JOB SATISFACTION AND INTENTION TO QUIT OF EMPLOYEES IN NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS IN SWAZILAND

by

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DECLARATION

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

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This dissertation is being submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Magister Technologiae: Human Resource Management.

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

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I hereby give consent for my dissertation, if accepted, to be available for photocopying and for interlibrary loans and for the title and summary to be made available to outside organisations.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my father – my inspiration − Mr. PB Msibi who has believed in my capabilities throughout my academic journey.

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to identify and describe the factors contributing to job satisfaction among employees of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in Swaziland and to understand the drivers leading employees to think of quitting.

Non-governmental organisations are institutions that provide employment opportunities in addition to the private sector and government institutions. The success of NGOs is determined by the availability and commitment of efficient and effective human resources. However, currently, most NGOs are highly affected by staff turnover and, therefore, the quality of the service they provide to the beneficiaries is affected and the financial and non-financial costs of filling vacant posts is significantly increased.

To investigate this, a quantitative study was conducted using a structured questionnaire. A total of 300 employees working in NGOs throughout Swaziland were invited to complete the questionnaire and 197 useable responses were collected. The reliability (Cronbach's Alpha) and construct validity (factor analysis) of the questionnaire were determined. This questionnaire was found to be reliable and valid.

The statistical results obtained in this study showed that both forms of job satisfaction (intrinsic and extrinsic) have an inverse relationship with employees' intentions to quit and that intrinsic job satisfaction was found to have a stronger influence on intention to quit.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction (JS) plays an integral part in the success of any organisation. Organisations have, over the years, tried to come up with strategies aimed at retaining their good employees, but have been overlooking job satisfaction as a determining factor to any staff retention strategies. Recent studies on job satisfaction have indicated that there is a direct link between JS and staff retention and performance (Tzeng 2002:2; Riley 2006:12; Mtengezo 2008:13). Hoppock as cited in Tang (2006:48) describes JS as "any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that causes a person to say 'I am satisfied with my job'". Best and Thurston (2004:284) assert that, satisfied employees tend to be more productive, creative and committed to their employers.

Job satisfaction can be described as an emotional reaction to the job, resulting from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with the required outcomes (Adolphs & Damasio, 2001:27). Heslop, Smith, Metcalf and Macleod (2002:1593) explain this comparison by stating that employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment. This means that employees will experience JS if they feel that their individual capacities, experience and values can be organised in their work environment and that the work environment offers them opportunities and rewards (Rothmann 2008:13).

In the late 1900s, employees were seen as a production factor and motivation was linked to financial reward only (Taylor as cited by Grobler, Warnich, Carell, Elbert & Hatfield 2011:6). However, as behavioural scientists started moving into the field of motivation research, emphasis was placed on the individual as a unique being with specific needs. JS in the workplace is a stimulating function that every organisation has to ensure in order to reach its organisational goal (Fox 2006:60).

Bowling (2007:175) and Doughty, May, Butell and Tong (2002:193) state that empirical evidence consistently indicates that job characteristics such as pay satisfaction, opportunities for promotion, task clarity and relationships with co-workers and supervisors have significant effects on JS of employees. Maslow, as cited by Marx, Van Rooyen, Bosch and Reynders (2002:5), suggests that human needs form a five-level hierarchy, ranging from physiological needs, safety, belongingness and love, esteem, to self-actualisation. Based on Maslow's theory, JS has been approached by some researchers from the perspective of need fulfillment (Castillo & Cano 2004:69; Ambrose, Huston & Norman 2005:815).

According to Locke's range of affect theory (Brief & Weiss 2002:281), satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (for example the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied or dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are met or are not met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, this impacts his/her satisfaction greatly, both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who does not value that facet. This theory states that too much of a particular facet will produce stronger feelings of dissatisfaction.

The Herzberg two-factor theory of JS, as cited by Fox (2006:63), postulates that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two separate and sometimes even unrelated phenomena. Intrinsic factors named motivators (that is, factors intrinsic to the nature and experience of doing work) were found to be job satisfiers and included achievement, recognition, work itself and responsibility. Extrinsic factors, also named hygiene factors, were found to be job dissatisfiers and included company policy, administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions. Herzberg's theory has dominated the study of the nature of JS and formed a basis for the development of JS assessment.

For the purpose of this study, JS will be defined as an individual's perception and evaluation of his job and this persona is influenced by the individual's unique circumstances such as needs, values and expectations. Employees, therefore, will evaluate their jobs based on factors, which they regard as being important to themselves (Sempane, Rieger & Roodt 2002:25).

Notwithstanding the research work and resultant structures put into place by many organisations in an endeavour to retain employees, employers still have to anticipate the fact that employees will always harbor the desire to quit at a later stage, despite being satisfied in the job. Retention of staff is a desirable objective for every organisation and with the high cost of replacing an employee, many organisations are now interested in reducing the high number of employees who leave their organisation voluntarily (Firth, Mellor, Moore & Loquet 2004:177).

Intention to leave is defined as an employees' plan to quit the present job and look forward to finding another job in the near future (Masroor & Fakir 2010:128). Numerous researchers have attempted to answer the question of what determines people's intention to quit (ITQ) by investigating possible antecedents of employees' intentions to quit (Kalliath & Beck 2001:72, Gutknecht 2003:3). While actual quitting behaviour is the primary focus of interest to employers and researchers, ITQ is argued to be a strong substitute indicator for such behaviour. Studies of Moore (2002:146) indicate that lack of JS is among the factors that contribute to employees' ITQ their jobs. A study conducted in England in the nursing fraternity presented evidence showing that dissatisfied nurses were more likely to have the intent to leave, compared to their satisfied counterparts (Shields & Ward, 2001:678).

Morrell, Loane-Clark and Wilkinson (2001:149) state that insufficient information, expectations of peers and supervisors, ambiguity of performance evaluation methods, extensive job pressures and lack of consensus on job functions or duties may cause employees to feel less involved and less satisfied with their jobs and careers, less committed to their organisations and eventually, to display a propensity to leave the organisation (Firth *et al*. 2004:176). If management or supervisors do not clearly define the roles of employees, it would accelerate the degree of employees quitting their jobs earlier due to lack of role clarity.

An organisations' instability is another indicator that would lead many employees to plan to quit. Indications are that employees are more likely to stay when there is a predictable work environment and at the same time there are more likely to quit when there is unpredictable work environment (Zuber 2001:147). In organisations where there was a high level of inefficiency, there was also a high level of staff turnover (Negrin & Tzafrir 2004:443). Therefore, in situations where there is instability and a not so predictable future for the organisation, the inclination to quit would be high, as employees would not be able to predict their career advancement.

Employees have a strong need to be informed. Organisations with strong communication systems enjoy lower ITQ from their staff (Morrell *et al*. 2001:150). Employees feel comfortable to stay longer in positions where they are involved in some level of the decision-making process. Employees should be made to understand fully issues that affect their working environment (Dess & Shaw 2001:448). In the absence of such information sharing, employees would tend to feel disempowered and commit less to organisational objectives, leading to laxity and dissatisfaction.

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) originally appeared in the mid nineteenth century. After the Second World War and with the creation of the United Nations, the need and place for a consultative role for organisations that were neither governments nor member states were recognised (Ishkanain 2006:730). The acceptance of these bodies led to the term non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (Bartlett 2005:44). A non-governmental organisation is a "not-for-profit, voluntary citizen's group, which is organised on a local, national, or international level to address issues in support of the public good; task oriented and made up of people with common interests" (Endalemaw 2006:4). NGOs perform a variety of services and humanitarian functions; they bring citizens' concerns to governments, monitor policy and programme implementation and encourage participation of civil society stakeholders at community level. They also provide analysis and expertise, serve as early warning mechanisms and help monitor and implement international agreements (Fletcher 2004:650).

The role and importance of the non-governmental sector has received considerable attention in many African countries. Swaziland, a small country with a population of 1.2 million people, has 60 NGOs (National Population Census Report 2007:8). Forty-six (46) are registered with the Coordinating Assembly for Non-Governmental Organisations (CANGO), an umbrella organisation for NGOs. These exclude the international NGOs, such as the United Nations (UN) agencies (for example World Health Organisation, United Nations Population Fund and World Food Programme) (Mzizi 2002:3). The major motivation for the establishment of the NGO sector is to support existing government structures in dealing with relevant public issues and mostly work in close cooperation with the local government of a country.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Researchers link JS to a variety of factors such as fairness of rewards, growth opportunities, participation in decision making and compensation. In retrospect, ITQ may also be a result of failure to fulfill employees' expectations and changes in the organisational culture. The research to understand the factors connected with JS and ITQ in NGOs in many countries, including Swaziland, is ongoing.

Studies by McMullen and Schellenberg (2003:2) indicate that most NGOs treat their employees in a slightly different way from the traditional mode of employment in that, among other factors, job security usually is not guaranteed. Employees within NGOs are usually engaged on a contractual basis, as the organisation solely depends on grants from foreign donors. Reliance on project-based funding has increased financial uncertainty, as staffing levels or even the organisation's very existence, may depend on its ability to attract successive funding.

In a study conducted in Canada by Warren (2001:19), the results indicate that employees in NGOs had high dissatisfaction with pay and benefits in spite of being satisfied with the overall job, unlike employees in the private sector who are remunerated for their skills as per the scale of the market value and who are entitled to benefits.

The NGO is a creature of statute, just like any organisation. Section 17 of the Companies Act (8 of 2009) explicitly states that the non-profit organisation is not for gain. It provides that, although it is not for gain, nothing shall prevent the payment in good faith of reasonable remuneration to any officer or servant of the association. Briefly, it provides that employees shall be treated in accordance with labour laws of the country.

Researchers of NGOs within the southern African region have repeatedly noted that NGOs have become increasingly challenged in the last couple of years due to changes in the funding patterns from foreign donors. This observation led to speculation that NGOs may be increasingly more stressful and less satisfying places to work, (Buelens & Van den Broeck 2007:66).

Debebe (2007:36) explains that organisations that rely on project funding "are insecure about their funding within each fiscal year, as well as for future years. The degree of uncertainty varies inversely with the duration of the projects; shorter-term projects elevate insecurity." Factors such as short-term contracts, unspecified salary pay dates and zero benefits have considerable implications for employees working in NGOs.

A study conducted on NGOS by People in Aid (2007:15) in Honduras, India, Kenya and Pakistan, indicates that factors responsible for job dissatisfaction and ITQ in NGOs are low salary, restructuring and job insecurity, increased employment opportunities elsewhere, issues of personal safety and security, lack of respect and appreciation, under employment, lack of development opportunities, work culture within the workplace and non-alignment of values.

Studies on NGOs did not enter the academic debate until the past two decades and many of the published documents on the subject have been mainly in the form of research reports, both published and unpublished. Recent studies on JS focused on co-worker behavior, supervisor behavior, pay and promotion and organisational and other work-related factors. Previous studies focused on the JS of public sector employees such as the nurses, teachers and doctors. Limited research was conducted on the JS of employees in the non-governmental sector.

The gap in this literature is what has motivated the researcher to undertake a study on JS and ITQ in Swaziland and focus on employees within NGOs.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the literature review and problem statement, the following research questions are formulated:

- What are the factors that determine job satisfaction among employees in NGOs?
- What are the factors that would make an employee think of quitting a NGO?
- What is the relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.4.1 Primary objective

The main purpose of this study is to determine levels of job satisfaction and intention to quit by employees working for NGOs in Swaziland.

1.4.2 Theoretical objectives

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

- To conduct a literature review on job satisfaction and the factors related to job satisfaction
- To carry out a literature study on the intention to quit
- To examine the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.

1.4.3 Empirical objectives

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

- To assess the level of job satisfaction of employees in NGOs in Swaziland
- To determine the factors that may cause employees to consider quitting in NGOs in Swaziland
- To determine the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.5.1 The sampling design procedure

The following steps, as stated by Porter and Millar (2002:149), will be used in developing the sampling procedure.

1.5.2 Target population

The target population will be restricted to permanent and contract employees, employed in the NGOs in Swaziland. For the purpose of this study, the target population will comprise of both male and female employees, employed by NGOs.

1.5.3 Sampling frame

According to Creswell (2003:58), a sampling frame is a complete and correct list of population members only and is regarded as the list of elements from which the sample is actually drawn. The sampling frame will comprise all NGOs registered with the coordinating assembly for NGOs in Swaziland.

1.5.4 Sampling technique

A probability sampling technique will be used in the study. Probability sampling is a favourable approach for this study as inferential statistics can be utilised to establish meaningful conclusions and each person has a known probability of being selected (Strydom 2005:198; Maree & Petersen 2007:172).

Initially, a sample will be stratified into permanent and non-permanent employees. Thereafter, a systematic random sampling method will be used and employees will be randomly selected from both strata. Every second employee in the human resource database will be selected randomly.

1.5.5 Sample size

Due to the small number of registered NGOs in Swaziland, averaging about 46 in the country, the sample will include all employees of NGOs, which currently total 250 respondents. Hence, the sample size will be 250 employees

1.5.6 Method of data collection and measuring instrument

Data will be collected through questionnaires. The questionnaire will consist of three sections. In Section A, demographic information of employees will be solicited, Section B will assess JS of employees and Section C will assess the intention to leave.

The Minnesota 20-item satisfaction survey questionnaire (MSQ) will be used to assess JS. It is chosen for this study because respondents indicate their degree of satisfaction with their present jobs using five alternatives, [5=] very satisfied, [4=] satisfied, [3=] neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, [2=] dissatisfied and [1=] very dissatisfied.

Intention to leave will be measured using O'Driscoll Beeher's three-item turnover intention scale (Hopper 2009:39). The participants will be asked about their perception of their present job and how it compared with intention to stay with the organisation. The turnover intentions scale includes three questions that ask the participants if the thought of quitting their job crosses their mind, if they plan to look for a job within the next 12 months and how likely, over the next year, they would be to look for another job outside of their company. The first two items will be measured on a six-point response scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The last item, how likely over the next year they would be to look actively for another job outside of their company, will be measured on a six-point response scale from very unlikely to very likely.

1.5.7 Statistical analysis

Initially, descriptive statistics will be undertaken to analyse the composition of the sample. Comparisons between the perceptions and expectations data will be made using simple cross tabulation and correlations. The scale reliability will be tested using the coefficient alpha

(Cronbach's alpha). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Pearson's correlation co-efficient will be computed to analyse relationships between variables. Validity analysis will also be undertaken. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0 for Windows will be used to capture the data for the research analysis.

1.5.8 Reliability and validity analysis

According to Maree (2010:37), researchers need to ensure that the way in which phenomena is explained is congruent with or matches reality (*inter alia* establishes the validity of the study). Reliability refers to the accuracy and precision of a measurement procedure. This study will use the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire to measure JS. Gilmore (2001:62) reported the average coefficient of the 20 scales of the MSQ as 0.88. ITQ will be measured using O'Driscoll and Beeher's turnover intention scale. As reported by Hopper (2009:39), the Cronbach alpha for O'Driscoll and Beeher's turnover intentions scale was 0.9. Since these scales will be used among NGOs in Swaziland, the Cronbach values will be computed to assess the reliability of the scales in a new environment.

Validity refers to the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in the situation (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:142). To verify validity of the study, the researcher will keep records regarding to whom questionnaires were sent, as well as the date of sending. Each questionnaire will be numbered in order to identify the date of distribution as well as the respondent. Therefore, responses can be checked and verified.

An expert in the field of quality assurance, as well as the supervisor, will assess content validation of the questionnaire to establish its face validity. The researcher will strive to produce findings that are valid and present negative findings in order to add to the credibility of the study.

1.5.9 Ethical consideration

Strydom (2005:63) states, "anyone involved in research is required to be mindful of the general agreements about what is proper and improper in scientific research." The study will adhere to the following ethical issues:

- Employee participation in the study will be voluntary. Participants will not be forced to participate in the study.

- Permission will be obtained in writing from organisation's authorities to conduct the study.
- The proposed study will ensure informed consent is obtained from participants and participants' privacy, confidentiality and anomaly will be guaranteed.
- Consent forms and a covering letter will be provided.

1.6 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 1: Introduction and background of the study

The chapter will comprise of the background and scope of the study, focusing on JS and ITQ by employees in NGOs. It will highlight the problem statement, the research objectives and the research methodology.

Chapter 2: JS and intention to quit in Swaziland

This chapter will provide an overview of JS and ITQ by employees. With specific reference to factors that are connected to JS, causes of JS and ITQ in NGOs.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

The focus of this chapter will be on the design and the research method that will be utilised in the research. The method of sample and data collection will be explained, as well as outlining the method of data analysis and the statistical techniques.

Chapter 4: Data analysis

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

Chapter 5: Recommendations and conclusions

This chapter will comprise of the conclusions and recommendations emanating from the study. Limitations and areas for further research will be discussed.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, a brief introduction and background to the study was provided. The main objectives were set and the research methodology aspects were discussed. This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section provides an overview of NGOs and describes the state of NGOs in Swaziland. The second part provides a detailed discussion on JS, factors connected to JS, causes of JS and factors that would make an employee think of quitting a NGO. The third section of the chapter will explore the relationship between JS and the ITQ.

2.2 OVERVIEW OF NON- GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS

NGOs are institutions that provide employment opportunities in addition to the private sectors and government institutions (Debebe 2007:1). NGOs are organisations with funds and programs managed by trustees or directors, established to maintain or aid social, educational, charitable, religious or other activities serving the common welfare. They include lower level organisations such as community groups, associations, cooperatives, religious and private development organisations (Endalemaw 2006:11).

Over the years, the role of NGOs has become ever more important in the context of decreasing governmental funding and implementing development activities (Loquercio, Hammersley & Emmens 2006:5). NGOs perform a variety of services and humanitarian functions; they bring citizens' concerns to governments, monitor policy and programme implementation and encourage participation of civil society stakeholders at the community level. They also provide analysis and expertise, serve as early warning mechanisms and help monitor and implement international agreements (Fletcher 2004:650). According to Nkrumah (2010:35), NGOs have some comparative advantages over government, some of these advantages are:

- NGOs reach target groups better than any government programme negotiated on a bilateral basis or by international finance organisations and administered by bureaucrats.

- NGOs are better at organising self-help, participation and empowerment of poor people because self-help organised by state implementing agencies is a contradiction in terms. This is especially the case when it rests on existing power structures.
- NGOs work with lower administrative and staff costs than government implementing organisations or private sector consulting companies (whose daily fees match the weekly pay of NGO development workers).
- NGO work is focused on the core sector of a development cooperation oriented toward poverty reduction and organised on a partnership basis.

However, James (2004:45) reported that "in Africa many NGOs are still in their infancy, though they are growing in numbers and strength".

2.2.1 Defining NGOs

NGOs are a type of institution that provide employment opportunities in addition to the private sectors and government institutions. Debebe (2007:39) defined NGOs as non-profit organisations that give services to client groups. They include lower level organisations such as community groups, associations, co-operatives, religious and private development organisations. In this study, the definition of NGOs provided by Endalemaw (2006:12) will be applied; the author defines NGOs as a "not-for-profit, voluntary citizen's group, which is organised on a local, national, or international level to address issues in support of the public good; task oriented and made up of people with common interests".

2.3 NGOs IN SWAZILAND

Swaziland is situated in south eastern Africa, bordering Mozambique on the eastern side and surrounded by the Republic of South Africa. The total landmass is approximately 17,366 square kilometres. With a population of 1.2 million people, Swaziland has a vibrant NGO community. The National Population Census Report (2007:8) reveals that Swaziland has 60 NGOs, 46 are registered with the Coordinating Assembly for Non-Governmental Organisations (CANGO), an umbrella organisation for NGOs. The major motivation for the establishment of the NGO sector is to support existing government structures in dealing with relevant public issues and mostly work in close cooperation with the local government of a country.

NGOs in Swaziland operate in the following programme areas, namely adult basic education, animal rights, child welfare, community development, community training and capacity building, crime prevention and rehabilitation, culture and recreation, economic development, entrepreneurship, environment, formal education and research, gender, health, HIV/AIDS, human rights, infrastructure development, voluntarism promotion, rural development, social services, job training and career guidance, counseling, therapy and psycho-social rehabilitation.

2.3.1 Challenges that Swaziland NGOs face

Mzizi (2003:5) refers to the following as challenges that Swaziland NGOs face:

- The self-sustainability level of NGOs tends to be low as the activities are centered on welfare provisioning and welfare activities tend to drain rather than generate resources.
- Most NGOs have limited financial and management expertise. However, amongst some of the more established NGOs this is changing as the donor community has introduced a range of checks and balances that provide an imperative for NGOs to acquire these competencies. Some are financially sound, but most operate in a precarious state of scarce funding, job insecurity and threadbare facilities.
- Many NGOs lack inter-organisational communication and coordination and subsequently tackle their chosen causes without a clear understanding of the broader social and economic context.
- Funding remains a challenge, with some of the funds having been diverted to government operations as well as onerous monitoring and evaluation requirements of donors.
- Monitoring and evaluation many lack the tools and understanding to measure and track effectively and IT usage is not sophisticated as a tool in this community.
- Corruption - there has been a history of corruption in the NGO community in Swaziland (and elsewhere). Some NGOs are still fighting this stigma.

NGOs in Swaziland have provided employment opportunities for local and international (expatriate) staff and have contributed to the well-being of the society. Based on this, the following discussion will focus on JS of employees in NGOs.

2.4 JOB SATISFACTION

JS has become a matter of great interest in social as well as management sciences. Warr (2007:11) regards JS as one important dimension of an individual's happiness at work. Rothmann (2008:12) points out that JS is one component of the work-related well-being that should be included in diagnostic studies of people's well-being in organisations. The topic of JS is also important for individuals. It is relevant to the physical and mental well-being of employees. Work is an important aspect of people's lives and most people spend a large part of their time at work, therefore, JS is one of the most important areas of research for many researchers and as such it is one of the most frequently studied work attitudes (Shields & Price 2002:56). However, there is insufficient literature on JS studies conducted within the NGO sector; therefore, the focus will be on discussing JS literature generally within an organisational context.

2.4.1 Defining job satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be described as an attitude that reflects the extent to which a person likes their job (Sias 2005:381). Sowmya and Panchanatham (2011:76) define JS as all the feelings that an individual has about his or her job. JS is an extent to which one feels positively or negatively about the intrinsic and/or extrinsic aspects of one's job (Bhuian & Menguc 2002:2). Castillo and Cano (2004:66) indicated that satisfied employees are inclined to be more industrious, inspired and dedicated to their work. Management values employee JS because dissatisfied workers tend to leave and replacing them can be expensive. Management desires to maintain a general level of satisfaction, especially among high-performing employees, to ensure organisational success (Aydogdu & Asikgil 2011:44). Job satisfaction results from the exchange of personal factors such as principles, character and opportunity with employment factors such as the impression of the work situation and the job itself (Hann, Reeves & Sibbald 2010:501).

Job satisfaction has been an interesting construct for researchers in understanding employee behaviour and attitudes. It is an important work-related attitude in work force research for several reasons (Boles, Wood & Johnson 2003:103). First, satisfaction with the job is related directly to organisational commitment. Secondly, JS either directly or indirectly is related to an employee's turnover intentions. Intentions to quit are perhaps the best indicator of future turnover. Thus, JS can influence a variety of important attitudes, intentions and behaviours in a work force (Muhammad & Mohammad 2010:127).

2.4.2 Factors that determine JS among employees in NGOs

Job satisfaction is one of the critical human resource issues in the NGO sector, particularly in developing countries. Many NGOs in Africa, including Swaziland, face a number of challenges, one of which is the shortage of human resources for the sector. The reasons underlying the shortage are multiple and include limited output from training institutions, high attrition rates resulting from migration and diseases and increased workloads because of HIV and AIDS (USAID 2003). For instance, according to the World Health Organisation (2006) it has been noted that a key obstacle to achieving the Millennium Development Goals is attributed to the absence of a mix of trained and motivated professionals, which affects the performance of the NGO sector. In such an environment, the retention of well-trained and skilled staff is critical in order to achieve sustained high levels of service delivery. It, therefore, is important for managers in the NGO sector to comprehend the factors that are likely to lead to the JS of their staff (Armstrong 2009:56). Knowing what produces satisfied staff is a step towards creating work environments in which committed employees can be retained for as long as is mutually profitable to the organisation and the employee.

Job satisfaction results from the exchange of personal factors such as principles, character and opportunity with employment factors such as the impression of the work situation and the job itself (Muhammad & Mohammad 2010:131). Linz and Semykina, (2011:821) investigated the relationship among administrative leadership behaviours, organisational characteristics and faculty JS in baccalaureate nursing programs of private liberal art colleges. The existence of organisational behaviors such as mutual trust, respect, warmth and rapport between the dean and the faculty members was a predictive factor in the development of JS.

The literature suggests that what makes a job satisfying or dissatisfying depends on many different factors. Boles *et al.* (2003:107) describe that sources of low satisfaction were interferences with the job, feeling overloaded, relations with co-workers, personal factors, organisational factors and the career stage of the employee.

Becker (2004:306) mentioned that JS was influenced by intrinsic factors that include autonomy of the profession, autonomy in employee relationships, group cohesion with peers and organisational characteristics, which include type of governance, relationships an employee has with the organisation, supervisors and management and the organisation's commitment to professional values. In addition, JS was influenced by extrinsic factors such as stress and workload, autonomy and control of work hours, autonomy and control of work activities, salary and benefits and perception of and real opportunities for jobs elsewhere.

Certo & Fox (2002:60) view salary as one factor that contributes to JS among employees. Billingsley (2004:43) observed that employers that are unable to offer competitive salaries face critical disadvantages when it comes to hiring and retaining employees.

Research by Richards (2004:43) indicates that employees had high levels of JS when administrative personnel valued them as professionals, were accessible, supportive, fair, honest and trustworthy.

A study conducted by Patrice (2009:556) revealed that due to low employee compensation, as compared to private and other government sectors, professionals think to look for better jobs elsewhere. Poor working environment, rigid policies, poor leadership and lack of involvement are critical problems in the efficiency and performance of employees. Other factors that contribute to job dissatisfaction are absence of recognition of employee's efforts and professionalism not properly valued by management.

One of the critical roles of management is to create a work environment that will endear the organisation to employees (Samuel 2008:63). Research has revealed that workers feel better motivated when, for instance, managers give them the opportunity to participate in regular meetings and allow their voices to be heard (Hagopian, Zuyderduin, Kyobutungi & Yumkella 2009:865). According to Samuel (2008:71), managers have the responsibility to structure the workplace and provide employees with an environment that enables them to resist external attractions such as higher pay in other organisations.

Sherman, Alper & Wolfson (2006:8) also found in their research that the majority of employees in the organisations surveyed planned to remain with their organisations at least for the next five years because of the prevailing culture of management care. Similarly, in a Deloitte and Touche survey, Conradie (2008:13) reports that the single most important factor that motivates employees to stay in an organisation is management style, which is defined as "the quality of the relationship an employee has with his or her immediate manager". This indicates that successful strategies to encourage retention partly rest on the ability of NGO managers to strengthen their relationship with subordinates (Adzei & Atinga 2012:471).

According to Getahun, Seble, Sims & Hummer (2007:7) financial incentives remain, arguably, the most significant strategy of motivation. Even among NGO workers, some studies have shown that low salaries primarily account for job dissatisfaction and migration of such workers (Dieleman, Cuon. Anh & Martineau 2004:191; Stilwell, Diallo, Zurn, Adams & Dal 2004:595). In such circumstances, improving JS and efforts to retain staff require offering higher financial rewards that would make NGO workers find alternative employment less attractive. Providing NGO workers with adequate salaries and allowances on a regular basis has been identified as a key driver of JS and retention (World Health Organisation 2006:9).

In the 21st century, many organisations are no longer operating in stable environments but in rapidly changing and uncertain competitive environments. Such environments require organisations to adopt new ways of doing things, be creative, innovative and flexible. Therefore, employees who are continuously advancing their knowledge and skills are more valuable since they enhance the competiveness of an organisation (Hagopian *et al.* 2009:65).

A study conducted in Malawi by Bakuwa, Chasimpha and Masamba (2013:13) reveals that the perception that staff had opportunities for personal growth and development influenced feelings of satisfaction. Provision of opportunities for personal growth and development demonstrate an organisation's commitment towards enhancing employees' knowledge and skills. It is through such activities that people are able to acquire and develop relevant new knowledge, skills, capabilities, behaviours and attitudes that enable them to perform their current jobs satisfactorily or prepare them for enlarged or higher-level responsibilities in the future (Armstrong 2009:58).

Undeniably, the extent to which NGO workers are exposed to opportunities for career and continuous professional development, such as sponsorship to attend both short and advanced courses in their areas of specialisation, has a strong motivational effect on JS (Adzei & Atinga 2012:76). Such opportunities enable NGO workers to cope better with the requirements of their job, enable them to take up more challenging duties and also enable them to achieve personal goals of professional advancement (Mathauer & Imhoff 2006:11).

2.5 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Theories are the scientific tools that are used to explain, for example, the factors of JS and how these factors interact in the cognitive and physical processes of JS on the basis of existing facts (Saif, Nawaz, Jan & Khan 2012:7).

A survey of the JS literature suggests that theories are commonly grouped according to either the nature of theories or their chronological appearance. Shajahan & Shajahan (2004:90) have noted that there are content-theories (Maslow's needs hierarchy, Herzberg's two-factor theory, theory X and theory Y, Alderfer's ERG theory and McClelland's theory of needs) and process-theories (behavior modification, cognitive evaluation theory, goal setting theory, reinforcement theory, expectancy theory and equity theory).

2.5.1 Classification of theories

In this section the following theories six theories that conceptualise JS are presented. These are the most widely discussed theories of motivation and JS:

- Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory
- Alderfer's theory
- McClelland's learned needs theory
- Herzberg's two-factor theory
- Locke's goal setting theory
- Adams' equity theory

2.5.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is the most widely mentioned theory of motivation and satisfaction (Karimi 2008:89). Building on humanistic psychology and clinical experiences, Abraham Maslow argued that an individual's motivational requirements could be ordered as a hierarchy.

The theory is based on a satisfaction – progression assumption. Maslow, as cited in Karimi (2008:89), argued that individuals first seek to satisfy lower order needs before higher order needs are satisfied. Once a given level of needs is satisfied, it no longer helps to motivate the individual. Thus, the next higher-level need has to be activated in order to motivate and thereby satisfy the individual (Luthans 2005:240). Studies by Maslow as cited by Marx, Van Rooyen, Bosch and Reynders (2002:5), separated the five needs into higher and lower orders.

The physiological and security needs were described as lower needs and the affiliation, esteem and self-actualisation needs as higher order needs.The differentiation between the two orders was made on the basis that higher order needs are satisfied internally but lower order needs are satisfied externally by factors such as pay and tenure.

Anton (2009:189) states that most organisations are able to do a good job of satisfying employees' lower order needs, but are not as good at providing opportunities to satisfy the higher order needs for esteem and self-actualisation.

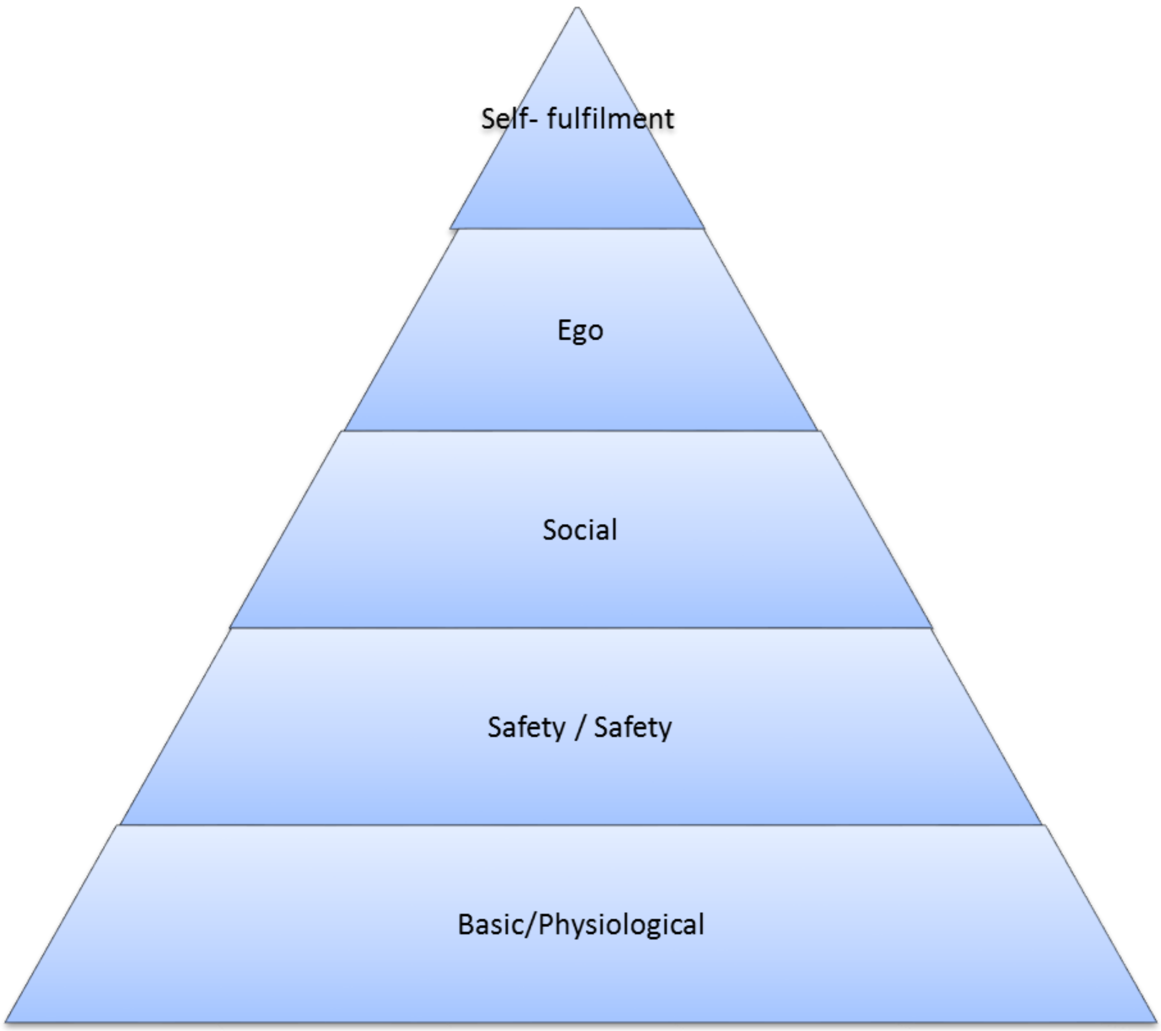

Figure 1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

- Self-fulfilment or self-actualisation is the highest level in the hierarchy. These are the individual's needs for realising his or her own potential, for continued self-development and creativity in its broadest sense.

- Esteem or egoistic − a need both for self-esteem and the esteem of others, which involves self-confidence, achievement, competence, knowledge, autonomy, reputation, status and respect.
- Affiliation or social needs − the need for friendship, love and a feeling of belonging.
- Safety and security needs − the need for safety, stability, shelter and relief from pain.
- Physiological needs − the need for food, water, air and shelter.

Individual needs are influenced both by the importance attached to various needs and the level to which an individual wants to fulfil these needs (Karimi 2008:90). Researchers have noted that Maslow's theory of needs hierarchy was the first motivation theory that laid the foundation for the theories of JS. This theory serves as a good start from which researchers explore the problems of JS in different work situations (Castillo & Cano 2004:69; Ambrose, Huston & Norman 2005:815). Using Maslow's theory, managers can motivate individual staff and ensure performance by identifying those needs of individuals that initiate and direct behaviour, considering which needs have been satisfied and which still need to be satisfied, and then satisfy those needs at the right time. They also need to acknowledge that each individual is unique and that their needs may change over time (Amos; Ristow; Ristow & Pearse 2008:179).

2.5.1.2 Herzberg's two-factor theory

The research conducted by Herzberg as cited by Fox (2006:63), determined what people actually want from their jobs. They had to describe work situations in which they felt good or bad. The feedback received was then categorised into positive or negative responses. The characteristics related to JS and job dissatisfaction were identified. The characteristics that related to increased JS included advancement, recognition, the work itself, achievement, growth and responsibilities. Herzberg referred to these characteristics as motivators.

The characteristics related to dissatisfaction, which included working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relationships, company policy and administration were referred to as hygiene factors (Robbins 2005:75-76). According to Amos *et al* (2008:182), Herzberg's two-factor theory is effectively a theory of JS.

Furthermore, Baron and Greenberg (2003:156-157) state that Herzberg's two-factor theory, also known as the motivator-hygiene theory, focuses on factors that are responsible for JS and job dissatisfaction. There are some factors that would encourage JS if they were present, but feelings of dissatisfaction when they are absent.

2.5.1.3 McGregor's theories X and Y

Theories X and Y, created by McGregor, as cited in Mohammed and Nor (2013:717), has been a valid basic principle from which to develop positive management style and techniques. McGregor's ideas suggest that there are two fundamental approaches to managing people. McGregor as cited by Brief & Weiss (2002:281), proposed that the manager's view about the nature of human beings is founded on a group of assumptions and that managers change their behaviour toward their subordinates according to these assumptions about different employees.

Assumptions of Theory X [negative view of human-beings] are:

- Human beings have an inherent dislike of work and avoid it if possible.
- Due to this behaviour, people must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to make them work.
- They prefer to be directed, avoid responsibility, have little ambition and want security (Carson 2005:456).

Assumptions of Theory Y [positive view of human-beings] are:

- Physical and mental efforts in work are as natural as play and rest.
- External control and threat are not the only means for producing effort. People can practice self-direction and self-control in achieving objectives.
- The degree of commitment to objectives is determined by the size of rewards attached with achievement.
- Under proper conditions, human beings learn and not only accept responsibility but also seek it (Robbins 2005:54).

McGregor's theory X management style has been considered as a negative way of dealing with employees as it leads to poor results and hence job dissatisfaction. Theory Y management style, on the other hand, produces better performance results and allows people to grow and develop, which leads to JS .

2.5.1.4 McClelland theory of needs

David McClelland and his associates proposed McClelland's theory of needs. This theory states that human behaviour is affected by three needs, namely power, achievement and affiliation. McClelland and associates, as cited by Shajahan & Shajahan (2004:95), propose that the three basic needs are operative in the workplace as highlighted below:

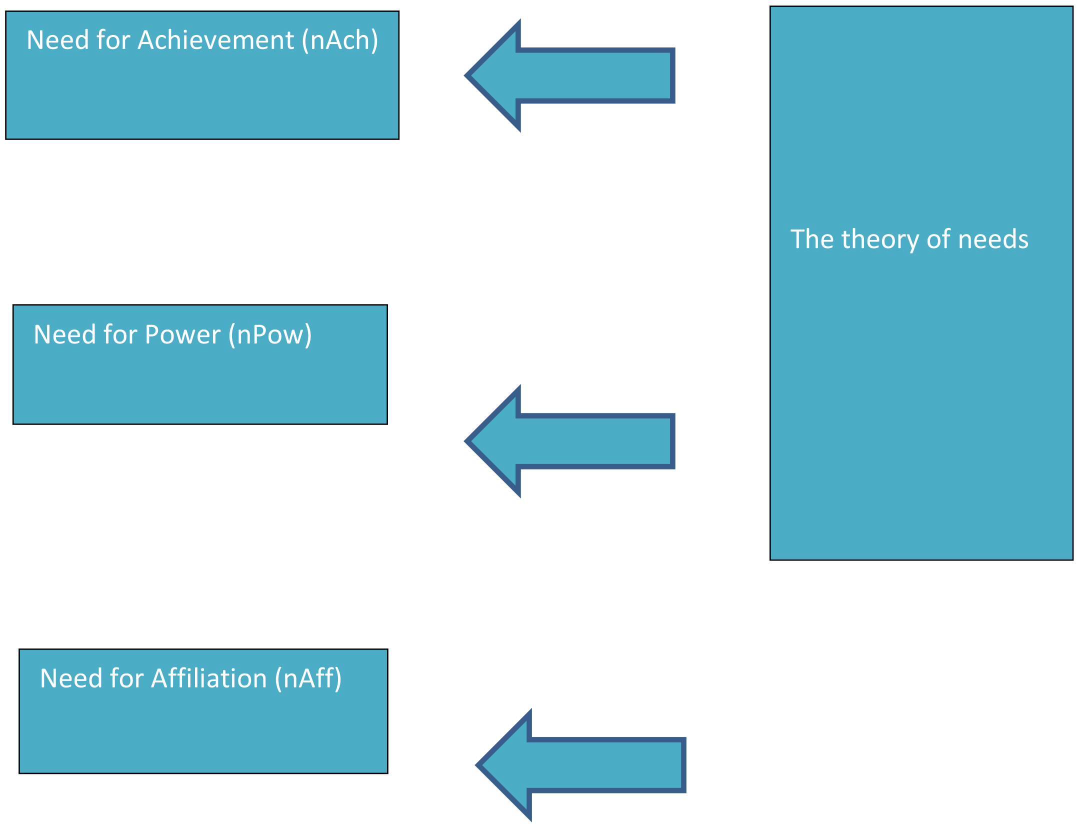

Figure 2: McClelland's theory of needs

Source: Robbins (2001:133)

Need for achievement is the urge to excel, to accomplish in relation to a set of standards, to struggle to achieve success. Need for power, it is the desire to have control over others and to be influential. Need for affiliation is a need for open and sociable interpersonal relationships. In other words, it is a desire for relationship based on co-operation and mutual understanding. The above-listed needs constitute the totality of needs. Therefore, it is critically important for a manager to determine his/her subordinates' dominant need and to offer opportunities whereby the individual's needs and organisation's goals can simultaneously be met (Swanepoel, Erasmus & Schenk 2008:329).

According to Robbins (2005:53), individuals with high achievement needs are highly motivated by competing and challenging work. They look for promotional opportunities. They have a strong urge for feedback on their achievement. Such individuals try to get satisfaction in performing better. High achievement is directly related to high performance and hence, high JS.

Shajahan & Shajahan (2004:95) postulate that the individuals who are motivated by power have a strong urge to be influential and controlling. They want their views and ideas to dominate and thus, they want to lead. Such individuals are motivated by the need for reputation and self-esteem. Individuals with greater power and authority will perform better than those possessing less power perform and experience relatively high JS.

Individuals having high affiliation needs prefer working in an environment providing greater personal interaction. Such individuals are effective performers and will experience high JS in a friendly and supportive environment (Robbins 2005:53).

2.5.1.5 Existence, relatedness and growth theory

Clayton Alderfer, as cited by Luthans (2005:243), explored Maslow's theory and linked it with practical research. He regrouped Maslow's list of needs into three classes of needs: existence, relatedness and growth, thereby calling it the ERG theory. His classification absorbs Maslow's division of needs into existence (physiological and security needs), relatedness (social and esteem needs) and growth (self-actualisation) (Shajahan & Shajahan 2004:94). Alderfer suggested a continuum of needs rather than hierarchical levels or two factors of needs. Unlike Maslow and Herzberg, Alderfer does not suggest that a lower level need must be fulfilled before a higher level need becomes motivating or that deprivation is the only way to activate a need (Luthans 2005:244).

2.5.1.6 Goal-setting theory

According to Locke's goal setting theory (Locke & Latham 2002:705), intentions can be a major source of motivation and satisfaction. Some specific goals (intentions) lead to increased performance, for example, difficult goals (when accepted) lead to higher performance than easy goals and that feedback triggers higher performance than no feedback. Likewise, specific hard goals produce a higher level of output than generalised goals of do your best (Shajahan & Shajahan 2004:95). Furthermore, people will do better when they get feedback on how well they are progressing toward their goals, as feedback identifies discrepancies between what they have done and what they want to do. All those studies, which tested goal-setting theory, demonstrate that challenging goals with feedback, serve as motivating forces (Lunenburg 2011:4)

The goal-setting theory is the most researched theory of employee satisfaction and motivation (Perry, Mesch & Paarlberg 2006:50). The goal-setting theory suggests that difficult goals demand focus on problems, increase sense of goal importance and encourage persistence to achieve the goals. Goal-setting theory can be combined with cognitive theories to better understand the phenomena, for example, greater self-efficacy is positively related to employees' perception that they are successfully contributing to meaningful work and, therefore, foster enhanced work motivation (Moynihan & Pandey 2007:575).

2.5.1.7 Adams' equity theory

According to Adams' equity theory as cited by Humphrey, Nahrgang & Morgeson (2007:1337), people do not work in a vacuum, they work alongside others and they make comparisons between their perceived efforts and concomitant rewards and the exertions of others and their rewards.

The equity theory suggests that individuals compare rewards they receive for their efforts at work to rewards received by others. If they believe they are under-rewarded, this is called negative inequity. If they feel they receive relatively more than others this is called positive inequity. Each state acts as a source of motivation (negative and positive motivation) (Moynihan & Pandey 2007:576).

All these models have strengths and weaknesses as well as advocates and critics. Although no model is perfect, each of them adds something to understanding the JS process. Despite these differences, all the theories of JS share some similarities, for example, they encourage managers to not only consider lower-level factors but to rather use higher-order, motivational and intrinsic factors as well as to motivate and thereby, satisfy the workforce (Newstrom 2007:123).

The study of JS attempts to explain this behaviour and this is important from a humanitarian and utilitarian perspective (Hann *et al.* 2010:502). The humanitarian perspective suggests that people deserve to be treated fairly and appropriately and the level of employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction may reflect the extent to which they experience good or bad treatment in an organisation. It may also be indicative of the emotional and psychological wellbeing of the employees (Saif *et al.* 2012:124). The utilitarian perspective presupposes that the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of employees can lead to behaviours that affect the functioning of the organisation (Greenberg 2011:77). For example, increased productivity within the organisation is a reflection of one of many positive outcomes of satisfied employees, while absenteeism and sabotage are well-established negative outcomes for dissatisfied employees.

2.6 INTENTION TO QUIT

An ITQ in an organisation is a significant precursor to a turnover decision. General theory about planned behaviour suggests that behavioural intention is a good predictor of actual behaviour, thus ITQ can be used instead of actual turnover to determine an organisation's performance (Griffin & Moorhead 2011:65). In fact, researchers have established the ITQ or stay as the appropriate indicator of actual employee turnover (Van Breukelen, Van der Vlist & Steensma 2004:896; Bamberger & Biron 2007:182; Zimmerman & Darnold 2009:144).

An employee's ITQ is determined mainly by JS, commitment and work-related attitudes (Griffin and Moorhead 2011:66). The identification of reasons for employee dissatisfaction, therefore, can assist an organisation to eliminate problems contributing to quitting intentions (Mathis & Jackson 2010:77). Understanding why employees quit will eliminate unfavourable outcomes and reduce recruitment costs, resulting in higher customer satisfaction, quality improvement, effective succession planning and an increase in organisational knowledge. Employee ITQ is widely researched due to its importance to organisational success and labour productivity. Not only does ITQ indicate an unfavourable working climate, but it may also result in the loss of an experienced employee and good customer relationships (Griffin & Moorhead 2011:89).

2.6.1 Defining intention to quit

In the context of the workplace, ITQ may be described as an internal perception of the probability that the employee will terminate employment with the organisation (Alasmari & Douglas 2012:6). Larrabe, Janney & Ostrow (2003:273) define ITQ as the anticipation of leaving one's current position. It refers to individual perception rather than behaviour and is seen as a contemplative stage linking the attitudinal component of JS with the behavioural component of turnover (Van Breukelen *et al.* 2004:897). The ultimate decision to leave results when job dissatisfaction is at a level sufficient that the employee has reached a decision on the desirability of movement and the perceived ease of movement (Akhavan, Kalali & Gholipour 2011:116).

For the purpose of this study, the ITQ definition provided by Martin (2011:6) will be applied. Martin (2011:6) defines ITQ as the psychological process that an individual goes through when they are considering alternative employment options due to some measure of dissatisfaction with their current employment situation.

This study intends to identify the major factors, which cause an individual to quit the NGO for which he or she is working. This study will focus on different demographical, experiential, personal and attitudinal factors, which might cause the change of jobs.

2.7 FACTORS INFLUENCING EMPLOYEES' INTENTION TO QUIT IN THE NGO SECTOR

Job dissatisfaction is a primary predictor of employees' intent to leave (quit their current job) (Shields & Ward 2001; Tzeng 2002:51). A study conducted in Kenya presented evidence showing that dissatisfied employees were 65 percent more likely to have an intent to leave compared to their satisfied counterparts (Mulinge 2004:79). Nyberg (2010:450)) examined the factors influencing job dissatisfaction and ITQ in the public sector in New Zealand. The study results showed that low wages, unfair treatment of employees, promotion and provision of allowances and incentives availability of alternative employers and a poor working environment are also factors that contribute to ITQ.

According to Akhavan *et al.* (2011:117), to better understand what causes employees' ITQ an organisation, it is helpful to describe push factors, which cause individuals to look for another job (for example, dissatisfaction with working conditions) and pull factors, which draw employees towards another organisation (for example, higher salary or better benefits). Within this, it is possible to identify environmental factors, programme factors, organisational factors, personal factors relationship and communication, HR/Management policies, systems and procedures, opportunities for growth through job variety, compensation and benefits and managerial implications

2.7.1 Environmental factors

According to Dieleman *et al.* (2007:194), the environmental factors refer to those factors (political, economic, socio-cultural and technological) impacting on the work of the organisation and which may in return affect the organisation's capacity to retain staff or not. Borkowski, Amann, Son & Weiss (2007:163) advised that NGOs need to place their work and overall effectiveness within a wider framework of political, economic and social changes, so that assessment is realistic in terms of options for the NGO sector in the future. The nature and context of NGO work gives rise to a wide range of potentially stressful environmental factors (McCarthy, Tyrrell, Lehane & 2007:251). The situation can be drastically different from one country to another. All the same, security issues and difficult living conditions are common stress factors for NGO workers.

In a survey conducted by the Forsythe (2005: 44), two-thirds of respondents reported that quality of life had a strong or moderate influence on their decision to leave the organisation. Overall, Forsythe (2005:45) concluded that, while stress did not appear to be the main reason for staff leaving, it had an influence on the decisions of quitting the organisation of a significant number of employees.

Donor funding conditionality is an environment factor affecting the work of NGOs. An NGO that does not learn how to find its way in this difficult environment, therefore, may find it difficult to attract and retain professional staff. Multilateral organisations such as the United Nations, World Bank, Commonwealth Secretariat, as well as regional organisations such as the European Union, African Union and SADC have funded NGOs programs and activities. Funds were channelled through the civil society organisations to foster development and improve service delivery at the grassroots level.

A study conducted by Bakuwa *et al.* (2013:12), revealed that donor agencies reduced their funding of NGOs once the country was elevated to an upper-mid income status. This has led to the closing down of some NGOs in African countries due to a lack of funding and insufficient staffing levels. The common impact of financial dependence on donor funding is that once donors pull their financial support, NGOs collapse. As pointed out by Obassi & Moribame (2005:31) one of the major threats to the existence of NGOs and the carrying out of their mandates is the reduced funding, which may force them to scale down their activities.

2.7.2 Programme factors

Programme factors refer to project-based funding and job insecurity, pressure on overheads and under-investment in training. Richardson (2005:83); Bryant-Lukosius, Green, Fitch, Macartney, Robb-Blenderman and McFarlane (2007:57), have criticised the policy of short-term funding cycles, little donor investment in building the capacities of NGOs and low overheads. Westlund and Hannon (2008:9) argue that this does not reflect the cost of doing business. Thus, the view that training, evaluation, research and publications are luxuries is reinforced, while under-investment in staff development encourages higher intentions to quit by employees.

A reliance on short-term contracts linked to funding has meant that employees need to find a new position every year or so, possibly with a new employer and the level of job insecurity implied can be discouraging (Adzei & Atinga 2012:471). While it is true that short-term funding cycles tend to push NGOs into offering short-term contracts, it does not oblige them to do so and some agencies still manage to offer longer-term contracts. The issue of funding should not be used as an excuse by NGOs. In many instances, the quality and effectiveness of HR management and practices could be improved without significant additional expenditure (Richardson 2005:85).

2.7.3 Organisational factors

A number of factors related to the way an organisation is structured and managed can increase ITQ levels. Some of these issues can be traced back to people management, others to organisational culture, workforce planning and recruitment practices. HR management is critical (Pare & Tremblay 2007:332). Weak or non-existent structures, systems and processes appear to increase dysfunctional turnover significantly. Specific aspects of employment, such as a reward strategy, also play their part. This entails reviewing pay and terms and conditions to ensure that they are competitive and equitable and that the reward system is transparent. Organisations also need to think about how their employees are managed on a personal, day-to-day level; people are more likely to want to move on when they feel that they are not properly managed, respected, supported or developed by their manager (Ghosh, Satyawadi, Joshi & Shadman 2013:285).

A survey by Haw and People in Aid (2005:67) on staff retention of the Red Cross staff in Kenya found that over half of respondents were dissatisfied with management (with 11.5%

not satisfied at all and 45.9% quite unsatisfied). Almost three-quarters of respondents (70%) indicated that management had been a moderate or strong influence on their decision to want to leave the organisation. Complaints about managers often are related to a perceived lack of support.

Bryant-Lukosius *et al.* (2007:569) pronounced that on-the-job training, support and capacity-building do not always clearly appear as a responsibility of field managers; many often have a technical background in medicine or engineering, for example, rather than managerial experience. People are given managerial responsibilities, but without the training necessary to cope with the additional tasks involved. In many cases, programme managers already have so much to do that mentoring or providing support is barely a possibility, let alone a priority. The culture of an organisation can also play a role in determining whether people stay or leave.

According to James (2004:35), people respond particularly well to an organisational culture that is learning or innovative and are more likely to stay and perform well. Bryant-Lukosius *et al.* (2007:77) recognised limited opportunities for internal career advancement and personal growth as reasons for employees intending to leave their current positions. Restrictive roles and little control over practice were also cited in the literature. An organisation's responsiveness and adaptability to change will have a significant bearing on morale and levels of engagement; conversely, organisations that fail to learn from their experiences and those that adapt poorly to change, will suffer higher levels of dysfunctional turnover (People in Aid 2003:22).

Dodson and Borders (2006:289) cited other organisational factors to include size and recruitment practices. Size-wise, smaller NGOs often find it harder to retain their staff because career prospects are more limited and there is less chance of finding a match between one's wishes and available positions. Smaller NGOs typically have fewer unrestricted funds, meaning that they have fewer resources at hand to build staff loyalty. In terms of recruitment, it is important that the selection process identify potential employees who 'fit' with the organisation's outlook and values. While all NGOs seek to alleviate suffering, different agencies approach this objective in very different ways; levels of professionalism may not be the same between NGOs and different NGOs may have different attitudes towards issues such as participation, working with local partners, political sensitivity or religious commitment (Bakuwa *et al.* 2013 :16). Failure to check that a candidate's own outlook and values fit with those of the organisation can result in the contract ending prematurely. Even though NGOs are aware of this, in practice they often are forced to compromise, especially when under pressure to fill a position quickly (Saif *et al.* 2012:11).

James (2004:101) is of the view that decision-making in organisations is affected through policies, systems and procedures, which are supposed to internalise the values espoused by the organisation. Many NGOs lack effective policies, systems and procedures. A key area having a bearing on staff retention is human resource policies, systems and procedures (Larrabee *et al.* 2003:275; Bakuwa *et al.* 2013:21).

Firth, Mellor, Moore and Loquet (2004:174) recommend that HRM policies related to staff in NGOs must improve to minimise the employee's intention to leave. The policies are crucial strategic short-term decisions, which help to achieve organisational long-term objectives such as low turnover. Fairness in performance appraisals, commitment to employee's career development through training, development of flexible yet ethical working environment for effective and quality services are among a few of the policies that must be developed in the organisation and should be aligned to the overall objective of the organisation. The outcome of these policies will ensure a highly motivated and satisfied work force who would more likely stay in the current job rather than intend to leave (Coomber & Barriball 2007:307).

Some NGOs in Swaziland depend on voluntary staff to run their activities and programs. NGOs, therefore, generally do not have control over the quality of labour they obtain (CANGO 2012:37). Their staffing levels are determined by those who volunteer their services and whether or not they have time available. Some of the personnel used to run the affairs of NGOs are not well trained to carry out their duties effectively. A lack of well trained and experienced HR limits the extent to which NGOs are able to manage their daily affairs and their capacity to effectively plan, appraise, implement and monitor their projects and programs (Obassi & Moribame 2005:29).

2.7.4 Personal factors

According to Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenny & Taylor (2009:209) the design of a job and work environment should take account of individual capabilities and limitations as far as is reasonable. It is important to ensure that the workplace is adapted as far as is necessary to support rather than hinder people task performance.

Among the most important personal factors influencing people's work decisions are workload, career concerns, burnout, disillusionment, desires to start a family or existing family commitments (Bryant-Lukosius *et al.* 2007:78). For expatriates, family responsibilities are generally incompatible with being an NGO worker. These issues appear to affect staff in their 30s in particular. A survey conducted in Belgium-MSF by Malunga (2011:40) confirms that close to 75 percent of respondents felt that a relationship and/or family ties exerted a strong or moderate influence on their decision to resign. More broadly, one in four of the respondents indicated that social life (or the lack thereof) was a strong influence on their decision to leave the organisation and the need for balance between private and professional life was cited by a majority (just under 55%).

On the other hand, for people with previous work experience, especially those involved with professions that require constant training and upgrading of skills, staying abroad for too long can be seen as a handicap to further employment back home. In the survey, 60 percent of respondents reported that a concern for professional development and career management had a strong influence on their decision to leave (Ali 2008:247). Career prospects can also encourage local/national staff to move between NGOs or to decamp to the private sector.

2.7.5 Relationship and communication

A study conducted by Henry (2004:17) discovered that NGOs in eastern and southern Africa indicate ineffective leadership as a major issue that needs attention. The NGO leaders tend to be autocratic leaders, which results in poor manager or employee relationships, leading to a source of frustration and employees contemplating quitting or turnover. Also observed was that these leaders put their interest before those of the organisation. Instead of facilitating work and development of the employees and the organisation, leadership is seen primarily as a means of amassing wealth and personal benefits.

Hopper (2009:10) points out the importance of effective communication in an organisation. One of the greatest assets leaders can have is the mastery of communication skills and the ability to create an atmosphere of open communication. The consequences of poor communication within an organisation can prove detrimental to a superior-subordinate relationship, which may lead to a lack of employee commitment or their wanting to quit the organisation (Sias 2004:381). In contrast, the good relationship shared between an employee and their supervisor may be considered a reason to stay with the organisation. An employee may feel the time and effort invested in developing a high quality supervisor-subordinate relationship is too valuable to jeopardise if they decided to leave the organisation (Eisenburg & Goodall 2004:73).

2.7.6 Opportunities for growth through job variety

Pare and Tremblay (2007:333) observed that organisations that give priority to staff development are more likely to retain staff than those that do not. Firth *et al.* (2004:176) advise that organisations must show potential employees a mapped out career plan with career opportunities and rewards, which correlate with his or her personal goal, if an appointment is to be successful.

Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane and Ferreira (2011:115) indicate that the perceived level of higher job variety in terms of options such as job enlargement and job enrichment should be considered by managers to make work more interesting by increasing the number and variety of activities performed. Job enrichment can be used to make work more interesting and increase pay by adding higher-level responsibilities to a job and providing monetary compensation (raise or stipend) to staff for accepting this responsibility. These are just two examples of an infinite number of methods to increase motivation of employees at an NGO. The key to motivating NGO staff is to know what motivates them and designing a motivation program based on those needs to minimise their intention to leave.

2.7.7 Compensation and benefits

In a study of commercial and governmental sectors in Malawi and Kenya, Malunga 2011:6; Mulinge (2004:2085) found that Malawian and Kenyan employees are motivated more by financial security of working rather than the opportunity for staff development because it is a means to provide for them and their families. On the other hand, for most professional employees their jobs are the only source of livelihood, as such the monetary aspect is given pre-eminence.

McKnight, Philips and Hardgrave (2009:169) revealed that satisfaction with the compensation plan, therefore, would inevitably influence an employee's inclination to quit.

The extent to which an employee who is satisfied with the compensation package will stay would also depend on his or her overall assessment of various factors such as the compensation package in other organisations in relation to the workload and the possibility of receiving better compensation packages.

2.7.8 Managerial implications

One of the critical roles by management in a work environment is to create a work place that will endear the organisation to its employees. Such an environment provides opportunities for employees to participate in decision making on matters that concern them and their workplace (McKnight *et al.* 2009:175).

Bergiel *et al.* (2009:211) established that managers focus on the intangible rewards, such as management style, learning and development opportunities, the quality of working life provided by the organisation, the attractiveness of the organisation itself and possibly create an employer brand. Such intangible rewards create a sense psychological satisfaction amongst employees. In retrospect, compensation and benefits also are considered important components of any retention strategy and powerful motivating factors, as it links directly or indirectly to the satisfaction of many needs, although not necessarily lasting for long. The combined effect of different types of rewards would make a deeper and longer lasting impact on the ITQ by employees.

2.8 INDICATORS OF AN EMPLOYEE INTENDING TO QUIT AN ORGANISATION

Researchers examining the relationships between ITQ and the other factors affecting it have identified these variables, namely age, gender, tenure, education, available job alternatives, job content and JS (Griffin & Moorhead 2011:39). Aladwan, Bhanugopan and Fish (2013:408) suggested that ITQ moderated the relationship between JS and staff turnover and most researchers now accept the antecedent that intention to stay or leave in an organisation for employees is the final cognitive step in the process of voluntary turnover (Korunka, Hoonakker & Carayon 2008:411; Luna-Arocas & Camps 2008:31; Calisir, Gumussoy & Iskin 2010:516). From an employer’s perspective, ITQ may be a more important variable than the actual act of turnover. If the precursors to ITQ are understood better, the employer could possibly institute changes to affect this intention. However, once an employee has quit, there is little the employer can do except to assume the expense of hiring and training another employee. An overview of the indicators of an employee who intends to quit is provided below.

2.8.1 Attendance

Regular tardiness, high absenteeism, long lunch breaks and half/full day off are some of the indications that the employee is unhappy and is probably looking for a job elsewhere (Griffin 2011:45). Attendance problems are sometimes an indication that the employee is dealing with pressing personal issues rather than work issues. Good communication is important for discovering where the problem lies (Scott, Hugh, Simoens, Bojke & Sibbald 2006:537).

2.8.2 Quality of work

Productivity is a good indicator of employee satisfaction. If an employee's quality of work decreases dramatically, it may be an indication of dissatisfaction (McKnight *et al.* 2009:173). Less activity in terms of workload and not preparing for meetings properly are signs that someone might be distancing themselves from their role. Regular errors, missing deadlines, sloppy work and low productivity are signs of an unsatisfied employee who may be preparing to venture into new pastures (Hopper 2009:15). Poor quality work could also be a result of personal issues or problems with co-workers making it important to discover the underlying causes.

2.8.3 Dressing up and stealing time

Someone who is intending to quit might suddenly start dressing differently. This could go both ways; dressing smarter to attend to interviews or might simply care less about their appearance at work and stop paying attention to detail (Bergiel *et al.* 2009:212).

2.8.4 Leaving on time

According to Luna-Arocas & Camps (2008:31), employees who are engaged actively in job seeking, are likely to be using company time to do it. That means that they may be making calls to other companies, searching the internet for job postings or even attending interviews during the employers’ time. Leaving work on time may be an indicator that the employee is not satisfied with the current work environment and the job (Zimmerman & Darnold (2009:153).

2.8.5 Disengaged attitude/work ethic

The moment employees begin to give up on their job, it will manifest in their attitude and work ethic (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger 2004:123). A disengaged employee will show this by not engaging with other employees, no longer providing spontaneous input and poor quality work.

2.8.6 Complaints

Aladwan *et al.* (2013:410) claim that inattention to detail and inaccurate work affects customers, clients and co-workers. An increase in customer complaints can point to a problem with a specific employee or groups of employees. Co-workers may complain about having to deal with the results of poor work done by others. An employee may be facing unrealistic expectations or a high workload, or may need more training. The reasons for complaints should be addressed before the company starts to lose clients.

2.8.7 Attitude

A bad attitude can manifest in frequent complaints, arguments and poor customer service. Everyone has an off day now and then, but continual sullenness and outbreaks of temper can affect the whole office. An employee who fails to follow instructions or refuses requests from supervisors is not a happy employee. Sudden changes in appearance and hygiene are symptoms of a negative attitude. (Korunka *et al.* 2008:411).

2.8.8 Turnover rate

People regularly leave jobs to advance their careers or for personal reasons, but employees leaving in droves may point to a high level of dissatisfaction. An employee with some seniority in the company suddenly turning in a resignation is often a signal that something is wrong within an organisation. (Luna-Arocas *et al.* 2008:31).

2.9 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND INTENTION TO QUIT

Several studies were undertaken to determine the relationship between JS and ITQ and a summary of the results is discussed in the next section.

Larrabee *et al.* (2003:56) and Ghosh *et al.* (2013:291) showed JS to be the main predictor of ITQ. Job satisfaction has important consequences for both organisations and their employees. Satisfied workers perform their jobs better and are less likely to engage in counterproductive behaviours (Ali 2008:245). Job satisfaction has been shown to be related closely to intentions to quit an organisation (Carmeli & Weisberg 2006:194). Firth *et al.* (2003:179) showed that the relationship between JS and intent to leave was significant and consistently negative and their findings support those of Aladwan *et al.* (2013:417) and Eisenberg & Goodall (2004:69) that increasing JS subsequently decreases rates of ITQ.

Randhawa (2007:156) found a significant negative relationship between JS and ITQ, suggesting that the higher the JS, the lower the individual's ITQ the job. This indicates that JS or dissatisfaction plays a significant role in influencing the turnover intentions of employees. People satisfied with their jobs do their work with full interest and loyalty and have a low intent to quit the organisation. In today's changing contours of work and employment, where a one-organisation career is becoming rarer, employers should keep their employees satisfied so that they rarely think to leave (Seston, Hassell,Ferguson 2009:122)

Intention to quit among nurses has been shown to be influenced by work-related factors such as time pressure and quality of care, lack of autonomy, work schedule difficulties and dissatisfaction with pay (Alfes, Shantz, Truss & Soane 2013:341). Work-related social support has been shown to influence nurses' ITQ. Levels of commitment by nurses are associated with leaving the nursing profession altogether, as opposed to changing employers.

Hopper (2012:68) provided evidence that JS is a strong predictor of intentions to quit and as a mediator, therefore, contributing to the empirical knowledge of the ITQ literature. Issa, Ahmad and Gelaidan (2013:529) reveal that the statistical results obtained in their study showed that both forms of JS (intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction) have an inverse relationship with employees' ITQ.

Calisir et al. (2011:514) studied the impact of job stress, organisational commitment and JS on ITQ job among IT professionals in Turkey. The results revealed that ITQ one's job is explained by JS and organisational commitment. Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, Mc Knight and George (2007:15) discovered that organisational commitment has the highest effect on ITQ among IT professionals. The dynamic characteristics of the IT environment influence the IT personnel towards seeking new opportunities to achieve several advantages such as salary, promotion or opportunity to work in a more prestigious company. However, it is unusual to encounter such a situation if the employee is committed to his or her organisation emotionally.

Issa *et al*. (2013:529) showed that there is significant negative relationship between JS dimensions and turnover intention. The findings of this study were in line with previous studies, which acknowledged that accumulation of job dissatisfaction was one possible beginning of the turnover intention.

2.10 CONCLUSION

Employees are the most important resource a business organisation may have to effectively deliver on its objectives; hence, it is imperative that managers learn more about psychological and human factor, the employee physical needs and the environment, which impact on employee’s delivery within the organisation. Previous studies of ITQ and JS have acknowledged that an accumulation of dissatisfaction was one possible beginning to ITQ. Given its importance, managers need to monitor and evaluate the extrinsic and intrinsic benefits of JS available to employees. In turn this would tend to reduce the desire to quit and subsequent high staff turnover, thereby saving organisations considerable amounts in financial losses and invested efforts on recruitment, induction and training of replacement staff.

In this chapter various JS factors were explained and their influence on JS and to some extent how these JS factors affect employees’ ITQ within organisations.

The next chapter shifts from the theoretical framework to an empirical paradigm, which addresses the research design and methodology used for the study. The sampling techniques and data collection methods will be explored. Data analysis techniques used for this study will be highlighted. The chapter will conclude with a reliability and validity analysis of the measuring instrument.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the literature review on NGOs in Swaziland, JS and ITQ. This chapter will describe the research process in depth, including the research design and methodology that was followed.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is the overall plan for connecting the conceptual research problems to the pertinent and achievable empirical research (Patton 2008:459). The study utilised a cross-sectional, descriptive survey design targeting the 46 NGOs in Swaziland. This design was found to be suitable for the large amount of data to be collected from the sample, which can be easily subjected to statistical analysis.

According to Schutt (2006:41), the terms research design and research method are often used interchangeably; however, these are distinct concepts. Research design refers to the logical structure of the inquiry. It articulates what data is required, from whom and how it is going to answer the research question (Mitchell & Jolley 2004:25). Fundamentally, research design affects the extent to which causal claims can be made about the impact of the intervention; hence it deals with a logical problem and not a logistical problem (Yin 2009:27).

Research methods on the other hand, specify the mode of data collection. This includes whether qualitative or quantitative data is required, or a mix of the two.

3.3 RESEARCH METHODS

Two common research approaches, namely quantitative and qualitative research were considered for this study. Lombaard, Van der Merwe, Kele & Mouton (2011:19) define the quantitative method as one in which the investigator primarily uses post positivist claims for developing knowledge. It is used to quantify the problem by way of generating numerical data or data that can be transformed into useable statistics. It can also be used to quantify attitudes, opinions, behaviours and other defined variables and generalise results from a larger sample of the population.

The qualitative method is primarily used with exploratory research. It is used to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions and motivations. It also provides insights into the problem or helps to develop ideas or hypotheses for potential quantitative research (Stern *et al.* 2012:16). In addition, the qualitative research is used to uncover trends in thought and opinions and investigate the problem in more depth (Lombaard *et al.* 2011:19).

A quantitative research method was chosen for this study in order to ensure the anonymity of the participants and the confidentiality of data. Secondly, the research objective was known in advance of the data collection and all aspects of the study were designed before the data was collected (Mitchell & Jolley 2004:21). This is important as quantitative research is usually deductive, meaning the study is testing theory rather than generating it as qualitative research would do (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:45). Quantitative data would also be more useful in testing the hypotheses of the research and the results would be able to be better generalised and used to make predictions.

3.4 THE SAMPLING DESIGN PROCEDURE

The steps outlined in Figure 3 are used in the sampling process for the study. These steps are discussed further below.

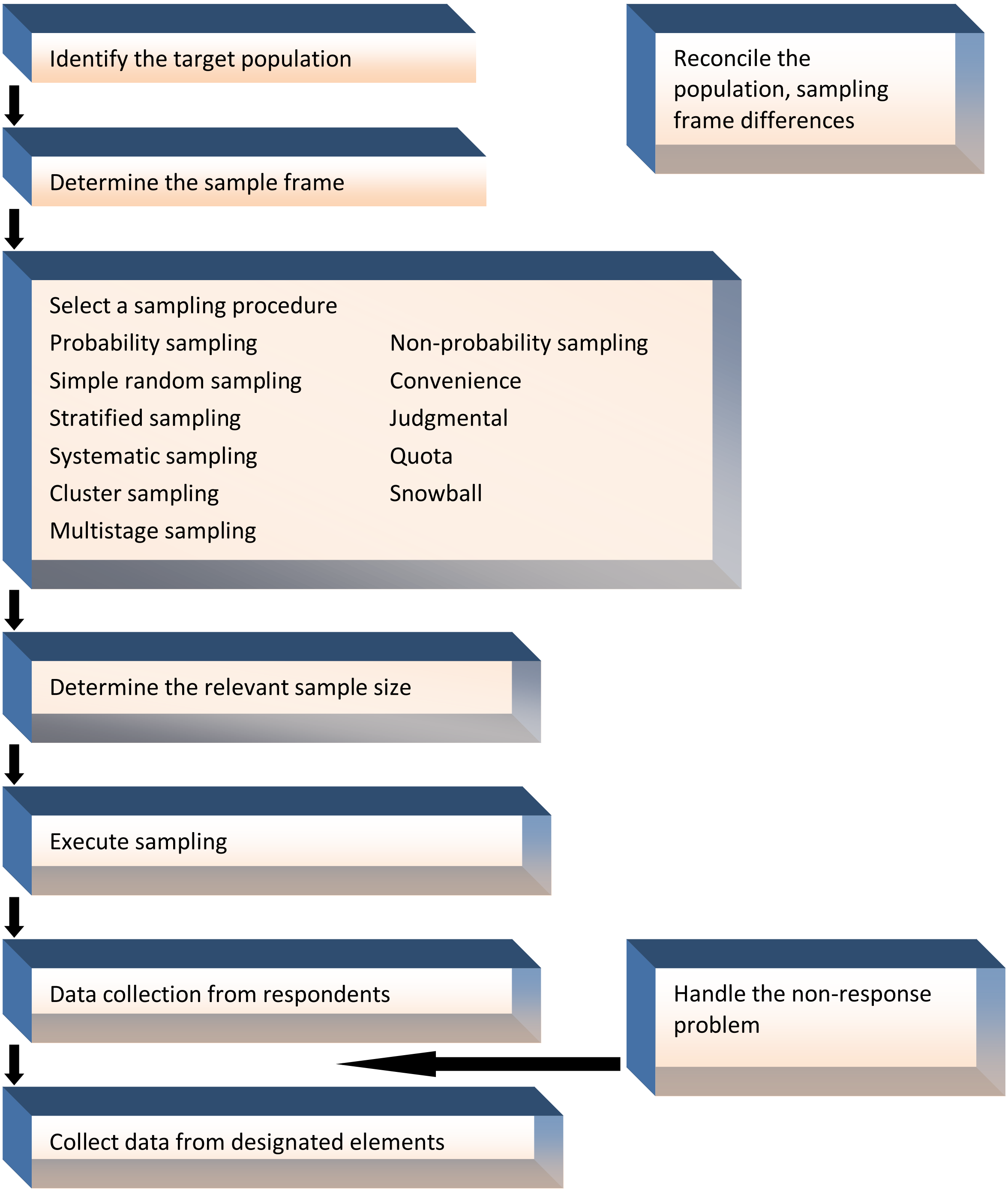

Figure 3: The sampling process

Source: Aaker, Kumar, Leone and Day (2013:304)

3.4.1 Target population

The target population refers to the entire aggregation of respondents that meet the designated set of criteria. Creswell (2009:145) further defines a target population as a group of individuals with some common defining characteristics that the researcher can identify and study. The target population consists of all the NGOs registered with Coordinating Assembly of Non-Governmental Organisations (CANGO) and employees of these NGOs at the time of the survey period. All hierarchical levels were also included in this study, starting with the unskilled worker, semi-skilled, professionally qualified, junior management, middle management and senior management. The total size of the population is 300 employees.

3.4.2 Sampling frame

Dillman, Smyth and Christian (2009:42) refer to a sample frame as the list from which a sample is to be drawn in order to represent the survey population. According to Steel and Sekaran (2006:29) a sampling frame is a complete and correct list of population members only and regarded as the list of elements from which the sample is actually drawn. The sampling frame for this study comprised of a list of employees obtained from the respective human resources departments of each NGO.

3.4.3 Sampling technique

Bryman (2012:187) defined probability sampling as a sample that has been selected using random selection so that each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected. Andrew, Pedersen and Mc Evoy (2011:48), state that a probability sampling technique is the best way of obtaining a representative sample, but it requires researchers to specifically define the population and ensure that each member has an equal chance of being selected.

A probability sampling technique was used in this study. In response to the growing awareness that quantitative and qualitative research demand different sampling methods (Perecmann and Curran 2006:28), stratified random sampling was deemed appropriate for this study. Andrew *et al*. (2011:207) defined stratified random sampling as the strategy whereby the sample is chosen by a simple random selection and every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected. This technique was selected because first, it is the least sophisticated of all sampling designs (Andrew *et al.* 2011:207) and secondly, the researcher wanted to select a sample that represents a broader group of persons as closely as possible.

3.4.4 Sampling size

Sample size refers to the actual number of units of analysis the researcher will collect research data from (Babbie 2011:103). A representative sample is one that accurately reflects the distribution of relevant variables in the target population and that is considered as a small reproduction of the population (Monette, Sullivan, DeJong & Hilton 2013:131).

Initially, a sample will be stratified into permanent and non-permanent employees. Every second employee in the human resource database will be selected randomly. For the purpose of this study n = 300, based on response rate initially explored in the pilot study.

3.4.5 Method of data collection

The current study used a questionnaire as a measuring instrument. A questionnaire refers to a set of questions designed to generate data to accomplish the objectives of the research project (McDaniel & Gates 2008:286). A questionnaire was chosen on the basis of it being able to reach a wide range of respondents in a shorter time, at a lower cost, being easier to administer and having standardised responses that are easy to summarise in comparison to the interviews (Kumar 2011:130).

3.4.6 The questionnaire design

Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006:146) state the design of a questionnaire is critical to ensure that the correct research questions are addressed and that accurate and appropriate data for statistical analysis is collected. Extensive research was conducted to obtain the most valid and reliable JS questionnaires. The questionnaire was not developed by the researcher but was adapted from Turker (2009:411).

A covering letter on Vaal University of Technology's official letterhead accompanied all questionnaires. De Vos and Fouche (2009:170) express that in all circumstances a covering letter must be an integral part of the questionnaire and may constitute the first page of the questionnaire. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007:382) further stress the importance of a covering letter by mentioning that a good covering letter will affect response rates and response accuracy. This letter is attached as Annexure A.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections:

- **Section A** aimed at gaining demographic data such as age, level of education, position held and gender.
- **Section B** relates to feelings towards respondents' work-related needs (JS) and the questions were adapted from Turker (2009:411). Respondents were given multiple alternatives of responses to choose. Responses were measured on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from 1=not satisfied and 5=highly satisfied with the given statements. A Likert-type scale is a scale that asks respondents to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the given statements about a particular subject (McDaniel & Gates 2008:265).
- **Section C** attempted to determine the intentions to stay of employees in their current organisation by determining the extent to which they are willing to stay in the current organisation. Responses were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1= never and 5=always thinking about quitting the job. The questionnaire used was adapted from Lambert and Hogan (2009:114).

3.4.7 Pilot testing the questionnaire

Monette *et al.* (2013:9) define a pilot study as a small-scale trial run of all the procedures planned for use in the main study that might include a test of procedures for selecting the sample and an application of the statistical procedures to be used in the data-analysis stage. Fink (2010:184) argues that the aim of the pilot test is to maximise reliability.

No pilot testing was done for this study because the questionnaire used had been used in previous studies, which reported high reliability standards as well as high internal consistency in all the sections (Kennedy 2006:42; Maniram 2007:52; Muhammad & Mohammad 2010:131)

3.5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2004:114), descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in a study. They provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures. Descriptive statistics is at the heart of all quantitative analysis and is used to present quantitative descriptions in a manageable form. Various analysis programs, such as SPSS and Microsoft Excel are used to create a data file and compute descriptive statistics into a simpler summary.

3.5.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics is a set of brief descriptive coefficients that summarises a given data set, which can either be a representation of the entire population or a sample (Babbie 2011:157). The measures used to describe the data set are measures of central tendency and measures of variability or dispersion. According to Arendolf (2013:60), the term descriptive statistics is the discipline of quantitatively describing the main features of a collection of information or the quantitative description itself. Descriptive statistics aim to summarise a sample, rather than use the data to learn about the population that the sample of data is thought to represent (Nick 2007:12).

Univariate analysis involves describing the distribution of a single variable, including its central tendency (including the mean, median and mode) and dispersion, including the range and quantiles of the data-set and measures of spread such as the variance and standard deviation (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham 2006:437)

Bivariate analysis is the simultaneous analysis of two variables (attributes) (Monette *et al.* 2013:15). It explores the concept of relationships between two variables, whether there exists an association and the strength of this association, or whether there are differences between two variables and the significance of these differences.

Hair *et al.* (2006:236) defines multivariate statistics as a form of statistics encompassing the simultaneous observation and analysis of more than one outcome variable. The application of multivariate statistics is multivariate analysis. Multivariate statistics concern the understanding of the different aims and background of each of the different forms of multivariate analysis and how they relate to each other (Saunders *et al.* 2007:384). Factor analysis allows the user to extract a specified number of synthetic variables, fewer than the original set, leaving the remaining unexplained variation as error. The extracted variables are known as latent variables or factors; each one may be supposed to account for variation in a group of observed variables. (Monette *et al.* 2013:16).

Mitchell and Jolley (2004:15) define factor analysis as a statistical method used to describe variability among observed, correlated variables in terms of a potentially lower number of unobserved variables called factors. It allows researchers to investigate concepts that are not easily measured directly by collapsing a large number of variables into a few interpretable underlying factors. Another prerequisite for factor analysis is that the variables are measured at an interval level (the Likert scale is assumed to be an interval level).

In every factor analysis, there are the same number of factors as there are variables. Each factor captures a certain amount of the overall variance in the observed variables and the factors always are listed in order of how much variation they explain. The eigenvalue is a measure of how much of the variance of the observed variables a factor explains. Any factor with an eigenvalue ≥ 1 explains more variance than a single observed variable (Kumar 2014:25).

3.5.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential analysis is the process of deducing properties of an underlying distribution by analysis of data Onwuegbuzie & Collins (2007:291). Brace (2010:77) added that inferential statistical analysis infers properties about a population; this includes testing hypotheses and deriving estimates. Inferential statistics are used to make interpretations as well as predictions about the population from sample measures (Lomax 2007:7).

3.6 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

3.6.1 Reliability

Reliability is the degree to which measures are free from error and, therefore, can yield consistent results (Thanasegaran 2009:69). Reliability relates to the precision and accuracy of the instrument. If used on a similar group of respondents in a similar context, the instrument should yield similar results. In other words, a reliable test would give the same result if used several times over. Accurate and careful phrasing of each question to avoid ambiguity and leading respondents to a particular answer ensured reliability of the tool. Cronbach's alpha coefficient will be used to measure reliability. This coefficient normally ranges between zero and one. The closer the coefficient is to 1.0 the greater is the internal consistency of the items (variables) in the scale. Cronbach's alpha coefficient increases as the number of items increase or as the average inter-correlations increase (Sekaran 2006:267-269).

3.6.2 Validity

According to Golafshani (2003:601) validity refers to the degree to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to be measuring. Thus, the instrument is valid depending on the extent to which the instrument actually reflects the concept being measured. A precondition for validity is that the measuring instrument must be reliable (McDaniel & Gates 2008:202). Kaiser Meyer Olkin measure and Bartlett's test is used to test validity. The three most important types of validity are content-validity, criterion related validity and construct validity.

Construct validity refers to the degree to which a test measures an intended hypothetical construct (Peerbhai 2006:57). It stresses the importance of precise definitions and concepts. In survey research, construct validity addresses the issue of how well whatever is purported to be measured actually has been measured. Merely because a researcher claims that a survey has measured for example presidential approval, fear of crime, belief in extraterrestrial life, or any of a host of other social constructs, does not mean that the measures have yielded reliable or valid data. Thus, it does not mean the constructs claimed to be measured by the researcher actually are the ones that have been measured (De Vos & Fouche 2009:55). The researcher will make use of the factor analytic procedure to determine the construct validity of the dependent variables.

Content validity includes any validity strategies that focus on the content of the test. Content validity investigates the degree to which a test is a representative sample of the content of whatever objectives or specifications the test was originally designed to measure (Arendolf 2013:51). Content validity is concerned with how accurately the questions asked tended to elicit the information sought (Leedy & Ormrod 2010:47). The research instrument was tested for content validity by subject experts who scrutinised it and provided feedback.

Content validity was achieved by ensuring that questions were based on valid and reliable standardised questionnaires. The researcher and supervisor evaluated the questionnaire to identify duplications and double-barrelled questions. In addition, face validity was established by means of a pilot test. These respondents assessed the questionnaire in terms of its clarity, understandability, flow and construction. The questionnaire was revised accordingly.

Criterion-related validity defines the relationship between a test score and an outcome (Sekaran 2006:59) A criterion-related validation study can be either predictive of later behavior or a concurrent measure of behavior or knowledge. Predictive validity refers to the power or usefulness of test scores to predict future performance Burke & Onwuegbuzie

(2004:18). Criterion validity was not applicable for this research since it is used for prediction or estimation.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Field (2009:47) defines ethics as a code of behaviour considered as correct. It is crucial that all researchers are aware of research ethics. Ethics relate to two groups of people; those conducting research, who should be aware of their obligations and responsibilities and the researched upon, who have basic rights that should be protected.

Consent (written) to distribute the questionnaire to the all targeted NGOs in Swaziland was obtained from the directors of the NGOs in Swaziland. A corresponding letter from the Vaal University of Technology seeking permission to undertake the research study also formed part of the questionnaire (attached in the Appendix B). In order to ensure that anonymity was guaranteed to the respondents, neither names nor any form of identity was required when filling in the questionnaires. In addition, neither personal nor sensitive questions were contained in the questionnaire. The following measures were also considered:

- Respondents were given full information on the nature of the study through a letter, which was distributed with the questionnaire. The names of the respondents were not to be recorded and so all the data were rendered anonymous.
- Respondents rights to self-determination, anonymity and confidentiality
- Questionnaires distribution was after the motive of the study was explained thoroughly to the respondents' focal persons (HR managers). It was further explained that data will be kept confidential and respondents were assured of their right to withdraw at any time
- Questionnaires were collected after two weeks to allow for individuals' thoughtful responses and re-evaluation of responses
- The participants had the opportunity to receive feedback on the results of the study.

3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided a broad explanation of the research design and methodology, describing the research population, sample and sampling techniques. It also described the questionnaire as a measuring instrument that was used for the study and how the data was collected and analysed. The next chapter will focus on the presentations and findings of the data obtained from the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, Chapter 3, the research design and methodology was discussed. This chapter attempts to unfold, analyse and discuss the results obtained. It discourses aspects of the pilot study, descriptive statistics of the sample, factor analysis and correlation analysis. The findings on the demographic information and questionnaires are depicted by making use of graphical and descriptive statistics.

4.2 RESPONSE RATE

A total of 300 employees working in NGOs throughout Swaziland were invited to complete the questionnaire and 197 useable responses were collected. Sekaran (2006:82) maintains that a response rate of 30 percent can be regarded as acceptable for most research studies. In this study, a 65.5 percent rate was yielded.

4.3 PRE-TEST RESULTS

The questionnaire was pre-tested by subject experts to check for suitability of questions and whether the questions measure the relevant constructs in the study. The questionnaire was validated and confirmed to be applicable and relevant to the constructs in the study.

4.4 PILOT TEST RESULTS

No pilot testing was done for this study because the questionnaire used had been used in previous studies, which reported high reliability as well as high internal consistency in all the sections (Kennedy 2006:42; Maniram 2007:52; Voigt 2010:75).

4.5 DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

The population of the study comprised employees of all active NGOs in Swaziland. The population targeted in this study included permanent employees, fixed term contract employees and temporary employees. No sampling was done and questionnaires were distributed to all employees of the participating NGOs due to the small size of the target population.

4.6 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SECTION A

This study will make use of graphical representation and interpretation of the results in table form of the questions related to the demographic information in section A of the questionnaire.

4.6.1 Age

Respondents were asked to provide information on their age and Table 1 and Figure 4 present the percentages of the responses.

Table 1: Frequencies of the various categories of age in the sample (A1)

Age group	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulatative percent
Younger than 20yrs	5	2.5	2.5	2.5
20-29 yrs	50	25.4	25.4	27.9
30-39yrs	71	36.0	36.0	64.0
40-49yrs	47	23.9	23.9	87.8
50-59yrs	17	8.6	8.6	96.4
60& above	7	3.6	3.6	100.0
Total	197	100	100	

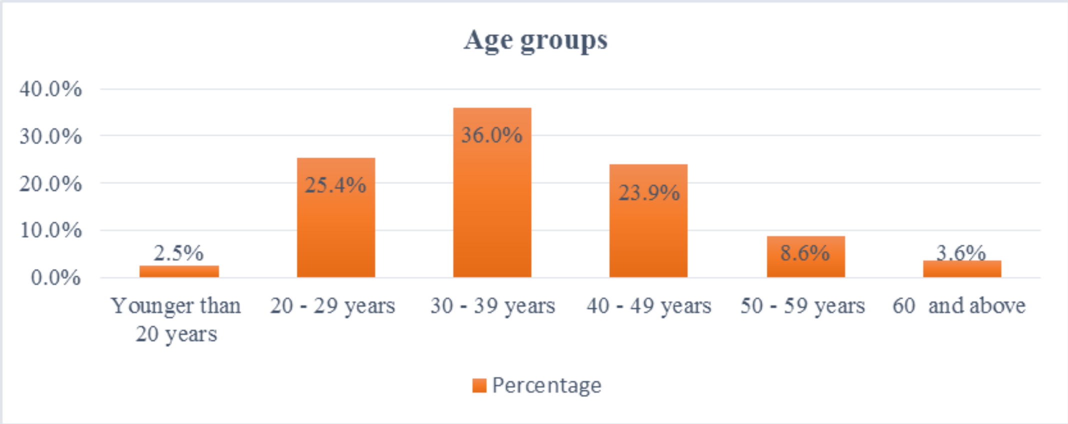

Figure 4: Age groups of respondent

The majority of respondents were between 30-39 years of age (n=71; 36.0%), followed by respondents 20-29 years old (n=50; 25.40%), respondents 40-49 years old (n=47; 23.90%), respondents 50-59 years old (n=17; 8.60%), respondents 60 years and older (n=7; 3.60%) and respondents who were 20 years and younger (n=5: 2.50%).

4.6.2 Gender

Table 2 and Figure 5 provide an illustration of the gender composition of the sample

Table 2: Frequencies of gender in the sample (A2)

Gender	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Valid percent**	**Cumulative percent**
Male	87	44.2	44.2	44.2
Female	110	55.8	55.8	100
Total	197	100	100	

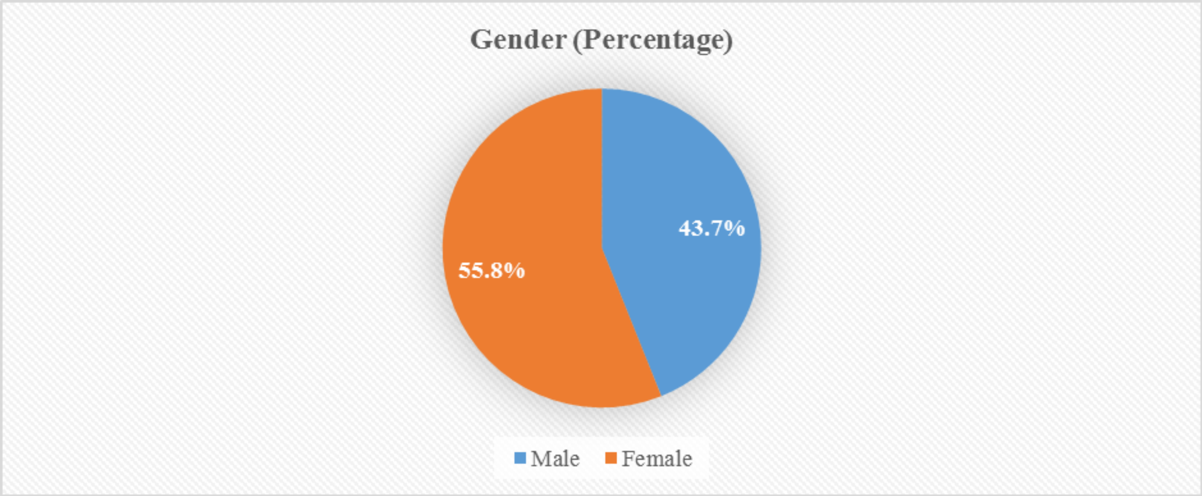

Figure 5: Gender of respondents

Figure 5 indicates that there were more females (n=110; 55.8%) in the study compared to males (n=86; 43.7%).

4.6.3 Race

Table 3 and Figure 6 provide the distribution of the sample in terms of race.

Table 3: Frequencies of race in the sample (A3)

Race	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Black	166	84.3	84.3	84.3
Coloured	23	11.7	11.7	95.9
White	8	4.1	4.1	100.0
Total	197	100.0	100.0	

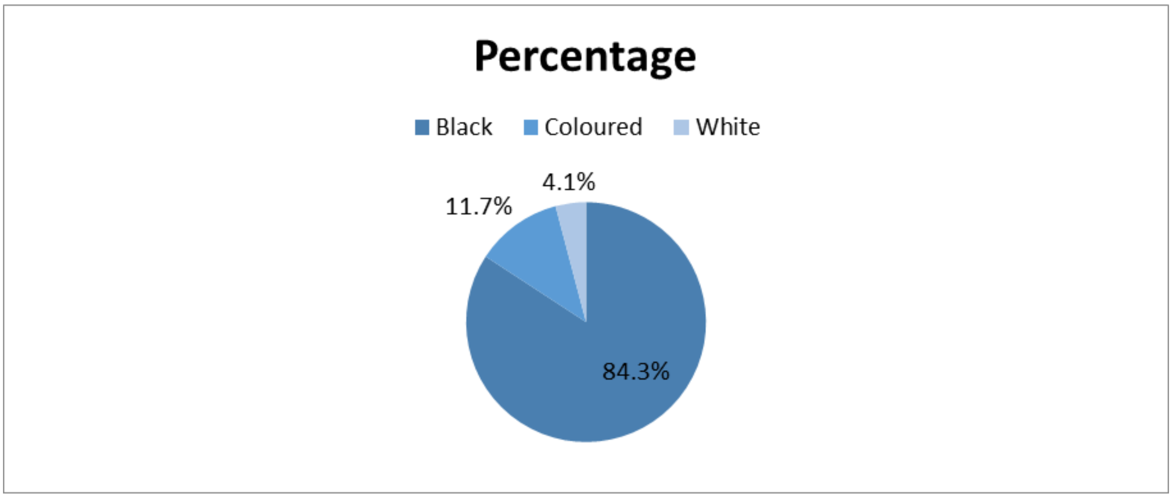

Figure 6: Race of respondents

Figure 6 indicates that the sample consisted of more black people (n=166: 84.30%), followed by coloured people (n=23: 11.7%) and white people (n=8: 4.1%).

4.6.4 Marital status

Respondents were asked to indicate their marital status. Their responses are illustrated in Table 4 and Figure 7.

Table 4: Frequencies of marital status in the sample (A4)

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Single	75	38.1	38.1	38.1
Married	88	44.7	44.7	82.7
Cohabiting	23	11.7	11.7	94.4
Divorced/Separated	11	5.6	5.6	100.0
Total	197	100.0	100.0	

Figure 7 reveals that married is the most dominant marital status (n=88: 44.7%), followed by single, (n=75: 38.1%), cohabiting (n= 23: 11.7%) and divorced, (n=11: 5.60%).

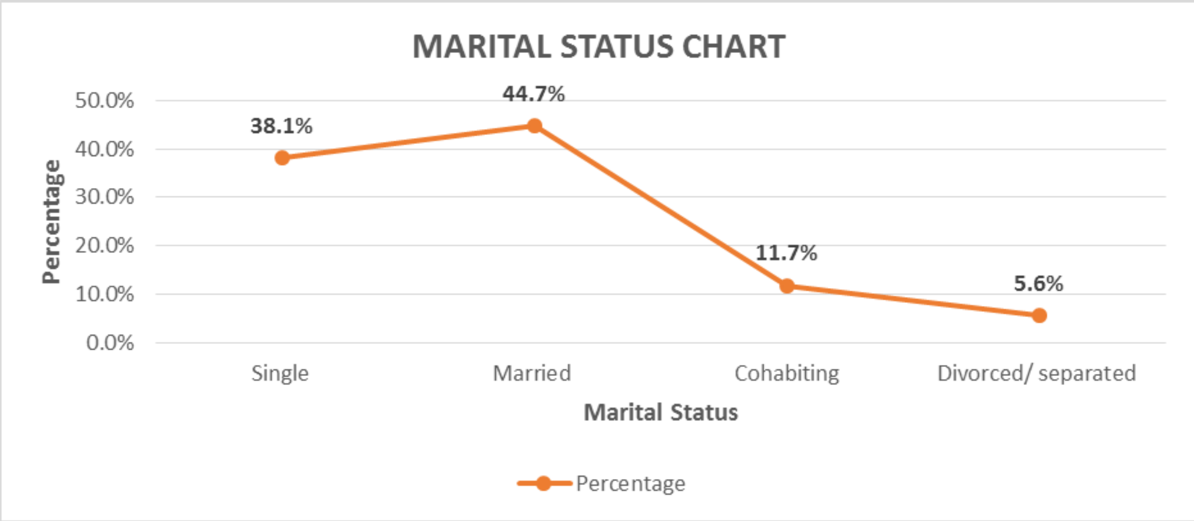

Figure 7: Marital status of respondents

4.6.5 Tenure of service in the organisation

Respondents were asked to provide information based on the tenure of service in the current organisation.

Table 5: Frequencies of the various categories of tenure of service in the organisation (A5)

Tenure of service in the organisation	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than a year	13	6.6	6.6	6.6
Between 1 & 2 yrs	60	30.5	30.5	37.5
Between 3 & 5 yrs	64	32.5	32.5	69.5
Between 6 & 10 yrs	39	19.8	19.8	89.3
11 yrs & above	21	10.7	10.7	100.0
Total	197	100	100	

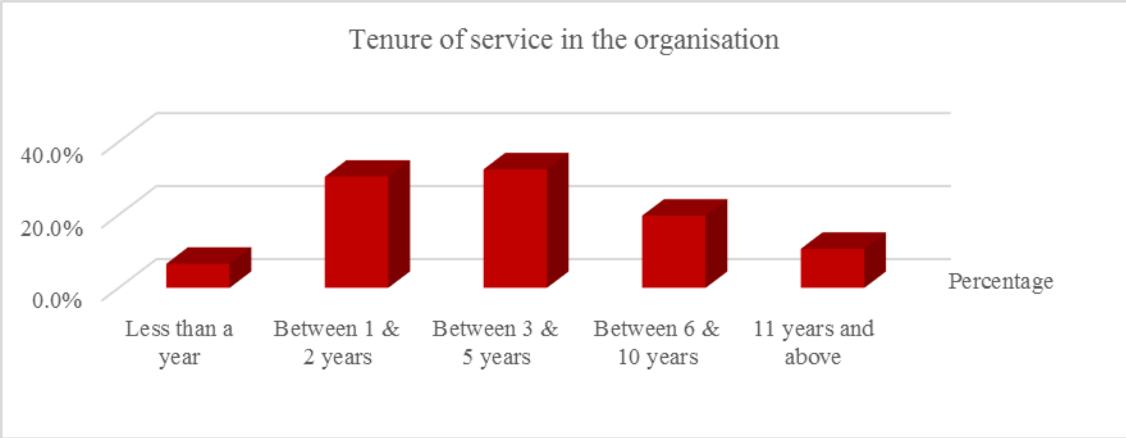

Figure 8: Tenure of service in the organisation

Figure 8 presents the distribution of the tenure of service in the current organisation. The majority (n=110; 37%) of the respondents spent between 5 to 10 years in the current organisation. The balance of respondents spent more than 10 years (n=104; 34.9%) and less than 5 years (n=84; 28.1%) in the organisation respectively.

4.6.6 Job grade level

Information based on the job grade level of the respondents appears in Table 6 and Figure 9.

Table 6: Frequencies of the various categories of job grade level (A6)

Job grade level	Frequencies	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Senior management	31	15.7	15.7	15.7
Middle management	48	24.4	24.4	40.1
Junior management	34	17.3	17.3	57.4
Professionally qualified/Skilled worker	73	37.1	37.1	94.4
Semi-skilled	5	2.5	2.5	97.0
Unskilled	6	3.0	3.0	100.0
Total	**197**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

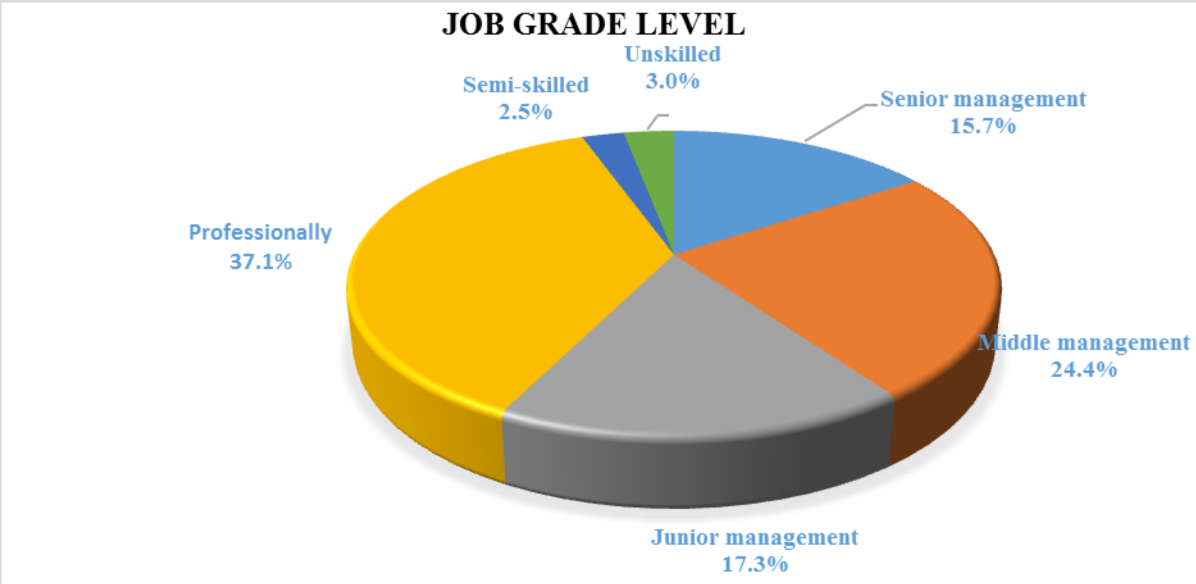

Figure 9: Job grade level

Most of the respondents are professionally qualified/skilled workers (37.1%), followed by middle management(24.4%) junior management (17.3%), senior management (15.7%) unskilled (3.0%)andfinally semiskilled with the lowest number of respondents (2.5%) of the sample.

4.6.7 Status of contract of employment

Respondents were asked to provide information based on their status of contract of employment. Table 7 and Figure 10 illustrate the type of contracts of employment for employees in the organisation.

Table 7: Frequencies of the various categories of contract of employment (A7)

Contract of employment	Frequencies	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative Percent
Permanent	55	27.9	27.9	27.9
Fix term	122	61.9	61.9	89.8
Temporary/ Casual	20	10.2	10.2	100.0
Total	197	100.0	100.0	

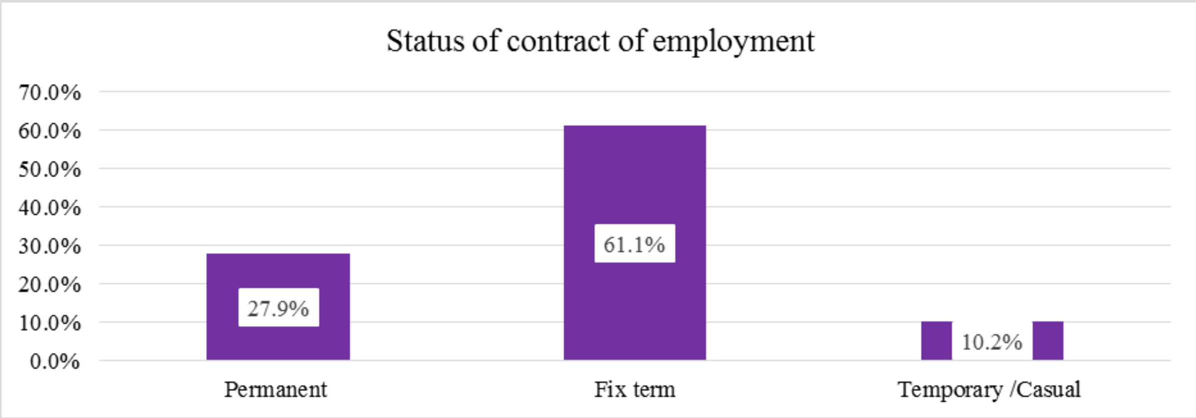

Figure 10: Status of contract of employment

The majority of employees are employed with fixed term contracts (n=122; 88.8%), followed by respondents with a permanent contract (n=55; 27.9%) and employees with temporary contracts (n=20; 10.2%).

4.6.8 Level of education

Respondents were asked to provide information based on their level of education. Table 8 and Figure 11 illustrates the different levels of education held by employees in the organisation

Table 8: Frequencies of the various categories of levels of education (A8)

Level of education	Frequencies	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
Less than O level	4	2.0	2.0	2.0
O level	16	8.1	8.2	10.2
Diploma	46	23.4	23.4	33.2
Bachelor's degree	81	41.1	41.1	74.6
Honours degree	26	13.2	13.2	87.8
Master's degree	20	10.2	10.2	98.0
Doctorate degree	4	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	197	100.0	100.0	

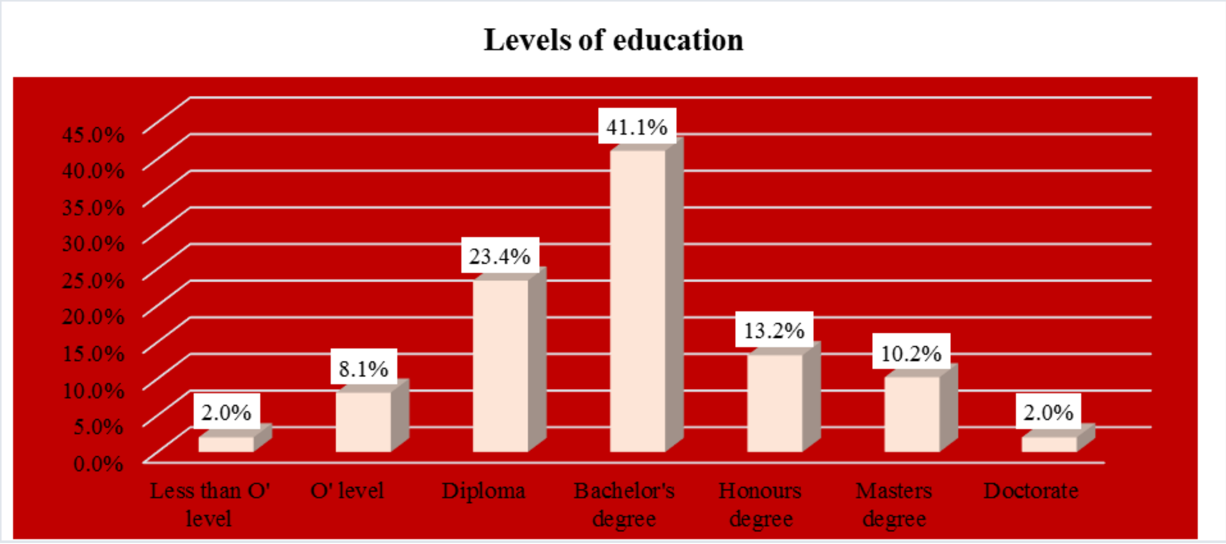

Figure 11: Levels of education

Most respondents (n=81; 41.1%) are in possession of a bachelor’s degree. The balance of the respondents are in possession of a diploma (n=46; 23.4%), honours degree (n=26; 13.2%), masters (n=20:10.2%), less than O level (n=4; 2.0%) and doctorate (n=4; 2.0%).

4.7 FACTOR ANALYSIS

Before factor analysis is done, it is advisable to measure sampling adequacy using related tests. This study utilised the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity, which are helpful in determining if the data is suitable for factor analysis.

According to Malhotra and Briks (2006:612), KMO and Bartlett’s test of sphericity are measures of sampling adequacy recommended to check the case to variable ratio for the analysis being conducted. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity relates to the significance of the study and thereby shows the validity and suitability of the responses collected to the problem being addressed through the study. For factor analysis to be recommended suitable, the result of Bartlett’s test of sphericity must be less than 0.05 (Coussement, Demoulin & Charry 2011:79).

4.7.1 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Section B (JS)

Table 9 shows the results of two tests (KMO and Bartlett's tests), which indicate the suitability of the data for structure detection.

Table 9: KMO and Bartlett's test of Section B

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		0.936
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	2347.850
	Df	91
	Sig.	0.000

The value of the KMO measure of sampling adequacy in Table 9 for this Section B is 0.936, which is close to one, which indicates that the proportion of variance within the variables is influenced by underlying factors. This is supported by the Bartlett's test of 0.000 significance level that is lower than 0.05. In conclusion, both tests indicate that a factor analysis can be performed on Section B.

4.7.2 KMO and Bartlett's test of Section C (Intention to quit)

Table 10 shows the results of two tests (KMO and Bartlett's tests), which indicate the suitability of the data for structure detection.

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

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		0.898
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	892.432
	Df	21
	Sig.	0.000

The value of the KMO measure of sampling adequacy for Section C is 0.898, which is close to one and indicates that the proportion of variance within the variables is influenced by underlying factors. This is supported by the Bartlett's test of 0.000 significance level that is lower than 0.05. In conclusion, both tests indicate that a factor analysis can be performed on Section C.

In summary, the results of the KMO and Bartlett's tests spherecity of sections B and C indicate the suitability of the data in both sections for factor analysis. Based on the above results, factor analysis was used to identify factors on employee's ITQ and JS.

4.7.3 Extraction of factors based on eigenvalues

To investigate the feeling of employees towards their work-related needs (JS) in NGOs, different components were identified through principal component analysis using varimax rotation. The criteria for the number of factors to be extracted was based on eigenvalues, percentage of variance, significance of factor loading and an assessment of the factor structure (Bordens & Abbott 2011:78). Only factors with eigenvalues equal to or greater than one were considered significant. A rotated solution that accounted for at least 60 percent of the total variance was considered a satisfactory solution using an exploratory factor analysis procedure (Creswell 2009:75). The eigenvalues, the percentage of variance explained by each factor and the cumulative percentage of variance of the four factors are reported in Table 11.

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

Dimension description	**No of items**	**Eigenvalues**	**% of variance**	**Cumulative %**
SAT 1 (Extrinsic factors)	12	6.617	47.264	47.264
SAT 2 (Intrinsic factors)	4	3.218	22.987	70.251

A variable was considered significant and included in a factor when its factor loading was equal to or greater than 0.5 (Hair, Lukas, Miller & Ortinau 2008:57). In addition, items that loaded heavily on more than one factor were eliminated from further scale development. Hence, cross-loading was also examined in the factor structure. Items were eliminated either because of cross loading or low factor loading (<0.50). This procedure resulted in the extraction of two meaningful factors, which were labeled as STA 1 (extrinsic factors) and STA 2 (intrinsic factors). Table 12 summarises the factor structure evaluation of Section B of the questionnaire.

Table 12: Factor loading matrix of Section B

Scale description	Extrinsic factors (Factor 1)	Intrinsic factors (Factor 2)
B.2 To what extent do you have the chance to work on your own in your present job?	.690	.194
B.7 How satisfied are you that you do not do things that go against your conscience?	.158	.864
B.8. To what extent does your present job provide steady employment?	.318	.792
B.10. How often do you have the opportunity in your present job to be in a position of authority and instruct other people what to do?	.724	.295
B.11. To what extent does the current work you do reflect your abilities?	.707	.440
B.12. To what extent are the organisation's policies put into practice?	.604	.541
B.13. How satisfied are you that the pay you receive reflects the amount of effort you put into your job?	.722	.382
B.14. To what extent are there opportunities for advancement in your present job?	.792	.239
B.15. How much freedom is there in your present job to use your own judgment?	.843	.207
B.16. To what extent are you allowed to experiment with your own methods of doing the job?	.830	.272
B.17. How satisfied are you with your work conditions?	.774	.377
B.18. How well do co-workers get along with each other in your present job?	.508	.653
B.19. How often do you get praise for doing a good job?	.804	.401
B.20. How often do you experience a feeling of accomplishment from your job?	.758	.431

Extraction method: Principal component with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation

The items with the highest loadings on a factor, define the factor as highlighted in Table 12.

Factor one comprised of 12 variables and include items B2, B10, B11, B12, B13, B14, B15, B16, B17, B18, B19 and B20 and this relates to extrinsic factors. It accounted for 47 percent of the variance explained by the factor. Masroor and Fakir (2009:129) revealed that. in order for employees to perceive their organisation as satisfying, that organisation must provide job security, good working conditions, policies and rules that are fair and reasonable to all staff. Employees want to work for a successful organisation.

Factor two (intrinsic factor) comprised of four variables and includes items B7, B8, B12, B18. It accounted for 23 percent of the variance explained by the factor. Peerbhai (2006:45) cited that when employees are given opportunities to have the freedom and discretion regarding the scheduling of work, decision making and determining how to do the work, they will feel a sense of completion and responsibility for the whole product or service and will interpret the job as more valuable and worthwhile. If the worker is aware that their work has significance and is making a difference, this will positively impact on work outcomes and JS.

4.7.4 Mean ratings of Job satisfaction

The mean rating of the dimensions of Section B were derived from the questionnaire response values of variables that comprised each dimension of the employee JS scale divided by the number of variables in each dimension. The purpose of the mean rating was to examine employee's JS. The minimum and maximum values are based on the lowest and highest values on a five-point Likert scale. Table 13 provides an overview of the mean rating of JS.

Table 13: Mean rating of dimensions of employees' JS

Dimension description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Extrinsic factor	197	1	5	3.05
Intrinsic factor	197	1	5	3.85
Scale item rating: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neither disagree nor agree; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly agree				

Respondents neither disagreed nor agreed that the extrinsic factor was essential to them (mean=3.05). Respondents agreed that intrinsic factors were essential to them (mean=3.85). The results indicate that what makes a job satisfying or dissatisfying does not depend only on the nature of the job, but also on the expectations that individuals have of what their job should provide (Aziri 2011:79).

Sowmya and Panchanatham (2011:76) pointed out that satisfied employees are more inclined to be industrious, inspired and dedicated to their work. Job satisfaction results from the exchange of personal factors, such as principles, character and opportunity with employment factors such as the impression of the work situation and the job itself.

4.8 Extraction of factors based on eigenvalues for Section C (intention to quit)

To investigate the ITQ an NGO, one factor was identified. The percentage of variance explained by the factor, the cumulative percentage of variance and the cumulative percentages of the factor are reported in Table 14.

Table 14: Eigenvalues, percentage of variance explained and cumulative percentage of Section C

Dimension description	No of items	Eigenvalues	% of variance	Cumulative %
Intention to quit	5	4.536	64.801	64.801

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Table 15 summarises the factor structure evaluation of Section C of the questionnaire.

Table 15: Factor loading matrix of Section C

Scale description	Factor 1 Intention to quit
C1 How often have you considered leaving your job?	.803
C2. How frequently do you scan newspapers in search of alternative job opportunities?	.740
C6. How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	.730
C7. How likely you to accept another job at the same compensation are level should it be offered to you?	.457
C8. How often do you look forward to another day at work?	.484
C12.To what extent does your current job have a negative effect on your personal wellbeing?	**.540**
C14. How frequently do you scan the internet in search of alternative job opportunities?	**.783**

Extraction method: Principal component with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation

The factor ITQ accounted for 65 percent of the variance, explained by the factor with an eigenvalue of 4.536. The items that loaded on this factor reflect that there is a probability that these employees will quit their jobs within a certain period of time.

4.8.1 Mean rating for Section C (Intention to quit)

The mean rating in terms of importance of employees' intentions to stay factors are reported in Table 16.

Table 16: Mean rating of dimensions of employees' intention to quit

Dimension description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
How much freedom is there in your present job to use your own judgement?	197	1	5	2.74
How satisfied are you that the pay you receive reflects the amount of effort you put into your job?	197	1	5	2.92
How frequently do you scan the internet in search of alternative job opportunities?	197	1	5	2.94
How frequently do you scan newspapers in search of alternative job opportunities?	197	1	5	3.01
How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs	197	1	5	3.09
How often have you considered leaving your job?	197	1	5	3.10
How often do you u think about starting your business?	197	1	5	3.15
Scale item rating: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neither disagree nor agree; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly agree				

The results indicate an overall employee's ITQ the current organisation. The means discussed in this section are shown in Table 16. The mean for all the items in this section varied from 2.74 to 3.10. The lowest mean reported was 2.74 for item C7 (How much freedom is there in your present job to use your own judgement?) followed by 2.92 for item C12 (How satisfied are you that the pay you receive reflects the amount of effort you put into your job?), followed by 2.94 for item C14 (How frequently do you scan the internet in search of alternative job opportunities?), followed by 3.01 for item C2 (How frequently do you scan newspapers in search of alternative job opportunities?), followed by 3.09 for item C6 (How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?), followed by 3.10 for C1 (How often have you considered leaving your job?), followed by 3.15 (How often do you think about starting your own business?).

The means results above illustrate that respondents agreed that they were often thinking about quitting their jobs, some are currently looking for other opportunities elsewhere and others are not contemplating to engage in a search for other jobs or not contemplating to quit their current job. This is in line with Rahman, Naqvi & Ramay (2008:47) who found that employees quit the NGO sector to join the private sector because of organisational instability. Indications are that employees are more likely to stay when there is a predictable work environment and vice versa. Therefore, in situations where organisations are not stable, employees tend to quit and look for stable organisations because with stable organisations they would be able to predict their career advancement.

4.9 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

In order to achieve the empirical objectives of the study, the Pearson correlation coefficient was used to measure the degree of linear association between constructs. The strength of the relationship between JS and ITQ was examined. The results of the analysis are reported in Table 17

Table 17: Correlation analysis among study constructs

Correlation analysis	SAT 1	SAT 2	INT
Spearmans rho SAT1 Correlation Coefficient	1.000		
Sig. (2-tailed)	.		
N	197		
SAT2 Correlation Coefficient	.683***	1.000	
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	
N	197	197	

According to Greasley (2008:77) correlation coefficients vary between -1 and 1, the closer the correlation is to one, the stronger the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic factors. If the sign is positive, then there is positive correlation, that is, as intrinsic factors increase, extrinsic factors increase. The variables move in the same direction. The statistical significance is indicated by a probability value less than significance level (i.e. $p<0.01$). This means that the probability of obtaining such a correlation coefficient by chance is less than one out of a hundred.

Table 17 depicts a positive correlation of 0.683 between intrinsic and extrinsic factors. While there is a moderate negative relationship between intrinsic factors and ITQ (0.520), a poor negative relationship is evident between ITQ and intrinsic factors. The following subdivision explains how reliability and validity of the different sections of the questionnaire were established in this study.

4.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

When doing research, it is critical to assess the reliability and validity of the indicators researchers use. The next sections explain how the reliability and validity of the questionnaire was yielded throughout this study.

4.10.1 Reliability

Cronbach's alpha coefficient is a statistic commonly used to measure internal consistency (reliability) of an instrument (questionnaire). As such, to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaire and the scaled items inside it, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for sections B and C. The sections originally consisted of 20 and 13 questions respectively; the items that had low or negative inter-item correlation were deleted, as depicted in Table 17.

Table 18: Internal consistency statistics

Sections	Number of items	Deleted items	Cronbach's alpha
SAT 1 (Extrinsic factors)	11	6	0.953
SAT 2 (Intrinsic factor)	16	6	0.809
Intention to quit (Section C)	14	7	0.907

The reliability coefficients of the sections of the questionnaire reported in Table 18 indicate that all the items from the three constructs are statistically reliable, that is they are highly correlated with one another as indicated by their high Cronbach alpha values (ranging from 0.809 to 0.953). A study done by Brits (2010:96) yielded almost the same results and indicated that a score of 0.80 or higher meant that 80 percent of the variance was systematic or a reliable variance. This is an indication of the reliability of the instrument as values above the 0.7 benchmark were exceeded, as stated by Maree (2010:285).

4.10.2 Validity

Validity is arguably the most important criteria for the quality of a test. To demonstrate the existing relationship between JS and ITQ, several instruments were used to estimate the validity of the questionnaire such as content, construct, convergent and predictive validity.

4.10.2.1 Content validity

Content validity was ascertained through the pre-test. The questionnaire was pre-tested by subject experts to check for suitability of questions and whether the questions measure the relevant constructs in the study.

4.10.2.2 Construct validity

Construct validity was ascertained through factor analysis whereby items with low factor loadings (<0.50) were deleted and cross-loadings were examined (refer to tables 11 and 13). Construct validity was also examined by the computation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scale and sub-dimensions of the scale, which were all satisfactory and served as indications of construct validity (refer to Table 17). Additionally, correlation analysis showed that both constructs (JS and ITQ) were positively correlated and provided evidence of construct validity (refer to Table 11 above).

4.10.2.3 Convergent validity

In this study, convergent validity was assessed through the computation of Spearman's correlation coefficients. Upon analysis of the correlation results by examining the patterns of inter-correlations among measures (refer to Table 16), the coefficients of the theoretically similar measures were satisfactory (ranging from 0.161 to 0.562) and demonstrated that the linear correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction and ITQ were systematically valid and provided evidence of convergence.

4.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter reported on the empirical results of the study. Factor analysis conducted on the items in sections B and C of the questionnaire assisted in the identification of factors that had high variance percentage contribution of the total variance. A descriptive analysis of Section A (biographical information of the respondents) was provided. A correlation analysis was performed. To test the appropriateness of factor analysis, Bartlett's test and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy were used. Eigenvalues, percentage of variance were also used as criteria to extract the three factors. Reliability and validity assessment procedures were also conducted.

In the next and final chapter, a general overview of the study is provided. The achievement of the theoretical and empirical objectives is discussed. Recommendations, limitations and implications for future research arising from the study are provided. Finally, the concluding remarks are presented.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an in-depth discussion of the data collection methods, the analysis of the data as well as the interpretation of the results. This chapter, therefore, provides the conclusions drawn from the research findings, the recommendations, the limitations as well as implications for future studies.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The main purpose of this study was to identify and describe the factors contributing to JS among employees of NGOs, to understand the drivers leading employees to think of quitting.

Chapter 1 discussed the problem statement as well as the theoretical and empirical objectives of the study.

Chapter 2 provided an overview of the literature on JS and ITQ by employees. Factors that determine JS among employees in NGOs were highlighted, theories of JS were discussed and factors influencing employees' ITQ an NGO sector were analysed. This chapter also provided an analysis of the relationship between JS and intention to quit.

Chapter 3 presented an in-depth analysis of the research design adopted for this study. The sampling design procedure, the data collection method and data preparation were discussed. The method of data analysis and statistical techniques were outlined.

Chapter 4 reported the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the collected data. It included a description of the sample and results of factor and correlation analyses. The reliability and validity of the questionnaire were also analysed in this chapter.

5.3 THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study were achieved through an in-depth literature review. In order to achieve the primary objective of the study, theoretical objectives were formulated and achieved as follows:

5.3.1 Objective one: To review literature on job satisfaction and the factors related to job satisfaction

The literature suggests that what makes a job satisfying or dissatisfying depends on many different factors (Ongori 2004:51; Lim 2008:118 & Aydogdu & Asikgil 2011:47). In Section 2.4, a literature review on JS was provided. In Section 2.4.1 JS was defined and in Section 2.4.2 the factors that determine JS among employees in NGOs was provided. Boles *et al.* (2003:107) discovered that sources of low JS include shortage of human resources for the NGO sector, feeling overloaded, relations with co-workers, personal factors, organisational factors, the career stage of the employee, high attrition rates resulting from migration, diseases and increased workloads because of HIV and AIDS and the absence of a mix of trained and motivated professionals.

5.3.2 Objective two: To carry out a literature study on the intention to quit

The factors influencing employees to quit were discussed in detail in Section 2.7. This objective was achieved by engaging in a detailed review of the causes of ITQ in Section 2.9.2. Some of the reasons found include the following:

- Environmental factors
- Programme factors
- Organisational factors
- Relationship and communication
- Opportunities for growth through job variety
- Compensation and benefits

5.3.3 Objective three: To examine the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit

The relationship between JS and ITQ was discussed in section 2.9. A number of studies previously done were discussed in this section. Studies done by Carmeli & Weisberg 2006:194, Ghosh *et al*. (2013:291) identified JS as the main predictor of intention to quit. JS has important consequences for both organisations and their employees and has been shown to be related closely to intention to quit an organisation (Calisir *et al* 2010:519; Seston *et al,* 2009:122).

5.4 EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES

The empirical objectives formulated at the beginning of the study were achieved as indicated below:

5.4.1 Objective one: To assess the level of JS among NGO employees in Swaziland

To achieve this objective, all the NGOs in Swaziland were surveyed by means of a questionnaire. The findings were reported in Chapter 4. The different components of the study were identified using varimax rotation. The procedure resulted in the extraction of two factors, which were defined as extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Respondents who disagreed that the extrinsic factors were essential to them scored an average mean of 3.05. Respondents who agreed that intrinsic factors were essential to them scored an average mean of 3.85. Based on these findings it could be concluded that what makes a job satisfying or dissatisfying does not only depend on the nature of the job, but also on the expectations that individuals have of what their job should provide.

5.4.2 Objective two: To determine the factors that may cause employees to consider quitting NGOs

The above empirical objective was achieved in Sections 4.7.3, 4.8 and 4.8.1. Among the factors that cause employees to consider quitting in NGOs were autonomy, job security, unfavourable working conditions and insufficient compensation.

5.4.3 Objective three: To determine the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit in NGOs

This objective was achieved in Section 4.9. It was found that there is a positive correlation of 0.683 between intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors, while there is a moderate negative relationship between intrinsic factors and ITQ (-0.520). A negative relationship is evident between ITQ and intrinsic factors.

5.5 LIMITATIONS

This study was subject to certain limitations, which present further research opportunities, as listed below:

- Response rate limitation

Some of the NGOs claimed to have misplaced the questionnaires when collection was due, new questionnaires needed to be issued, however, the hastiness due to limited time might have compromised the quality of their responses.

- Shutting down of NGOs due to reduced funding

  The number of targeted NGOs had reduced from the initial number identified during the planning phase of the study as some of them closed their doors due to reduced donor funding and subvention from the government of Swaziland. Therefore, the researcher relied on responses from active NGOs at that time.

- Fear of victimisation from participants

  The study was done during the time when most NGOs were facing dwindling funding. Participants were reluctant to complete the survey questionnaires for fear of victimisation or possible reprimand from management

- No interest in study from NGO managers and fear of administrational issues

  Little understanding and sense of value of the research were identified at different levels during data collection. Some NGOs suspected that the survey was meant to expose their management and leadership styles; hence, it became difficult to obtain cooperation letters from managers.

5.6 STUDY RECOMMENDATIONS

- The management of NGOs should investigate options to meet the salary expectations of NGO workers. It is evident from the study that salaries have an important influence on JS as well as the intent to quit of newly hired extension agents.
- It is recommended to the management of the participating NGOs pursue a retention strategy highlighting commitment and JS to obtain a committed and satisfied workforce through application of suitable human resource policies such as training, career planning, advancement opportunities, employee participation and compensation plan to reduce employee turnover intention.
- Since JS is the best predictor of employees' intention to quit, NGOs should conduct formal assessments of their employees while they are still undergoing the probationary period to measure success in providing an employment environment that promotes JS. This may provide information useful for analysing and modifying HR practices that will help to improve deficiencies in employee perceptions of JS.

- Since JS is a strong predictor of intention to quit, NGOs should consider giving attention to recruitment and hiring, benefits and compensation, evaluation and supervision, tenure and age as they seek to improve the JS of employees in the organisation.
- NGOs need to facilitate an organisational environment where employees feel valued and receive necessary support to realise their potential by contributing to the development of organisational strategies, structures and processes for improving the effectiveness of organisations.
- Management is encouraged to introduce culturally appropriate activities, incentives and processes in the organisations to motivate employees.

5.7 FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

It is recommended that this study be repeated in the future to allow for comparative analysis studies. As this investigation was limited to NGOs, it is suggested that this be replicated to the private and public sectors within Swaziland.

Future studies should ensure a larger sample size of at least 300 to be able to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis to confirm or establish sub classes.

5.8 CONCLUSION

This study explored the relationship between JS and ITQ in NGOs in Swaziland. Statistical analysis on a sample of 197 senior, middle and junior management, semi-skilled and unskilled employees revealed that both components of JS had a negative impact on intention to quit.

Based on the findings, extrinsic satisfaction had a stronger influence on intentions to quit in the NGOs. The findings have proved that there are intrinsic values that influence the ITQ within the organisation. Thus, the objective of this study was accomplished. Intrinsic satisfaction was found to have less influence with negative relationship on intention to quit. It is hoped that the findings and recommendations proposed by the researcher will contribute towards improving human resource management at NGOs in Swaziland.

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ANNEXURE A COVER LETTER

Vaal University of Technology

Your world to a better future

25 July 2014

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Welile Msibi is registered for the MTech degree in Human Resource Management at this institution. Her research proposal entitled JOB SATISFACTION AND INTENTION TO QUIT OF EMPLOYEES IN NON- GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS IN SWAZILAND was approved by the Ethics Committee and the Higher Degrees Committee of the university.

It will be appreciated if you will allow her to collect data by distributing questionnaires in your organisation. Please be assured that the information will be used for academic purposes only and that it will be treated with the necessary sensitivity and confidentiality. The results of the study might be of particular interest to you and a report will be provided to you if so requested.

Thank you

Dr PA Joubert

Research supervisor

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INTRODUCTION
Good day, my name is Welile Msibi. I am registered for an MTech in Human Resource Management with Vaal University of Technology and am doing research on the level of job satisfaction and intention to quit by employees in Non-Governmental Organisations. The research will assist the organisations to: (1) know factors contributing to job satisfaction among employees of NGOs; and (2) understand the factors that would make an employee think of quitting in an NGO; identify retention strategies that can help retain employees in NGOs. Any information you provide will be kept confidential and results of the survey will be reported in an aggregated form that does not disclose the identity of individual respondents. Participants are not required to state their names on the forms. Your participation is voluntary and if at any time during the research you wish to withdraw your participation, you are free to do so without any prejudice. It will take about 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. It will be appreciated if I could have the completed questionnaire by 30 September 2014 For further questions please do not hesitate to contact the researcher at the following contact number:76046308. Thank you very much for your willingness to participate in this very important study. **Please circle your answers**

SECTION A: BASIC DEMOGRAPHICS & BACKGROUND			
A1	Into which of the following age groups do you fall?	Younger than 20	1
		20 – 29 years	2
		30 – 39 years	3
		40 – 49 years	4
		50 -59 years	5
		60 and above	6
A2	Gender	Male	1
		Female	2
A3	Race	Black	1
		Coloured	2
		Indian	3

		White	4	

ANNEXURE B QUESTIONNAIRE

A4	Which of the following best describes your marital status	Single	1	
		Married	2	
		Cohabiting	3	
		Divorced/separated	4	
		Widow/widower	5	
A5	How many complete years have you been working for this organization	Less than 1 year	1	
		Between 1 &2 years	2	
		Between 3 & 5 years	3	
		Between 6 & 10 years	4	
		11 Years & above	5	
A6	Which of the following best describes your occupation?	Senior Management	1	
		Middle Management	2	
		Junior Management	3	
		Professionally Qualified /Skilled worker	4	
		Semi-Skilled	5	
		Unskilled	6	
A7	What is the current status of your contract of employment?	Indefinite contract (permanent)	1	
		Fixed term contract	2	
		Temporary/casual	3	
A8	Please indicate your highest level of education.	Less than O level	1	
		O level	2	
		Diploma	3	
		Bachelor’s Degree	4	
		Honours degree	5	
		Master’s degree	6	
		Doctorate	7	

SECTION B: JOB SATISFACTION

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

B1. How busy are you kept in your present job?	Not busy at all	1—2—3—4—5	Extremely busy
B.2 To what extent do you have the chance to work on your own in your present job?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
B.3. How satisfied are you with the task variety in your present job?	Not satisfied	1—2—3—4—5	Highly satisfied
B.4. To what extent do you feel that you are valued in your present job?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
B.5. How satisfied are you with your immediate supervisor (superior) in your present job?	Not satisfied	1—2—3—4—5	Highly satisfied
B.6. How satisfied are you with your immediate supervisor's (superior's) ability to make effective decisions?	Not satisfied	1—2—3—4—5	Highly satisfied
B.7 How satisfied are you that you do not do things that go against your conscience?	Not satisfied	1—2—3—4—5	Highly satisfied
B.8. To what extent does your present job provide steady employment?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
B.9. To what extent do you have the chance to do things for other people in your present job?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
B.10. How often do you have the opportunity in your present job to be in a position of authority and instruct other people what to do?	Never	1—2—3—4—5	All of the time
B.11. To what extent does the current work you do reflect your abilities?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
B.12. To what extent are the organisation's policies put into practice?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
B.13. How satisfied are you that the pay you receive reflects the amount of effort you put into your job?	Not satisfied	1—2—3—4—5	Highly satisfied
B.14. To what extent are there opportunities for advancement in your present job?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
B.15. How much freedom is there in your present job to use your own judgement?	No freedom	1—2—3—4—5	Total freedom
B.16. To what extent are you allowed to experiment with your own methods of doing the job?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
B.17. How satisfied are you with your work conditions?	Not satisfied	1—2—3—4—5	Highly satisfied
B.18. How well do co-workers get along with each other in your present job?	Not well at all	1—2—3—4—5	Extremely well

B.19. How often do you get praise for doing a good job?	Never	1—2—3—4—5	All of the time
B.20. How often do you experience a feeling of accomplishment from your job	Never	1—2—3—4—5	All of the time

SECTION C: INTENTION TO QUIT			
The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organisation. Please choose and circle one number for each of the statements			
C1. How often have you considered leaving your job?	Never	1—2—3—4—5	Always
C.2 How frequently do you scan newspapers in search of alternative job opportunities?	Never	1—2—3—4—5	All the times
C.3. To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
C.4. How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	Never	1—2—3—4—5	Always
C.5. How often are your personal values at work compromised?	Never	1—2—3—4—5	Always
C.6. How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	Never	1—2—3—4—5	Always
C.7 How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	Highly unlikely	1—2—3—4—5	Highly likely
C.8. How often do you look forward to another day at work?	Always	1—2—3—4—5	Never
C.9. How often do you think about starting your own business?	Never	1—2—3—4—5	Always
C.10. To what extent do the benefits associated with your current job prevent you from quitting your job?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
C.11. How frequently are you emotionally agitated when arriving home after work?	Never	1—2—3—4—5	All of the time
C.12. To what extent does the "fear of the unknown", prevent you from quitting?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
C.13. To what extent does the "fear of the unknown", prevent you from quitting?	To no extent	1—2—3—4—5	To a very large extent
C.14. How frequently do you scan the internet in search of alternative job opportunities?	Never	1—2—3—4—5	All of the time