry, Wakefield, Price & Mueller 1986:848), this study initiates an attempt to address this issue.

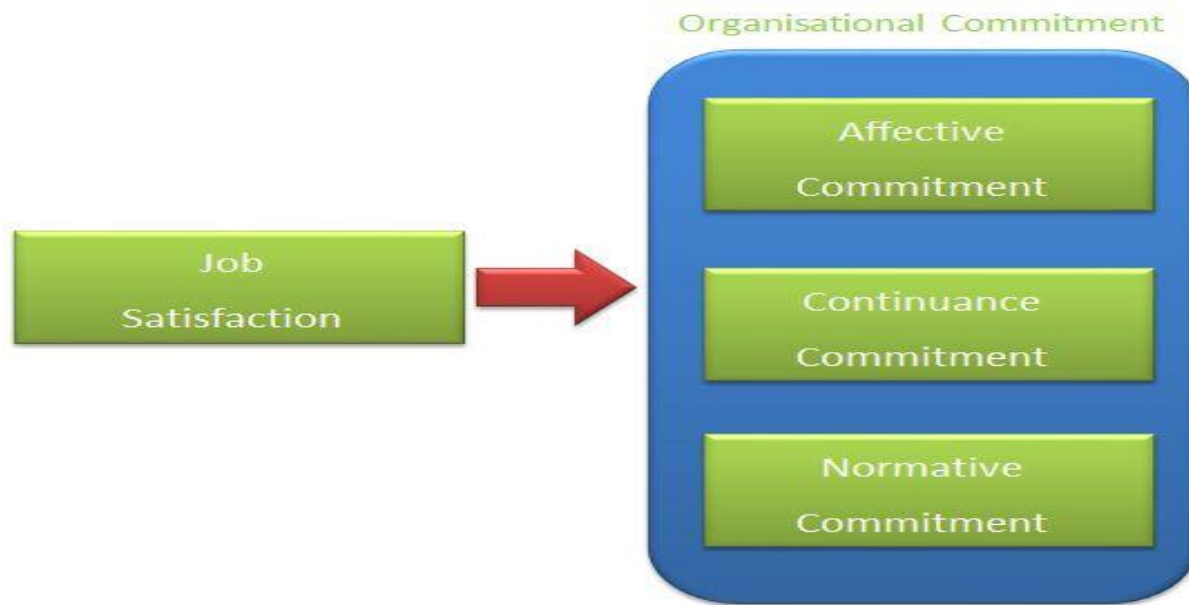
Job satisfaction is a widely researched concept and continues to be investigated. This is perpetuated by the significant relationship of job satisfaction with several variables such as organisational citizenship and organisational commitment (Buitendach & Witte 2005:28). Job satisfaction is defined as "individuals' total feelings about their job and the attitudes they have towards various aspects or facets of their job, as well as an attitude and perception that could consequently influence the degree of fit between the individual and the organisation" (Spector 1997:58). Although there is certainly a debate over issues surrounding the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, many researchers have treated job satisfaction as a predictor of organisational commitment (Lincoln & Kalleberg 1985:753; Williams & Hazer 1986:219; Yousef 1998:185; Currivan 1999:498; Yucel 2012:46). This stance implies that workers orientations toward a specific job precede orientations towards the entire organisation (Currivan 1999:498). This research follows the same route but testing these variables within a different environment, as compared to previous studies. It becomes easy to link these two concepts and make conceptual distinction because both of them are employee orientations or attitudes (Ramamoorthy & Flood 2002:1072).

Job satisfaction is a result of various job related variables, whereas, organisational commitment is more of a global response to the organisation. Organisational commitment, is therefore, expected to be more consistent than job satisfaction over time and takes longer after an employee is satisfied with the job (Feinstein & Vondrasek 2001:6). Lambert and Hogan (2009:100) cite that job satisfaction develops more quickly while organisational commitment takes time to develop. There is a corollary assumption that job satisfaction, as compared to organisational commitment, differ more directly and instantaneously with changing conditions of employment (Currivan 1999:498).

Mueller and Lawler (1999:325) argue that conditions of employment regularly produce positive or negative feelings such as job satisfaction, and employees try to understand the source context of such feelings. Here the organisation becomes a target for these emotions and since the organisation is responsible for positive feelings, it is most likely to evoke commitment from workers. According to Azeem (2010:295), greater commitment leads to enhanced feelings of belonging.

Figure 3.3 represents a conceptual framework that illustrates the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The model shows that job satisfaction has a significant impact on the organisational commitment in three distinguishable components of commitment, namely affective, continuance and normative. Yucel (2012:46) modelled job satisfaction as a function of job experiences affecting attitude and organisational commitment as a function of beliefs about the organisation. This simply means that organisational commitment emphasises attachment to the organisation, whereas job satisfaction emphasises the specific task environment related to an employee's core duties (Mowday, Porter, Steers 1982:28).





**Figure 3.4: Relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment**  
(Source: Yucel 2012:46).

A strong correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has been established empirically yielding a positive association (Kotze & Roodt 2005:50). Since there is a statistically positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the impression is that if employees' levels of satisfaction improve, then levels of organisational commitment would be affected in a positive direction (Azeem 2010:297). Despite the fact that there is published evidence indicating that high levels of organisational commitment lead to job satisfaction, the majority of the studies find greater connection when the relationship stems from satisfaction-to-commitment than from commitment-to-satisfaction (Rayton 2006:141).

### **3.6.2 Job satisfaction and turnover intention**

One of unresolved problems is the interplay of job satisfaction and turnover intention which this study aims to address. The extent of the problem has led to renewed interest among the scholars in the literature that specify the individual and organisational factors that contribute to these behaviours, and tracing the interconnection among these factors. It has been established theoretically that low levels of job satisfaction lead to employee

withdrawal from the organisation (Lambert *et al.*, 2001:234). Job satisfaction and turnover intentions are reflections of the outlook that employees have about their employment. This outlook is influenced by the degree to which employees' salient needs are satisfied by their work. (Bright 2008:150). Cohen and Golan (2007:418) expressed that employee's intentions to leave the organisation are an expression of an emotional response toward the job. The perceived desirability of movement is taken usually to mean job satisfaction. Hence, job attitudes combined with job alternatives predict turnover intention (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee & Erez 2001:1102). For example, in a longitudinal study, it was found that lower levels of job satisfaction predicted turnover intention while higher levels of job satisfaction predicted intention to stay (Vandenberg & Nelson 1999:1329). The relationship between higher levels of job satisfaction and decreased turnover intention (negative correlation) seems to be consistent among number of studies (Violanti & Aron 1994:901; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum 2000:115; Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller & Ilies 2001:60). As a result, similar results are also expected in this study. From practitioners point of view it would be helpful to know how job satisfaction informs employee's decision to stay or leave the organisation because this would have implications for managing such employee's attitudes (Van Dick *et al.*, 2004:352).

### **3.6.3 Job satisfaction and absenteeism**

McShane (1984:61) hypothesised that employees who experience lower levels of job satisfaction try to minimise this situation temporarily through absenteeism. Job dissatisfaction is a very sensitive problem in academia which directly affects the quality of service provided when employees demonstrate negative attitudes towards their jobs by frequent absenteeism (Matrunola 1996:827; Demerouti, Le Blanc, Bakker, Schaufeli & Hox 2009:53). One of the ways in which the effectiveness of the organisation can be gauged is in terms of the employee's desire to attend to his work regularly. This dimension of employee behaviour has also been found to be related closely with job satisfaction (Sinha 1965:90; Siu 2002:219). Employees who are well satisfied with the salaries, conditions of employment, job content, company policies, workgroup, and leadership, are likely to attend their work more regularly and the opposite is the same. This highlights the

fact that attitude of satisfaction or otherwise with regard to various facets of the job has a marked relation to rate of absenteeism (Judge *et al.*, 2001:378). This argument fits with Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975:6) definition of an attitude who define it as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object".

### **3.6.4 Organisational commitment and turnover intention**

Turnover intention is one of the most widely researched consequences of organisational commitment (Currivan 1999:497). The justice literature is rooted in the notion that the consequences of organisational commitment have an impact on the survival of the organisation (Fedor, Caldwell & Herold 2006:6). Given the high costs associated with turnover, understanding the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention may prove useful (Schwepker 1999:43). Stronger commitment to the organisation normally discourages employees from leaving (Keller 1984:177). Thus, organisationally committed employees will usually exhibit lower turnover intentions (Coetzee 2005:38). When employees feel happy at work, a sense of commitment develops which in turn may lead to the intention to stay with the organisation (Nipius 2012:11). It is worth noting that the existing literature attests to this prediction (Yousef 2000:10), subsumed with a number of research findings which confirm that organisational commitment has a significant negative impact on turnover intentions (Becker 1960:32-42; Jaros *et al.*, 1993:951-995; Chen, Hui & Sego 1998:922-931; Pare & Tremblay 2007:326-357; Perez 2008:56).

In the light of the arguments presented above, Yucel (2012:45) posits that increasing levels of organisational commitment and decreasing levels of turnover intention among the employees are the very important and crucial issues for managers and the organisations. Hence, organisational commitment contains important ramifications for both an employee and the organisation as a whole (Martin 2007:18).

### **3.6.5 Absenteeism and turnover intention**

Absenteeism has a long research history due to its perennial cost to organisations and its status as an indicator of employee's intentions to leave the organisation (Johns 2010:519). There are grounds for positing a link between attitudes such as absenteeism and turnover intentions. For instance, higher education institutions in South Africa have been subjected to a series of mergers recently. This has resulted in significant changes in the nature of the work and therefore increased pressure on staff. Among the negative consequences was the increased rate of absenteeism followed by turnover (Mostert, Rothmann, Mostert & Nell 2008:103). In the meta-analysis, Mitra, Jenkins and Gupta (1992:886) also found that employees who quit their jobs were more likely to have had higher records of absenteeism just prior to leaving the organisation than the employees who did not quit. These situations reaffirm that frequency of absences serves as an indicative of an employee's intention to leave the organisation (Albion *et al.*, 2008:273). In this context, absence is viewed as rational behaviour determined by cost-benefit evaluations associated with the possible outcomes of the alternative behaviour, namely presenteeism (Demerouti *et al.*, 2009:52).

### **3.6.6 Turnover intention and work performance**

The potential linkage between turnover intention, as an employee's attitude, and work performance was considered in earnest in the 1930s, coinciding with the Hawthorne studies and the ensuing human relations movement (Judge *et al.*, 2001:376). Although the research on the various determinants of work performance has been extensive, the potential effect of turnover intention, as one of those determinants, has been unsystematic and limited (Poon 2004:323; Podsakoff, LePine & LePine 2007:438). It has been shown that the greater the likelihood of turnover, the lower the work performance. This means that employees who leave the organisation exhibit poor work performance prior to resignation (Jackofsky 1984:74; Cropanzano, Rupp & Byrne 2003:167). The social identity theory suggests that if an employee's social identity, as a member of the organisation, is not salient in a given situation, the stronger the intentions to leave the

organisation get provoked. During the course of the intentions to quit, an employee does not act in accordance with the organisation's norms and values and this tempers with work performance and standard (Van Knippenberg 2000:357; Gagne & Deci 2005:332). Research shows that employee's negative emotions increase withdrawal-type behaviours such as social isolation and avoidance of challenges because negative emotions activate the behavioural inhibition system. An employee who is in this mental state does not properly attend challenging duties at work and performs below the required standard because of vigilant apprehensiveness which directs employee's behaviours away from negative stimuli (Ng *et al.*, 2009:764).

### **3.6.7 Absenteeism and work performance**

Employee's work performance has become a critical factor in the strength and sustainability of a company's overall performance. Previous research has demonstrated that absenteeism brings economic costs to a company because it reduces individual-level and workforce performance (Koopman, Pelletier, Murray, Sharda, Berger, Turpin, Hackleman, Gibson, Holmes & Bendel 2002:14). Most employers do not systematically track absenteeism or do so for only a portion of the workforce because they underestimate the impact of absenteeism on performance losses (Collins, Baase, Sharda, Ozminkowski, Nicholson, Billotti, Turpin, Olson & Berger 2005:548). According to Schultz and Edgington (2007:548), lost productivity can be measured by the costs associated with employees' records of absenteeism. The evidence shows that absenteeism associated with job dissatisfaction and illness conditions constituted 29% of productivity-related expenditures as a result of dropped employees' work performance (Goetzel, Long, Ozminkowski, Hawkins, Wang & Lynch 2004:399). Under these conditions within the academic environment in Malaysia, Noordin and Jusoff (2009:123) hypothesised and found that absenteeism has significant negative impact on work performance. Hence, loafers are bad performers.

### **3.6.8 Organisational commitment and work performance**

Some employees do not produce the quality of work or maintain the level of work performance of which they are capable. To some extent, this may be attributed to a lower level of organisational commitment (Stroh 2001:59). The relationship between organisational commitment and performance will be drawn from Ivancevich and Matterson's (1996:103) perspective who defined performance as "the amount of effort, initiative and absenteeism, maintenance of standards and commitment displayed by individuals while performing the job tasks". Employees who are attached to and identify with the organisation work hard and become better performers. This is a popular assumption providing the rationale for many organisational attempts to foster employees' organisational commitment (Riketta 2002:257). Some evidence exists to support this argument, but the degree of correlation is inconsistent across samples and measures of performance. Many researchers who examined the consequences of organisational commitment found that work performance to have a strong correlation with organisational commitment (Wong & Wong 2002:582). Furthermore, a study on the happy and productive employees clearly linked emotional well-being with better performance (Harter, Schmidt & Keyes 2003:2).

The literature acknowledges that employees' performance is influenced by many factors but organisational commitment seems to be a key contributing factor, especially when loyalty and extra-role behaviours matter most (Mguqulwa 2008:52). It has been assumed that committed employees engage rather in extra-role behaviours than in specific required task behaviours (Morgeson, Delaney-Klinger & Hemingway 2005:399). The following important aspects of organisational commitment, as identified by Suliman and Iles (2000:409) support this.

- Committed employees are assumed to be motivated to work hard by putting more effort than less committed employees
- It improves employees' performance
- It fosters better superior-subordinate relationships

- It improves the working environment
- It enhances organisational development, growth and survival.

### **3.6.9 Organisational commitment and absenteeism**

Contrary to the current study, many research studies focused on bivariate relationships between job satisfaction and absenteeism. Such studies failed to link organisational commitment to employee absenteeism and consequently suffered from the missing variable problem (Golberg & Waldman 2000:666). One of the formulated hypotheses in this study is that “organisational commitment has a significant negative impact on absenteeism”. Hausknecht, Hiller and Vance (2008b:1) advocate this hypothesis by stating that high levels of absenteeism are attributed to lower levels of organisational commitment in labour markets with high employment levels, and vice versa. Drawing from the withdrawal paradigm, employees will be more likely to withdraw from organisations to which they lack commitment and this will be reflected always through absenteeism as a symptom (Bakker *et al.*, 2003:343). Organisational commitment is an indication of shared feelings about attachment to the organisation for which an employee works. An employee is thought to develop this attachment through positive experiences at work. Once the level of commitment reaches the highest degree possible, an employee strives to achieve organisation’s goals. This employee will engage in more regular attendance behaviour in order to maintain well-being of the organisation and the self (Van Knippenberg and Van Schie 2000:138). Hence, it is assumed commonly that organisational commitment as a workplace attitude, influences attendance behaviour (Schalk 2011:2). These arguments resemble the negative relationship between organisational commitment and absenteeism.

Meyer and Allen (1991:62) classified organisational commitment as a multidimensional concept reflecting three general themes: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The nature of the psychological state for each theme is quite different. Hence, the three components of organisational commitment should be treated as three distinct constructs (Chen & Francesco 2003:492). What has been observed from the previous research studies is that only affective and normative commitment decrease

levels of absenteeism (Farrel & Stamm 1988:220; Meyer, Allen, & Smith 1993:358-551; Gellatly 1995:475). In contrast, continuance commitment decreases attendance behaviour and those employees who report higher continuance commitment absent themselves to a greater degree than those reporting lower levels of continuance commitment (Gellatly 1995:471; Bakker *et al.* 2003:343). Despite the fact that some studies (Brook & Price 1989:1-19; Shore, Newton, & Thornton 1990:57-67; Burton, Lee & Holtom 2002:181-197; Schalk 2011:4) reported poor correlation between organisational commitment and absenteeism, there is considerable evidence that committed employees have better records of attendance than those with weak commitment. Furthermore, behavioural scientists suggest that observations from single studies cannot provide enough evidence to warrant conclusion that a weak relationship exists between attitudinal behaviours due to the potential for error stemming from sampling biasness or unique characteristics of a particular setting (Ng, Sorensen & Yim 2009:763).

Over and above, the lack of strategies to reduce high levels of involuntary absenteeism and the rising costs of absenteeism have led scholars to conclude that the current proposed solutions to leverage organisational commitment in order to curb levels of absenteeism have not been adequately effective. Hence, research that is more extensive is warranted in this area (Avey, Patera & West 2006:44).

### **3.7 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, organisational commitment has been defined in different ways. Models, theories, and approaches of organisational commitment have been discussed. Meyer and Allen's (1991:62) model of commitment seems to be the most popular model and it was revealed that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct.

The relationship between job satisfaction and the organisational commitment has been analysed and the theoretical evidence showed positive correlation between these two variables. Turnover intention, absenteeism, and work performance have been reviewed and the literature proved that there is relationship between these outcome behaviours with



job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Despite conflicting reports from empirical studies on these relationships, the literature has attested to the formulated hypotheses on these variables. Schulze (2006:319) emphasised that when one variable is tested in different settings, the probability is high that the results might differ. Based on this argument, it is hoped that this study will refute some previous results on the postulated relationships between the study constructs. By so doing, this study will be contributing to the body of knowledge.

In the next chapter, the researcher will identify and discuss research design and methodology in detail. This will include target population, sampling, data collection method, measuring instruments, piloting, and statistical analysis.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter a review of the literature on organisational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, absenteeism and performance was provided. The key concept of each of these variables was defined and a theoretical overview highlighted. The current status of research regarding the relationships between key concepts in the conceptual model was also explored.

In this chapter, the focus will be on the research approach and research methodology. The areas to be addressed include the design, the population, the sampling method and procedure, data collection, layout and administration of the questionnaire, statistical analysis, ethical issues and delimitations.

#### **4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM**

Paradigm in research is defined as “a set of interrelated assumptions about the social world, which provides a philosophical and conceptual framework for the organised study of that world” (Filstead 1979:34). There are numerous paradigms used to guide research studies. For the purpose of this study, positivism paradigm has been adopted to guide the researcher in philosophical assumptions about the research and in the selection of tools, instruments, participants, and methods used in the study. Positivism relies on the hypothetico-deductive method (McGrath & Johnson 2003:31), and this will enable the researcher to verify *a priori* hypotheses which will be converted into mathematical formulas to express causal relationships of the variables. According to Ponterotto (2005:128), the primary goal of positivism inquiry is an explanation, which results in the projection and control of phenomenon. Positivism is related more closely to the logic of and ways for conducting quantitative research (Erisson & Kovalainen 2008:19).

### 4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

According to Yin (2009:40), the researcher should choose a research strategy as a function of the research situation since each research strategy has its own specific approach in collecting and analyzing empirical data. Currently there are two recognised and well-known research approaches, namely quantitative approach and qualitative approach (Tillman 2002:4). The distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is based on different research paradigms. The qualitative paradigm stems from an anti-positivistic, interpretative approach, is holistic in nature and aims at understanding social life. By contrast, quantitative paradigm is based on positivism, which takes scientific explanation to be nomothetic through measuring the social world objectively and testing hypotheses (Martin 2007:63). The exact constitution of these two methodologies differs somewhat from one researcher to the other or is defined with varying degrees of specificity. One of the problems in presenting the divergences between these approaches derives from a tendency for philosophical and technical issues to be treated simultaneously and occasionally to be classified (Bryman 1984:75). According to Erisson and Kovalainen (2008:4), it is much easier to compare quantitative and qualitative approaches than to define them. Hence, these two approaches are differenced in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1:** Difference between quantitative and qualitative research approaches

Quantitative	Qualitative
Behaviour can be explained in causal deterministic ways and people can be manipulated and controlled.	Behaviour is intentional and creative and it can be explained but not predicted.
Objective – researcher seen as detached from the object that one studies.	Subjective – because interaction takes place with the subject (object of investigation).
Questions/hypotheses/objectives are stated and subjected to empirical testing to verify them.	Dialectical and interpretative.

Quantitative	Qualitative
Sample size is large.	Sample size is small.
Depends on the use of numbers and measurements.	Does not depend on the use of numbers or measurements.
Focuses on phenomena that can be explained by numbers and statistics.	Focuses on phenomena that cannot be explained adequately with statistics.
The researcher needs to play a more prominent role in the data gathering process.	The researcher is unobtrusive or a participating observer.
The researcher experiences subjects on a secondary level through the interpretation of numbers and measurements.	The researcher encounters the subjects through a first-hand experience.
Amount of information from each respondent varies.	Amount of information from each respondent is substantial.
Has a structured data collection process.	The data collection process is semi-structured. Processes are naturalistic, participatory and interpretative in nature.
Needs a set plan for the completion of research.	Is very flexible and changes as the data and circumstances change.
One of the main focuses is to test hypotheses/objectives.	The researcher can develop new hypotheses during the research process.
Tries to establish causal relationships.	Generates hunches.
Degree of replicability is high.	Degree of replicability is low.

**Source:** Martin (2007:63)

Table 4.1 clearly indicates that quantitative and qualitative approaches are very different. These differences have a profound impact on the focus and conduct of research projects (Brannen 2005:175) and this amounts to a strong suggestion within the research community to combine qualitative and quantitative research, which is called 'mixed methodological approach' (Onwuegbuzie & Leech 2005:376). Mixed methods research

is becoming increasingly articulated and recognised as the third major research approach or research paradigm (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner 2007:112). Rossman and Wilson (1985:630) outlined the following benefits for the adoption of mixed methods research:

- Combination enables confirmation or corroboration of each other through triangulation.
- Combination enables and develops analysis in order to provide richer data.
- Combination initiates new modes of thinking by attending to paradoxes that emerge from the two data sources.

For the purpose of this study, a quantitative research approach was adopted. The researcher's rationale behind using quantitative approach is that it has pragmatic origins in terms of allowing large-scale data collection and analysis at a reasonably low cost and effort, including provision of statistical analysis (Amaratunga, Baldry, Sarshar & Newton 2002:22).

#### **4.4 SAMPLING DESIGN AND PROCEDURE**

Each type of empirical research has an explicit research design (Yin 2009:26). Research design is defined as “a logical model of proof that allows the researcher to draw conclusions concerning relations among the variables under investigation” (Nachmias & Nachmias 1992:77). Since this study is explanatory research positing a conceptual model involving a number of interrelated causal chains, a cross-sectional survey design was used where selected units were measured on all the variables at a specific time. Survey in research is defined as “the assessment of the current status, opinions, beliefs, and attitudes by questionnaires or interviews from known population” (McMillan & Schumacher 2001:602). Unlike the experimental design where the researcher is actively intervening to produce and measure change or to create differences, cross-sectional design focuses on studying and drawing inferences from existing differences between people, subjects, or phenomena (Hall 2008:1). The problem with cross-sectional design is that the

participants may differ in terms of other variables and this becomes a threat to the internal validity (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2009:95).

#### 4.4.1 The target population

People are the primary interest in the social science studies and even if a study focuses on the organisation, the researcher is usually interested in the people who belong to that organisation. Normally, these people are referred to as a population in research terms. Consequently, a population is regarded as any group of people who share a set of common traits (Black 1999:111). According to Huysamen (1994:38) population is defined as “the total collection of all members, cases or elements about which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions”. It is necessary for the researcher to define clearly the target population. This exercise should be done with great care by keeping with the formulated objectives of the study (Manoharan 2010:20). Regardless of how well the research instrument is designed, the data will lose value if the wrong people are targeted (Boyce 2002:232). Data for this study originated from academic staff from South African Universities of Technology. There are currently six universities of technology operational in South Africa (Council on Higher Education 2012:1). Table 4.2 reflects the total number of academics at South African universities of technology at the time of conducting the study.

**Table 4.2:** Number of academics at South African universities of technology

<b>Name of the University</b>	<b>Number of academics employed</b>
A	334
B	836
C	269
D	763
E	592
F	193
<b>Total</b>	<b>N = 2987</b>

Source: Department of Higher Education & Training (2012).

Due to ethical considerations of confidentiality and privacy, the researcher made a concerted and conscious effort to uphold this promise by removing the names of the UoTs from the table and representing them by alphabets. This was to ensure that any organisation and its members that participated in this study remain anonymous.

#### **4.4.2 The sampling procedure**

The sampling procedure utilised in this study is convenience sampling. This is a non-probability sampling technique, which relies on the researcher's experience, ingenuity and/or previous research findings (Welman & Kruger, 2002:63). The questionnaires were administered to the academics who happened to be readily available at the particular time when the researcher/research assistant was present for such purposes. Convenience sampling has been chosen, because it is the most convenient way of collecting data from members of the population (units of analysis) that are near and readily available for research purposes, regardless of characteristics, until the required sample size has been achieved (Tansey 2007:769). Some of the advantages of utilising non-probability sampling lie in the fact that it is cost-effective and less time consuming (Bull 2005:63).

Non-probability sampling techniques raise questions about how well the sample size represents the target population (Muhib, Lin, Stueve, Miller, Ford, Johnson & Smith 2001:217) and this resulted in many scholars claiming that non-probability sampling is inherently inferior to probability sampling, and that it should only be used under limited circumstances, such as when resources are limited (Tansey 2007:766). Other researchers consider non-probability sampling methods appropriate only for pilot studies (Heckathorn 2002:11).

#### **4.4.3 Sample size**

Mbundu (2011:42) argues that once the target population has been specified, the researcher should decide if the information would be collected on all individuals (N) or on

a sub-set only (n). The populations that interests human behavioural researchers are often too large that, from a practical point of view, it becomes difficult to conduct research on all of them (Coetzee 2005:79). The practical limitations such as cost and time are usually operative in the situation and stand in the way of studying the total population. Hence, the sampling concept has been introduced with a view to making the research results economical and accurate (Sigh & Bajpai 2007:137). Researchers should, therefore, select samples of respondents before administering questionnaires to collect information about their attitudes, values, habits, ideas, demographics, feelings, opinions, perceptions, and beliefs (Maree 2010:155). It has been recommended that if the population size is about 1 500, at least 20% should be sampled (Leedy & Ormrod 2010:214). For the purpose of this study, 600 (n) participants were conveniently selected from the total population of academic staff (N = 2987), thus targeting approximately 20% of the target population.

#### **4.5 INSTRUMENTATION**

A variety of measuring instruments provides researchers with several options to choose the one that best suits characteristics and needs of the study. On the other hand, the instrument may not reflect what the researcher is seeking if chosen carelessly; hence research results could not be comparable (Astrauskaite, Vaitkevicius & Perminas 2011:42). Due to a large number of questions (50), the survey material was designed interactively in a form of a structured questionnaire, containing generic questions, which were mostly multiple-choice in order to speed-up the survey completion. A structured questionnaire is a type of a questionnaire in which there are definite, concrete and pre-determined questions. The questions are presented with exactly the same wording and in the same order to all participants. This sort of standardisation is to ensure that all participants answer to the same set of questions (Kothari 2004:101). The usage of a questionnaire enables the researcher to survey a large number of participants with little expense and effort. Furthermore, questionnaire responses are easy to quantify and standardise (Spector 1997:5). The layout of the questionnaire is provided in Table 4.3.



**Table 4.3:** Layout of the questionnaire

Section	Topic of section	Number of questions
A	Demographic details	6
B	Employee job satisfaction	5
C	Employee organisational commitment	18
D	Employee's turnover intentions	5
E	Absenteeism	4
F	Individual work performance	12
<b>Total number of questions</b>		<b>50</b>

The self-completion questionnaire was divided into six sections (refer to Appendix 1). Section A consists of questions on the demographic profile of the academics and the university, Section B contains questions on job satisfaction, Section C contains questions on organisational commitment, Section D contains questions on turnover intentions, Section E contains questions on absenteeism, and Section F contains questions on performance of academics.

#### **4.5.1 Job satisfaction survey (JSS)**

A Job Satisfaction Survey was developed by Spector (1985:699) to evaluate workers' attitudes concerning aspects of their jobs using a Likert-type rating scale format. This instrument is multidimensional and originally was developed for the social service sector. However, it has been used in various studies in different organisational sectors in different cultures (Astrauskaite, Vaitkevicius & Perminas 2011:41). This instrument assesses nine facets of job satisfaction as well as overall satisfaction (refer to table 2.3). Since this study aims to assess global job satisfaction without referring to any specific facets, a global version of JSS was used with a summated rating scale format with five agree-disagree choices: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree (refer to Section B of Appendix 1). Before using the JSS for this study, the researcher confirmed that the global job satisfaction instrument was tested for reliability and validity across different studies. The reliability of the global job satisfaction instrument

was previously tested by means of the internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) and it showed reliability value of 0.91 (Amburgey 2005:65). The researcher regards this as a satisfactory internal reliability since the commonly accepted minimum standard for internal consistency is 0.70. The researcher's choice to use this instrument from other job satisfaction questionnaires was also informed by the fact that it uses a Likert scale with six options that is indicative of more states of replier (Gholami Fesharaki, Talebiyan, Aghamiri & Mohammadian 2012:242).

#### **4.5.2 Organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ)**

The OCQ was developed by Allen and Meyer (1990:862) to measure organisational commitment as a tri-dimensional construct. This instrument has been developed, tested, and validated mainly in the United States of America (Lee & Gao 2005:378). However, Bagraim (2004:8) found that OCQ is appropriate in the South African context. The OCQ is a self-scoring instrument which comprises five point Likert scales with eighteen items (refer to Section C of Appendix 1). The scale is intended to measure three components of organisational commitment: affective, continuance and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen 1997:121). The scale ranges from 1 to 5 as follows: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 agree, 5 = strongly agree. Several studies have been conducted to examine the reliability (Cronbach's alpha) and validity of OCQ with positive results. Meyer and Allen (1997:120) found the overall reliability estimates to exceed 0.79, Pretorius and Roodt (2004:70) reported the reliability as 0.91, and Rashid, Sambasivan, and Johari (2003:718) found an alpha range of 0.90. Hence, the researcher gauged the reliability and validity of this instrument through successful implementations it has undergone in different studies. The OCQ was developed through a process of factor analysis resulting in a clear distinction between work related and union foci and this serves as a clear indication of the validity of the instrument (Martin 2007:98). Furthermore, construct validity of the dimensions of OCQ is based on the fact that they correlate as predicted with the proposed antecedents variables (Mguqulwa 2008:60). The researcher considers this as preliminary evidence that this instrument is a valid measure for organisational commitment.

#### **4.5.3 Intention to stay questionnaire (ISQ)**

The Intention to stay questionnaire was adopted from Lambert and Hogan (2009:114) and was developed to measure employees' intentions to stay with the organisation. Although this instrument deals with the intentions to stay, the results of previous studies hold valid for turnover intentions since these two concepts have an intimate relationship (Jacobs & Roodt 2007:237; Martin & Roodt 2008:27). The literature classifies turnover intention as a cognitive decision intervening between an employee's attitudes towards the organisation and subsequent behaviour to either stay or quit the organisation (Sager, Griffeth & Hom (1998:255). The intention to stay instrument used consists of five items that were measured on a five-point intensity response scales (refer to Section D of Appendix 1). The scale ranges from 1 to 5 as follows: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 agree, 5 = strongly agree. Studies that have made use of the intention to stay instrument reported good reliability values above 0.70. Jacobs (2005:341) found an alpha of 0.913, Martin (2007:147) reported a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.895, Jacobs and Roodt (2011:4) reported a reliability value of 0.839.

#### **4.5.4 Absenteeism questionnaire (AQ)**

The absenteeism instrument was developed to measure individual absenteeism. It was adopted from Hackett, Bycio and Guion (1989:452). This instrument originally consisted of twenty items, which have been reduced to four items due to reliability necessities. Furthermore, the logical interpretation of certain items which were grouped together did not make sense due to the nature of the sampling frame in this study. Absenteeism was measured through Likert scales ranging from 1 to 5 as follows: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 agree, 5 = strongly agree (refer to Section E of Appendix 1). The reliability of this instrument is unknown. However, the researcher hopes to rely on the results of the pilot study to check if the instrument is reliable (refer to Table 5.1).

#### **4.5.5 Individual work performance questionnaire (IWPQ)**

The Individual work performance questionnaire was developed by Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, van Buuren, Van der Beek and De Vet (2012:1) to measure perceived individual work performance. It is designed to measure individual work performance and has a standardised operationalisation that is developed and refined based on a generic population. This questionnaire is based on a three-dimensional conceptual framework in which individual work performance consists of the following three dimensions: task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance (Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Schaufeli, De Vet & Van der Beek 2011:856). The IWPQ consists of twelve items measured through a five point Likert scale: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree (refer to Section E of Appendix 1). Instead of Cronbach alpha, Koopmans *et al.* (2012:11) used the person separation index (PSI) to check the internal consistency of the instrument. PSI is equivalent to Cronbach Alpha in that a minimum value of 0.70 is required for a group use and 0.85 for individual use (Tennant & Conaghan 2007:1361). The difference is that alpha can be calculated with complete data only, while the PSI can be calculated with random missing data. With substantial missing data, the two indices might report different values (Anon 2014:3). The overall reliability of the IWPQ scale is satisfactorily high showing a PSI value of 0.84 (Koopmans *et al.*, 2012:19).

#### **4.6 FIELDWORK AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

The nature of the sampling procedure utilised in this study and the geographic distance between organisations from which the sample was drawn necessitated the appointment of field-workers/research assistants. One research assistant, from each university of technology, was deployed in order to facilitate the data collection process. According to Mouton (1996:159), adequate training of interviewers, research assistants and field workers is a precondition of any research. The research assistants were trained prior to the execution of the duties. Training was done to give research assistants clear instructions about their duties. The duties included, inter alia, how to approach research

participants and anonymity of the answers on the questionnaire. This in turn, ensured the reliability of information they were supposed to gather. The training spent almost four hours. The researcher discussed all the questions in the questionnaire with the research assistants. Research assistants then distributed the questionnaire to the academics to complete and later collected on the agreed upon dates.

#### **4.7 PRE-TESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

Regardless of the expertise and experience of the designer of the questionnaire, pre-testing should be undertaken to ensure that the questionnaire communicates the information correctly and clearly to the respondent (Surujlal, 2003:147). Questionnaire pre-testing is the first and an important stage to identify and eliminating questions that could pose problems at later stage of the study. Some pre-testing ensures that a survey reduces redundancy of the questionnaire (Coetzee 2005:78). In this study, the pre-test on the questionnaire was done with the purpose of ensuring that the questionnaire meets the requirements regarding the type of information that will be obtained from it. The first draft of the questionnaire was delivered to three experts in the field of human resources, four academics, and a statistician/quantitative researcher to evaluate questionnaire items with regard to clarity, relevance and interpretation. Inputs were obtained from these individuals and the researcher corrected deficiencies accordingly.

#### **4.8 PILOT STUDY**

Du Plessis (2003:67) states that some questions could cause problems and, therefore, questionnaire testing is needed to identify and eliminate these problems. The purpose of the pilot study is to improve the success and effectiveness of the investigation and it should be executed in the same manner as the main investigation (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, Poggenpoel & Schurink 1998:182). The term 'pilot study' refers to a small-scale version or trial run which is done in preparation for the main study with the aim of identifying and addressing any problems that may arise (Simkhada, Bhatta & Van

Teijlingen 2006:295). The pilot study is a dress rehearsal for the actual empirical investigation (Welman *et al.*, 2009:148).

Fifty-five questionnaires were pilot-tested on a population with characteristics similar to the targeted group. The pilot project respondents were academics from UoTs. The pilot exercise was performed with the purpose of checking the internal reliability of the measuring instrument. The pilot study reported a satisfactory reliability at above 0.70 alpha value across all sections of the measuring instrument (refer to Section 5.2).

#### **4.9 RELIABILITY**

Reliability refers to whether a measuring instrument is consistent, stable, and free from error, despite fluctuations in the test taker, administrator or conditions under which the test is administered (Sekaran 2003:67). Welman and Kruger (2004:139) refer to reliability as the extent to which obtained scores may be generalised to different measuring occasions and measurement forms. This means, that for a research tool to be reliable it should give the same results when something was measured separately: provided the underlying traits being measured have not changed (Gray 2009:158). Any measuring instrument which produces different scores every time it is used is deemed to have low reliability (Josias 2005:95). For the purpose of this study, the diagnostic measure used is the reliability coefficient that assesses the consistency of the entire scale, namely Cronbach's alpha. It is one of the most commonly used indicators of internal consistency (Pallant 2011:97). Cronbach's coefficient is a reasonable indicator of the internal consistency of instruments that do not have right or wrong marking schemes (Black 1999:279). Owing to the multiplicity of the items measuring the factors, the Cronbach's coefficient alpha is often considered to be the best since it has the most utility of multi-item scales at the internal level of measurement (Coetzee 2005:72). The generally agreed upon scale range for Cronbach's alpha is the minimum of 0.70 for a set of items to be considered a scale (Martin 2007:93). Gray (2009:158) alerts the researchers that reliability is never perfect because some differences found in traits between two different

people should be based on real differences between the individuals and not due to the inconsistencies in the measuring instrument.

#### **4.10 VALIDITY**

Validity is a measurement concept that is concerned with the degree to which a measuring instrument actually measures what it purports to measure and it is justified by the evidence (Bull 2005:66). Validity refers to the question of whether or not one's measurement of a phenomenon is true (Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003:581). The major importance in the use of assessment instruments is the extent to which their factorial structures are valid (Byrne 2001:55). For the purpose of this study, the validity of the measuring instrument was assessed by means of the following types of validity: content validity, face validity, construct validity, convergent validity and discriminatory validity.

##### **4.10.1 Content validity**

Content validity refers to the extent to which a measuring instrument covers the whole concept (Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek & Frings-Dresen 2003:193). Nunnally and Bernstein (1994:265) define content validity as “the degree to which a measure's items represent a proper sample of the theoretical content domain of a construct” (refer to Section 5.3.7.1).

##### **4.10.2 Face validity**

Anastasi (1988:109) defined face validity as “the degree that respondents or users judge that the items of an assessment instrument are appropriate to the targeted construct and assessment objectives”. Similarly, Nunnally and Bernstein (1994:259) define face validity as “reflecting the extent to which a measure reflects what it is intended to measure”. In order to meet the criterion of the content validity by the initial pool of items, such items should be face valid. Hence, if items from the scale are not face valid, the overall measure cannot be valid operationalisation of the construct of interest (Hardesty & Bearden

2004:99). There is limited direction in the literature regarding specific rules that should be followed when judging face validity of scale items (refer to Section 5.3.7.2).

#### **4.10.3 Construct validity**

Construct validity relates to research on various concepts whose constructs have been detailed and how representative the questions in a measuring instrument are of the same characteristics making up the construct (Black 1999:298). According to Welman *et al.* (2009:142) the construct validity of a questionnaire refers to the degree to which it measures the intended construct rather than irrelevant constructs (refer to Section 5.3.7.3).

#### **4.10.4 Convergent validity**

Convergent validity assesses the degree to which two measures of the same concept are correlated (Martin 2007:93). In this study, the criterion for the convergent validity was considered as reasonable correlations at 0.50 or higher values (refer to Section 5.3.7.4).

#### **4.10.5 Discriminatory validity**

Discriminant validity refers to the degree to which two conceptually similar concepts are distinct (Martin 2007:93). The proliferation of different concepts bears a potential danger of a lack of specificity concerning the measurement of different variables (Mathieu & Farr 1991:127). Therefore, the researcher has performed confirmatory factor analysis to illustrate discriminant validity among the measures of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism, and work performance (refer to Section 5.3.7.5).



## 4.11 DATA ANALYSES AND STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0 (for Windows) was used to analyse data. Through SPSS, the researcher provided a statistical summary of data, which has been collected by means of descriptive statistics. This enabled the researcher to convert data into frequency distribution tables by forming classes for ease of interpretation. The rationale behind using descriptive statistics was to reduce data to an interpretable form so that the relations of research problems could be studied, tested and conclusions drawn (De Vos 1998:203; Norusis 2008:3). After organising the data, it was subjected to statistical analysis with the use of the following techniques: descriptive statistics, factor analysis, correlations, Mann-Whitney U-test, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model fit and hypothesis testing using structural equation modeling (SEM) with analysis of moment structures (AMOS) programme.

### 4.11.1 Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics was used to describe the basic features this study through the use of graphical analysis (refer to Section 5.3.1). Table 4.4 illustrates the basic descriptive statistics used in the data analysis.

**Table 4.4: Basic descriptive statistics**

<b>Frequency</b>	This simply means the number of instances in a class by showing what percentage of respondents answered for each attitude category to the statement. In a survey study, it is associated with the use of likert scale.
<b>Mean</b>	A mean is calculated by summing the values of a variable for all observations and the dividing by the number of observations. This describes the central tendency of data.
<b>Standard deviation</b>	This is defined as the square root of the average of squares of deviations, when such deviations for the values of individual items in a series are obtained from the arithmetic average. This describes the

	dispersion of the data. Standard Deviation is a direct form of variance and was used in place of the latter for reporting.
<b>Variance</b>	This is calculated by finding the squared difference between the mean and an observation, adding all cases and then dividing by the number of observations minus one. It shows the relation that a set of scores has to the mean of the sample. This describes the dispersion of the data.
<b>Skewness</b>	This is the measure of asymmetry and shows the manner in which the items are clustered around the average. The importance of skewness lies in the fact that through it one can study the formation of series and can have the idea about the shape of the curve, whether normal or otherwise, when the items of a given series are plotted on a graph.
<b>Median</b>	This is the value of the middle item of series when it is arranged in ascending or descending order magnitude. It divides the series into halves; in one-half all items are less than median, whereas in the other half all items have values higher than median.
<b>Kurtosis</b>	Kurtosis is the measure of flat-toppedness of a curve. It is the humpedness of the curve pointing to the nature of distribution of items in the middle of a series. If the curve is relatively more peaked than the normal curve, it is called leptokurtic whereas, if a curve is more flat than the normal curve, it is called platykurtic.

**Sources:** Gray (2009:458); Norusis (2012:499)

#### 4.11.2 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is described as an interdependence technique which is used to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham 2006:71). This statistical technique makes it easy to identify a relatively small number of factors that explain observed correlations between variables (Martin 2007:102). In this study, this technique was used to summarise the information in a number of original variables into a smaller set of new and composite dimensions with the smallest loss of

information (refer to Section 5.3.3). The researcher followed the following guidelines as recommended by Hair *et al.* (2006:80).

- The sample size must have more observations than variables.
- Factor analysis should be performed on metric variables.
- Statistical significant (p-value < 0.5) serves as sufficient correlations between the variables to proceed.
- Measure of sampling adequacy values should be above 0.50 for the overall test and each individual variable.
- Each factor should have a minimum of three factors that load highly on it.
- Variables should have extracted communalities of greater than 0.50 to be retained in the analysis. However, values at 0.30 are also accepted.

#### **4.11.3 Correlations**

Surveys of cross-sections of populations often employ correlations between variables to describe the outcomes with the aim of checking if any relationship exists among selected pairs of variables (Black 1999:621). Correlation analysis is the extent to which changes in one variable are attributed with changes in another variable which is indicated by correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) (McDaniel & Gates 2006:407). Correlation analysis does not only discover whether a relationship exists between two variables, but also analyses the direction and magnitude of the relationship between variables (Diamantopoulos 2000:214). Spearman correlation coefficient was used to measure the strength of the relationship between paired data (refer to Section 5.3.2). In a sample, it is denoted by  $r$  and is by design constrained as follows:  $-1 \leq r \leq 1$ . The closer  $r$  is to  $\pm 1$  the stronger the relationship. Correlation coefficient can range from -1.00 to +1.00, indicating the strength of the relationship between the two variables in question. A correlation of +1.00 is a sign of perfect positive association, a correlation of 0.00 indicates no association, and a correlation of -1.00 indicates a perfect negative association (Coetzee 2005:72). The strength of correlation was described using the guide for the absolute value (refer to Table 4.5).

**Table 4.5:** Interpretation of the correlation coefficient

<b>Correlation coefficient</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
<b>-1.0 to -0.8</b>	<b>High</b>
<b>-0.8 to -0.6</b>	<b>Substantial</b>
<b>-0.6 to -0.4</b>	<b>Medium</b>
<b>-0.4 to -0.2</b>	<b>Low</b>
<b>-0.2 to 0.2</b>	<b>Very low</b>
<b>0.2 to 0.4</b>	<b>Low</b>
<b>0.4 to 0.6</b>	<b>Medium</b>
<b>0.6 to 0.8</b>	<b>Substantial</b>
<b>0.8 to 1.0</b>	<b>High</b>

**Source:** Martin (2007:107)

#### **4.11.4 Mann-Whitney U-test**

Progress in science often comes from discovering invariances in relationships among variables. Invariances are statements of equality, sameness, or lack of association (Rouder, Speckman, Sun, Morey & Iverson 2009:225). On the basis of this analogy, the two groups (males and females) were compared for the same trait to check the degree to which they are sufficiently similar to be declared belonging to the same population. It is unlikely that they are identical and the statistical test should be used to confirm whether they are close enough to be considered the same or different as to be considered two different distributions (Black 1999:570). Since this study make use of a non-probability sampling method, the statistical test was performed using a Mann-Whitney U-test to compare the medians between males and females respondents (refer to Section 5.3.4). This test is a non-parametric alternative to the t-test for independent samples (Dhurup 2013:10) and it is ubiquitous in statistical practice for comparison of measures of location for two samples where the assumption of normality is violadated (Rosner & Grove 1999:1387).

#### **4.11.5 Kruskal-Wallis test (KWt)**

Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis-of-variance-by-ranks test (or H test) has been used in this study to determine whether three or more independent groups are the same or different on some variance of interest when an ordinal level of data or an interval or ratio level of data is available (refer to Section 5.3.5). The null and alternative hypotheses of the KWt are different in nature from those of analysis of variance (ANOVA). For the KWt, the null hypothesis is stochastic homogeneity, with stochastic heterogeneity being the alternative hypothesis (Vargha & Delaney 1998:170). The fact that KWt tests the null hypothesis of stochastic homogeneity should be seen as a strength of this test, since such null hypothesis is often of more interest than a null hypothesis of homogeneity of central tendencies (Bryman & Cramer 2009:168). KWt does not require the assumption that the samples come from approximately normal populations or the universes having the same standard deviation. In this test, the data are ranked jointly from low to high or high to low as if they constituted a single sample (Kothari 2004:298).

#### **4.11.6 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), model fit and hypothesis testing using structural equation modeling (SEM)**

CFA is a type of structural equation modeling that deals with measurement models. In this study, CFA was used to reproduce the observed relationships among a group of indicators with smaller set of latent variables (refer to Section 5.3.8). The goal of latent variable measurement models is to establish the number and nature of factors that account for the variation and covariation among a set of indicators (Brown & Moore 2012:2).

SEM is one of the techniques of choice for scholars across disciplines and its importance in the social sciences is increasing. However, the issue of how the model that best represents the data reflects underlying theory, known as model fit, is by no means agreed upon (Hopper, Coughlan & Mullen 2008:54). In this study, SEM was used to examine the path model and the hypotheses (refer to Section 5.3.11).

It is recommended that the researcher should choose absolute fit indices to determine how well a proposed conceptual model fits the sample (McDonald & Ho 2002:64). A structural model was constructed to examine the postulated relationship among the constructs by using the following indices: model chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), goodness-of-fit statistic (GFI) and the adjusted goodness-of-fit statistic (AGFI), normed-fit index (NFI), and comparative fit index (CFI) (refer to Section 5.3.10). The following model fit indices were used for the study:

- **Model chi-square ( $\chi^2$ )** is a measure for the evaluation of overall model fit and assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample population and covariances matrices. The  $\chi^2$  has an asymptotic large sample distribution under an assumed distribution and the hypothesized model for the population covariance matrix (Hu & Bentler 1999:2). If the discrepancy between the model implied covariances and the observed sample covariances is larger than the expected distribution value by a probability usually adjudged at a 0.05 threshold, the model is then rejected as not fitting. Similarly, if the fit statistic is less than the value expected, with a probability of occurrence  $>0.05$ , then the model is accepted as a good fit (Barrett 2007:816).
- **Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)** fit index is used for evaluating covariance structure models (Steiger & Lind 1980:1-21). This index is a measure of approximate fit in the population and it is concerned with the discrepancy due to approximation. A cut-off value close to 0.06 or a stringent higher limit of 0.08 was considered (Steiger 2007:897). An attractive feature of the RMSEA is that a coherent estimation strategy exists for both a point estimate and a confidence interval (Nevitt & Hancock 2000:252), and this reduces the problems and paradoxes inherent in testing models with large sample sizes (Steiger 1998:413).
- **Goodness-of-fit statistic (GFI) and the adjusted goodness-of-fit statistic (AGFI)** is used to measure the relative amount of the variances and covariances in covariance matrix (Joreskog & Sorbom 1989:1-342). By looking at the variances and covariances accounted for by the model, it shows closeness of the model to

replicate the observed covariance matrix (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw 2000:89). This statistic ranges between 0 and 1 with higher values indicating better fit. The usual rule of thumb for this index is that 0.95 is indicative of good fit relative to the baseline model, while values greater than 0.90 are indicating an acceptable fit (Schermelele-Engel & Moosbrugger 2003:43). Related to the GFI is the AGFI, which was developed to adjust for a bias resulting from model complexity (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007:446). This index ranges between 0 and 1 with larger values indicating a better fit. A rule of thumb for this index is that 0.90 is indicative of good fit relative to the baseline model, while values greater than 0.85 may be regarded as an acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler 1999:2).

- **Normed-fit index (NFI)** was developed by Bentler and Bonnett (1980:590) to assess the model by comparing the  $\chi^2$  value of the model to the  $\chi^2$  of the null model. The null model usually specifies that all measured variables are not correlated. Values for NFI range from 0 to 1 with higher values indicating better fit. Values greater than 0.90 are interpreted as indicating acceptable fit (Kaplan 2000:107).
- **Comparative fit index (CFI)** is a revised form of the NFI which takes into consideration sample size, and performs well even when size is small. Like the NFI, CFI assumes that all latent variables are not correlated and compares the sample covariance matrix with the null model. This index ranges from 0 to 1 with higher values indicating better fit. A rule of thumb for CFI is that 0.90 is a sign of good fit relative to the independence model (Schermelele-Engel & Moosbrugger 2003:42). This index has been included in all SEM programmes and is one of the most popularly reported fit indices as it is one of the measures least affected by sample size (Hopper *et al.*, 2008:55).

#### 4.12 ETHICAL ISSUES ADDRESSED IN THE STUDY

Research ethics means conducting research in a way that goes beyond merely adopting the most appropriate research methodology, but conducting research in a responsible and morally defensible way (Gray 2009:69). Social science researchers receive guidance

about making sound methodological decisions from diverse sources throughout their careers: such as hands-on research experiences during graduate schooling and beyond (Panter & Sterba 2011:1). Upon conducting this study, the researcher committed to comply with the ethical code of conduct set by the South African Board for People Practice (SABPP). This study, therefore, avoided a violation of employers and employees' rights by maintaining honesty, objectivity, fairness, and openness. The purpose of the study was made clear to all participants and to universities where the research exercise took place. In order to maintain confidentiality the study did not require any identifying information such as name of participant, name of employer, or participant's contact details (refer to Appendix C). The anonymity was intended to enhance the honesty of the responses given. Permission was requested from all UoTs prior to conducting the study (refer to Appendix A). Finally, the results of this study were made available to all interested stakeholders.

#### **4.13 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the research paradigm was outlined. The paradigm guided the researcher as to which research approach to adopt. The research approach was adopted and discussed against the background of the envisaged research objectives. Firstly, three approaches being quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies were explained and differentiated as a basis to provide motivation for the chosen approach in this study. The optimum research approach selected can be described as quantitative and non-experimental with the usage of primary data as the design of analysis. This approach was selected on the basis of the formulated hypotheses. The research methodology referred to the target population and research procedure, which guided the research in a sampling process whereby a self-completion questionnaire through a cross-sectional survey was utilised.

Pre-testing and piloting of the measuring instrument was explained as the prerequisite requirements prior to major fieldwork of any research project. The discussion of the research methodology continued with the questionnaires where the theoretical sound



reliability and validity were provided. The statistical procedures have been presented, highlighting the route chosen in order to achieve the objectives of the study in the analysis of data. An explanation as to how the statistical techniques and the absolute fit indices have been used and their relevancy in this study was provided. The ethical code of conduct that informed the researcher's and field workers' behaviour was also stated. Finally, the delimitation of the study was outlined.

The next chapter discusses the results and their interpretation of the data analysis.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter, a theoretical exposition of the research methodology was outlined. The study is located within a quantitative research paradigm. In the research methodology chapter reference is made to the target population, research procedure, measuring instruments, data analyses and statistical techniques.

This chapter deals with the interpretation and discussion of the results. Descriptive statistics, factor analysis, reliability, correlations, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), model fit and hypothesis testing using structural equation modeling (SEM) are also reported and interpreted.

#### **5.2 PILOT TEST ANALYSIS**

A population with characteristics similar to the targeted group completed fifty-five questionnaires. In the pilot test, respondents were academics from universities of technology. The pilot test was performed with the purpose of checking the internal consistency of the measuring instrument. Items were structured based on a five-point Likert-type scales. Likert scales consist of a number of statements which express either a favourable or unfavourable attitude ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree towards the given constructs to which the respondent is asked to respond (Kothari 2004:84). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to determine the degree to which the items that make up the scale reflect internal consistency. Sekaran (1992:287) warns that reliability less than 0.70 generally should be considered poor and less reliable. The results of the pilot study are presented in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1: Pilot study reliability statistics**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>	<b>Number of items</b>	<b>Number of items deleted</b>	<b>Number of remaining items</b>	<b>Revised Cronbach's alpha</b>
Job satisfaction	0.852	5	-	-	-
Organisational commitment	0.900	18	-	-	-
Turnover intention	0.891	5	-	-	-
Absenteeism	0.619	9	5	4	0.733
Work Performance	0.863	12	-	-	-

Section B of the questionnaire on job satisfaction consisted of five items and the overall Cronbach's alpha was 0.85. Section C of the questionnaire on organisational commitment consisted of 18 items and the overall alpha value was 0.90. Section D of the questionnaire on employee's turnover intention comprised five items and the overall alpha value was 0.89. Section E of the questionnaire on absenteeism consisted of nine items and the overall alpha value was 0.61. Finally, Section F of the questionnaire contained twelve items and the overall alpha value was 0.86. Overall, the results for the four constructs (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention and performance) are regarded as reliable. The overall alpha value of Section E was considered poor or less reliable. This poor reliability may be attributed to the notion that Cronbach alpha values are very sensitive to the number of items in the scale (Pallant 2011:97).

However, the value in Section E indicated that the overall alpha value could be improved by deleting items number E1, E2, E3, E4 and E8, as they reported low item total correlations, and re-computing the remaining four items as one scale. Thus, after deleting and re-computing the remaining four items as one scale, the new overall alpha value was 0.73. Considering this revised alpha value as well as the item-total correlation, absenteeism scale reached a satisfactory acceptable level which was then included in the main survey instrument.

The next section discusses the main study analyses.

### **5.3 MAIN STUDY ANALYSES**

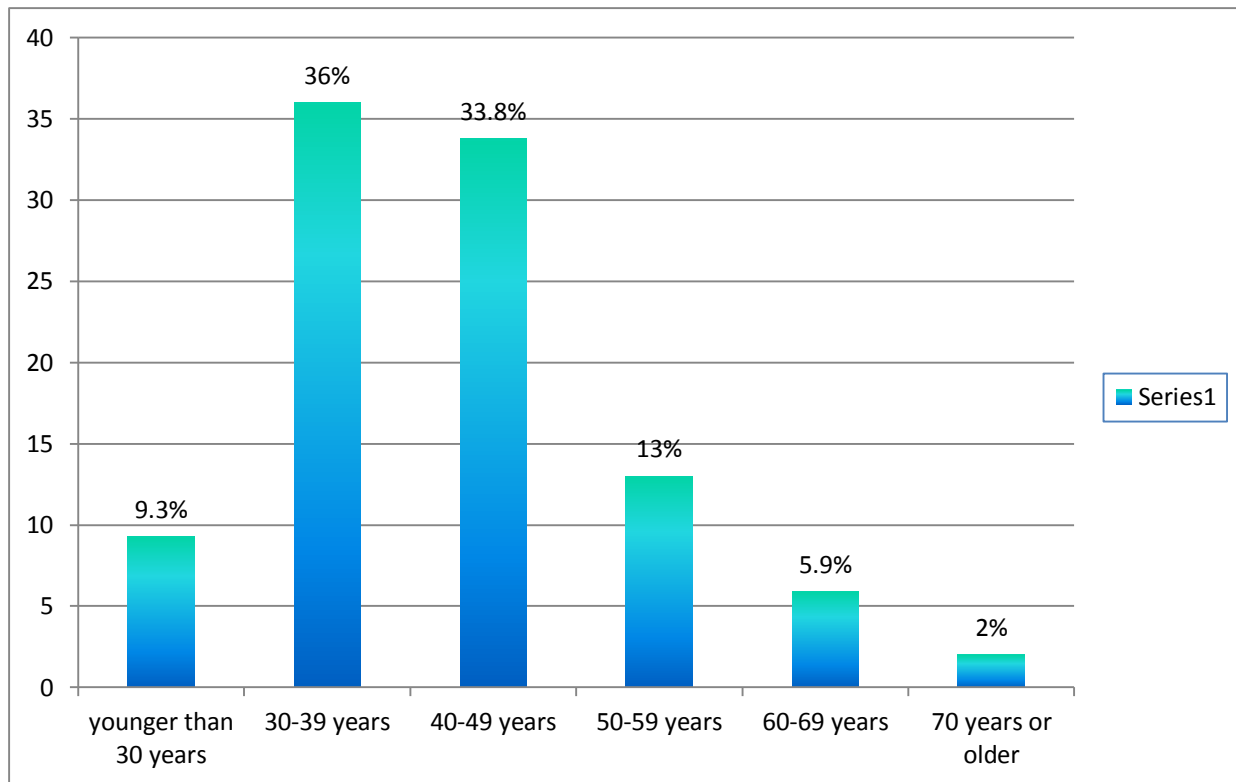
After constructing and pilot testing of the measuring instrument, 600 questionnaires were distributed to the identified sample of academics of which 494 responded. The researcher, therefore, found this sample size of the data adequate to perform the required statistical analysis.

#### **5.3.1 Demographics and general profile**

A descriptive analysis of Section A (demographics & general profile) is discussed in the foregoing section, which consists of the following aspects: age category, gender, position, qualification, length of service and status of the contract of employment.

##### **5.3.1.1 Age category**

Figure 5.1 shows the percentage of respondents based on their reported age categories.

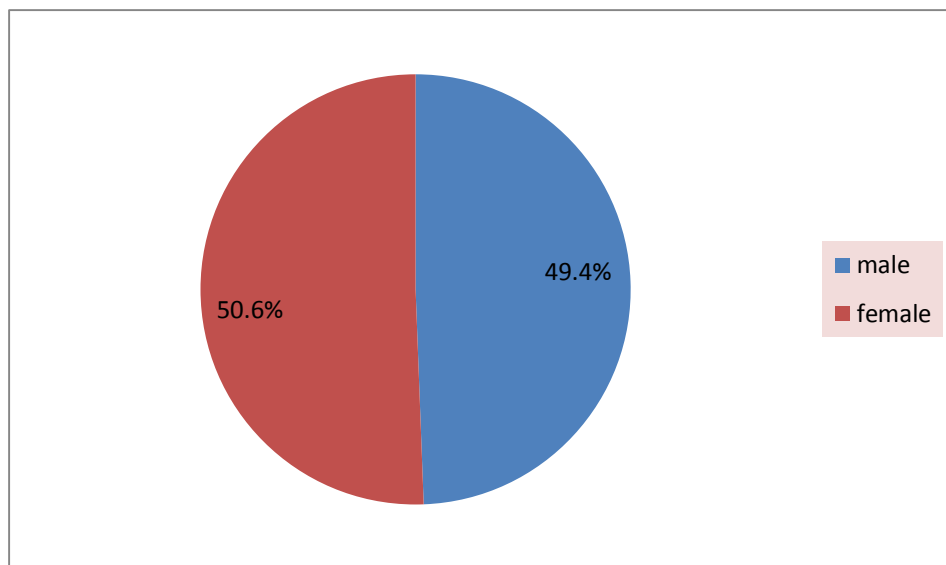


**Figure 5.1:** Age of respondents

The figure shows that those who were younger than 30 years of age comprised 9.3% (n=46) of the sample. The majority 36%, (n=178) of the sample were in the age group 30-39 years. The age group, 60-69 years comprised 5.9% (n=29) of the sample. A small percentage, 2% (n=10) were older than 70 years.

#### **5.3.1.2 Gender**

Figure 5.2 presents a graphical representation of the gender distribution of the sample. Males constitute 49.4% (n=244) and females constitute 50.6% (n=250) of the sample.

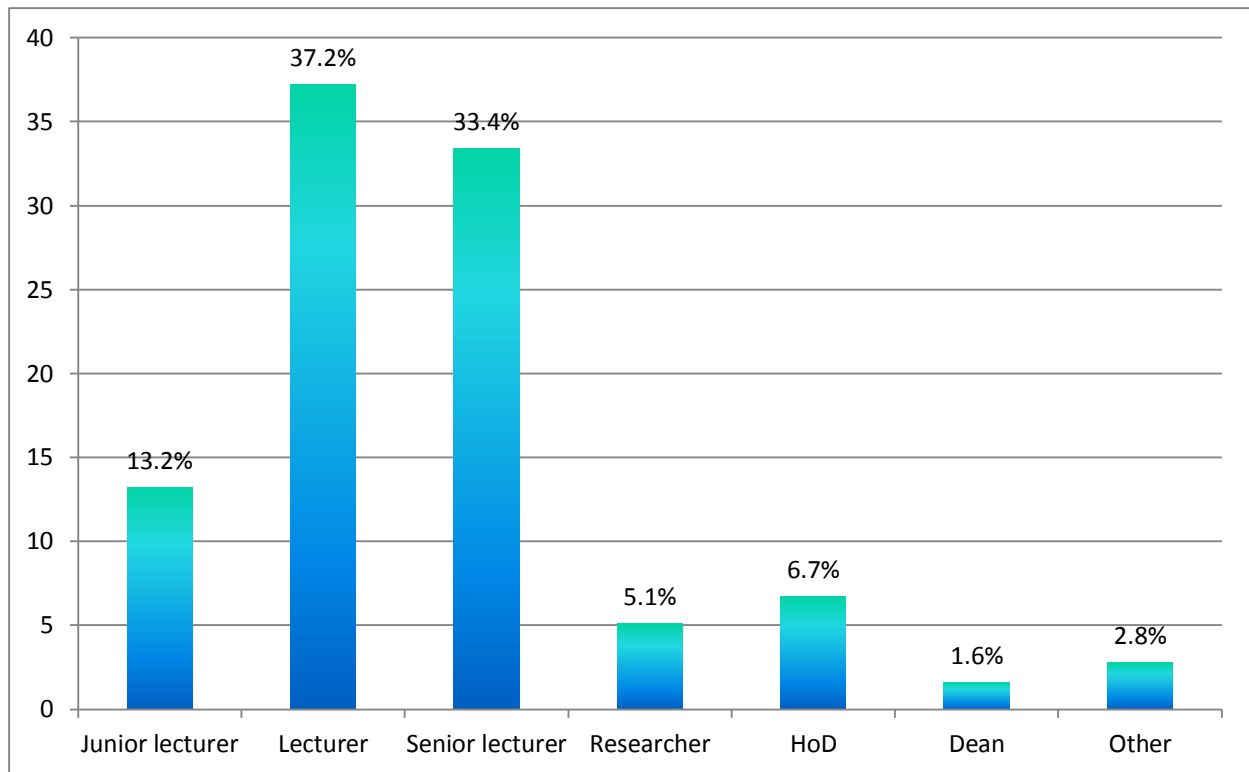


**Figure 5.2:** Gender of respondents

The representation of females in the education sector may be attributed to attempts by UoTs management to comply with the Employment Equity Act (EEA) 55 of 1998. The South African government implemented EEA to advance people who were previously disadvantaged, and women form part of such a group (Tinarelli 2011:12). Therefore, it may be argued that employment equity legislation and the resultant strategies upon which UoTs embark, is changing the composition of the workforce, albeit gradually.

### **5.3.1.3 Position held in the university**

Figure 5.3 depicts the job titles or positions of the respondents within their respective faculties. It can be seen that 13.2% (n=65) of respondents are appointed as junior lecturers. In most universities, junior lectureship positions are used as developmental positions for candidates who are engaged with their master's studies. These positions prepare them to occupy lecturer's positions upon completion of a master's degree (Adams 2002:10).

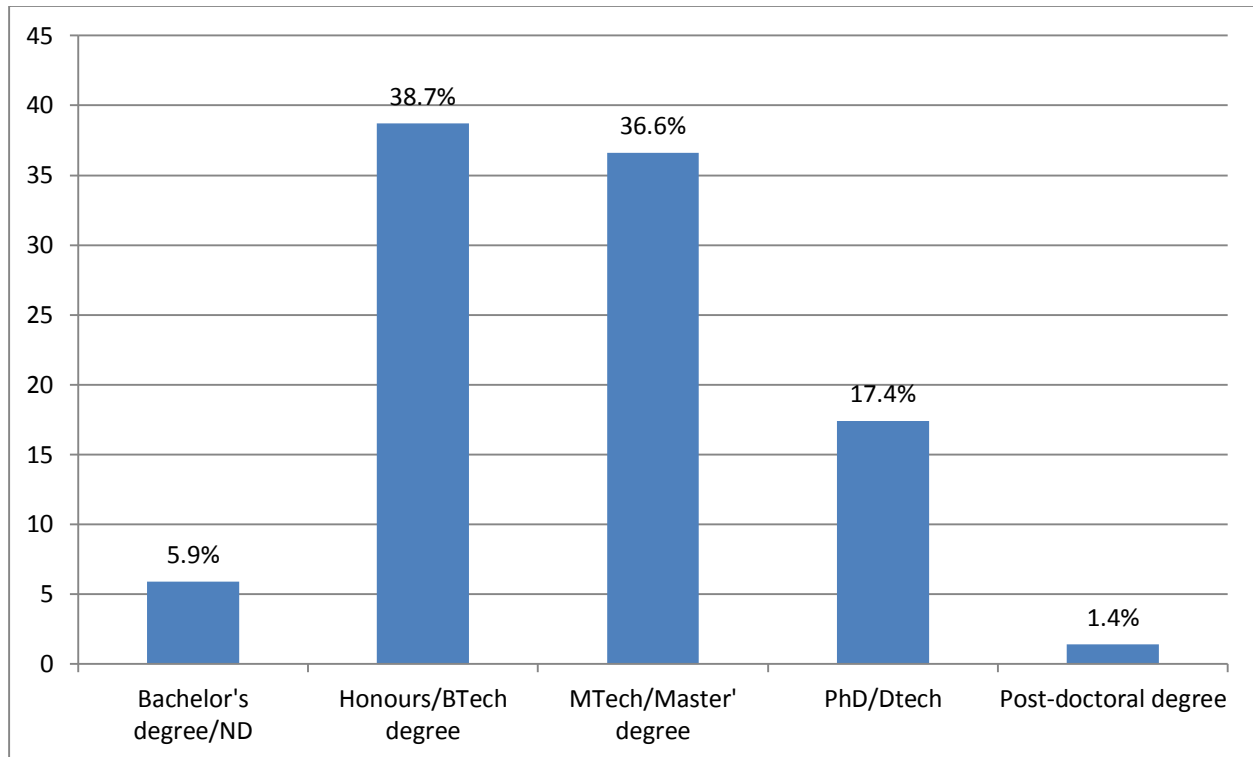


**Figure 5.3:** Position held in the university

The results of the study reveal that the majority of academics, 37.2% (n=184), are employed as lecturers. Drawing from history, technikons were transformed into universities of technology. Technikons focused more on teaching and had low research outputs. This was aggravated by the fact that the majority of academics within these institutions held qualifications lower than a master's degree (Cooper 1995:244). The sample further reveals that 33.4% (n=165) of participants hold senior lecturer positions. According to Ward and Sloane (2000:275) the low number of senior lecturers is informed by the fact that the attraction, retention and the remuneration scales of academics may have not kept the pace with other sectors. Approximately 5.1% (n=25) of respondents indicate that they are employed as researchers. A doctoral degree coupled with an extensive number of publications in accredited journals and other research outputs is a minimum requirement for appointment as a researcher. There is an absolute scarcity of researchers and this is a new and emerging occupation within South African universities of technology (Nieuwenhuizen 2009:310).

#### 5.3.1.4 Qualification

Figure 5.4 depicts respondents' highest academic qualifications. Approximately 38.7% (n=191) of respondents hold an Honours or BTech degree.



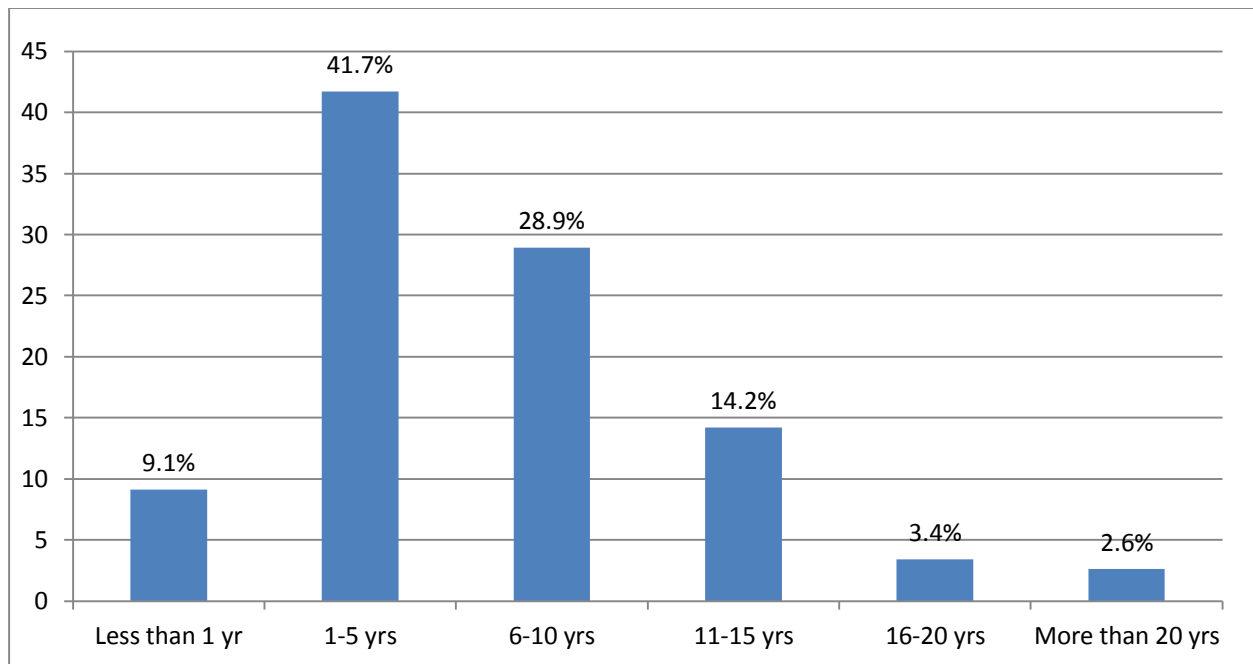
**Figure 5.4:** Qualification

The results further indicate that 36.6% (n=181) of the respondents hold an MTech/master's degree. Only 17.4% (n=86) of respondents hold a PhD or DTech qualification. Since university of technology is a new phenomenon in South Africa, it is understandable when a low percentage of academics hold PhD within UoTs. When technikons were transformed into UoTs, academics in these institutions were given a time frame and support to upgrade their qualifications. However, most academics take several years of extended degree study to complete a PhD (Jansen 2003:9).



### 5.3.1.5 Length of service

Figure 5.5 depicts the length of service or tenure of the respondents with the institution. The study revealed that 9.1% (n=45) of respondents have served the institutions for less than one year.

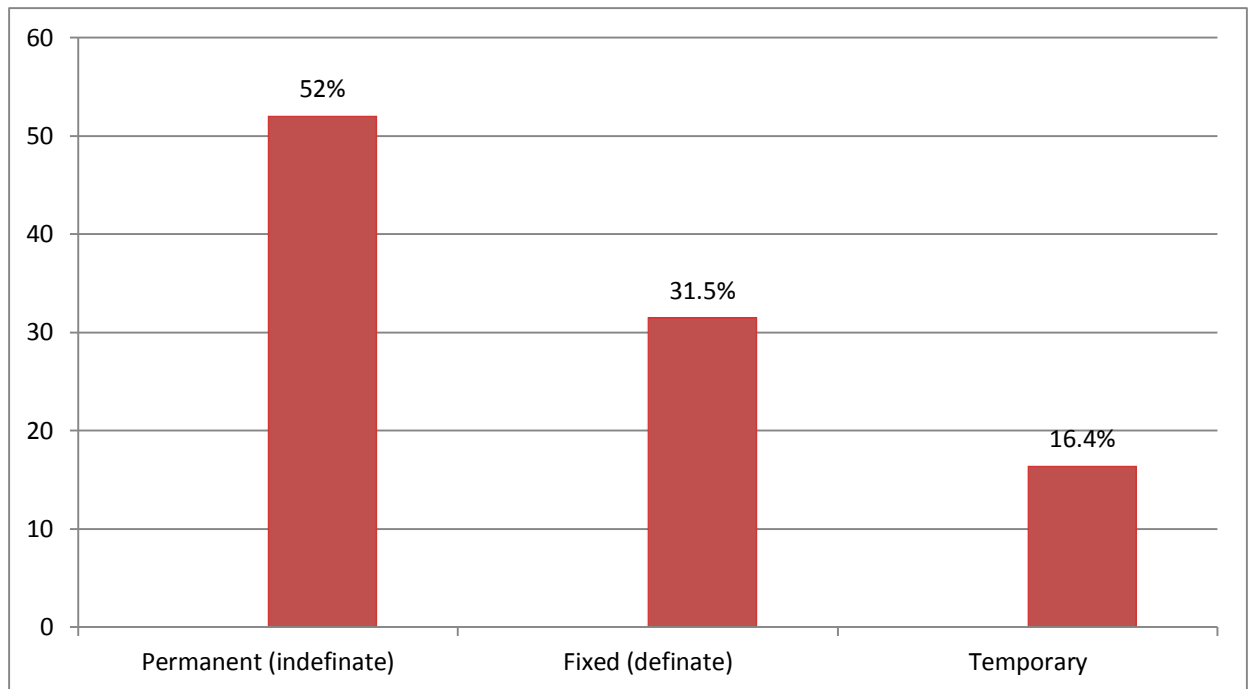


**Figure 5.5:** Length of service

Approximately 41.7% (n=206) of respondents worked for their institution between 1 to 5 years, while 28.9% (n=143) served the organisation between 6 to 10 years. Approximately 14.2% (n=70) of the sample has served their institution between 11 to 15 years. Approximately 3.4% (n=17) served their institution between 16 to 20 years, while 2.6% (n=13) of the respondents served their institution for more than 20 years.

### 5.3.1.6 Status of contract of employment

Figure 5.6 depicts the status of the contract of employment. Approximately 52% (n=237) of respondents indicated that they have signed a permanent contract of employment with the employer.



**Figure 5.6:** Status of the contract of employment

The study also reveals that 31.5% (n=156) of academic staff is employed on fixed-term contracts of employment. Bryson and Barnes (2001:230) found a steadily increase in the use of fixed-term contract of employment in higher education. Approximately 16.4% (n=81) of respondents indicated that they are employed on a temporary basis. By their temporary nature, temporary staff are assumed to be transitory.

The next sub-section discusses the correlations between the study constructs.

### **5.3.2 Correlation analysis**

In examining the relationship between job satisfaction, turnover intention, absenteeism, organisational commitment and work performance, correlations were computed using Spearman correlation coefficients to establish the strength and direction of the relationships. The results are reported in Table 5.2.

**Table 5.2: Correlations between constructs**

Variables	JS	TI	ABS	OC	WP
Job satisfaction (JS)	1.000	-0.358**	-0.223**	0.401**	0.442**
Turnover intention (TI)	-0.358**	1.000	0.285**	-0.447**	-0.295**
Absenteeism (ABS)	-0.223**	0.285 **	1.000	-0.185**	-0.284**
Organisational commitment (OC)	0.401**	-0.447**	-0.185**	1.000	0.224**
Work performance (WP)	0.442**	-0.295**	-0.284**	0.224**	1.000

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

Job satisfaction showed negative significant correlations with turnover intention ( $r = -0.358$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). This implies that if academics are satisfied with their jobs the propensity to leave the organisation is reduced. Research has shown that there is an inverse correlation between high levels of job satisfaction and low levels of turnover intention. Understanding this connection can provide employers with solutions to intervene in order to lower an individual's intention to leave a university (Terranova 2008:38).

Job satisfaction showed negative significant correlations with absenteeism ( $r = -0.223$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). This implies that if academics are satisfied with their jobs there is less tendency to become absent from work. Camp and Lambert (2006:148) states that dissatisfied employees abuse their sick leave to withdraw from the workplace. Josias (2005:7) highlights that when a job is satisfying employees report to work regularly to enjoy it. This justifies the strong correlation between these two variables.

Job satisfaction showed positive significant medium correlations with organisational commitment ( $r = 0.401$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). This implies that if academics are satisfied with their jobs their level of commitment to the organisation is positive. A strong correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has been established empirically, yielding a positive association (Kotze & Roodt 2005:50). Since there is a statistically positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the impression is

that if employees' levels of satisfaction improve, then levels of organisational commitment would be affected in a positive direction (Azeem 2010:297).

Job satisfaction showed positive significant correlations with work performance ( $r = 0.442$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). This implies that if academics are satisfied with their jobs there is a high tendency to perform better. Zadran, Tariq, and Ahmed (2014:5034) found that the majority of employees who are performing below the required standard are less satisfied with their jobs. According to the expectancy theory the level of job satisfaction is the determinant of the level of work performance (Mguqulwa 2008:36).

Turnover intention showed positive significant correlations with absenteeism ( $r = +0.285$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). This implies that if academics intentions to leave the organisation are high, their rate of absence from work also increases. A study by Carraher and Buckley (2008:93) revealed that employee's intentions to search for a new job is positively related to his/her poor attendance. Many theories (e.g. Mobley's model of employee turnover decision process, and Meyer & Allen's model of organisational commitment) hypothesise that people who developed negative attitudes towards their jobs, mostly intent to quit by searching for alternative jobs. During the search of employment opportunities these employees absent themselves from work or come late to work (Cohen & Golan 2007:418).

Turnover intention showed negative significant correlations with organisational commitment ( $r = -0.447$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). This implies that if academics intentions to leave the organisations are high, their level of commitment to the organisation is low. The existing literature attests to this relationship (Yousef 2000:10), subsumed with research findings which confirm that organisationsal commitment has a significant negative correlation with turnover intentions (Pare & Tremblay 2007:326-357; Perez 2008:56). Hence, stronger commitment to the organisation normally discourages employees from leaving the organisation (Keller 1984:177).

Turnover intention showed negative significant correlations with work performance ( $r = -0.295$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). This implies that if academics intentions to leave the organisations are

high, their level of performance declines. Research has shown that lower turnover intentions lead to high work performance. When employees have a sense of commitment to the organisation they lower their intentions to quit. Such lower intentions are associated with greater performance (Jaramillo, Mulki & Solomon 2006:271).

Absenteeism showed negative significant correlations with organisational commitment ( $r = -0.185$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). This implies that if academics' commitment to the organisation increases their rate of absenteeism decreases. There is considerable evidence that committed employees have better records of attendance than those with weak commitment (Ng, Sorensen & Yim 2009:763). Hausknecht *et al.* (2008b:1) concur that high levels of absenteeism are attributed to lower levels of organisational commitment.

Absenteeism showed negative significant correlations with work performance ( $r = -0.284$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). This implies that if academics' absenteeism rate increases their level of work performance decreases. The impact of absenteeism in the workplace is enormous in many respects, including lost productivity, and poor quality of service. This stems from low levels of work performance as a result of absenteeism (Mayfield & Mayfield 2009:3111). It was reported that employee's attendance is used in organisations as an indicator of noteworthy work performance where frequent absences often resulted in negative performance. These findings corroborate with the findings of Bycio (1992:186) where negative relationships between these two constructs were also found.

Organisational commitment showed positive significant correlations with work performance ( $r = 0.224$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ). This implies that if academics' commitment to the organisation increases, their work performance rate also improves. According to Riketta (2002:257) employees who are attached to and identify with the organisation work hard and become better performers. Some evidence exists to support this argument, but the degree of correlation is inconsistent across samples and measures of performance. Many researchers examined consequences of organisational commitment and work performance has been found to have a strong positive correlation with organisation commitment (Wong & Wong 2002:582).

### 5.3.3 Factor analysis

Factor analysis was used to reduce the number of variables to a smaller number of dimensions which explains what is common among the original set of variables. Factor analysis was not performed for the job satisfaction survey (JSS), intention to stay questionnaire (ISQ), and absenteeism questionnaire (AQ) because these measuring instruments were uni-dimensional using a global evaluation scales. However, a principal factor analyses was performed for organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) and individual work performance questionnaire (IWPQ). Each measuring instrument was factor analysed according to the procedure as discussed in chapter 4 at Section 4.11.2. In order to determine whether data is suitable for factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) and a Bartlett's test of sphericity were respectively conducted, prior to factor analysis. Table 5.3 reports on the final results of KMO and Bartlett's tests of the OC

#### 5.3.3.1 Organisational commitment

The table 5.3 indicates that the Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant at  $p < 0.000$  inferring that the set of data is not an identity matrix with zero correlations. The test revealed a chi-square value ( $\chi^2$ ) of 3125.059 and a KMO measure of sampling adequacy at a value of 0.897 ( $> 0.50$ ). On the basis of these results, it is concluded that the matrix is suitable for further factor analysis.

**Table 5.3: KMO and Bartlett's test of the item intercorrelation matrix of the OC**

	Values
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	0.897
Bartlett's test of sphericity approximate chi-square	3125.059
Degree of freedom	105
<i>p</i> -value	0.000

Table 5.4 provides the results after rotating all the variables. The attained factor matrix was rotated using the varimax rotation using Kaiser normalisation. Only those factors with loadings higher than 0.5 were retained for analysis.

**Table 5.4: Rotated and sorted factor matrix of the OC**

Components				
Item	F1	F2	F3	F4
I would not leave this university right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	.728			
This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.795			
Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave this university now	.750			
I owe a great deal to this university	.704			
I feel emotionally attached to this university		.703		
I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now		.603		
I feel like “part of family” at my organisation		.818		
This university deserves my loyalty		.719		
Even if it was to my advantage, I do not feel it is right to leave this university now			.595	
I really feel as if this university’s problems are my own			.686	
Right now, staying with my employer is a matter of necessity as much as a desire			.799	
I feel a strong sense of “belonging” to this university			.601	
It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now even if I wanted to				.880
I feel an obligation to remain with my current employer				.801
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this university				.658
<b>Eigenvalues</b>	6.19	1.39	1.18	1.00
% of variance	41.28	9.312	7.88	6.69
Cumulative %	41.28	50.59	58.47	65.17

All four factors are considered to have sufficient representation as they accounted for more than 60% of the cumulative (62.5%) explained variance. The constructs were labelled as moral imperative, continuance commitment, indebted obligation and affective commitment.

Factor one, labelled **indebted obligation** consists of four items and accounted for 41.3% of the variance. This dimension is concerned with an employee's ethical responsibility: a line of conduct or behaviour judged as the right one, by a majority of people within a community (Markovits, Ullrich, van Dick & Davis 2008:486). Meyer and Maltin (2010:329) report that employees experience indebted obligation when strong normative commitment (moral commitment) combines with weak affective commitment.

The second factor, labelled **affective commitment** consists of four items that explained 9.3% of the variance. Conceptually, this dimension emphasises a sense of belonging and emotional attachment of the employee to the organisation (Brown 2003:41). Research shows that there are employees who put efforts into their work beyond what is instrumentally required for the expected rewards. This behaviour is attributed to the affective component of organisational commitment (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001:825).

The third factor, labelled **continuance commitment** consists of four items and accounted for 7.9% of the variance. This dimension relates to an instrumental attachment to the organisation, because employees associate with the organisation on the basis of economic benefits gained (Buitendach & De Witte 2005:29). This kind of commitment symbolises a sense of being locked within the organisation because of high costs of leaving. In other words, an employee has a willingness to remain in employment because of non-transferable investments such as retirement, formulated bond with colleagues or training opportunities (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler & Sincich 1993:953). Research findings reveal that many employees are committed to the organisations because irrelevant situational factors became agents of investment on their present actions (Iqbal 2010:17). This means that organisational commitment arises when an employee links unrelated



interests with a consistent line of activity by making a side-bet (Becker 1960:32). This refers to employee's investments that have tendency of yielding additional costs, which are not related directly to the original investment. Examples of such investments include employee's marital status, education, length of service with the organisation, age, and job or location assignments with the organisation (Shore *et al.*, 1995:1594).

Factor four, labelled **moral imperative** consists of three items and accounted for 6.7% of the variance. This factor demonstrates an employee's positive orientation on the basis of identification and internalisation with organisational goals (Zangaro 2001:15). Moral commitment is highly correlated with the meaning of the relationship. The results show that this kind of commitment is exhibited by employees who begin/have begun relationships with their employers through the conclusion of indefinite contracts of employment (Lydon, Pierce & O'Regan 1997:107). It was also found that moral exemplars (morally committed employees) are more agreeable and advanced in their faith and more willing to enter into close relationship with their employer and colleagues (Matsuba & Walker 2004:413).

### 5.3.3.2 Work performance

Table 5.5 reports on the final results of KMO and Bartlett's tests of the work performance.

**Table 5.5: KMO and Bartlett's test of the item intercorrelation matrix of the WP**

	Values
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	0.803
Bartlett's test of sphericity approximate chi-square	2219.372
Degree of freedom	55
<i>p</i> -value	0.000

From the above, it is evident that the Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant at  $p < 0.000$  inferring that the set of data is not an identity matrix with zero correlations. The test revealed a chi-square value ( $\chi^2$ ) of 2219.372 and a KMO measure of sampling adequacy

at a value of 0.803 ( $>0.50$ ). Therefore, it is concluded that the matrix is suitable for further factor analysis.

Table 5.6 provides the results after rotating all variables.

**Table 5.6: Rotated and sorted factor matrix of the WP**

Components			
Item	F1	F2	F3
I manage to plan my work so that it is done on time	.852		
I work towards the end results of my work	.892		
I keep in mind the results that I have to achieve in my work	.825		
I am able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort	.630		
I come up with creative ideas at work		.648	
I take initiative when there is a problem to be solved		.738	
I try to learn from the feedback I get from others on my work		.558	
I take into account the wishes of the stakeholders in my work		.696	
I think stakeholders are satisfied with my work/teaching		.694	
I am able to cope well with difficulties and setbacks at work			.875
I easily adjust to changes at work			.822
<b>Eigenvalues</b>	4.35	1.63	1.16
% of variance	39.57	14.85	10.59
Cumulative %	39.57	54.42	65.02

The constructs were labelled as task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance.

Factor 1, labelled **task performance**, consists of four items and accounted for 39.6% of the variance. This dimension is concerned with how accurately and efficiently the job was done (Mohammed, Mathieu & Bartlett 2002:796). Task performance bears a direct relation to the organisation's technical core, either by executing its technical process or by maintaining and serving its technical requirements (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmit

1997:75). The fact that this factor of the subscale explained the highest percentage of the variance indicates its value within the performance domain.

The second factor, labelled **contextual performance**, consists of five items that explained 14.9% of the variance. In essence, this factor is associated with behaviours that demonstrate self-discipline, persistence and willingness to exert effort in the workplace. This type of performance is exhibited when an employee goes beyond what is formally expected (Van Scotter & Motowidlo 2000:527). In aggregate, these behaviours improve organisational efficiency by freeing up resources that would otherwise be needed to handle disciplinary problems, solve communication difficulties, resolve conflicting demands, or provide closer monitoring of employee performance (Van Scotter 2000:81). There is evidence that contextual performance is a valuable supplement to the job performance criteria used in personnel selection (Motowidlo & Van Scotter 1994:475; Van Scotter & Motowidlo 1996:525).

Factor three, labelled **adaptive performance**, consist of two items and accounted for 10.6% of the variance. Conceptually, this dimension refers to adjusting to and understanding change in the workplace. Employers seek employees with high adaptability due to the positive outcomes that follow, such as excellent work performance and work attitude (Chen & Thomas 2005:828). A versatile employee is valued and important in the success of an organisation. Employees who display high levels of adaptive performance in an organisation tend to have more advantages in career opportunities than employees who are not adaptive to change (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan & Plamondon 2000:613).

In summury all three sub-scales accounted for approximately 65% of the explained variance which according to Malhotra (2010:48) is satisfactory.

### **5.3.4 Mann-Whitney U test results**

Demographic variables, namely gender and age are incorporated and analysed in this study on the basis of the following observations:

- The report shows that the highest number of academics is under 30 years old. Those who constitute this age group mostly are employed on temporary basis, from where the permanent employment numbers increase, but drop again for those over 60 years old. None of the age groups in academia shows more than 50% of permanent employment (Council on Higher Education 2011:1). Therefore, the status of the contract of employment (such as indefinite contract, fixed-term contract and temporary contract) has implications for job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance of employees (De Witte & Naswall 2003:149). These arguments necessitated this study to establish the relationship of age with the study constructs.
- There has been considerable debate about the position of females in the academic environment and the need to ensure that they are better represented and accommodated in the more senior posts and in the profession overall (Bryson 2004:188). The equity profiles of a number of universities indicate that there is a serious shortage of female academics (Nieuwenhuizen 2009:322). This study has shed some light on the barriers preventing female academics to meet difficulties in progressing up the occupational hierarchy.

#### **5.3.4.1 Gender difference with study constructs**

A non-parametric test, Mann-Whitney U test was used to test whether the two groups, namely males and females were similar in their perceptions in terms of job satisfaction (JS), organisational commitment (OC), turnover intention (TI), absenteeism (ABS) and work performance (WP). The results are reported in Table 5.7.

**Table 5.7: Mann-Whitney U test results: gender and study constructs**

	<b>Job satisfaction</b>	<b>Organisational commitment</b>	<b>Turnover intention</b>	<b>Absenteeism</b>	<b>Work performance</b>
Mann-Whitney U	22639.000	26176.000	24601.500	25629.500	27289.500
Wilcoxon W	53515.000	57052.000	52804.500	53832.500	58165.500
Z	-4.404	-2.082	-3.113	-2.457	-1.360
Significance	.000*	.037*	.002*	.014*	.174

Grouping variable: gender

*NB* significant at  $p < 0.05^*$

On examining Table 5.7, statistically significant differences were found between gender and job satisfaction ( $p < 0.000^*$ ), organisational commitment ( $p < 0.037^*$ ), turnover intentions ( $p < 0.002^*$ ), and absenteeism ( $p < 0.014^*$ ). However, no significant differences between work performance and gender was found ( $p < 0.174$ ).

Table 5.8 shows the results of the mean rank with regard to gender and the five study constructs examined in this study, namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance.

**Table 5.8: Mann-Whitney U test results: variation of gender with OB aspects**

<b>Ranks</b>				
<b>Constructs</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean rank</b>	<b>Position in mean rank</b>
Job satisfaction	Male	237	271.48	1
	Female	248	215.79	2
Organisational commitment	Male	237	256.55	1
	Female	248	230.05	2
Turnover intentions	Male	237	222.80	2
	Female	248	262.30	1
Absenteeism	Male	237	227.14	2
	Female	248	258.16	1
Work performance	Male	237	251.85	1
	Female	248	234.54	2

A discussion with regard to gender and the other research constructs are further elaborated in the forthcoming sections.

#### **5.3.4.1.1 Variation of gender with job satisfaction**

With regard to job satisfaction and gender categories, the mean ranking shows that males experience higher levels of job satisfaction than females. This is consistent with previous studies, which found that male faculty members have higher levels of overall satisfaction than female faculty members do (Tack & Patitu 1992:34; Callister 2006:374). Sloane and Williams (2000:487) also report that job satisfaction of females in the United Kingdom (UK) is significantly lower in male dominated professions. This is also true within the South African context where the academic profession was primarily dominated by males. Increased hours of work are also associated with lower job satisfaction of females who strive to juggle home and career responsibilities (Bender, Donohue & Heywood 2005:482). The most compelling factors that opens the gap between male and female satisfaction with their jobs are found to be promotional opportunities that lead to discrepancy in terms of benefits and salary received (Sabharwal & Corley 2009:541).

#### **5.3.4.1.2 Variation of gender with organisational commitment**

With regard to organisational commitment and gender categories, the mean ranking shows that males seem to experience higher levels of organisational commitment than females. The primary explanation for this difference may be that males are more likely than females to hold jobs with commitment-enhancing features such as autonomy, training, development and promotional opportunities (Barker 2009:231). Females in the past were often sidelined (Marsden & Kalleberg 1993:368). In a Canadian study, it was reported that females find the working environment to provide fewer coping resources with company policies that do not cater much for their gender status (Lieter, Clark & Durup 1994:63). These issues make females to feel powerlessness and less committed to organisations (Chen, Chen & Chen 2010:258).

#### **5.3.4.1.3 Variation of gender with turnover intention**

With regard to turnover intentions and gender categories, the mean ranking shows that females have higher levels of turnover intentions than males. Research also shows that female faculty members leave academic positions at higher rates than males. Females reported considerable feelings of exclusion and marginalisation because their competence is associated with traits of toughness and self-promotion, hence their desire to quit the profession (Callister 2006:368). According to Greenhaus, Collins, Singh and Parasuraman (1997:252) the tendency of females to have higher turnover intentions to leave their current jobs than males often is attributed to the enormous time demands of certain professions that present difficulties to employees who have extensive family responsibilities.

#### **5.3.4.1.4 Variation of gender with absenteeism**

With regard to absenteeism and gender categories, the mean ranking shows that females have slightly higher levels of absenteeism than males. While both males and females need to balance the demands of work and family life, females still bear the primary responsibility for domestic duties in most households. For example, women are more likely than men are to take time off work to care for a sick child, thus increasing their levels of absenteeism (Lingard & Lin 2004:411). Females prefer part-time work and flexible working schedules in order to accommodate family responsibilities more than males (Rhodes & Steers 1990:46). Therefore, it is possible that if these options are not available to them, it may influence their rate of absenteeism within organisations (Josias 2005:34). Johnson, Croghan and Crawford (2003:338) postulate that some differences in absenteeism between males and females caused by traditional female roles will disappear slowly as more females join the labour force and follow long-term careers.

#### **5.3.4.1.5 Variation of gender with work performance**

With regard to work performance and gender categories, the mean ranking shows that males have higher rates of work performance than females. Drawing from attribution theory, the nature of these differences suggests a tendency for females to perceive the causality of their own performance less favourable to be readier than males to believe that their failures result from lack of ability (Rosenthal, Guest & Peccei 1996:146; Wang & Netemyer 2002:218). It is presumed that stronger feelings of competence and self-efficacy would serve as an advantage to higher performance amongst males (Judge & Bono 2001:80). Research indicates that there is relative egotism among men and modesty among women. This means women have shown a comparative tendency to explain away their success and to take personal blame for their failure. While this pattern fits with gender stereotypes of women's lower level of competence in achievement situations, it also evokes a cycle that constrains self-confidence in ability to performance at work (Rosenthal 1995:27).

The next sub-section discuss the Kruskal-Wallis test results with regard to age and study constructs. In order to examine the differences of the various age categories, the non-parametric alternative test to the one-way analysis (ANOVA) between groups of variance was conducted.

#### **5.3.5 Kruskal-Wallis test results: age and study constructs**

Kruskal-Wallis test compares more than two groups. Scores are converted into ranks and the mean rank for each group is compared. Table 5.9 reports on the chi-square tests regarding age and the various constructs and Table 5.10 reports on the mean ranks. The test revealed statistically significant differences in job satisfaction levels across all age levels. On examining Table 5.9 significant differences were found between the various age categories and the job satisfaction ( $p < 0.000$ ), organisational commitment ( $p < 0.000$ ), turnover intention ( $p < 0.000$ ), absenteeism ( $p < 0.007$ ), and work performance ( $p < 0.044$ ).



**Table 5.9: Test of significance: age category and organisational behaviour (OB) aspects**

	<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	<b>Organisational commitment</b>	<b>Turnover Intention</b>	<b>Absenteeism</b>	<b>Work Performance</b>
Chi-Square	25.110	33.238	26.309	16.073	11.403
df	5	5	5	5	5
Significance	.000*	.000*	.000*	.007*	.044*

Grouping variable: age category

*NB* significant at  $p < 0.05^*$

**Table 5.10: Kruskal-Wallis test results: variation of age with OB aspects**

<b>Ranks</b>				
<b>Constructs</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean rank</b>	<b>Position in mean rank</b>
Job satisfaction	Younger than 30	46	196.55	6
	30-39	178	226.20	4
	40-49	167	255.02	3
	50-59	64	297.26	2
	60-69	29	314.62	1
	70 or older	10	222.30	5
	Total	494		
Organisational commitment	Younger than 30	46	194.86	6
	30-39	178	215.31	5
	40-49	167	261.45	4
	50-59	64	307.75	1
	60-69	29	301.14	2
	70 or older	10	288.50	3
	Total	494		
Turnover intentions	Younger than 30	46	308.83	1
	30-39	178	266.58	3

Ranks				
Constructs	Age	N	Mean rank	Position in mean rank
	40-49	167	236.37	4
	50-59	64	203.84	5
	69-69	29	179.33	6
	70 or older	10	288.80	2
	Total	494		
Absenteeism	Younger than 30	46	232.74	5
	30-39	178	260.99	2
	40-49	167	249.86	3
	50-59	64	244.03	4
	69-69	29	158.40	6
	70 or older	10	316.50	1
	Total	494		
Work performance	Younger than 30	46	211.10	5
	30-39	178	240.58	4
	40-49	167	257.51	3
	50-59	64	264.24	2
	69-69	29	285.26	1
	70 or older	10	154.35	6
	Total	494		

Table 5.10 shows the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test for variational age with five organisational behaviour aspects examined in this study, namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance.

A discussion with regard to age and the various OB constructs are pursued in the following sub-sections.

### **5.3.5.1 Test of significance and variation: age with job satisfaction**

According to Table 5.9 a chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) of 25.110 was observed with 5 degree of freedom (df). The p-value was <0.000. These results indicate that there is a significance difference between age and job satisfaction. According to Table 5.10, with regard to job satisfaction and various age categories, the mean ranking shows that those academics in the higher age category between 50-59 and 60-69 seem to record higher levels of job satisfaction compared to age category between 30-39, 40-49 and 70 or older age categories. However, academics that are younger than 30 years seem to be somewhat in moderate agreement with their job satisfaction. The research shows that job satisfaction amongst younger employees decreased initially and then increased as their chronological age progressed. These results are further supported by a linear model of job satisfaction, which explains that as a young person starts the job, the level of job satisfaction is low. Job satisfaction increases for several years as the person grows older (Hulin & Smith 1965:209; Herrera 2003:5).

### **5.3.5.2 Test of significance and variation: age with organisational commitment**

According to Table 5.9 a chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) of 33.238 was observed with 5 degrees of freedom (df). The p-value was <0.000. These results indicate that there is a significance difference between age and organisational commitment. According to Table 5.10, with regard to organisational commitment and various age categories, the mean ranking shows that academics in the age category between 50-59 and 60-69 experience a high level of commitment to the organisation while those who are younger than 30 years have moderate commitment. Becker (1960:34) argues that younger employees have not invested much in the organisation and this makes it easier for an employee to disengage from a course of action. Hence, such employees experience lower levels of organisational commitment. The results indicated a trend emerging that as age increases, so does employee's commitment to the organisation. This corresponds closely to continuance and affective commitment. These results are consistent with previous research in which age

has been found to correlate with organisational commitment (Welsch & La Van 1981; Meyer & Natalie 1984:377). Employers, therefore, should not take it for granted that accumulated investments reflect a positive correlation between age and organisational commitment.

#### **5.3.5.3 Test of significance and variation: age with turnover intention**

According to Table 5.9 a chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) of 26.309 was observed with 5 degrees of freedom (df). The p-value was  $<0.000$ . These results indicate that there is a significance difference between age and turnover intention. According to Table 5.10, with regard to turnover intention and various age categories, the mean ranking shows that academics in the age category between 60-69 years and 50-59 years experience less propensity to leave the organisation while those who are younger than 30 years show high levels of intentions to leave. In support of these results, Ketchand and Strawser (2001:240) found that the younger the age of an employee at the commencement of employment, the greater the intentions to quit. This means that a variety of employment opportunities and reduced accrued investments enable younger employees to develop desires to leave their current organisations (Meyer, Allen & Gellatly 1990:715). What also emerged from this study is that academics in the age category of 70 years or older showed moderate levels of turnover intentions. From the continuity theory perspective, these categories of employees believe that retirement provides the best opportunity to pursue their activities of interest. This psychological process among older employees manifests through their intention to stay in the organisation as long as they can (Schmidt & Lee 2008:298).

#### **5.3.5.4 Test of significance and variation: age with absenteeism**

Table 5.9 shows a chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) of 16.073 observed with 5 degrees of freedom (df), with a p-value of  $<0.007$ . These results indicate that there is a significance difference between age and absenteeism. According to Table 5.10, with regard to absenteeism and various age categories, the mean ranking shows that academics in the age category between 60-69 years have lower rates of absenteeism. The majority of employees at this age group

are assumed to have completed a doctoral degree and qualified as senior lecturers. Generally senior lecturers have lower teaching loads with more research activities, which can also be performed outside the campus. This means their demand for absences have been reduced by making schedules more flexible (Hemp 2004:2; Cawood, Yilmaz, Musingwini & Reznichenko 2008:156). The academics in the age category 70 years and older showed high levels of absenteeism. Generally this age group constitutes pensioners who have retired and appointed on temporary and fixed term contracts of employment with little or no benefits with flexible working hours and working from home (De Wet 2001:80). Allen (1981:78) points out that absenteeism is significantly higher in jobs with low wages and poor benefits. Absenteeism of this age group is perpetuated further by chronic illnesses associated with old age such as diabetes, high-blood pressure or cancer (Avey, Patera & West 2006:43).

#### **5.3.5.5 Test of significance and variation: age with work performance**

Table 5.9 reports a chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) of 11.403 observed with 5 degrees of freedom (df), and a p-value was <0.044. These results indicate that there is a significance difference between age and work performance. According to Table 5.10, with regard to work performance and various age categories, the mean ranking shows that academics in the age category between 50-59 years and 60-69 years have high rates of work performance. On the basis of the age groups it can be assumed that these employees have been in the labour market long enough. Such experience involves the development of well-practiced work skills that an employee has accumulated in the occupation (Avolio, Waldman & McDaniel 1990:409). Over time, employee's level of skill and degree of mastery needed for the job improves the relationship between age and work performance (Ng & Feldman 2008:494). The academics in the age category 70 years and older showed low levels of work performance. The decremental theory of aging shows that abilities such as dexterity, speed of responses, agility, hearing, and vision decline with age (Salthouse 2000:25). Human being's abilities measured by general aptitude test battery (GATB) have shown to be correlated negatively with age during 70s, which in turn affect work performance (McEvoy & Cascio 1989:11). This evidence leads to the assumption that work

performance declines with old age. Hence, physiological aging process can negatively affect the basic cognitive and psychomotor abilities required to perform work activities successfully (Keys & White 2000:78).

The next section discusses the results of the reliability analyses.

### 5.3.6 Results of the reliability analyses

This section discusses the results of reliability analyses. The internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach alpha) was computed for each of the factors identified.

#### 5.3.6.1 Job satisfaction item reliability analysis

Table 5.11 reports on the results obtained from the reliability analysis for the global scale of the job satisfaction survey (JSS).

**Table 5.11: Reliability analysis on job satisfaction**

Item	Item description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
JS1	I definitely like my job	.730	.845
JS2	I like my job better than the average worker	.623	.871
JS3	Most days I am enthusiastic about my job	.787	.833
JS4	I find real enjoyment in my job	.760	.838
JS5	I feel fairly well satisfied with my job	.647	.865

The overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.87 indicated an acceptable reliability. The correlated item-total correlations ranged from 0.62 to 0.78 and this is an indication of sufficient correlation of each item with the construct (refer to Table 5.11).

### 5.3.6.2 Organisational commitment item reliability analysis

Organisational commitment was analysed on the basis of the four constructs scale, namely moral imperative scale (MIS), continuance commitment scale (CCS), indebted obligation scale (IOS), and affective commitment scale (ACS). Table 5.12 reports on the results obtained from the reliability analysis of MIS, CCS, IOS, and ACS.

**Table 5.12: Reliability analysis on moral imperative, continuance commitment, indebted obligation, and affective commitment**

<b>Moral imperative scale (MIS)</b>			
<b>Item</b>	<b>Item description</b>	<b>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
OC1	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now even if I wanted to	.671	.687
OC2	I feel an obligation to remain with my current employer	.710	.646
OC3	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this university	.546	.810
<b>Continuance commitment scale (CCS)</b>			
<b>Item</b>	<b>Item description</b>	<b>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
OC5	Even if it was to my advantage, I do not feel it is right to leave this university now	.539	.703
OC6	I really feel as if this university's problems are my own	.602	.667
OC7	Right now, staying with my employer is a matter of necessity as much as a desire	.537	.705
OC8	I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to this	.526	.710

	university		
<b>Indebted obligation scale (IOS)</b>			
<b>Item</b>	<b>Item description</b>	<b>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
OC15	I would not leave this university right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	.584	.793
OC16	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.698	.746
OC17	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave this university now	.657	.761
OC18	I owe a great deal to this university	.625	.777
<b>Affective commitment scale (ACS)</b>			
<b>Item</b>	<b>Item description</b>	<b>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
OC10	I feel emotionally attached to this university	.653	.752
OC11	I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now	.562	.797
OC12	I feel like “part of family” at my organisation	.709	.728
OC13	This university deserves my loyalty	.604	.775

The MIS comprised 3 items and showed an acceptable overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.794, indicating acceptable reliability. The correlated item-total correlations ranged from 0.546 to 0.710 indicating sufficient correlation of each item with the construct.



The CCS comprised 4 items and showed an acceptable overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.754. Furthermore, all correlated item-total correlations are above 0.5 indicating sufficient correlation of each item with the construct.

The IOS comprised 4 items and showed an acceptable overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.817. Furthermore, all correlated item-total correlations are above 0.5 indicating sufficient correlation of each item with the construct. It is also evident that the removal of any item will not improve on the already attained Cronbach's alpha.

The ACS comprised 4 items and showed an acceptable overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.811. Furthermore, all correlated item-total correlations are above 0.5 indicating sufficient correlations of each item with the construct. It can also be seen that removal of any item will not improve on the already attained Cronbach's alpha.

The overall Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for all four constructs of organisational commitment is 0.897 with 15 items. The correlated item-total correlation ranged from 0.471 to 0.627. Therefore, for this study, the organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) is a reliable instrument to measure commitment of employees to the organisation.

### 5.3.6.3 Turnover intentions item reliability analysis

Table 5.13 reports on the results obtained from the reliability analysis of intention to stay questionnaire (ISQ).

**Table 5.13: Reliability analysis on turnover intentions**

Item	Item description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
<b>TI1</b>	In the last six months I have thought of quitting my job	.744	.890
<b>TI2</b>	I frequently think about quitting my job in this organisation	.853	.867
<b>TI3</b>	I plan to quit my job in this organisation	.844	.870

<b>T14</b>	I have a desire to leave my job in this organisation	.834	.871
<b>T15</b>	I have actively searched for a new job in other organisations	.575	.927

The ISQ comprised 5 items and showed a satisfactory overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.907. The correlated item-total correlations ranged from 0.575 to 0.853 indicating sufficient correlation of each item with the construct. It can be seen that the removal of any item will not improve on the already attained Cronbach's alpha. These results attest to the reliability of the ISQ.

#### 5.3.6.4 Absenteeism item reliability analysis

Table 5.14 reports on the results obtained from the reliability analysis of absenteeism questionnaire (AQ).

**Table 5.14: Reliability analysis on absenteeism**

<b>Item</b>	<b>Item description</b>	<b>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
ABS1	I am always feeling courageous before my daily work activities	.494	.817
ABS2	There are no disruptions in the amount of sleep I get before my scheduled academic activities	.691	.725
ABS3	My work is not interfering with activities going on at home	.698	.722
ABS4	I enjoy spending a full day at work	.619	.761

The AQ comprised 4 items and showed a satisfactory overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.808. Furthermore, all correlated item-total correlations are above 0.5 indicating sufficient correlation of each item with the construct. It can be seen that the removal of

any item will not improve on the already attained Cronbach's alpha. These results attest to the reliability of the AQ.

#### 5.3.6.5 Work performance item reliability analysis

Work performance was analysed on the basis of the three constructs scale, namely task performance scale (TPS), contextual performance scale (CPS) and adaptive performance scale (APS). Table 5.15 reports on the results obtained from the reliability analysis of TPS, CPS and APS.

**Table 5.15: Reliability analysis on task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance**

Task performance scale (TPS)			
Item	Item description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WP1	I manage to plan my work so that it is done on time	.672	.832
WP2	I work towards the end results of my work	.802	.778
WP3	I keep in mind the results that I have to achieve in my work	.782	.785
WP4	I am able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort	.569	.875
Contextual performance scale (CPS)			
Item	Item description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WP6	I come up with creative ideas at work	.513	.716
WP7	I take initiative when there is a problem to be solved	.603	.686

WP8	I try to learn from the feedback I get from others on my work	.433	.744
WP9	I take into account the wishes of the stakeholders in my work	.549	.704
WP10	I think stakeholders are satisfied with my work/teaching	.527	.713

Adaptive performance scale (APS)			
Item	Item description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WP11	I am able to cope well with difficulties and setbacks at work	.581	-
WP12	I easily adjust to changes at work	.581	-

The TPS comprised 4 items and showed a satisfactory overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.858. It can further be seen that removal of any item will not improve on the already attained Cronbach's alpha. The correlated item-total correlations ranged from 0.569 to 0.802 indicating sufficient correlation of each item with the overall construct.

The CPS comprised 5 items and showed a satisfactory overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.756. All correlated item-total correlations are above 0.4 indicating sufficient correlation of each item with the construct. It can also be seen that the removal of any item will not improve on the already attained Cronbach's alpha.

The APS comprised 2 items and showed a satisfactory overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.735. This serves as an indication of sufficient reliability of the construct.

The overall Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the three dimensions of individual work performance is 0.838 consisting of 11 items. The correlated item-total correlation ranged from 0.433 to 0.802 and this proves that an item belongs to a particular construct.

Therefore, for this study, the individual work performance questionnaire (IWPQ) is a reliable instrument to measure employees' performance.

### **5.3.7 Results of the validity analyses**

This section discusses the results of validity analyses.

#### **5.3.7.1 Content validity analysis**

For the purpose of this study, content validity was assessed by a literature review in conjunction with the items on the measuring instrument for this study. This was done by searching for studies that identified factors that are relevant in relation to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism, and individual's performance. The factors found in such studies were included in the measuring instrument. The factors were used to measure the content validity.

#### **5.3.7.2 Face validity analysis**

For the purpose of this study, expert judging assessed face validity. Judges (human resource specialists & statistician) were exposed to individual items to evaluate the degree to which items are representatives of a construct's conceptual definition. In this approach, a panel of judges was given the definition of each construct and construct dimensions, as well as the list of all items. Judges were then asked to assign each item to one of the construct definitions or assign the item to a category labelled "other". Upon determining which items to retain for further analysis, the researcher adopted Allison's (1979:566) recommendation that at least 60% of the judges place an item into the same facet.

#### **5.3.7.3 Construct validity analysis**

In terms of validity through the factor analysis procedure, all the scales showed no cross-loading thus affirming construct validity (refer to Tables 5.4 & 5.6). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was also used to evaluate the construct validity of a set of conceptually

related measures (refer to Section 5.3.8). CFA is an important analytic tool for the aspects of psychometric evaluation such as the estimation of scale reliability (Brown & Moore 2012:3).

#### **5.3.7.4 Convergent validity analysis**

Convergent validity was determined through a correlation analysis and factor analysis. The correlation analysis showed sufficient evidence of convergence of the study constructs, thus providing evidence of convergence among the constructs (refer to Sections 5.3.2). The results of factor analysis revealed that the information was summarised into a smaller set of composite dimensions (refer to Section 5.3.3).

#### **5.3.7.5 Discriminatory validity analysis**

Discriminatory validity was confirmed through three distinct criteria. First, the correlation between the distinct variables in the confirmatory models was tested in order to ensure that they did not exceed 0.8 in terms of its correlation. Secondly, the researcher checked that a value of 1 did not show that it was in the confidence interval of the correlations between the distinct variables of the confirmatory model. Thirdly, the correlation between each pair of confirmatory model variables was fixed at 1 in order to carry out with a chi-square difference test (refer to Section 5.3.8).

#### **5.3.8 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)**

Prior to hypothesis testing, this study performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using analysis of movement structures 22.0 (AMOS) programme in order to establish the scale accuracy in terms of its goodness of fit. For the CFA, it is recommended that the item to total-correlation should be  $>0.5$  (Brown & Moore 2012:2). After initial factor analysis on organisational commitment, some items were dropped for the CFA and SEM from 15 to 11 items. Work performance scale comprised 3 factors with 11 items. Items were dropped to 6 in order to return item total correlation to 0.5 and above. Factor loadings

that were lower than 0.5 were also dropped for the CFA analysis by examining the standardised regression weights (refer to Appendix E).

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model of the five study constructs was assessed to check the model fit. The results are reported in Table 5.16.

**Table 5.16:** Model fit results

Measures	Values
CMIN	1260.779
The degree of freedom (DF)	475
The incremental fit index (IFI)	0.910
The Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	0.900
The comparative-fit-index (CFI)	0.910
The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.058

The overall model statistics indicate a chi-square (CMIN=1260.779) to the degree of freedom (DF=475), that is ( $\chi^2/df$ ) of 2.654, the incremental fit index (IFI) of 0.910, the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) of 0.900, the comparative-fit-index (CFI) of 0.910 and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of 0.058. All these measures confirm a robust and acceptable model fit (Schreiber, Stage, King, Nora & Barlow 2006:330).

### 5.3.9 Accuracy analysis statistics and composite reliability

The reliability of the constructs were assessed using Cronbach's alpha (CA) values, composite reliability (CR) values and average value extracted (AVE). The results are reported on Table 5.17.

**Table 5.17:** Accuracy analysis statistics and composite reliability

Research constructs		Descriptive statistics		Cronbach's test		C.R.	AVE	Factor loading	Highest S.V.
		Mean value	Standard deviation	Item-total	$\alpha$ Value				
Job satisfaction (JS)	JS1	3.886	3.498	0.730	0.877	0.863	0.562	0.701	0.196
	JS2			0.623				0.578	
	JS3			0.787				0.817	
	JS4			0.760				0.859	
	JS5			0.647				0.764	
Organisational commitment (OC)	OC2	3.649	6.975	0.568	0.892	0.885	0.373	0.591	0.201
	OC3			0.503				0.514	
	OC5			0.571				0.612	
	OC6			0.588				0.625	
	OC8			0.529				0.580	
	OC10			0.639				0.576	
	OC11			0.572				0.593	
	OC12			0.640				0.683	
	OC13			0.632				0.670	
	OC15			0.562				0.564	
	OC16			0.624				0.636	
	OC17			0.591				0.595	
	OC18			0.609				0.632	
Turnover intentions (TI)	TI1	2.540	4.603	0.744	0.907	0.905	0.661	0.752	0.201
	TI2			0.853				0.895	
	TI3			0.844				0.934	
	TI4			0.834				0.868	
	TI5			0.575				0.562	
Absenteeism (ABS)	ABS1	2.443	3.110	0.494	0.808	0.814	0.528	0.553	0.100
	ABS2			0.691				0.802	
	ABS3			0.698				0.832	
	ABS4			0.619				0.686	
Work Performance (WP)	WP1	4.064	3.212	0.618	0.868	0.826	0.551	0.615	0.201
	WP2			0.737				0.706	
	WP3			0.780				0.798	
	WP4			0.666				0.767	
	WP5			0.641				0.729	
	WP6			0.564				0.647	



The composite reliability values are all above 0.70, as recommended by Martin (2007:93). With Cronbach values ranging from 0.808 to 0.907 and the composite reliability ranging from 0.814 to 0.905, this study can conclude that the scales are reliable.

### 5.3.10 Model fit indices for the measurement model

Analysis of the proposed model commenced by proceeding with the calculations of the relevant indices as indicated in the previous chapter. The results are presented in Table 5.18.

**Table 5.18:** Measurement model results

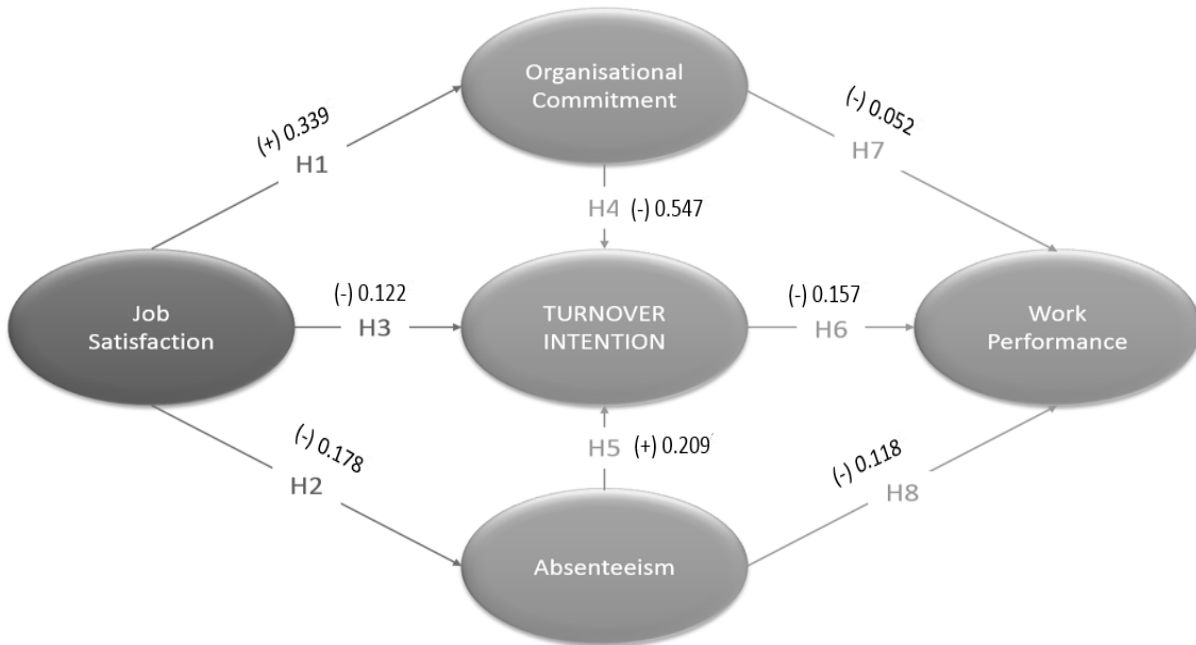
Measures	Values
CMIN	1129.759
The degree of freedom (DF)	472
Path coefficient (P)	0.000
The incremental fit index (IFI)	0.925
The Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	0.915
The comparative-fit-index (CFI)	0.924
The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.053

The chi-square (CMIN=1129.759) to the degree of freedom (DF=472), that is ( $\chi^2/df$ ) of 2.394 shows that relative chi-square measurement has an acceptable fit (less than 3). The incremental fit index (IFI=0.925), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI=0.915) and the comparative-fit-index (CFI=0.924) yielded good fit with their respective values above 0.90 which is an acceptable level demonstrating good model fit (Byrne 2013:129). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA=0.053) is below 0.08 (Steiger 2007:897), thus confirming an acceptable fit of the data to the model.

### 5.3.11 Path model and hypothesis testing

The structural model was tested using the loadings and significance of path coefficients (the strength of the relationships between dependent and independent variables) and the

amount of variance explained by independent variables. The structural path model is reported in Figure 5.7 and the results of the hypotheses are reported in Table 5.19.



**Figure 5.7: Path model**

**Table 5.19:** Results of SEM hypothesis testing

Proposed hypothesis relationship	Hypothesis	Estimate	S.E	CR	P	Results
JS → OC	H1	0.339	0.053	6.433	0.000***	Significant
JS → ABS	H2	0.178	0.063	2.813	0.005**	Significant
JS → TI	H3	-0.122	0.056	-2.164	0.030**	Significant
OC → TI	H4	-0.547	0.076	-7.176	0.000***	Significant
ABS → TI	H5	-0.209	0.047	-4.432	0.000***	Significant
TI → WP	H6	-0.157	0.049	-3.189	0.001**	Significant
OC → WP	H7	0.052	0.058	0.893	0.372	Non-significant
ABS → WP	H8	-0.118	0.042	2.823	0.005**	Significant

NB \*\*\*significant at  $p < 0.001$ ; \*\*significant at  $p < 0.01$ ; \*significant at  $p < 0.05$

In this study eight hypotheses were postulated and tested (refer to Section 1.3). The results reported in Figure 5.7 and Table 5.19 provide support for seven hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, & H8) and reject one hypothesis (H7). Those hypotheses that were supported are significant at a confidence level of either  $p < 0.000$  or  $0.01$ .

#### **5.3.11.1 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment (H1)**

With reference to first hypothesis **(H1)** job satisfaction is found to have positive influence on organisational commitment ( $p < 0.000$ ). Therefore, H1 is supported. Williams and Hazer (1986:225) tested a causal model to examine the determinants of organisational commitment and found antecedents of job satisfaction such as achievement, recognition, job content and advancement to influence organisational commitment. Similar conclusions were drawn by Tella, Ayeni and Popoola (2007:5) who reported that job satisfaction is important in that its absence often leads to reduced organisational commitment. Drawing from the social exchange theory, job satisfaction and organisational commitment reflect the perceptions of the exchange quality whereby the employee and the organisation are expected to fulfil their respective obligations to each other and establish ongoing reciprocity (Cook, Cheshire, Rice & Nakgawa 2013:54).

#### **5.3.11.2 Job satisfaction and absenteeism (H2)**

With regard to the second hypothesis **(H2)** the study shows that there is negative association between job satisfaction and absenteeism among the academics ( $p < 0.005$ ). Therefore, H2 is supported. These results imply that absenteeism reflects invisible attitudes such as low level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction among employees (Martocchio & Jimeno 2003:230). Thus, employees become absent to avoid the negative emotions associated with the jobs. Conversely, employees who are highly satisfied with their jobs will avoid withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and lateness (Sagie 1998:156). Previous studies also found poor levels of job satisfaction to be antecedent of absenteeism (Scott & Tayler 1985:608; Siu 2002:227). The literature further indicates that employees who dislike their jobs will avoid them temporarily by being absent (Cohen & Golan 2007:418).

### **5.3.11.3 Job satisfaction and turnover intention (H3)**

Hypothesis three (**H3**) indicated that job satisfaction is negatively associated with turnover intention ( $p < 0.030$ ). Therefore, H3 is supported. These results are in line with the findings of Hellman (1997:681) who also found the significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Scholars have concluded that a decrease in turnover intention occurs when employees are satisfied with their jobs (Lu, While & Barriball 2005:211; Hayes & O'Brien-Pallas 2006:238). This argument offers an explanation that when an employee develops a positive attitude toward the job and feel more satisfied with the job, he/she will be more willing to stay with the organisation (Chen 2001:652). The literature further shows that the factors which provoke employees' turnover intentions are centered on issues known to affect job satisfaction such as poor leadership, and lack of opportunities for development, rather than external labour market forces which are beyond employers' control (Coomber & Barriball 2007:299).

### **5.3.11.4 Organisational commitment and turnover intention (H4)**

The fourth hypothesis (**H4**) showed that organisational commitment has a negative significant influence on turnover intention ( $p < 0.000$ ). Therefore, H4 is supported. Organisational commitment has long been considered as important in management research because of its relationship to various outcomes that potentially impact on the organisation (Francesco & Chen 2004:425). Previous research affirms that when employees feel happy at work, sense of commitment develops, which in turn increases the intentions to stay with the organisation (Nipius 2012:11). The basic premise is that employees who have strong relation with the organisation have less intention to move toward another organisation than employees who are not effective and strongly committed (Sjoberg & Sverke 2000:247). The study by Meyer and Allen (1991:62) attests that organisational commitment is related negatively to intention to leave. Meyer and Allen's three-component model predicts commonalities among affective, normative and continuance commitment.

One important commonality is the notion that each component should have a negative influence on employee's decision to leave the organisation (Meyer *et al.*, 1993:539). It is argued that if each form of organisational commitment has an equally strong negative influence on turnover intention, the managerial actions should be directed at simultaneously increasing each form of commitment. This would be a complex exercise due to the broad and often contradictory array of antecedents that have been associated with the three forms of commitment (Park & Rainey 2007:198). The reported relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention is important theoretically because it purports to describe the influence of an employee's psychological attachments to the organisation on his/her intention to remain with or leave the organisation. Although there have been studies on the best practices in human resource management, most of these studies have been fragmented in identifying an effective mix of practices that could improve organisational commitment and intention to stay (Chew & Chan 2008:504).

#### **5.3.11.5 Absenteeism and turnover intention (H5)**

The fifth hypothesis (**H5**) showed that absenteeism is positively associated with turnover intention ( $p < 0.000$ ). Therefore, H5 is supported. These results are in congruence with Mitra, Jenkins and Gupts' (1992:885) study who found that absenteeism and turnover intentions tended to be inter-correlated. This relationship is also supported by Cohen and Golan (2007:419) who indicate that high levels of absenteeism is found in the records of employees who left (actual turnover) the organisation. Thus, employees who are not often absent from work are prone to have high intentions to stay with the organisation than those who are frequently absent from work (Albion, Fogarty, Machin & Patrick 2008:273). It was concluded that both absenteeism and turnover intention could be treated as employee's withdrawal reactions, but that the two reactions differ in their underlying dynamics (Yperen, Hagedoorn & Geurts 1996:253). Absenteeism should be considered as negative exchange behaviour where employees withhold their presence from work to make up for negative aspects of the job, which in turn trigger intentions to leave the organisation (Geurts *et al.*, 1999:255).

#### **5.3.11.6 Turnover intention and work performance (H6)**

The sixth hypothesis (**H6**) revealed that turnover intention is found to have negative significant influence on work performance ( $p < 0.001$ ). Therefore, H6 is supported. Previous studies provide evidence that employees who reflect high turnover intentions are not fulfilling their assigned roles and responsibilities effectively (Holzer, Stoll & Wissoker 2004:351; Abualrub & Al-Zaru 2008:229). Hence, the higher the turnover intention, the greater the likelihood of poor work performance (Jackofsky 1984:74). Companies that reported poor work performance among the workforce show that concerned employees exhibited the symptoms of intention to quit such as Internet job search, abuse of sick leave, longer work break than acceptable and lateness (Carraher & Buckley 2008:102). When an employee engages in any of these behaviours, his/her completion of job-related responsibilities is compromised and this results to poor work performance (Saeed, Waseem, Sikander & Rizwan 2014:245). According to Kanungo and Mendonca (2002:72), turnover intention creates a physical and psychological distance between employees and the working environment which is most detrimental to employees' work performance. Whatever the driving force behind employees' intention to leave the organisation, a decline in productivity has been the consequence (Eder & Eisenberger 2008:56). Bennett and Robinson (2000:352) conduct a study in the retail industry and found that among the employees who were intending to leave their organisations, 31% had intentionally worked slowly, 52% had taken a longer work break than acceptable and 33% had come to work late without permission. These behaviours relinquished the performance of employees which costs to the organisations have been estimated to be as high as R200 billion per year.

#### **5.3.11.7 Organisational commitment and work performance (H7)**

The seventh hypothesis (**H7**) shows that there is no positive association between organisational commitment and work performance, as this relationship is insignificant ( $p < 0.372$ ). Therefore, H7 is not supported. These results are consistent with previous studies, which reported that organisational commitment has relatively little direct impact

on work performance in most instances (Steers 1977:52; Matheiu & Zajac 1990:184). This justifies that the relationship between these concepts is very weak and slight. The conclusion that organisational commitment is largely unrelated to work performance is based upon the conventional view of commitment; an employee's attachment involves the relative strength of an individual's identification with a particular organisation (Meyer & Allen 1991:61). Support for this logic exists in the findings of Becker, Billings, Eveleth and Gilbert (1996:467), who report that most employees are unlikely to make relationship with a particular organisation contingent upon work performance. Hence, commitment based on identification generally would not be expected to increase work performance. Generally speaking, organisational commitment implies that an employee is psychologically and emotionally attached to the organisation and put forth efforts on behalf of the organisation (Burris, Detert & Chiaburu 2008:214), and one would logically expect these efforts to result in increased work performance.

Other researchers have postulated and found that organisational commitment is related positively to work performance (Somers & Birnbaum 1998:257; Riketta 2002:260). There is also evidence in the Western societies of a positive significant relationship between these concepts (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach 2000:550). The contradicting results between the current study and others might be justified by the fact that there is an increasing recognition of the impact of culture on organisational behaviour (Francesco & Chen 2004:427), where it can no longer be expected and accepted that other countries' results be applied to South African population.

#### **5.3.11.8 Absenteeism and work performance (H8)**

The eighth hypothesis (**H8**), shows that there is a negative significant association between absenteeism and work performance ( $p < 0.005$ ). H8 is supported. Previous research affirms that work performance is higher amongst employees who reported lower rates of absenteeism (Merill, Aldana, Pope & Anderson 2013:13). Meta-analysis revealed that frequently absent employees also tended to be poor performers on both rating and non-rating indices (Bycio 1992:218). According to Martocchio (1994:250) the negative

influence of absenteeism on employees' work performance is perpetuated by the following incidences: during an employee's absence days, the job piles-up and when an employee returns work situation becomes less familiar. With this background, it is easy to understand why both social scientists and managers believed that if absenteeism could be reduced, the human brake on productivity could be removed and turned into a workforce that would increase work performance (Cox, Shephard & Corey 1981:796; Viswesvaran, Schmidt & Ones 2005:108). However, it has been suggested that employees who use high levels of sick and family responsibility leave should not necessarily be classified as under-performing workers; the notion being that absences of this nature are beyond employees' control (Libet, Frueh, Pellegrin, Gold, Santos & Arana 2001:41). Kessler, Barber, Beck, Berglund, Clearly, McKenas, Pronk, Simon, Stang, Ustun and Wang (2003:157) counter-argue that the exclusion of sick and family responsibility leave from official figures of absenteeism masks the reality because they contribute to a type of absences that negatively influence employees' work performance and should be treated as such.

## **5.4 CONCLUSION**

Thorough the key findings of the empirical study, all the stated research hypotheses were addressed in this chapter. The pilot study results and demographic data describing the 494 participants in this study were presented. Descriptive statistics were presented representing the frequencies of responses. A correlation analysis was conducted to evaluate the strength and effect size of the relationship between the variables. Factor analysis was performed for organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) and individual work performance questionnaire (IWPQ) through statistical software package SPSS version 22.0. Organisational commitment revealed four factors and all of them accounted for satisfactory total variance explained of 65.2%. Work performance revealed three factors, which also accounted satisfactory total variance explained of approximately 65%. Mann-Whitney U test was used to test whether males and females were similar in perception in terms of study constructs. Since the results of this study came from different problems, the use of non-parametric test proved to be efficient to analyse results. Garcia,



Molina, Lozano & Herrera (2009:637) recommended the use of non-parametric tests when analysing the results obtained by evolutionary algorithms for continuous optimisation problems in multiple-problem analysis, due to the fact that the initial conditions that guarantee the reliability of the parametric tests are not satisfied.

Statistically significant differences were found between gender and four study constructs except work performance. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to examine the differences of the various age categories and the test revealed statistically significant differences between the various age categories and study constructs. The reliability results were also presented. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to establish scale accuracy. Through these procedures, it was determined that a high standard of validity and reliability was maintained throughout the study. Finally, the structural model was tested and seven postulated hypotheses were supported. Contrary to expectations, organisational commitment did not have significant relationship with work performance. Hence, the hypothesis was rejected.

The next chapter presents the evaluation of research objectives, conclusions, contribution of the study, recommendations, future research possibilities and limitations.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter addressed the objectives of the study by interpreting and analysing the key statistical findings of the empirical study. The focus of this chapter is to provide a summary of the broad research process, with the emphasis on the most important conclusions and recommendations. The limitations of the study, recommendations for further research, the value of the study and the conclusion is provided.

#### **6.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

This section addresses the evaluation of both theoretical and empirical objectives of the study.

##### **6.2.1 The evaluation of theoretical objectives**

- To conduct a literature review on employees' job satisfaction.
- To conduct a literature review on employees' organisational commitment.
- To conduct a literature review on employees' turnover intention, absenteeism, and work performance.
- To conduct a literature review on the causal relationships between employees' organisational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance.

**The first theoretical objective** was addressed in Sections 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4. The aim of this objective was directed at understanding the nature of job satisfaction. This concept was found to be well conceptualised theoretically, and defined based on sound and dominating theories of motivation. In accordance with the literature, several factors were identified as predictors of job satisfaction, namely salary, job security, interpersonal

relationships, leadership, organisational culture, company policies, conditions of employment, worker autonomy, possibility of growth, development and promotion, and job content.

**The second theoretical objective**, which was aimed at analysing organisational commitment was addressed in Sections 3.2, 3.2.1 and 3.2.2. The literature search on organisational commitment revealed that this concept should be treated as a multidimensional construct. This is informed by lack of consistent findings on the literal meaning of the concept. The following theories and models of organisational commitment shed some light as to the kind of data to be collected or factors to be included on the measuring instrument: the side-bet theory, social identity theory, O'Reilly and Chatman's theory of commitment, Meyer and Allen's model of organisational commitment and Etzioni's model of organisational commitment.

**The third theoretical objective**, which was aimed at understanding the concepts: turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance, was addressed in Section 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5. A literature review was conducted to achieve this objective. Firstly, the definitions of these concepts were given. Based on the literature reviewed, turnover intention constitutes a process, which incorporates attitudinal, decisional, and behavioural components. The key issues that emerged from the literature on absenteeism are that it should be classified into three broad categories that help to understand the nature of this phenomenon, namely sickness absence, authorised absence and unexcused absence. However, these three categories do not implicate treatment of absenteeism as a multidimensional construct. Many scholars generally agree on the theoretical development of turnover intention as a planned behaviour. It was noted that employees' behaviour is related directly to work performance, and understanding the determinants of employees' behaviour at work may allow organisations to improve employees' performance.

**The fourth theoretical objective**, which was aimed at understanding the causal relationships between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention,

absenteeism and work performance, was addressed in Section 3.6. In order to achieve this objective, the literature was reviewed and some previous research findings were visited. Job satisfaction was found to be important predictor of organisational commitment. It became clear in the literature that workers orientations toward a specific job precede orientations towards the entire organisation. Hence, job satisfaction is classified as a result of various job related variables, whereas, organisational commitment is more of a global response to the organisation. From theoretical overview, it was clear that organisational commitment has significant negative influence on turnover intention and absenteeism. The literature showed that when employees feel happy at work, a sense of commitment develops which in turn may lead to the intention to stay with the organisation. It also became evident in the theoretical findings that employees will be more likely to withdraw from organisations to which they lack commitment and this always will be reflected through absenteeism as a symptom. The literature search further revealed that the relationship between organisational commitment and work performance is positive and significant. The literature acknowledges that employees' performance is influenced by many factors but organisational commitment seems to be a key contributing factor, especially when loyalty and extra-role behaviours matters most.

### **6.2.2 The evaluation of empirical objectives**

The empirical objectives listed below are based on the relationships between the study constructs. In this study, six empirical objectives were formulated.

- To establish whether there are any significance differences between age of academics and their perceptions of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism and work performance.
- To establish whether there are any significance differences between gender of academics and their perceptions of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism and work performance.
- To investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment among academics.

- To investigate the effect of organisational commitment on the turnover intention.
- To investigate the effect of organisational commitment on absenteeism.
- To investigate the effect of organisational commitment on perceived performance.

In order to achieve **the first empirical objective**, the Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to examine the differences of the various age categories. The test revealed statistically significant differences across all age levels with job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism, and work performance. This relationship is demonstrated in Section 5.3.5.

In order to achieve **the second empirical objective**, a non-parametric test, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to test whether the two groups, namely, males and females were similar in their perceptions in terms of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance. Statistically significant differences were found between gender and job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, and absenteeism. However, no significant differences were found between work performance and gender. This relationship is demonstrated in Section 5.3.4.

In order to achieve **the third, fourth, fifth and sixth empirical objectives**, the structural model was tested and all the relationships between constructs were found to be significant. However, the relationship between organisational commitment and work performance was found to be insignificant. As such, the relationship constituted null hypothesis. These relationships are shown in Section 5.3.11.

### 6.3 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The value of this study is presented on its contribution made from a theoretical and practical perspective.

### **6.3.1 Theoretical value**

This study contributes additional information on organisational commitment. Since there is a lack of consistent findings on the literal meaning of organisational commitment to its treatment as a multidimensional or uni-dimensional construct (Meyer & Allen 1991:62), this research has contributed by further strengthening organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct (refer to Sections 3.2.1.5 & 5.3.3.1). Contrary to some previous studies that reported high levels of significance between organisational commitment and work performance (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson 1989:150; Randall 1990:370; Wong & Wong 2002:582; Riketta 2002:257), this study found no significance between these constructs with a more tenuous relationship, thus, refuting previous studies that found different results. These results contribute more to the expanding body of knowledge and exacerbates further debates among the scholars in this area. Furthermore, an understanding of the relationships within the context of the path model in this study offered further insight on how study constructs influence one another (refer to Section 5.3.11).

### **6.3.2 Practical value**

Being the first study to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance amongst the academics within the South African universities of technology, the current study added practical value in the following areas:

- Through the theoretical and empirical exercises, an integrative model has been developed for job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance (refer to Figure 5.1). The model can be used as an important tool by management within the South African universities of technology and other similar institutions of higher learning. Since the model paid attention to internal factors, possible strategies could be derived from the model by understanding and controlling predictors of job satisfaction. Thus,

management may be in a better position to increase levels of commitment and intentions to stay, and decrease levels of absenteeism amongst the academic staff. Once the above are in control, the academics will be stimulated towards better work performance, which is an important economic consideration.

- This study has assisted management of the UoTs by providing the current academics' perceptions on their job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance. The results of this nature can be used for future organisational planning and policymaking.

## **6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

This study has provided an overview of the relationships that exist among job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance. Based on the findings of the empirical study, the researcher has made a number of recommendations to guide management of the UoTs, governing bodies and higher education policy makers in South Africa in order to enhance better conditions of employment and address the plight of academic staff. The recommendations are singled out as per postulated relationships between the study constructs.

The results of this study showed that job satisfaction has a positive influence on organisational commitment. This serves as an implication that South African universities of technology should begin to work towards developing a deeper understanding of job satisfaction by developing strategies that will contribute to the improvement of the conditions of employment, which will later positively influence commitment of academic staff. Management should first determine particular aspects of the job that contribute towards satisfaction or dissatisfaction for the academic staff and this will enable them to determine areas, which require improvement. It is important for academic staff to be happy at work, given the amount of time they have to devote to the organisation throughout their working lives. Hence, organisational commitment cannot derive in vacuum.

The results further revealed that job satisfaction is associated negatively with absenteeism and this points to the need to improve organisational climate dimensions in order to enhance job satisfaction, which will in turn reduce absenteeism. Fundamental policy shifts should occur in the South African higher education sector with the introduction of modernisation plans and the implementation strategies for improving the working lives of academic staff. The researcher, therefore, suggests that universities should start rewarding their academic staff for good attendance records with proven productivity. The significance of good attendance and its benefits should be communicated clearly to employees. Viewing it from an employees' perspective, this may lead to a focus on improving the working environment and a culture of attendance. By putting this suggestion into practice, employers will be killing two birds with one stone, where employees will be motivated by rewards for their good attendance followed by a gradual decline in the rate of absenteeism. Based on this recommendation, it becomes vital that universities of technology recognise the degree of job satisfaction amongst the academics due to the high cost associated with continued unscheduled absences.

Since the results of the study revealed that decreasing levels of job satisfaction of employees result in a higher chance of considering other employment opportunities, it is recommended that management should pay more attention to intrinsic factors of motivation such as effective supervisory relationships and good opportunities for professional development and job autonomy, rather than external labour market forces which managers would justifiably feel unable to control. This is more relevant to the academic profession where academics are reported to feel more comfortable at work when they have good relationships with their line managers and colleagues and, have opportunities to pursue their own ideas and job security (Ssesanga & Garrett 2005:37).

The results showed that organisational commitment has a negative influence on turnover intention. Therefore, it is recommended that management regard lower levels of organisational commitment as a way of coping with an unpleasant emotional state, and also as a direct employees' attempt to reduce their contributions to the organisation in order to restore an equitable exchange relationship. Therefore, management is advised



to apply relevant remedies to the situation in order to avoid withdrawal behaviours such as turnover intention. The accuracy of the propositions also have implications for managerial attempts to reduce turnover behaviour, because turnover intention is the strongest, most direct precursor of turnover behaviour, which mediates the relationship between attitudes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover behaviour (Jaros 1997:321).

The study revealed that absenteeism is positively associated with turnover intention. Following the logic that absenteeism hints at the possibility of turnover, UoTs management should use absenteeism as a signal of an employee's intention to leave and should employ immediate strategies before the institution loses valuable workers.

This study found the relationship between turnover intention and work performance to be negatively significant. Therefore, it is suggested that South African UoTs are likely to benefit through lower levels of turnover intentions and higher levels of work performance if the academic staff experience high levels of job satisfaction. In the view of the importance of work performance to both the employer and the employee, it becomes crucial for employers to know the antecedents of high levels of work performance and address such with prudence.

Since the relationship between absenteeism and work performance is found to be negatively significant, deeper understanding of the relationship between these concepts would better inform UoTs management about the potential interventions necessary to achieve the desired goal of increased work performance, as well as lower absenteeism among academics. It is recommended that South African institutions of higher learning should strive to manage women and racio-ethnic majorities as successfully as they manage those who are coming from previously advantaged communities to avoid running into unnecessary costs. A study conducted in the United States of America (USA) on the cost advantage of managing diversity shows that the more accommodating the organisation is towards pregnant women and people with disabilities, the lower the number of sick days taken by these employees and the more productive they become

(Tinarelli 2011:130). Another study showed that absenteeism for employees who used company-sponsored child day care centers was 38% lower than absenteeism for employees who did not have use of this facility (Hall & Parker 1993:42). The UoTs benchmarking on these practices would lead to increased work performance and productivity because of reduced employee costs associated with absenteeism and unwanted turnover intentions.

## **6.5 FUTURE RESEARCH POSSIBILITIES**

Variables such as employee tenure, level of education, position/rank and status of the contract of employment should be studied further within the South African higher education sector. This is because these variables did not contribute to the explanation of variance in job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance in this study. This study only utilised a quantitative research approach. It is recommended that future research should use a mixed methodological approach techniques, which may contribute to creating a more in-depth understanding of the relationships between the study constructs. Another suggestion for further study would be to replicate this study by analysing population using different test instruments and different research techniques other than the ones used in this study, and then compare results with this study. Since this study found the relationship between organisational commitment and work performance to be insignificant, alternative methodology such as experiments may be able to provide more information about the causality between these constructs. However, researchers should take a precaution that experiments' ability to model complex organisational behaviour may be limited (Nouri & Parker 1998:478).

For example, regarding organisational commitment, a laboratory experiment might yield more information about causality than a survey approach, but stimulating organisational commitment in a laboratory setting would be a very awkward exercise. This necessitates a need for further research in order to overcome this challenge by investigating causality relationship between organisational commitment and work performance extensively

before firm conclusions can be drawn. One additional problem that is clear from the literature review is the lack of any consistency regarding item validity evaluation in the literature. Therefore, future research is warranted to establish procedures that researchers can use to strengthen scale development efforts.

## **6.6 LIMITATIONS**

This study focused only on the academics within the South African universities of technology. The former technikons that merged with traditional universities to form comprehensive universities and further education and training (FET) colleges were not part of this study. The nature of the organisational context in this study does not allow for generalising the results within the South African higher education sector. Out of six universities of technology only three granted the researcher permission to conduct the research. Although the size of the sample that participated ( $n=494$ ) was relatively high, it could be argued that the population in this study may not be representative of all academics within the South African universities of technology.

The possibility exists that the results of the weighting survey would have been different if all UoTs participated and if the participants had been more geographical representative of the population of the study. Problems such as omitted or uncontrolled intervening and moderating variables may also exist. For example, this study proposes that absenteeism negatively impacts on work performance (H3). A possible intervening variable in this relationship is diversity management, which was not examined in this study. Only self-reports of absenteeism were included instead of personnel records of absenteeism in order to maintain respondent anonymity and confidentiality. The survey approach, as used in this study, has limitations such as the use of self-reported measures and lack of control over who responds to the questionnaires. In addition, no effort was made to compare the results per institution because this would tamper with ethical rules as undertaken in Section 4.12.

## 6.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In the current study, the researcher tried to illuminate the dynamic relationships that exist between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and work performance. Taking these study constructs into consideration, attracting and retaining competent academic staff has now become the biggest challenge within the South African institutions of higher learning (Ssesanga & Garrett 2005:53). A plausible explanation might be that most academic staff members have an acute need to feel their contribution is worthwhile, appreciated and acknowledged (Rowley 1996:15). This need is particularly evident among the academic staff members who realistically recognise that they have no further worthwhile career aspirations, yet need reassurance that their existing skills are still valued in the ever-changing academic environment. The human element, in the form of intellectual capital, is the most sought-after commodity within the institutions of higher learning; and hence the importance placed on the needs of its employees. In particular, for universities of technology in South Africa to be able to serve the best interests of the nation, essential interests and the working conditions of the academic staff should be defended by those who are in control (*inter alia*, government, university management, university council, and trade unions) so that they can remain of utmost value to their employers and the society they serve.

The time spent on this research project was worthwhile and it culminated in the discovery of the best possible information, as per the objectives of the study. It is hoped that the developed model and recommendations will form an essential contribution towards the possible solutions of the specific problems at which this research project was directed. Despite the fact that this study adds to the body of knowledge in South Africa, prudence is advised - that the results of this study should be interpreted cautiously as they may not be completely relevant and applicable in specific settings because of the nature of the population and the sampling procedure utilised in this study.

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## **APPENDIX A**

### **Letter requesting permission to conduct research**

38-B Schiller street  
CW6, Extention 1  
Vanderbijlpark 1911

15<sup>th</sup> January, 2013

Dean: Research Rectorate  
University of Technology

**Request of permission to conduct research study**

Dear Sir/Madam

I am writing to request a permission to conduct a research study at your institution. I am currently studying towards Doctor Technologiae: Human Resource Management at the Vaal University of Technology, and am in the process of writing my thesis. The study is titled **“Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and performance amongst academics within South African Universities of Technology”**.

If approval is granted, self-completion questionnaire will be distributed among your randomly selected academic staff. The survey results will be pooled for the thesis project and individual results of this study will remain absolutely confidential and anonymous. No costs will be incurred by either your institution or your academic staff.

If permission is granted, kindly submit a signed letter of permission on institution's letterhead acknowledging your consent and permission for me to conduct this survey/study at your institution. I have attached all relevant supporting documents as per your requirements. You may contact me at any of the methods of correspondences below, and I would be happy to answer any questions or concerns that you may have.

Sincerely,

---

Mr AA Ntisa

**Tel:** 0736326703 / 0788532185 **Fax:** 0866110460 **Email:** [atang@vut.ac.za](mailto:atang@vut.ac.za)

## **APPENDIX B**

### **Ethical clearance certificate**



## VAAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

### RESEARCH AND INNOVATION ETHICS COMMITTEE MEETING RESOLUTION

Applicant:	Atang Azael Ntisa
Project:	Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism and performance amongst academics within South African Universities of Technology.
Institution:	Vaal University of Technology
Ethics Number :	20130225-2
Approved Yes/No:	Yes
Meeting Date:	2013-02-25

### EXTRACT OF DRAFT MINUTES

#### 5.3 Mr. Atang Ntisa

Ethical clearance approved for Mr. Ntisa to conduct study: 'Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism and performance amongst academics within South African Universities of Technology.'

The Chairperson asked that the Research Directorate share with Mr. Ntisa an example of a consent form in order for him to adjust his consent form accordingly. The date should be included as well as the signature of individuals to agree to consent. After changes have been effected, please supply updated informed consent form to the Research Directorate.

The Committee asked that the University's name be kept anonymous in the study and that the final report/findings of the study be shared with the Research Directorate for information.





VAAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

**RESEARCH & INNOVATION ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**

Applicant:	Atang Azael Ntisa
Project:	Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism and performance amongst academics within South African Universities of Technology.
Institution:	Vaal University of Technology
Date Approved:	2013-02-25
Ethical Clearance Number:	20130225-2
Approved: Yes/No	Yes

Approved by:  Date: 2013-02-27  
 Dr BJ Johnson  
 Chairperson: Research & Innovation Ethics Committee

**APPENDIX C**  
**Invitation Letter**

**38-B Schiller Street  
CW6, Extension 1  
Vanderbijpark 1911**

03<sup>rd</sup> September, 2013

Dear participant,

My name is Atang Azael Ntisa and I am a postgraduate student at the Vaal University of Technology studying towards Doctor Technologiae: Human Resources Management.

The title of my research project is **“Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism and performance amongst academics within South African Universities of Technology”**. This study will highlight problem areas within the Universities of Technology, aiding management to focus more attention to its human resources endeavours.

I am, therefore, inviting you to participate in this research study by completing the attached survey. This questionnaire consists of six sections. Before you complete the enclosed questionnaire I wish to confirm that:

- Your employer has given me permission for this research to be carried out.
- Your anonymity will be maintained and no comments will be ascribed to you by name in any written document or verbal presentation. Nor will any data be used from the questionnaire that might identify you to a third party. Please do not write your name anywhere on the questionnaire.
- On completion of the research a copy of completed research report will be made available to you upon request.
- Completion of the questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes.
- You are free to withdraw from the research at any time.

- If you have any queries concerning the nature of this research or are unclear about any question please contact me at [atang@vut.ac.za](mailto:atang@vut.ac.za) or 0788532185.

Your response and time is greatly appreciated. Thank you!

Sincerely,

---

**Mr AA Ntisa**

## **APPENDIX D**

### **Questionnaire**

## SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

### INFORMED CONSENT

- The primary objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, employees' turnover intentions, absenteeism and performance.
- Please note that participation in this research project is voluntary, and that the respondent may withdraw from the study at any time.
- Please read the following statements carefully and mark appropriate box with **x** to indicate your response to each statement.

I fully understand that my participation in this research project is voluntary, without any coercion and I may withdraw at any time.	Yes	No
--	-----	----

I understand that my participation in this research will not cause me any harm.	Yes	No
---	-----	----

The researcher/field worker has clarified and explained the details of the research	Yes	No
---	-----	----

### SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS

*In this section we would like to find out and know a little more about you. You are requested to put a cross (x) in the appropriate block.*

A1. Please indicate your age category.

Younger than 30	1
30-39	2
40-49	3
50-59	4

60-69	5
70 or older	6

A2. Please indicate your gender.

Male 1 Female 2

A3. Please indicate your position.

Junior lecturer	1
Lecturer	2
Senior lecturer	3
Researcher	4
HoD	5
Dean	6
Other (specify)	7

A4. Please indicate your highest academic qualification.

Bachelor's degree / National Diploma	1
Honours degree / BTech degree	2
Master's degree / Mtech / MBA	3
PhD / Dtech	4
Post-doctoral degree	5
Other (specify)	6

A5. How many years have you been working with your current employer?

Less than 1 year	1
1-5 years	2
6-10 years	3
11-15 years	4
16-20 years	5
More than 20 years	6

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

Permanent (indefinite) 1

Fixed (definite) 2

Temporary 3

## SECTION B: EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION

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

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



## SECTION C: EMPLOYEE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

*This part of the questionnaire is designed to measure the extent to which you are committed to the organisation. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by ticking (x) in the appropriate block.*

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	It would be very hard for me to leave					
<b>C1</b>	my organisation right now even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C2</b>	I feel an obligation to remain with my current employer	1	2	3	4	5
	I would be very happy to spend the					
<b>C3</b>	rest of my career with this university	1	2	3	4	5
	One of the few negative					
<b>C4</b>	consequences of leaving this university would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5
	Even if it was to my advantage, I do					
<b>C5</b>	not feel it is right to leave this university now	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C6</b>	I really feel as if this university's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
	Right now, staying with my employer					
<b>C7</b>	is a matter of necessity as much as a desire	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C8</b>	I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to this university	1	2	3	4	5

<b>C9</b>	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this university	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C10</b>	I feel emotionally attached to this university	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C11</b>	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C12</b>	I feel like “part of family” at my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C13</b>	This university deserves my loyalty	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C14</b>	If I had not already put so much of myself into this university, I might consider working somewhere else	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C15</b>	I would not leave this university right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C16</b>	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C17</b>	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave this university now	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C18</b>	I owe a great deal to this university	1	2	3	4	5

## SECTION D: EMPLOYEE'S TURNOVER INTENTIONS

*This section is designed to measure the extent to which you intent to stay with your current employer. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by ticking (x) in the appropriate block.*

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
<b>D1</b>	In the last six months I have thought of quitting my job	1	2	3	4	5
<b>D2</b>	I frequently think about quitting my job in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
<b>D3</b>	I plan to quit my job in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
<b>D4</b>	I have a desire to leave my job in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
<b>D5</b>	I have actively searched for a new job in other organisations	1	2	3	4	5

## SECTION E: ABSENTEEISM

*This part of the questionnaire is designed to measure level of absenteeism. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by ticking (x) in the appropriate block.*

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
<b>E1</b>	I am always feeling courageous before my daily work activities	1	2	3	4	5

<b>E2</b>	There are no disruptions in the amount of sleep I get before my scheduled academic activities	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E3</b>	My work is not interfering with activities going on at home	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E4</b>	I enjoy spending a full day at work	1	2	3	4	5

## SECTION F: INDIVIDUAL WORK PERFORMANCE

*In this section we would like to know more about your perceived work performance. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by ticking (x) in the appropriate block.*

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
<b>F1</b>	I manage to plan my work so that it is done on time	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F2</b>	I work towards the end results of my work	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F3</b>	I keep in mind the results that I have to achieve in my work	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F4</b>	I am able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort	1	2	3	4	5

<b>F5</b>	I am able to fulfill my responsibilities to meet my obligations	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F6</b>	I come up with creative ideas at work	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F7</b>	I take initiative when there is a problem to be solved	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F8</b>	I try to learn from the feedback I get from others on my work	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F9</b>	I take into account the wishes of the stakeholders in my work	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F10</b>	I think stakeholders are satisfied with my work/teaching	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F11</b>	I am able to cope well with difficulties and setbacks at work	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F12</b>	I easily adjust to changes at work	1	2	3	4	5

***Thank you for taking time to complete this survey***

**APPENDIX E**  
**Modified model fit for CFA**

MODIFIED MODEL FIT FOR CFA 7 OCTOBER 2014 STAGE 2

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	86	1260.779	475	.000	2.654
Saturated model	561	.000	0		
Independence model	33	9231.262	528	.000	17.483

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.060	.863	.838	.731
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.244	.276	.230	.260

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.863	.848	.910	.900	.910
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.900	.777	.818
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	785.779	684.333	894.870
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	8703.262	8394.953	9017.976

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	2.557	1.594	1.388	1.815
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000

Model	FMIN	P0	LO 90	HI 90
Independence model	18.725	17.654	17.028	18.292

#### RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.058	.054	.062	.000
Independence model	.183	.180	.186	.000

#### AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	1432.779	1445.520	1794.197	1880.197
Saturated model	1122.000	1205.111	3479.622	4040.622
Independence model	9297.262	9302.151	9435.946	9468.946

#### ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	2.906	2.700	3.128	2.932
Saturated model	2.276	2.276	2.276	2.444
Independence model	18.859	18.233	19.497	18.868

#### HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	206	215
Independence model	32	33

#### Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model)

##### Scalar Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model)

##### Maximum Likelihood Estimates

##### Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
JS5 <--- JS	1.000				
JS4 <--- JS	1.063	.056	19.061	***	
JS3 <--- JS	.972	.053	18.201	***	
JS2 <--- JS	.761	.061	12.461	***	
JS1 <--- JS	.915	.059	15.414	***	
OC18 <--- OC	1.000				
OC17 <--- OC	.925	.067	13.832	***	
OC16 <--- OC	.832	.070	11.820	***	



	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
OC15 <--- OC	.785	.073	10.709	***	
OC13 <--- OC	1.034	.084	12.289	***	
OC12 <--- OC	.963	.077	12.476	***	
OC11 <--- OC	.944	.085	11.129	***	
OC10 <--- OC	.988	.080	12.400	***	
OC8 <--- OC	.808	.074	10.988	***	
OC6 <--- OC	.904	.077	11.674	***	
OC5 <--- OC	.842	.073	11.481	***	
OC3 <--- OC	.726	.073	9.899	***	
OC2 <--- OC	.849	.076	11.148	***	
IN5 <--- IN	1.000				
IN4 <--- IN	1.436	.095	15.170	***	
IN3 <--- IN	1.502	.108	13.857	***	
IN2 <--- IN	1.489	.109	13.649	***	
IN1 <--- IN	1.281	.104	12.375	***	
AB4 <--- AB	1.000				
AB3 <--- AB	1.270	.085	14.962	***	
AB2 <--- AB	1.215	.082	14.761	***	
AB1 <--- AB	.792	.073	10.840	***	
WP6 <--- WP	1.000				
WP5 <--- WP	1.078	.081	13.275	***	
WP4 <--- WP	1.215	.088	13.765	***	
WP3 <--- WP	1.209	.086	14.128	***	
WP2 <--- WP	1.025	.080	12.853	***	
WP1 <--- WP	.946	.082	11.586	***	

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
JS5 <--- JS	.764
JS4 <--- JS	.859
JS3 <--- JS	.817
JS2 <--- JS	.578
JS1 <--- JS	.701
OC18 <--- OC	.632
OC17 <--- OC	.595
OC16 <--- OC	.636
OC15 <--- OC	.564
OC13 <--- OC	.670
OC12 <--- OC	.683
OC11 <--- OC	.593
OC10 <--- OC	.676
OC8 <--- OC	.580
OC6 <--- OC	.625

	Estimate
OC5 <--- OC	.612
OC3 <--- OC	.514
OC2 <--- OC	.591
IN5 <--- IN	.562
IN4 <--- IN	.868
IN3 <--- IN	.934
IN2 <--- IN	.895
IN1 <--- IN	.752
AB4 <--- AB	.686
AB3 <--- AB	.832
AB2 <--- AB	.802
AB1 <--- AB	.553
WP6 <--- WP	.647
WP5 <--- WP	.729
WP4 <--- WP	.767
WP3 <--- WP	.798
WP2 <--- WP	.706
WP1 <--- WP	.615

Covariances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
JS <--> WP	.172	.023	7.549	***	
JS <--> AB	.073	.023	3.142	.002	
JS <--> IN	-.147	.025	-5.943	***	
JS <--> OC	.191	.027	7.120	***	
OC <--> WP	.101	.020	5.013	***	
OC <--> AB	.049	.023	2.145	.032	
OC <--> IN	-.209	.029	-7.136	***	
IN <--> WP	-.124	.021	-5.906	***	
IN <--> AB	-.120	.024	-4.928	***	
AB <--> WP	.096	.020	4.709	***	
e32 <--> e33	.176	.019	9.451	***	
e8 <--> e9	.183	.026	7.104	***	
e6 <--> e7	.214	.034	6.329	***	
e10 <--> e11	.174	.028	6.309	***	
e22 <--> e23	.141	.023	6.252	***	
e17 <--> e18	.184	.030	6.175	***	
e4 <--> e5	.143	.023	6.165	***	
e31 <--> e32	.094	.015	6.399	***	
e19 <--> e20	.153	.027	5.551	***	
e12 <--> e13	.143	.030	4.726	***	

Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
JS <--> WP	.495
JS <--> AB	.169
JS <--> IN	-.349
JS <--> OC	.452
OC <--> WP	.295
OC <--> AB	.115
OC <--> IN	-.508
IN <--> WP	-.367
IN <--> AB	-.284
AB <--> WP	.275
e32 <--> e33	.503
e8 <--> e9	.381
e6 <--> e7	.337
e10 <--> e11	.356
e22 <--> e23	.412
e17 <--> e18	.317
e4 <--> e5	.332
e31 <--> e32	.357
e19 <--> e20	.308
e12 <--> e13	.251

Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
JS	.430	.045	9.569	***	
OC	.414	.056	7.372	***	
IN	.410	.063	6.566	***	
AB	.434	.054	8.025	***	
WP	.280	.037	7.538	***	
e1	.307	.024	12.765	***	
e2	.173	.018	9.748	***	
e3	.203	.018	11.424	***	
e4	.496	.034	14.582	***	
e5	.373	.027	13.654	***	
e6	.623	.044	14.149	***	
e7	.648	.045	14.402	***	
e8	.423	.030	14.136	***	
e9	.545	.037	14.589	***	
e10	.544	.040	13.745	***	
e11	.440	.032	13.621	***	
e12	.682	.047	14.373	***	
e13	.479	.035	13.719	***	
e14	.532	.037	14.559	***	
e15	.528	.037	14.257	***	

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
e16	.490	.034	14.351	***	
e17	.606	.041	14.852	***	
e18	.555	.038	14.464	***	
e19	.887	.059	15.075	***	
e20	.277	.023	12.034	***	
e21	.135	.018	7.566	***	
e22	.225	.021	10.574	***	
e23	.519	.038	13.800	***	
e24	.488	.037	13.029	***	
e25	.312	.036	8.686	***	
e26	.355	.036	9.911	***	
e27	.619	.043	14.413	***	
e28	.388	.028	13.799	***	
e29	.286	.023	12.674	***	
e30	.290	.024	11.879	***	
e31	.233	.021	10.986	***	
e32	.296	.022	13.629	***	
e33	.412	.029	14.097	***	

