

**LEADERSHIP POWER BASES' INFLUENCES ON QUALITY OF WORK  
LIFE AND INTENTION TO STAY AMONG EMPLOYEES AT  
A SELECTED RETAIL OUTLET**



by

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## DECLARATION

I, Mbali Eveltha Maphanga, declare that the contents of this dissertation represent my own unassisted work and that the dissertation has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree. Moreover, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Vaal University of Technology.

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## ABSTRACT

Retailing refers to the activities involved in selling goods or services to the final consumer for personal use as opposed to business purposes. It is a socio-economic system that gets people together to interchange goods and services for a small payment, which matches the final consumers' needs. In South Africa, the industry has grown by a yearly average of 3 percent in the past eight years and Gauteng, as a province, contributed 26.5 percent to this growth. Therefore, the retail industry has been growing at a very slow rate. Letooane (2013:2) asserts that there is a need for research in leadership power bases, QWL and how best the needs of employees can be satisfied to improve their intention to stay. In this regard, the primary objective of the study was to examine the relationship between leadership power bases, quality of work life (QWL) and intention to stay among employees at a selected retail outlet in Gauteng province.

The research methodology applied to conduct the study was a consolidation of a literature review and an empirical study. The study focused on the work of French and Raven (1959) power sources, namely coercive, legitimate, reward, referent and expert power. It also looked at QWL as the nature of the workforce in retail today is generally very different from the workforce of the past decades. In addition, the study explored how QWL will assist retailers in enhancing their employees' intention to stay.

A quantitative research approach was followed in this study and a simple random probability sampling method was adopted. A structured questionnaire, divided into four sections, was utilised to survey 300 (both male and female) employees from three branches of the selected retail company in the Daveyton township. The pilot study preceded the main survey and the internal consistency reliability was ascertained. Of the 300 questionnaires distributed to the participants, a total of 285 responses were usable for data analysis (response rate of 95 percent). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25.0, was used to analyse data into descriptive statistics, reliability and validity analysis, correlations and finally, regression analysis, which was used to test the relationship among the constructs under investigation.

The results indicated that coercive power base ( $\beta=0.456$ ) and legitimate power base ( $\beta=0.210$ ) contribute positively to the prediction of QWL, while reward power indicated a negative prediction of QWL ( $\beta=-0.044$ ).

Furthermore, the influence of QWL towards employees' intention to stay was represented by a positive beta weight of ( $\beta=0.754$ ). Additionally, all Cronbach's alpha values ranged from 0.764 to

0.913, (exceeding the threshold of 0.7) thus suggesting that all the items in the scale tap into the same underlying constructs.

Results from this research study will assist retailers to increase the QWL levels in their companies by advancing the factors that were identified in this research study. Additionally, these results may enable retail store managers to comprehensively understand how employees perceive power bases and how these employees' perceptions influence QWL and, subsequently, their intention to stay. The implications of the results are addressed as well as the limitations of the study and future research opportunities are further identified.

**Keywords:** coercive power, legitimate power, reward power, quality of work life and intention to stay

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM ORIENTATION

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

South Africa remains the most developed economy in Sub-Saharan Africa and the retail sector is the second biggest employer in the country (Vather 2008:2). Retailing is a socio-economic system that gets people together to interchange goods and services for a small cost, to serve the final consumers' needs (Rudrabasavaraj 2010:1). Amit and Kameshvari (2012:466) refer to retailing as a group of activities whereby products and services are promoted to ultimate consumers for personal or household consumption. Similarly, Arora (2012:1) explains that retailing consists of all activities involved in the marketing of goods and services directly to the consumers, for their personal, family or household use. Thus, retailing in this regard refers to the activities involved in selling goods or services to the final consumer for personal use as opposed to business purposes. Indeed, Hameli (2018:1) concludes that retailing consists of the undertakings of goods sold to ultimate buyers.

The industry has grown by a yearly average of 3 percent in the past eight years, with Gauteng province contributing 26.5 percent to this growth. However, according to Statistics South Africa (2018:1), it has been tough for the retail industry as even in the most crucial month, December 2018, sales fell by 1.4 percent. The report further shows a low growth of 3.1 percent in 2017 and 1.7 percent in 2016. Therefore, the retail industry has been growing at a very slow rate.

The retail industry is a labour-intensive industry; employing a large number of workers (Vijayakrishna 2013:1). There is, however, need to note that the nature of the workforce in retail today is generally very different from the workforce of past decades. Effective and efficient management of employees today, for example, is a significant determinant of success for retailers in firms of any size. This means that the power base a retail manager wields with regard to leading can have a major impact on employees. Indeed, Robbins and Judge (2013:242) suggest that leaders need to possess power in order to influence others towards acceptable or needed behaviour. Igbaekemen and Odivwri (2015:2) describe the exercise of power as a process that helps to explain how different leaders can influence the behaviours and actions of other employees within an organisation. Somoye (2016:2) refers to power as the probability that one may be in a position to carry out his/her will despite resistance from other employees. Thus, for an organisation to be highly productive, there should be a balance in the use of power in achieving organisational goals and objectives (Somoye 2016:573).

Management needs to exercise power to ensure that the employees produce the quality of work that is fully acceptable with very few errors and very little waste of time or resources (Glass 2018:1). Retail managers, as overseers of retail operations, normally possess a certain type of power to influence subordinates to perform their routine tasks. That power is the ability to get things done the way the managers want them to be done. Robbins and Judge (2013:447) refer to this power base as the capacity that person A has to influence the behaviour of person B, so B acts in accordance with A's wishes. For the purpose of this study, the focus was only on the formal category of power, which is based on a person's position in an organisation or company, for instance, the ability to coerce or reward, or legitimate authority (Robbins & Judge 2013:448).

Employees' quality of work reflects the way employees organise and interpret their impressions in order to give meaning to their environment and, thus, it influences their workplace behaviour significantly (Sharif, Zaidatul, Rashid & Mohd 2013:7). Thus, retail managers use power to get the best quality of work in order to maintain the perceived standards of their respective companies. Quality of work life (QWL) is positively associated with the work outcomes of employees (Berta, Laporte, Perreira, Ginsburg, Dass, Deber, Baumann, Cranley, Bourgeault, Lum, Gamble, Haroun & Neves 2018:3) and specifically influences employees' intention to stay (Kanten & Sadullah 2012:360). It should also be noted that in recent years, QWL has become a significant tool in attracting well-qualified personnel with experience (Mbui 2014:1) and retaining employees (Sojka 2014:283).

Kheradmand (2010:317) investigated the relationship between QWL and job performance among the employees. Walton's eight dimensions of QWL were used for measuring the employees' perception of QWL and the dimensions of job performance developed by Hersey and Goldsmith were used for measuring job performance. The study showed a positive relationship between the constructs and displayed positivity concerning the probable enhancement of QWL in the performance of employees and organisations, since QWL is found to be significant in reducing absenteeism, slight accidents, grievances on leadership power and quitting the job. Furthermore, the study suggested depth research on the probable enhancements of QWL to assist in developing an modernised information system in the organisations in order to acquire accurate information which is inevitable in making suitable decisions (Kheradmand 2010:317).

(Seyed Ali Akbar Ahmadi 2011:7440) studied about the paradigm of managerial coaching for promoting work life quality among the Government offices.. The study analysed the influence of managerial coaching, for developing human resources by means of learning and expansion through open communications, team processes, treasuring employees to task and development of

facilities on the QWL. The study pointed out that the managerial coaching had a significant influence on the QWL and suggested that more research to be conducted on managerial coaching and its influences.

Additionally, Long and Thean (2011:93) indicate that employees' turnover intention has always been a key concern faced by organisations, irrespective of their location, size or nature of business and is costly to any organisation in terms of quality of instruction, replacing and training new hires (Markowitz 2012:1-2).

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the influence of leadership power based on QWL and employees' intention to stay within a selected retail outlet in South Africa. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014:3) are of the view that leaders with a substantive leadership power base are able to encourage the participation of subordinates in an effort to improve their QWL and maximise employees' intention to stay.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

The rationale behind the decision to pursue this subject was on the empirical observations that were made and presented by other researchers and the research gap of this topic, particularly in the retail industry. Although various studies on the role of leadership in many industries and contexts have been completed, little research is available on how leadership power base affects retail employees' QWL and employees' intention to stay (Lee & Ha-Brookshire 2015:2). Lee and Ha-Brookshire (2015:3) discovered that retail employees consider retail employment as temporary solutions while they are transitioning from college to their professional careers, due to the unbearable conditions in this industry. Thus, the retail industry is facing a serious challenge of retaining adequately competent staff due to regular resignations and absconding employees (Letooane 2013:1). Vijayakrishna (2013:1) apportions this loss of highly qualified and experienced employees to unfavourable leadership power base and identifies this as one of the key challenges that the retail industry has to deal with. However, Tost, Francesca and Richard (2018:7) argue that when leaders practise a heightened subjective type of power, they tend to dictate group deliberations and interactions, which lead to diminished QWL, consequently, they leave the organisation.

The demanding nature of the industry as well as the physical and environmental conditions associated with retail, such as long hours and poor work-life balance, seem to aggravate employee turnover in the retail sector further (Coetzee *et al.* 2015:105). As a result, there are always steady

backlogs of vacant positions, which affect the QWL for those that remain at work and the growth of the business (Letooane 2013:1).

Employee turnover is a major concern for many organisations and is mostly caused by the instability in the management (Mamum & Hasan 2017:66). For that reason, Hyacinth (2017:1) puts forward that employees leave their organisations because of managers and the organisations' environmental conditions. Thus, intention to stay in the retail industry is a critical area of enquiry, hence, the reasons behind the employees leaving the industry should be investigated (Vather 2008:1). In addition, Chinomona, Dhurup and Chinomona (2013:2) reiterate that researchers have rarely investigated the important influence of employees' perceptions of QWL on their tenure intention, more specifically in developing countries such as South Africa. Similarly, Letooane (2013:2) suggests that there is a need for research in leadership power bases, QWL and how best the needs of employees can be satisfied to improve their intention to stay.

Therefore, the research question for this study is, what is the relationship between leadership power bases, QWL and intention to stay among employees at a selected retail outlet in Daveyton township?

### **1.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

The study is underpinned by the theory of reasoned action (TRA), which was introduced in 1967 by Fishbein and refined and tested by Fishbein and Ajzen in 1975 (Tao 2008:32-33). Baleghizadeh and Gordani (2012:31) propose that TRA focuses on motivational psychology, which relates to behaviour (leadership bases) and motives that stem from human mental processes (expectations and intentions).

The basic assumption of this theory is that people's behaviour is determined by their intention to act upon that behaviour (Tao 2008:10). The premise of this theory is that work outcomes, like employees' work experiences, in-role and extra-role behaviours, are directly determined by behavioural intentions like employees' intention to stay or to leave (Berta *et al.* 2018:2). Therefore, TRA suggests that behaviours are driven openly by intentions towards that behaviour (Orr, Thrush & Plaut 2013:1). Furthermore, Otieno, Liyala, Odongo and Abeka (2016:1) propose that TRA can be extended to hypothesise employees' behavioural patterns in the process of the decision-making strategy on employees' intention to stay.

Berta *et al.* (2018:2) explain that employees' intentions and following behaviours, are influenced by their perceptions of their work environment that they develop through interactions with their leaders and the quality of their work lives. TRA was used as a theoretical framework to examine



the influence of retail outlet employees towards leadership power bases, QWL and intention to stay.

## **1.4 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW**

A preliminary literature review on leader power bases, QWL and intention to stay was conducted, whereby existing information was explored to find out what is already known about the subject under review.

### **1.4.1 Leader power bases**

The work of French and Raven (1959:150) suggests that leaders derive their power from several sources. In their work, they investigate the bases of power and identify five well-known power sources, namely coercive, legitimate, reward, referent and expert power. French and Raven's (1959) work on power bases has been re-examined and amended over the years and new supplementary dimensions have been added to it. For example, Kanter (1977:13) added being detectable and the ability to take risks as a base of power and Pfeffer (2003:28) pointed out that being able to offer resources for an organisation is an important base of power. Therefore, researchers have attempted to expand the bases of power to include information power.

#### **1.4.1.1 Coercive power**

Coercive power is predicated entirely upon fear and takes place when someone who is in a position of authority threatens subordinates with different reprimands if certain duties are not completed in time and appropriately (Singh 2009:3). Banerjee (2009:8) defines coercive power as the power based on subordinates' perception that a superior has the potential to punish them for not conforming to set requirements. In concert, Anthony, Ree and Carretta (2015:5) view coercive power as subordinates' perception that a superior has the ability to punish them if they fail to conform to the superior's influence. Therefore, coercive power is conveyed through fear of being punished, demoted, not being recognised or even losing one's job (Chakrabarti 2014:5). For this reason, employees live in fear and their QWL is negatively affected.

Megheirkouni (2018:7) concludes that a coercive power base used by leaders has either a negative or positive impact on employees' intention to stay. On the other hand, Robbins and Judge (2013:240) argue that managers believe that their employees naturally dislike work, therefore, must be directed or even coerced into performing. Based on these assertions, the system of punishments and rewards is solely dependent upon the followers.

#### **1.4.1.2 Reward power**

Somoye (2016:568) defines reward power as the power to reward subordinates and give incentives for carrying out certain operational duties and orders given by a superior body. Examples of reward power include, but are not limited to promotions, bonuses, salary increments, time off from work and public recognition. Thus, people comply because it yields positive benefits for them (Robbins & Judge 2013:449). This implies a promise to increase an employee's benefits, those benefits can only be provided by the person in a superior position (Omisore & Nweke 2014:4). Hassard and Cox (2015:3) point out that an imbalance in the relationship between the effort exerted and rewards received has a direct bearing towards an employee's perceptions on QWL. Furthermore, Megheirkouni (2018:7) established that reward power-based behaviour of leaders has a strong effect on an employee's QWL.

#### **1.4.1.3 Legitimate power**

Legitimate power is the power that derives from holding a high position of power at work (Somoye 2016:569). This type of power is recognised and accepted by subordinates as agreeing with the laid down rules and regulations that are considered legitimate by both parties (Bernard & Umar 2014:176). Igbaekemen and Odivwri (2015:3) propose that legitimate power is based on the roles leaders play in the organisation and on the nature of the leader's personal relationship with other employees and life at work. Likewise, Somoye (2016:567) portrays legitimate power as the right way of directing employees and getting them to do things they would not normally want to do during the course of working hours while increasing their QWL.

#### **1.4.1.4 Expert power**

In keeping with power, Raven (1993:236) points out that the bases of power involve decision on the part of the target; the target can decide whether to comply or accept punishment, to refuse and forgo rewards, to go against the advice of an expert or against the logic of information. Mittal and Elias (2016:59) suggest that expert power is about relying on one's superior knowledge, as expert power is attained from the subordinates' judgement of the leaders' skills and knowledge (Megheirkouni 2018:5-6). However, expert power reposes on the beliefs of the employees that an individual has a particularly extraordinary level of knowledge or a very highly specialised skill (Bhasin 2018:4). The ideas, opinions and decisions of leaders with expert power are held in high regard by other employees, hence the great influence on their actions as a result employees are at ease and have better QWL (Merchant 2019:2). However, Bhasin (2018:4) proposes that expertise

diminishes as knowledge is shared; when a manager shares knowledge or skills with employees, as time goes by, they will obtain similar knowledge or skills, therefore, authority diminishes.

#### **1.4.1.5 Referent power**

Mittal and Elias (2016:59) state that referent power comes from being well liked by subordinates at work. Megheirkouni (2018:5-6) agrees that referent power is based on the subordinates' identification and personal liking of their superior. Omisore and Nweke (2014:167) articulate that this is more social in nature than legitimacy. Merchant (2019:2) puts forward that referent power is derived from personal acquaintances that a person has with key individuals in the organisation's hierarchy. The author further states that it is the thought that personal relationships that have been built attain certain power over others. Nonetheless, Murphy (2018:2) states that referent power influences only those employees who may not be aware that they are demonstrating their behaviour on that of the manager and by using what they postulate the manager would do in similar circumstances as guidelines.

#### **1.4.1.6 Information power**

Informational power was later added by Raven in 1965. It explains why compliance should occur (Mittal & Elias 2016:59). Murphy (2018:3) defines informational power as the power that originates from having an understanding or information that other employees do not have access to. The author further elaborates that informational power consists of an access or opportunity players have to gain information about the inner workings of the organisation (Murphy 2018:3). Hartzell (2018:1) proposes that informational power is whereby an employee holds needed or wanted information; nonetheless, this power is hard to keep, as information eventually will be released. While providing a considerable explanation of power, it is essential to explain strategic contingency sources of power briefly (Setterstrom & Pearson 2013:90). Therefore, the following literature review was conducted:

#### **1.4.1.7 Subunit power**

Pfeffer (2003:34), in his seminal discussion of power within organisations, speculated that sources of power affect decision processes and consensus among individual employees. For instance, according to Setterstrom and Pearson (2013:90), having the authority for decision making confers power on the individual that actually makes the decision. Having an influence on decision restraints, availability of information about substitutions, objectives and values utilised during the decision-making process may also be construed as power. The authors further state that consensus

is a situation whereby individual employees of a subunit share a common view, therefore, those employees from the same subunit act and speak in similar ways.

Setterstrom and Pearson (2013:90) point out how consensus in subunits can result in power when morals and perceptions are shared between the subunit and the management, or what Hartzell (2018:2) would refer to as a dominant coalition, therefore, power will be granted to the subunit. Devito (2011:2) argues that by the virtue of the value systems aiding as a validation of granting power to only selected subunits, other subunits may not be granted vthe same power. Setterstrom and Pearson (2013:90) identify subunit powers as the ability to manage uncertainty, provide or control resources, non-substitutability and centrality of information flow. According to Setterstrom and Pearson (2013:92), ability to manage uncertainty refers to the ability to reduce the probability of the problem from occurring, predicting the impacts and dealing with the uncertainties as they impact the subunit. According to Hartzell (2018:2), ability to generate or control resources is the power that stems from having access to the resources, information and the ability to acquire assistance in doing necessary work, therefore, a manager has more power over a subordinate because he/she controls the subordinate's resources. Centrality is the level of inter-dependence of the power holder and other employees (Devito 2011:3). While Robbins and Judge (2013:452) view non-substitutability power to be greater when there are few feasible replacements for a resource, Shankar (2014:903) insists that a positive legitimate power of leadership in the form of assisting and supporting employees will enhance their QWL.

Although a preliminary literature review was conducted on all French and Raven's (1959) leadership power bases, only three leadership power bases were identified for investigation in this study namely:coercive, legitimate and reward power bases.

#### **1.4.2           Quality of work life (QWL)**

Nazir, Qureshi and Shafaat (2011:10278) define QWL as a combination of strategies, measures and ambience related to the workplace that enhance employee satisfaction by improving work conditions for employees. Kanten and Sadullah (2012:361) further describe QWL as a consideration for employees' exigency and desires with regards to working conditions, career development opportunities, remuneration, work-family role balance, leadership power base and social interactions. Similarly, Shankar (2014:901) observes QWL as the degree to which employees are able to satisfy their important personal needs while employed by the organisation. Furthermore, Acharya and Siddiq (2017:584-585) concede that the purpose of QWL is that of attaining greater levels of job involvement and motivating employees by improving the attractiveness of the work itself rather than improving only the terms and conditions of work. In

consequence, QWL shows a balance both in work and personal life, which also ensures organisational productivity, an employee's job satisfaction and intention to stay with the same organisation for longer (Mohammad 2012:1). QWL is not a unitary state, but has been recognised as integrating a hierarchy of perceptions that not only comprise of work-based elements such as job satisfaction, relationships with other employees at work and satisfaction with salaries, but also elements that mostly reflect life satisfaction and common feelings of well-being (Gupta 2013:1). Therefore, QWL of an individual is inclined by the direct experiences of work and by the direct and indirect dynamics that affect the experience.

### **1.4.3 Intention to stay**

Employee intention to stay has been a topic of interest to researchers because of the negative consequences and high costs associated with actual turnover (Coetzee, Schreuder & Clinton-Baker 2015:106). Johari, Yean, Adnan, Yahya and Ahmad (2012:396) define intention to stay as “employees’ intention to stay in the present employment relationship with their current employer on long term basis”. This suggests that intention to stay has a behavioural consequence as it entails an employee's attachment to the organisation or even the degree of likelihood of an employee leaving the organisation (Jeen 2014:56). Kumar and Govindarajo (2014:149) affirm that many companies are influencing employee intention to stay through working conditions, leadership style, recognition and competitive reward systems.

## **1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The following research objectives are formulated for the study:

### **1.5.1 Primary objective**

The primary objective of the study is to examine the relationship between leadership power bases, QWL and intention to stay among employees at a selected retail outlet in Daveyton township.

### **1.5.2 Theoretical objectives**

In order to achieve the primary objective of the study, the following theoretical objectives have been formulated for the study:

- To provide an overview of the retail industry
- To appraise the literature on the underlying theory to the constructs under investigation
- To conduct a literature review on leadership power base dimensions

- To synthesise the literature on employees' intention to stay
- To undertake a literature review on the QWL among employees.

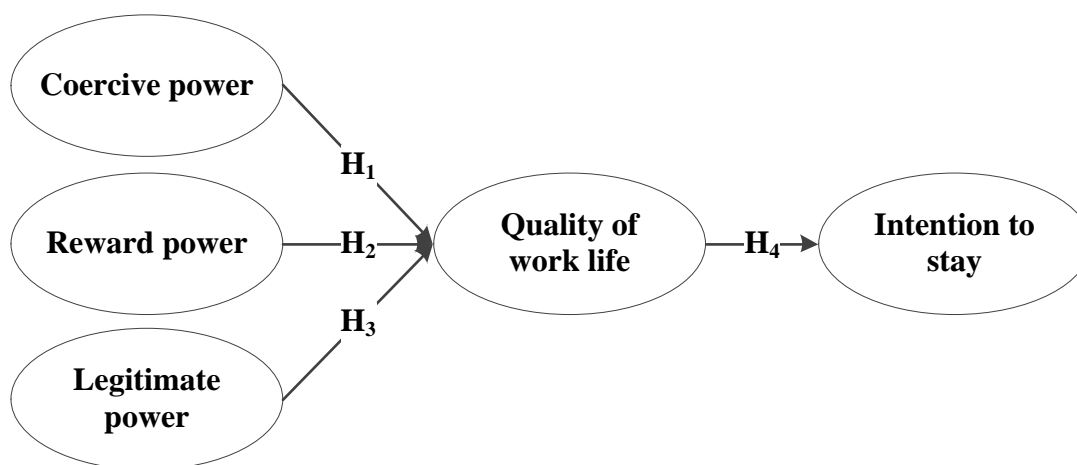
### 1.5.3 Empirical objectives

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

- To assess the employees' perceptions of selected leadership power base, QWL and intention to stay within a retail outlet in Daveyton township.
- To ascertain the relationship and influence of coercive power on the QWL among employees at a retail outlet in Daveyton township.
- To ascertain the relationship and influence of legitimate power on the QWL among employees at a retail outlet in Daveyton township.
- To investigate the relationship and influence of reward power on the QWL among employees at a retail outlet in Daveyton township.
- To establish the relationship between QWL and employees' intention to stay at a retail outlet in Daveyton township.

### 1.5.4 Conceptual framework

Based on the aforementioned, four hypotheses were formulated to demonstrate the relationships between the constructs under investigation. Figure 1.1 presents the proposed conceptual framework.



**Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework**

Derived from the above conceptual framework, the following hypotheses will be tested empirically:

- H1: There is a significant relationship between coercive power and QWL among employees in a selected retail outlet in Daveyton township.
- H2: There is a significant relationship between reward power and QWL among employees in a selected retail outlet in Daveyton township.
- H3: There is a significant relationship between legitimate power and QWL among employees in a selected retail outlet in Daveyton township.
- H4: There is a significant relationship between QWL and intention to stay among employees in the selected retail outlet in Daveyton township.

## **1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **1.6.1 Research design**

Research design articulates what data are required, what methods were used to collect and analyse data and the extent to which information answered the research question (Van Wyk 2017:4). This study adopted a descriptive and causal research design. Loganathan (2013:44) proposes that a descriptive research design is a suitable quantitative feature of a research problem and is appropriate to describe the nature of the relationship between the study variables. The causal research design, on the other hand, assisted to examine the relationships among the constructs under investigation in line with Nayak's (2016:112) recommendations.

### **1.6.2 Empirical study**

Empirical research is defined as any research where conclusions of the study is strictly drawn from concretely and verifiable evidence. (Bhat 2019:1). A study is empirical when it utilises real-world evidence in examining its assertions. This research type is founded on the perception that direct observation of a phenomena is a suitable way to measure reality and generate truth (Bhattacharya 2008:254). Therefore, empirical study is a research approach that observes the rules of empiricism and uses quantitative and qualitative methods for gathering evidence. The researcher opted for a quantitative research method because it enhances the accuracy of results through statistics analysis (Berndt & Petzer 2011:348) and also eliminates the elements of subjectivity that are associated with the qualitative research method (Du Plessis & Rosseau 2007:21).

### **1.6.2.1 Target population**

The target population refers to a certain group that a researcher seeks to attract (Berman & Evans 2010:71). The target population for this study was both male and female employees who have been employed for more than three years and are familiar with the functioning of the selected retail outlet organisation.

### **1.6.2.2 Sampling frame**

Malhotra (2010:373) defines a sample frame as a demonstration of the elements of the target population. McDaniel and Gates (2013:384) state that it is very important to acquire access to an accurate sampling frame. The sample frame for this study was an employee list drawn from the work force management system that has a record of all employees of a specific store on request. The list was requested from the regional human resource manager.

### **1.6.2.3 Sampling method**

According to Aaker, Kumar, Leone and Day (2013:302), the two sampling methods available are probability and non-probability methods. Sekaran and Bougie (2012:93) assert that in probability sampling, each party has equal chance of selection, while in non-probability sampling, each party's selection chances are not equal.

A probability sampling using simple random sampling technique was chosen because every employee has an equal chance to participate. The choice to utilise simple random sampling is based on the conclusion that unlike in stratified probability sampling, the population was not divided into homogeneous groups, as the nature of the business did not allow the use of many people at once. In addition, Weideman (2014:84) agrees that each constituent of the population has an equivalent and acknowledged chance of being selected as part of the sample.

### **1.6.2.4 Sample size**

McDaniel and Gates (2013:284) define sample size as the number of sample elements that account for inclusion in a study. Van Voorhis and Morgan (2007:49) assert that sample sizes below 50 are very poor, while those between 50 and 100 are considered poor. On the other hand, Mohamad, Sa'at and Sidik (2017:7) propose that a sample size of at least 300 can yield sample estimates that are almost accurate, as the estimates for the population parameters. Moreover, the nominated sample of this study ( $n=350$ ) is aimed at keeping up with sample sizes used in similar previous studies. For instance, Megheirkouni (2018:8), who focused on power bases and job satisfaction in sports organisations, used a sample size of 225 and Gayathiri and Ramakrishnan (2013:5), who



studied QWL linkage with job satisfaction and performance, used a sample size of 250. Thus, the nominated sample size was the most feasible and large enough to provide a good representation of the selected retail outlet employees.

#### **1.6.2.5 Research setting**

A research setting is a physical place where the research is conducted. Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:52) states that when the population is a larger representative of the study or too dispersed geographically to study directly, it is impossible and not cost effective to study to study all the participants and therefore, a smaller group of participants are selected for study by means of a particularly chosen sampling technique. Therefore, three stores in Daveyton were selected based on convenience as they were located in close proximity with each other and easily accessible to the researcher (McMillan & Schumacher 2010:137).

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

In this study, data were collected by means of a survey method, whereby a structured questionnaire was used, since it is cost effective, easy to administer and has a high response rate compared to other forms of data collection instruments (Malhotra 2010:225). Rahim's Leader Power Inventory (1988) to measure leadership power bases will be used. Data were collected from three different retail stores from the same company through with the assistance of three trained fieldworkers in order to avoid unclear variances on the data and to prepare for possible low response rates. More details regarding this section are highlighted in Chapter 3, Section 3.6.1.

### **1.8 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Data collected from questionnaires in a quantitative research method have to be analysed and interpreted (McDaniel & Gates 2013:326). This process permitted for preliminary data preparation through editing checks, coding and cleaning (McDaniel & Gates 2013:326-335). Once the data were collected, the researcher organised and coded the data on Excel so that they may be analysed. Thereafter, the coded data were transformed and descriptive statistics (profile data frequency table, means and standard deviation), correlations and regression analysis were done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25.0.

### **1.9 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY**

Reliability is a very significant factor in assessment and is presented as a factor that complements validity. Heale and Twycross (2015:6) define reliability as the degree to which a test is free from measurement errors, since the more measurement errors occur, the less reliable the test. Internal

consistency was employed to assess the reliability of the measuring instrument, namely Cronbach's alpha. A value of 0.70 and above for both measures suggests satisfactory levels of reliability (Shuttleworth 2015:1).

Validity refers to acquiring results that reflect the concept being measured accurately (Babbie 2013:158). According to Burns and Bush (2010:319), validity is the extent to which a measure truthfully and accurately represents the characteristics that are being measured. There are four major types of validity that were used in the study, namely criterion validity, face validity, content validity and construct validity.

The study employed content validity through pretesting and piloting of the data collection instrument and construct validity was assessed through Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Convergent validity was assessed through correlation analysis and discriminant validity was evaluated through inter-construct correlation matrix.

#### **1.10 CLARIFICATION OF TERMINOLOGY**

**Coercive power** - Coercive power is based on the perception that if a subordinate makes a mistake in obeying his/her superior's influencing attempt, the superior has the right to punish him/her (Rahim 1986:466).

**Reward power** - Reward power is when subordinates are rewarded or given incentives for carrying out tasks and orders given by a superior (Somoye 2016:2).

**Legitimate power** - The power a person receives because of their position in the formal hierarchy of an organisation (Robbins & Judge 2013:449).

**Quality of work life** - For the purpose of this study, QWL is a commitment of any organisation to work improvement: the creation of more satisfying, involving and effective jobs and work environments for people at all levels of the organisation (Sojka 2014:2). It is a way in which specific techniques and approaches are used in a specific organisation to improve work.

**Intention to stay** - In regard to this study, intention to stay can be defined as employees' intention to stay in the present employment relationship with the existing employer on a long-term basis (Johari *et al.* 2012:398).

## **1.11 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION**

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

This chapter comprised of the background and scope of the study. The chapter also highlighted the problem statement, research objectives and hypotheses statements. In addition, an outline of the research design and methodology was presented.

### **Chapter 2: Literature review**

This literature review chapter focuses on an overview of the retail industry, reviewed the literature on leadership power bases, conducted a literature review on QWL and theoretically reviewed the theory of employees' intention to stay.

### **Chapter 3: Research design and methodology**

The chapter focuses on the research design and methods of research used in the study. The sampling procedures and methods of collecting of data were stated and warranted.

### **Chapter 4: Data analysis and interpretation of the results**

This chapter addresses the statistical analysis, interpretation either supporting or refuting the hypotheses and evaluation of the empirical research results.

### **Chapter 5: Conclusion and recommendations**

This chapter provides an overview of the study. Concluding remarks are presented. Limitations and the implications for future avenues of study are highlighted. Recommendations are made and presented, based on the results of the study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The preceding chapter introduced the subject of leadership formal power base and its influence on the QWL towards employees' intention to stay. The problem statement was defined and research objectives formulated. The chapter also outlined the methodology adopted in this study.

QWL has attention-grabbing concept in the retail industry as the generation in the workforce today is different from what it used to be in the past. The power bases that used to work in the previous century do not necessarily work for the current working generation. The retail workforce has changed from what it used to be as individuals seek jobs that accommodate their lifestyles. Therefore, this chapter is arranged in five sections. The first section provides an overview of the retail industry in the South African environment. The second part provides a discussion on the theory of reasoned action (TRA) underlying this study. This is followed by a review of the literature on the formal bases of power of French and Raven (1959). The study connects the dots between the different leadership power bases, namely the coercive, legitimate and reward power bases. A brief description of the personal power category is also given.

In addition, the formal leader power bases used by managers in retail are provided before the concept of QWL is examined. The last section focuses on hypotheses development to understand the relationships between the variables under investigation.

#### **2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE RETAIL INDUSTRY**


The role played by retail is very important in the South African economy, with the shopping centres at the heart of this significant economic activity, contributing 19 percent to the total of the African economy (Promozione 2013:22). Abrahams (2012:3) states that retail plays a major role in the economic development of any country. According to Tohmatsu (2012:5), South African retail companies compare well with other retailers globally.

Promozione (2013:9) highlights that the South African groceries retail market is highly concentrated with five core players accounting for about 60 percent of the retail sales. Referred to as the big five, the five companies are Shoprite, Pick n Pay, Spar, Woolworths and the new player, Walmart's Cambridge Foods. Moorad (2012:7) and Promozione (2013:9) identify the top five


retailers that were ranked in the global top 250 retailers as Shoprite ranked 92nd in the retail sales rank, Massmart's Cambridge Foods (126th), Spar (179th), Pick n Pay ranked (133rd) and Woolworths (222nd). Promozione (2013:9) points out that Food Lovers Market is also becoming an increasingly significant player, having embarked upon an aggressive expansion drive. Therefore, in South Africa, Shoprite stays at the top.

This and the evolvement of Walmart and other new retailers have increased competition with a resultant downward pressure on prices. The Economist (2012:1) states that additional factors that are inducing the attractiveness of the South African retail market are the fact that the internet has lessened the time interval between local and international trends, the opinion that South Africa is the gateway to the rest of the Africa continent and the growing support by the local evolving middle class, well-off shoppers from other African countries (Schmidt, Mason, Steenkamp & Mugobo 2016:4). The following are the big five retail players are profiled in Table 2.1:


**Table 2.1: Profile of the big five retail players**

SHOPRITE	
Store type and ownership	1456 corporate and 380 franchise outlets in 17 countries across Africa and the Indian Ocean Islands. There are 153 stores in 16 countries outside of South Africa. Some 20 more stores are to open by June 2014 and at least a further 150 are in the pipeline.
Product range	Food and beverage products, general household merchandise, wines and liquors, health and beauty, furniture.
Brands	<p>Shoprite: Shoprite is the original business of the group and remains the flagship brand, serving the mass middle market. It is the brand with the most stores in RSA as well as the brand used to spearhead growth into Africa. The brand's core focus is to provide the masses with the lowest possible prices on a range of groceries and some durable items.</p> <p>Checkers: Checkers focuses on time-pressed, higher income consumers and differentiates on its speciality ranges of meats, cheeses and wines. The stores are located in shopping malls and other premises conveniently accessible to more affluent residential areas</p> <p>Checkers Hyper: Checkers Hyper offers the same selections as Checkers, but within large-format stores that encourage bulk rather than convenience shopping. The general merchandise ranges are wider covering small appliances, pet accessories, garden and pool care, outdoor gear, home improvement, homeware, baby products, toys and stationery</p>


**Table 2.1: Profile of the big five retail players (continued ...)**

<b>SHOPRITE</b>	
Brands (continued ...)	<p>USave: Usave is a no-frills discounter focusing on lower income consumers.</p> <p>OK Furniture: OK Furniture offers a wide range of furniture, electrical appliances and home entertainment products at discounted prices.</p> <p>House &amp; Home: House &amp; Home offers a wide selection of affordable, exclusive and well-known ranges of furniture, appliances, home entertainment and floor coverings.</p> <p>MediRite Pharmacy: MediRite pharmacies are located inside Shoprite and Checkers stores.</p> <p>LiquorShop: LiquorShop offers an upmarket, convenient shopping experience to Shoprite and Checkers shoppers. It offers a full range of wine, beer and spirits.</p> <p>TransPharm: Transpharm Pharmaceutical Wholesalers distributes a wide range of pharmaceutical products and surgical equipment to our MediRite pharmacies as well as other pharmacies, hospitals, clinics, dispensing doctors and veterinary surgeons across South Africa.</p> <p>Hungry Lion: Hungry Lion is Quick Service Restaurant specialising in fried chicken</p> <p>OK Franchise: The OK Franchise division operates smaller, convenience-oriented stores that offer a range of fresh and non-perishable food items, as well as general merchandise.</p>
Buying practises	Procurement of imported food and beverages is centralised through a procurement unit at head office in Cape Town. There is also a centralised unit for procurement for stores across Africa.

**Table 2.1: Profile of the big five retail players (continued ...)**



<b>PICK N PAY</b>	
Store type and ownership	<p>937 stores in South Africa across the following formats:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>20 Hypermarkets</li> <li>185 Supermarkets</li> <li>287 Supermarkets (franchise)</li> <li>17 Express Franchise (food only)</li> <li>135 Liquor</li> <li>105 Liquor Franchise</li> <li>28 Pharmacy</li> <li>76 Clothing</li> <li>13 Clothing Franchise</li> <li>113 Boxer supermarkets</li> <li>15 Boxer Hardware stores</li> <li>12 Boxer Liquor Stores</li> <li>10 Boxer Punch Stores</li> </ul>
Product range	Across all formats of stores, the product range is diverse and includes food, wines and spirits, general household merchandise, home improvement supplies, pharmaceuticals, health and beauty, clothing and footwear.
Consumer demographics	Wide-ranging. Compete on price and “the shopping experience”, which is positioned as easy and friendly, a store for each occasion. Traditional market is LSM 6-8
Buying practices	<p>Generally, purchase on a decentralised basis, which means that buyers in each of the 6 main regions will purchase products for their respective retail outlets.</p> <p>Centralising distribution by 2017 in each of the regions. Currently 36 percent of grocery distribution, 25 percent of perishables and 33 percent of frozen produce is centralised.</p>

**Table 2.1: Profile of the big five retail players (continued ...)**



SPAR	
Store type and ownership	<p>SPAR is primarily a wholesaler and distributor of goods and services to SPAR and SaveMor supermarkets, build it building materials outlets, TOPS at SPAR liquor stores and Pharmacy at SPAR pharmacy and healthcare outlets. There are 1725 stores across the following formats:</p> <p>295 SuperSpar (selling area of 1,300m<sup>2</sup>)</p> <p>439 Spar (selling area of 700m<sup>2</sup> +)</p> <p>134 KwikSpar (selling area between 300m<sup>2</sup> and 700m<sup>2</sup>)</p> <p>178 SaveMor (selling area of 300m<sup>2</sup>)</p> <p>538 Tops Liquor Stores (stand-alone liquor)</p> <p>281 BuildIt (stand-alone building materials)</p> <p>21 Spar Pharmacy (in-store pharmacy)</p>
International footprint	<p>Distribute to SPAR stores in Swaziland, Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Zimbabwe and Namibia. In addition, SPAR wholesales goods to independent SPAR stores in Zambia and Malawi although these stores do not fall under a licence agreement controlled by SPAR South Africa.</p>
Product range	<p>Premium alongside value. SPAR stores stock a full range of food and beverage products. There is a big disparity in merchandising between SPAR stores as store owners tend to merchandise for the demographics of the area they serve. Purchasing from local suppliers tends to give each SPAR a unique feel.</p>
Consumer demographics	<p>Traditionally market to the middle- to upper-income consumers (LSM 6 to 10).</p>
Buying practices	<p>SPAR operates under ‘voluntary trading’ principles, which means that SPAR retailers can take advantage of the Group trading power but retailers are also free to source goods from local manufacturers and traders. Retailers do however most often take advantage of Spar’s centralised supplier negotiations and procure against central agreements. Procurement is done at both a national and regional level by SPAR Group. The SPAR Group operates 7 distribution centres including a group import centre which is used primarily for BuildIt stores.</p>



**Table 2.1: Profile of the big five retail players (continued ...)**

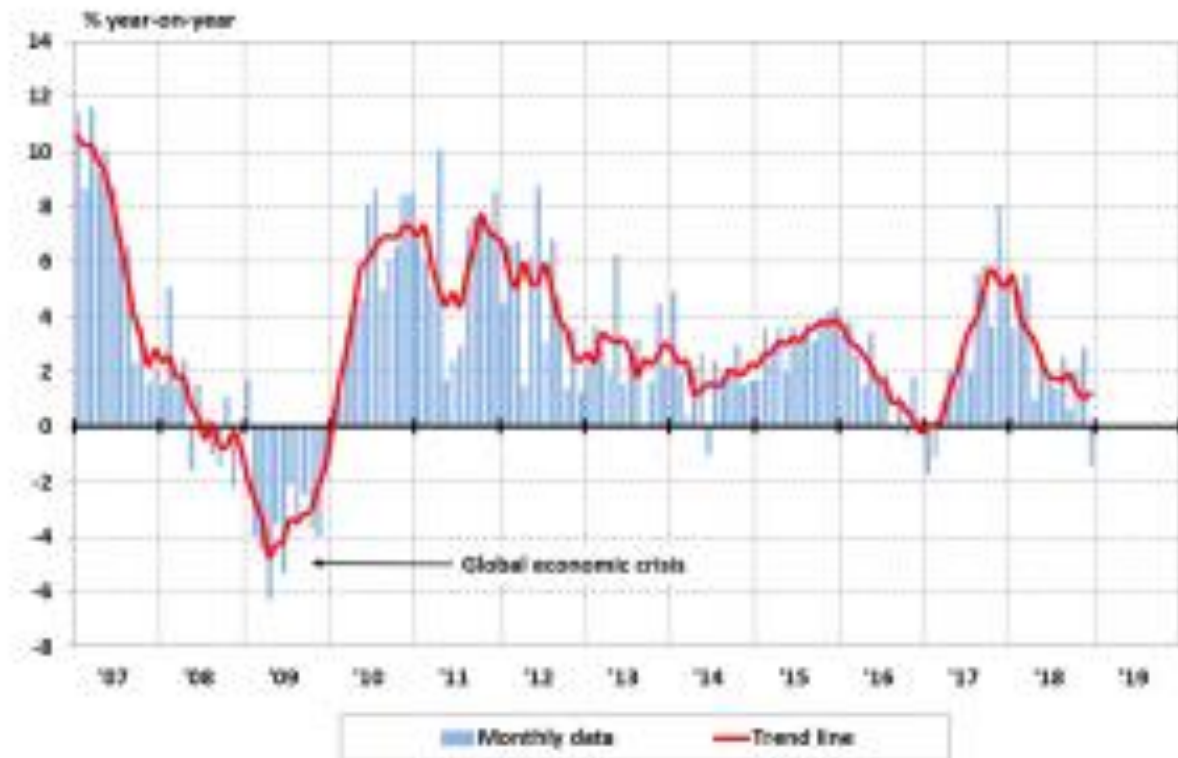
<b>WOOLWORTHS</b>		
Store type and ownership	<p>940 stores in 17 countries including 479 Country Road Stores in Australia.</p> <p>461 Woolworths stores in total in the following formats:</p> <p>197 Woolworths Clothing and General Merchandise</p> <p>296 Woolworths Food</p> <p>49 Engen franchise (forecourt store)</p>	
International footprint	<p>Currently 82 stores in 13 countries: Mauritius, Nigeria, Zambia, Tanzania, Uganda, Mozambique, Ghana, Nigeria, Kenya, Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia and Swaziland.</p>	
Product range	<p>Premium focus product. Range of clothing, food and general merchandise, mainly under its own brand name. Very few brands are stocked in Woolworth's stores. Products are similar in look and feel to Marks and Spencer Group</p>	
Buying practices	<p>Products are purchased on a centralised basis for the whole group through head office in Cape Town. Woolworths have specific buyers for every section of the food and related products market. Divisions include New Products, Longlife and Fresh products with buyers for each of the subsections of these categories. Woolworths is known in the industry to be the strictest retailer in terms of quality and standards and suppliers face rigorous testing. Woolworths operates their entire business around a programme called Good Business Journey, which is a sustainability strategy incorporating fair trade and sustainable production.</p>	
<b>CAMBRIDGE</b>		
Store type and ownership	<p>Food is South Africa's latest entrant into the retail grocery arena. Currently 27 stores with additional 7 stores. A further 16 stores will be added from the acquisition of Rhino Cash and Carry bringing number of stores to a total of 48. Targeting 100 stores by 2015.</p>	
International footprint	<p>None at present</p>	
Product range	<p>Fresh food – vegetables, meat, bakery and take-away. Basic grocery items</p>	

**Table 2.1: Profile of the big five retail players (continued ...)**

<b>CAMBRIDGE</b>	
Consumer demographics	<p>Lower end of the market (LSM 2-7). The company's website describes their customers as "characterised by high levels of unemployment, reliance on social grants as a primary source of income and heavy dependence on taxis, trains and buses to travel between work and home."</p> <p>Stores are located on or nearby high traffic commuter nodes and densely populated residential areas.</p>
Buying practices	Buying through Masscash channels (Walmart). Centralised distribution system in place.
<b>FOOD LOVERS MARKET</b>	
Store type	<p>Fruit &amp; Veg's footprint is still relatively small, comprising about 100 stores in South Africa and three each in Namibia, Zimbabwe and Reunion. Stores in Mozambique and Ghana will be added soon. The company is expanding rapidly opening around 10 stores per year in South Africa.</p> <p>Fruit &amp; Veg City: Retailing fresh produce</p> <p>Food Lovers Market: Marketed as a food "emporium" stock a wide range of fresh food from produce to meat and fish, dairy products and breads.</p> <p>Fresh-stop @ Caltex (Forecourt Stores): one-stop shop for fruit and vegetables, snacks and take-away</p> <p>Market Liquors: retail and wholesale both liquor and soft drinks</p>
Product range	Fresh produce, meat, fish, confectionery, cheeses, dairy products, wines, sauces and condiments
Buying practices	Centralised buying through head office in Cape Town. In order to stock a full product range 12 months of the year, they have an import and export division. In 3 years, this division has grown to the biggest importer of fruit in South Africa and a large player in the exporting field as well.

Sources: Promozone (2013:9-15); Lima (2017:2); Shoprite (2017:3).

Tohmatsu (2012:1) states that the retail industry has grown over the previous years due to both the availability of retail space and the number of shopping centres in the country. The industry grew by a yearly average of 3 percent in the past eight years, with Daveyton township contributing 26,5 percent to this growth. However, according to Statistics South Africa (2018:1), it has been tough for the retail industry. This is because sales fell by 1.4 percent, even during the most crucial month of December 2018. Nevertheless, in 2018 the trade volume grew by 2.1 percent compared to 2017. Figure 2.1 demonstrates the retail trade sales volume in South Africa on year to year growth rate.



**Figure 2.1: Retail trade sales volume in South Africa**

Source: Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2018:1)

Figure 2.1 clearly indicates that the volume of retail trade grew from 2007 to 2018. The deterioration in the sales growth rate during the year of 2018 is clearly visible in the trend line.

## 2.3 THEORY OF REASONED ACTION (TRA)

In order to explore the proposed relationship between leader power base, QWL and intention to stay and to acquire adequate background on these constructs, this study adopted the TRA, as discussed in the sections that ensue.

### **2.3.1 Background of the theory of reasoned action (TRA)**

TRA was introduced by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:2) resulting from attitude research of expectancy value models (Otieno, Liyala, Odongo & Abeka 2016:1). The formulation of this theory came after trying to estimate the incongruity that occurred between attitude and behaviour (Ajzen 1991:182). According to Nisson and Earl (2015:2-3), both the TRA and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) were developed from a theoretical belief that considered attitudes as the main influence on human behaviour. Southey (2011:1) notes that the TRA provides a model that has potential benefits for predicting the intention to perform a behaviour based on an individual's attitudinal and normative beliefs. However, other contradictory research emerged such as LaPiere (1934:231) suggesting the link between attitudes and behaviour was weak, with some researchers even calling for abandonment of the attitude construct altogether. Nonetheless, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:25) note that the inconsistency between attitudes and behaviours could be improved by measuring attitudes and behaviours at the same level of specificity (Nisson & Earl 2015:2).

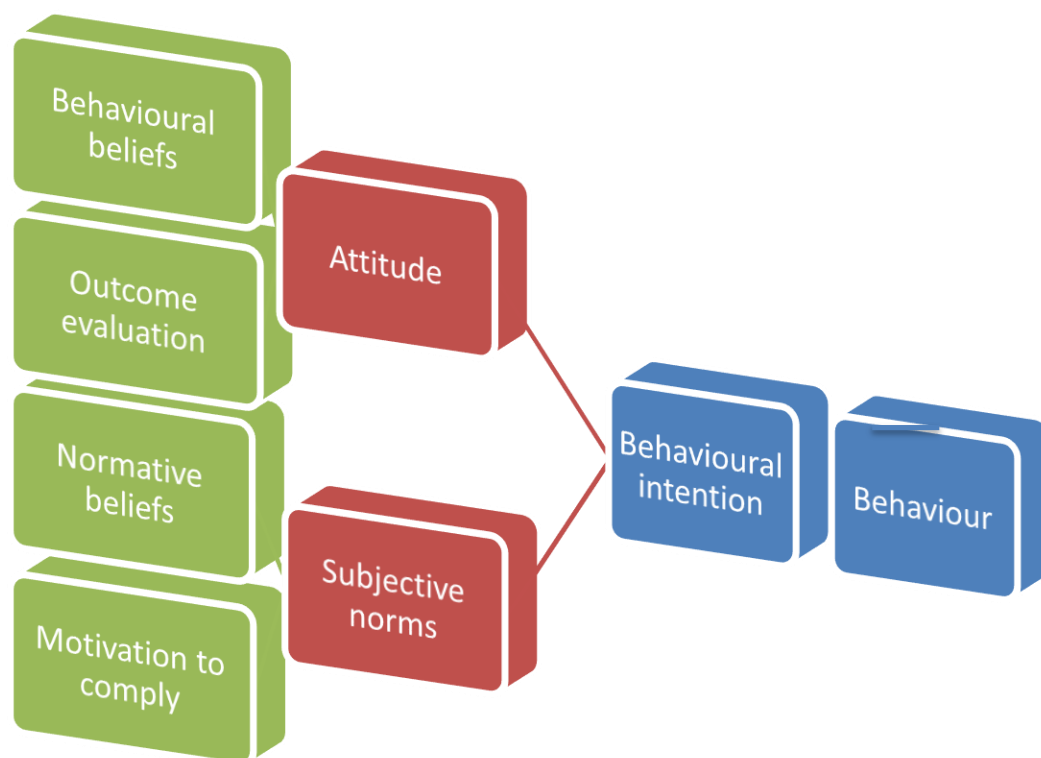
### **2.3.2 Theory of reasoned action (TRA)**

TRA attempts to explain why and how attitude affects behaviour, which is equally very important in emulating this study. Tlou (2009:17) explains that the TRA was originally introduced in 1967 by Fishbein in an attempt to apprehend the connection of attitude and behaviour as it attempts to elucidate the connection between attitudes, beliefs, intentions and behaviour. The theory seeks to describe the relationship between attitudes and behaviours within human action (Singh & Onahring 2019:4). Hence, Tao (2008:31) articulates that TRA proposes that a person's behaviour is determined by their intention to perform that particular behaviour. That intention is influenced by the attitude inclined to performing that behaviour and social perceptions of people who are important to them. The TRA is used to forecast how individuals will act based on their predating attitudes and behavioural intentions (Nisson & Earl 2015:2-3). A person's decision to engage in a specific behaviour is grounded on the outcomes the individual presumes will come as a consequence of performing the behaviour (Singh & Onahring 2019:4).

Nisson and Earl (2015:2-3) suggest that an individual's behaviour is determined by their intention to execute that particular behaviour and the intention is, in turn, a purpose of the individual's attitude towards that behaviour. Likewise, Orr, Thrush and Plaut (2013:1) are of the view that in the TRA, behaviours are driven directly by intentions towards that behaviour. Therefore, according to TRA, intention to perform behaviour leads to the actual behaviour. Singh and Onahring (2019:4) suggest that this intention is acknowledged as behavioural intention and comes as an outcome of a belief that performs the behaviour, which will lead to an explicit outcome.

Therefore, behavioural intention is imperative to TRA because these intentions are controlled by attitudes towards behaviours and subjective norms.

Berta *et al.* (2018:3) indicate that TRA is a dominant theoretical foundation of work in work psychology and the main beliefs of this theory are that work outcomes, like the act of staying with the current employer or the converse act of leaving, or extra-role and in-role behaviours are directly regulated by behavioural intentions. Furthermore, the authors say that those intentions and following behaviours are influenced by perceptions of the work environment that employees develop through interactions with their leaders, supervisors and colleagues and the quality of their work lives. Thus, the philosophies found within the TRA involve a person's elementary motivation to execute an action, as conferring to the theory, intention to perform behaviour leads to the actual behaviour (Singh & Onahring 2019:4). Figure 2.2 outlines the theory.



**Figure 2.2: The basic theory of reasoned action**

Source: Vallerand Pelletier, Deshaies, Cuerrier and Mongeau (1992:99)

The theory puts forward three constructs, namely behavioural intention, attitude and subjective norm. Otieno, Liyala, Odongo and Abeka (2016:1) describe intention as the “cognitive representation of a person’s readiness to perform an intended behaviour and is considered an

immediate indicator of behaviour”. Behavioural intention measures the chances of a person to perform an estimated or intended behaviour (Trafimow 2009:506). On the other hand, Nisson and Earl (2015:2) suggest that subjective norm is regarded as a combination of observed expectations from significant individuals along with the intention to comply with those expectations. Hence, an individual’s attitude, combined with subjective norms, forms the individual’s behavioural intention. Thus, behavioural intention is a purpose of both the attitudes towards behaviour and the subjective norms towards that behaviour, which then can predict the actual behaviour. Therefore, TRA can be stretched to theorise the human behavioural pattern in the process of decision-making. One factor that may limit the translation of intentions to behaviour is one’s ability to enact the desired behaviour. As such, the TPB updated the TRA to include a component of perceived behavioural control, which specifies one’s perceived ability to enact the target behaviour.

Manning (2011:352) asserts that TPB assumes that social pressures, attitudes and perceived behavioural control can predict an individual’s intention to take part in certain behaviour. In fact, perceived behavioural control was added to the model to extend its applicability beyond purely volitional behaviours. Bhuyan (2011:207) further augments that the attitude towards the behaviour and the perception of behavioural control results into the formation of behavioural intention such as intention to stay or leave an organisation. Thus, the TPB proposed that the primary determinants of behaviour are an individual’s behavioural intention and perceived behavioural control.

TRA has been evaluated in numerous ways; possibly the most extensive commentary has pertained to the distinction between attitude and subjective norm (Trafimow 2009:506). Trafimow (2009:506) further states that attitudes are presumably determined by beliefs about consequences (and evaluations of those consequences), whereas subjective norms are determined by normative beliefs (and motivations to comply).

### **2.3.3 Belief strength and belief evaluation**

Hale, Householder and Greene (2003:26) articulate that the main key element of TRA is attitude towards responding to certain behaviour. However, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:8) suggest that attitude toward performing behaviour is rather the function of the beliefs an individual holds for that behaviour. According to Hale, Householder and Greene (2003:26), attitude towards performing behaviour can be stated scientifically as follows:

$$A_{\beta} = \sum b_i \epsilon_i,$$

Where:

$A_{\beta}$  is a sum of belief strength and belief evaluation

$b_i$  reflects belief strength

$\epsilon_i$  refers to belief evaluation

### 2.3.4 Behavioural intentions, attitudes and subjective norms

TRA posits that the strongest predictor of volitional behaviour is one's intention for that behaviour (Otieno *et al.* 2016:2). Behavioural intentions are the results of both individual influence and normative influence (Orr, Thrush & Plaut 2013:1). Therefore, an individual's influence on intention is an individual's attitude towards performing the behaviour. A subjective norm is an individual's belief of whether other relevant people feel that the individual should perform the targeted behaviour (Nisson & Earl 2015:3-4). However, Fishbein and Ajzen refer to the normative influence on intention as an individual's subjective norm (Hale, Householder & Greene 2003:260). Hale, Householder and Greene (2003:260) further state that TRA can be expressed mathematically as follows:

$$BI = (A_{\beta}) W_1 + (SN) W^2$$

Where;

BI represents behavioural intention

$(A_{\beta})$  refers to attitude into performing behaviour

SN is the subjective norm allied to performing behaviour

W symbolises empirical weights

### 2.3.5 Normative beliefs and motivation to comply

According to Orr, Thrush & Plaut (2013:4), a normative belief is a perceived expectation of important others regarding the volitional behaviour, while motivation to comply is the pressure an individual feels for their behaviour to match the perceived expectation from others. Hale, Householder and Greene (2003:261) propose that subjective norms can be expressed mathematically as follows:

$$SN = \sum b_i m_i,$$

Where;

$b_i$  is the normative belief

$m_i$  is an individual's motivation to comply with the perceived expectations of other people

TRA was used in this study as a cornerstone to understand the motivators of employees' intention to stay in an organisation by exploring the relationships between leader power base, QWL and intention to stay.

The next section discusses the leadership power bases.

## 2.4 LEADERSHIP POWER BASES

Rahim (1989:545) defines power as the ability of one person to converse or control the attitudes, behaviour, objectives, opinions, needs and values of another person. Similarly, Northouse (2016:7) acknowledges that power is the ability to influence others. Specifically, Northouse defines power as the capacity to influence. People have power when they have the ability to influence other peoples' attitudes, beliefs and courses of action. Somoye (2016:2) conceptualises power as the probability that one party within a social relationship is in a position to carry out their own will despite resistance.

The work of French and Raven (1959:150) suggests that leaders derive their power from several sources. In their work, they investigated the bases of power and concluded that there are five well-known power sources, namely coercive, legitimate, reward, referent and expert power. Reward power is based on employees' perception that a superior has an ability to grant them with perceptible benefits if they comply. Coercive power is based on the employees' perception that a superior has the ability to reprimand them for not being compliant. Legitimate power is based on the employees' perception that the superior has authority to issue and have the ordinance followed based on their official position in an organisation. Referent power is based on the subordinates' identification and personal liking of their superior. Lastly, expert power is derived from the subordinates' discernment of their leaders' skills and capabilities. (Megheirkouni 2018:5-6).

French and Raven's (1959) work on power bases has been re-examined and amended over the years and new supplementary dimensions have been added to it. For example, Kanter (1977:13) added being detectable and the ability to take risks as a base of power and Pfeffer (2003:28) also pointed out that being able to offer resources for an organisation is an important base of power. Therefore, researchers have attempted to expand the bases of power to include information power



(Megheirkouni 2018:5-6). However, Gaski (1986:66) conducted a study and pointed out that the informational power dimension was apprehended in French and Raven's (1959) original framework. In fact, Raven (2008:5) indicated that in French and Raven's (1959:151) influential work, information given by a superior to influence the behaviour of an employee was alleged as informational influence. However, it was not labelled as informational power then. It was only in succeeding studies that this base was recognised as a form of power.

However, in order to simplify the understanding of the original five power bases, Robbins and Judge (2013:446) and various other authors divided the bases of power into two categories: formal power and personal power. Formal power implies the power derived from an organisational position, which is inclusive of legitimate power, reward power and coercive power. Personal power implies the power that is derived from an individual's personal qualities and includes referent power and expert power (Robbins & Judge 2013:447). Although in Kotter's (1998:38) study, it was argued that the dissimilarities between management and leadership have nothing to do with personality traits (opposing referent and expert power), rather management and leadership are two totally different philosophies of action that each one has its own functions and characteristics.

This classification is agreed upon and has found empirical support from Rahim (2014:24) and Yukl and Falbe (1991:416). Therefore, with the importance of these two categories, it is evident that at the organisational level, personal and formal powers are the two main categories of power. Banerjee (2009:10) states that there is another form of classification that was presented by Raven, Schwarzwald and Koslowsky (1998:307). This classification categorises power bases as either harsh or soft. Koslowsky, Schwarzwald and Ashuri (2001:457) specified that expert, referent, information and legitimate power were referred to as soft; whereas, coercive and reward power were referred to as harsh. Whether a power base is considered harsh or soft depends on how delicate and positive and punitive it is deliberated to be (Mittal & Elias 2016:60). Based on their results from a literature review, Mittal and Elias (2016:60) also categorise power as either soft or hard. This harsh versus soft distinction is reflected in Table 2.2.

**Table 2.2: Soft and hard bases of power**

POWER BASE	ENTAILS
<b>Soft bases of power</b>	
Expert	Target complies because the agent is perceived to have superior knowledge in his or her field
Referent	Target complies because he or she wants to be associated with or be viewed as similar to the agent
Informational	Target complies because the rationale for compliance provided by the agent makes logical sense
Legitimate	Target complies because the agent is unable to perform some task him or herself
<b>Hard bases of power</b>	
Coercive	Target complies because he or she perceives that the agent has the power to punish non-compliance
Reward	Target complies because he or she perceives that the agent can provide a tangible reward

Source: Mittal and Elias (2016:60)

For the purpose of this study, the formal taxonomy of the five bases of power identified from French and Raven's (1959) original framework are used as bases of leadership power influencing intention to stay. These bases are discussed in the next section.

#### 2.4.1 Taxonomy of power bases

As noted earlier in this study, the work of French and Raven (1959:150) suggests that leaders derive their power from several sources. These sources and definitions attached to them are reflected in Table 2.3.

**Table 2.3: Sources of organisational power**

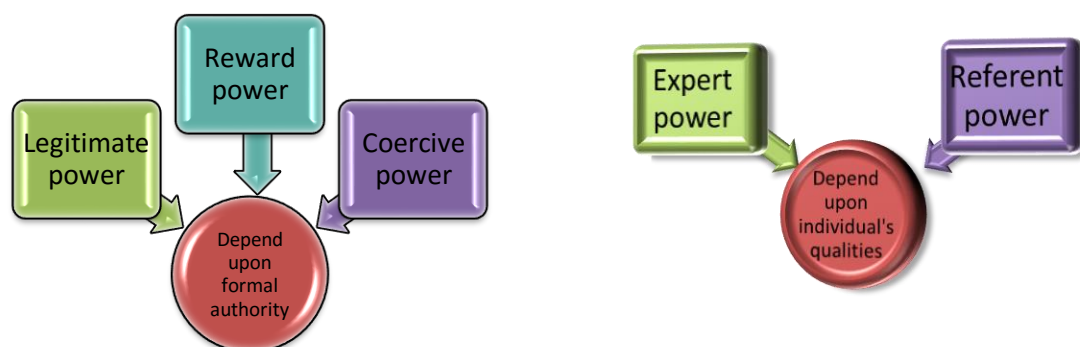
Sources of power	Definition
<b>Coercive power</b>	Power based on the perception that the manager can punish the employees if they do not conform to their manager's influence attempt.
<b>Referent power</b>	Power based on the feeling of oneness of employees with their manager.

**Table 2.3: Sources of organisational power (continued ...)**

Sources of power	Definition
<b>Legitimate power</b>	Power based on employees' belief that their manager has the legitimate right to manage the organisation.
<b>Expert power</b>	Power based on the employees' perception of their managers' expertise within a given area.
<b>Reward power</b>	Power based on the ability of the manager to reward the employees.

Source: French and Raven (1959:163)

Munduate and Dorado (1998:165) indicate that the bases of power depend on members being aware that their supervisors can punish them if they fail to conform to their attempts at influencing (coercive power base), can reward them for the desired behaviour (reward power base), possess the right to prescribe (legitimate power base), have special knowledge and experience in a given area (expert power base) and possess personal charisma that leads to members' identifying with them (referent power base). Figure 2.3 demonstrates the dependence of power bases.



**Figure 2.3: Power bases and their dependencies**

Source: Singh (2009:167)

French and Raven's (1959) work on power bases has been re-examined and amended over the years and new supplementary dimensions have been added to it.

#### **2.4.1.1 Coercive power**

Coercive power is predicated entirely upon fear and takes place when someone who is in an authority position threatens subordinates with different reprimands if certain duties are not completed in time and appropriately (Singh 2009:3). Banerjee (2009:8) defines coercive power as

the power based on subordinates' perception that a superior has the potential to punish them for not conforming to set requirements. In concert, Antony, Ree and Carretta (2015:5) view coercive power as subordinates' perception that a superior has the ability to punish them if they fail to conform to the superior's influence. Therefore, coercive power is conveyed through fear of being punished, demoted, not being recognised or even losing one's job (Chakrabarti 2014:5). For this reason, employees fear punishment and choose either to comply or leave.

Furthermore, French and Raven (1959:263) propose that the strong point of coercive power rests on the size of the negative effect of the threatened punishment multiplied by the perceived probability that a superior can avoid the punishment by conformity, for instance, the probability of punishment for nonconformity minus the probability of punishment for conformity.

While reward power could eventually end in an independent system, the properties of coercive power will remain dependent as reward power will be disposed to increase the attraction of subordinates towards the leader; coercive power decreases this attraction (French & Raven 1959:264). Megheirkouni (2018:7) concludes that coercive power bases used by leaders have either a negative or positive impact on employees' intention to stay. On the other hand, Robbins and Judge (2013:240) argue that managers believe that their employees naturally dislike work and must therefore be directed or even coerced into performing. According to Quain (2019:1-2), coercive power has many recompenses and detriments that could work against the body owning it and they are as follows:

The main recompenses of coercive power are in its aptitude to enforce compliance from employees. Intrinsically, it is suitable in certain conditions, as highlighted below:

**Preventing harassment and discrimination:** suspension or termination could be used as a threat to ensure that the company's rules and policies are being followed, including those related to harassment and discrimination in the workplace.

**Turnaround situations:** a turnaround situation exists when a company or department needs to be turned around as soon as possible, or it will go bust or be shut down. It is natural for some members of a team to be resistant to change, but in a turnaround situation there is no time for this. The company needs to change now and is at risk if it does not. In a turnaround situation, the threat of job losses can be a useful tool in getting employees to commit to the new way of working.

According to Quain (2019:1-2), some of the pitfalls of coercive power include:

- **Lowers job satisfaction:** people resent it being used on them as they feel as if they are under a microscope.
- **Backlash threat:** there is always the threat of a counterattack when using coercive power. Employees may eventually retaliate or seek alternate employment and high employee intention to stay is very expensive to an organisation.
- **Close supervision needed:** It is only useful if you as a manager are able to keep a close eye on what is going on.
- **Only works if used cautiously:** coercion as your standard source of workplace power is not sustainable in the long term.
- **Does not work if you are unable to carry out the threat:** in this case, the threat is counterproductive and your authority as a leader can be undermined over the long run.
- **Reduces innovation:** since everybody is under a microscope or under the threat of punishment, there is no room for creativity and innovation.

Based on the above pitfalls, Quain (2019:2) recommends that coercive power should only be used when there is no other choice and there has to be an immediate stop on negative behaviour. Based on these assertions, the system of punishments and rewards is sorely depending upon the followers.

#### **2.4.1.2 Reward power**

Reward power is similar to coercive power in that it also involves a superiors' ability to deploy the attainment of valences (French & Raven 1959:263). Somoye (2016:568) defines reward power as the power to reward subordinates and give incentives for carrying out certain operational duties and orders given by a superior body, for example, reward power includes but is not limited to promotions, bonuses, salary increments, time off from work and public recognition. Thus, people comply because it yields positive benefits for them (Robbins & Judge 2013:449). This implies the promise of increasing the outcomes of the employee, of which the person in the position of leadership can give or withhold something desired by the subordinates (Omisore & Nweke 2014:4). Hence, French and Raven (1959:263) propose that the strength of reward power increases with the size of the rewards that subordinates perceive the leader can mediate for them. However, Hassard and Cox (2015:3) point out that an imbalanced relationship between the effort exerted and rewards received has a direct bearing towards employees' perceptions on QWL. Furthermore, Megheirkouni (2018:7) established that reward power-based behaviour of leaders has a strong

effect on an employee's QWL. According to Robbins and Judge (2013:448), the rewards can come in the form of:

- Salary raises
- Bonuses
- Recognition
- Promotions
- Interesting work assignments
- Friendly colleagues
- Preferred work shifts
- Extra time off
- Company car
- Gifts
- Increased responsibility
- A discount on the company's products or services

### **Tangible and intangible rewards**

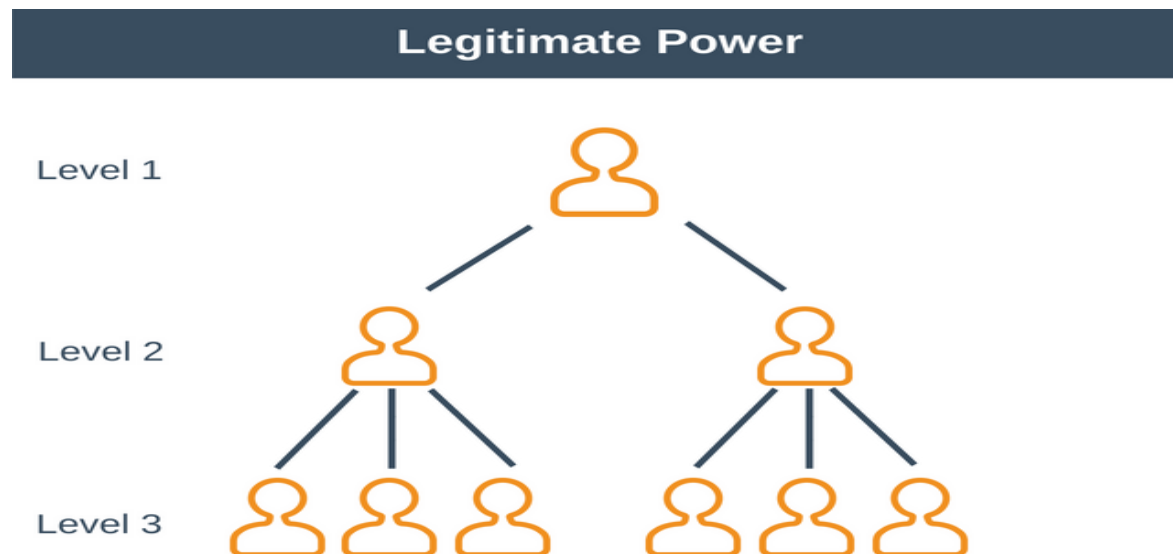
Abudi (2011:4) states that there are two types of rewards, namely tangible and intangible. Tangible rewards include bonuses and pay rises, whereas intangible rewards include praise and increased responsibilities. Abudi (2011:4-5) further administers managers may run out of rewards, for instance, there are only so many times that one can use a promotion as a reward for one employee. For that reason, it is beneficial to utilise intangible rewards often and save tangible rewards for bigger successes or even only issuing them per annum (Quain 2019:3).

#### **2.4.1.3 Legitimate power**

Legitimate power is the power that derives from holding a high position of power at work (Somoye 2016:569). This type of power is recognised and accepted by subordinates as being in agreement with the laid down rules and regulations that are considered legitimate by both parties (Bernard & Umar 2014:176). Igbaekemen and Odivwri (2015:3) propose that legitimate power is based on the roles leaders play in the organisation and on the nature of the leaders' personal relationship with other employees. Likewise, Somoye (2016:567) portrays legitimate power as the right way of

directing employees and getting them to do things they would not normally want to do during the course of working hours.

Legitimate power is a formal type of power derived from the position that one holds in an organisation. Phatak (2018:3) agrees that with legitimate power it is the position that gives an individual power, subordinates conform because they believe in the legitimacy of the position. Therefore, the higher up in the organisational hierarchy an individual goes, the more power they hold.



**Figure 2.4: Organisational hierarchy**

Source: Phatak (2018:3)

In the Figure 2.4, the top-level leader on Level 1 has authority over all the employees underneath him/her; the whole organisation. To each of the leaders on the succeeding level, Level 2 has authority over the three isolated employees. Finally, those at the bottom level of the organisation have neither power nor authority over anyone.

Be it business, educational, corporate or any organisational leadership, it is always advisable to have a clear idea of what is the extent of legitimate power that can be exercised at every level of the hierarchy, so that the organisation can run smoothly and there is less friction, compared to a situation where people forget what their legitimate powers are and abuse them Phatak (2018:3-4).

Phatak (2018:3-4) suggests the following as the strengths and weaknesses of legitimate power.

### **Strengths of legitimate power**

- A clear hierarchy permits the whole organisation to comprehend precisely who has legitimacy over whom.
- Rules and, sometimes, laws exist to reinforce legitimate power, for example, a subordinate can face disciplinary action if they do not accomplish the commands of their boss.
- Legitimate power is acknowledged as culturally normal in most civilisations.

### **Weaknesses of legitimate power**

- It does not always yield effective organisations.
- It does not encourage employee loyalty.

Legitimate power can be abused in a number of ways, including:

- When a leader with legitimate power attempts to use that power upon an employee they do not have formal legitimate power over.
- When a boss forces a team member to comply without regard to the relationship.
- When the leaders or managers' performance is inferior.
- When power means the leader does not allow anybody to differ with their opinion, it leads to a form of prejudice where only a single opinion is permitted.

While providing a considerable explanation of power, it is as essential to briefly explain strategic contingency sources of power (Setterstrom & Pearson 2013:90). Therefore, the following literature review was conducted:

### **Subunit power**

In his seminal discussion of power within organisations, Pfeffer (1981:135) speculated that sources of power affect decision processes and consensus among individual employees. For instance, according to Setterstrom and Pearson (2013:90), having the authority for decision-making confers power on the individual that makes the decision. Therefore, the availability of information about substitutions, objectives and values utilised during the decision-making process may also be construed as power. The authors further state that consensus is a situation whereby individual employees of a subunit share a common view, therefore, those employees from the same subunit act and speak in similar ways.



Setterstrom and Pearson (2013:90) point out how an agreement in subunits can result in power when morals and perceptions are shared between the subunit and the management. Setterstrom and Pearson (2013:90) identify subunits powers as the ability to manage uncertainty, ability to provide or control resources, non-substitutability and centrality of information flow. According to Setterstrom and Pearson (2013:92), ability to manage uncertainty refers to the ability to reduce the probability of the problem from occurring, predicting the impacts and dealing with the uncertainty as they impact the subunit. According to Hartzell (2018:2), ability to generate or control resources is the power that stems from having access to the resources, information and the ability to acquire assistance in doing necessary work. Therefore, a manager has more power over a subordinate because he/she controls the subordinate's resources. Centrality is the level of inter-dependence of the power holder and other employees (Devito 2011:3). While Robbins and Judge (2013:452) view non-substitutable power to be greater when there are few feasible replacements of a resource. Shankar (2014:903) insists that a positive legitimate power of leadership, in the form of assisting and supporting employees, will enhance their QWL.

It is important to note that in all the power bases, the power that the influence agent has is largely dependent on the perceptions of the target person. Therefore, in an organisational context, a leader will be successful in exercising the power only if the subordinate believes that the leader is powerful (Vecchio 2003:7). In keeping with this perspective, Raven (1993:236) points out that the bases of power involve decision on the part of the target. The target can decide whether to comply or accept punishment, to refuse and forgo rewards, to go against the advice of an expert or against the logic of information. Raven also distinguished between power bases and force or manipulation, where change is induced without the target's volition.

A leader can possess each of the five power bases mentioned in varying degrees and his or her use of one power base can affect the strength of another (Vecchio 2003:76). When reviewing social power, it is also vital to understand the motivations that lead individuals to choose a particular base of power. Raven (2008:7) emphasised that apart from wanting to pick the strategy that will be most effective in a particular situation there may be other subtle forces that determine the choice of power strategy. The author further states personal power may not be as effective if the employees do not have any personal feelings attached to the superior. Therefore, motivation is based on the finding that leadership behaviour is determined by need for power (Robbins and Judge 2013:241). However, too much leadership authority may infringe employees' QWL (Shankar 2014:903). The next section discusses the QWL construct.

## **2.5 QUALITY OF WORK LIFE**

One of the first uses of QWL is found in the study of Mayo (1960:84) but has not led to a clearer consensus as to how the term should be defined (Easton & Van Laar 2013:74). Definitions of QWL have continued to vary over time and to be influenced by the theoretical stance of researchers (Easton & Van Laar 2013:73). For instance, Dutta and Tripathy (2015:14) suggest that psychological growth needs can be used in the conceptualisation of QWL, such as task identity, skill variety, autonomy, task significance and feedback. They proposed that these needs have to be addressed if employees are to experience high QWL.

### **2.5.1 Conceptualisation of quality of work life (QWL)**

QWL is a process by which an organisation responds to employees' needs for developing mechanisms to allow them to share fully in making the decisions that design their lives at work (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy 2015:2). Cascio (2010:24) defines QWL as the perceptions employees have concerning the workplace. It is the degree to which members of a work organisation are able to satisfy important personnel needs through their experience in the organisation (Mbui 2014:1). From feelings of general well-being to authentic working conditions, from organisational policies, procedures and rules to personality, an employee's assessment of their QWL is affected as much by their job as what the individual brings to the job (Easton & Van Laar 2013:71).

However, Rahiman and Kodikal (2018:1) suggest that, initially, QWL focused on the effects of employment on the general wellbeing of the workers, but now its focus has been changed as every organisation needs to give a good working environment to their workers, including all financial and non-financial incentives so that they can retain their employees for the longer period and for the achievement of the organisation goals.

In general, QWL refers to friendly or unfriendly of a job environment (Velayudhan & Yameni 2017:3). Hence, Suyantiningsih, Haryono and Zami (2018:55) refer to QWL as a good and conducive working environment. Thus, QWL means having good supervision, good working conditions, good pay and benefits and interesting, challenging and rewarding work (Rahiman & Kodikal 2018:1). According to Mohammadi, Tavakoli, Yazdanian and Babaei (2017:25-26), the following are some of the reasons there has been an increase in the concern for QWL:

- Increase in education levels and consequently job aspirations of employees.
- Association of workers.

- Significance of human resource management.
- Widespread industrial unrest.
- Growing of knowledge in human behaviour.

Mohammadi, Tavakoli, Yazdanian and Babaei (2017:26) further assert that QWL comprises the sum of total healthy experience of employees' experience in various parts of the work life as the reaction of employees to work depends upon three factors:

- The personality traits and individual characteristics such as need pattern, tolerance for ambiguity, locus of control, work ethics, values, abilities and skills of the employees.
- Characteristics of the job, such as the amount of challenges it offers, the extent of autonomy one has in doing the job, the extent of skills used in performing the job and the like.
- Facilities offered by the organisation at the work place such as reward systems and training facilities.

Moreover, the QWL was inversely related primarily to the lack of recognition, the lack of time, the poor consideration for workers and their families, the lack of training and the lack of collaboration, and positively related to job characteristics, organisational climate, organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Giang & Tung 2016:195).

As Das (2017:1) mentions, QWL has different meanings for different peoples; some consider it industrial democracy or codetermination with increased employee participation in the decision-making process; for managers and administrators, predominantly, QWL denotes improvement in the psychological aspects of work to improve productivity; unions and workers interpret it as more equitable sharing of profits, job security and healthy and humane working conditions; some view it as improving social relationships at the workplace through autonomous workgroups; and others take a broader view of changing the entire organisational climate by humanising work, individualising organisations and changing the structural and managerial systems.

Table 2.4 sets out further definitions QWL.

**Table 2.4: Summary of definitions of quality of work life (QWL)**

Year	Author	Definition of quality of work life
2014	Šverko and Galić	Perceived extend to which employees can satisfy their important personal needs through their activities in the work place and experiences in the organisation.
2014	Mazlouni <i>et al.</i>	Attitudes of employees towards their job, especially their work outcomes including job satisfaction, mental health and safety which directly influence organisational outcomes.
2011	Nazir, Qureshi, Shafaat and Ilyas	A combination of strategies, procedures and ambiance related to a workplace that altogether, enhance and sustain the employee satisfaction by aiming at improving work conditions for the employees of the organisations.
2000	Lau	The favourable working environment that supports and promotes satisfaction by providing employees with rewards, job security and career growth opportunities.
2001	Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel and Lee	A variety of needs through resources, activities and outcomes stemming from participation in the workplace.

Adapted from: Ramawickrama, Opatha and PushpaKumari (2017:168)

This study has adopted Mazlouni *et al.* 2014 definition of QWL.

### 2.5.2 The importance of quality of work life (QWL)

Naude (2010:16) states that there have been more than ten international quality of life conferences that were hosted by the International Society for Quality of Life Studies that indicate the significance of the subject. Employees are seeking a better QWL but few of them can define clearly what it means to them in terms of their personal needs (Lora 2008:3). Today's educated workforce expects more than just pay from their work (Velayudhan & Yameni 2017:3). Naude (2010:16) established that after many years of economic development and income growth, reimbursements and benefits are not the only aims that employees desire to chase. The author further states that this transformation in values shows that employees are now searching for something more in the workplace, which is a good QWL. Dynamic work environment always demands equal importance to both human need and technology, where the individual perspectives play a very important role in democratisation of work relations and humanisation of work atmosphere (Velayudhan & Yameni 2017:3).

QWL discusses the way of managing people within an organisation (Ramawickrama, Opatha & Pushpakumari 2017:170). For that reason, Mbui (2014:1) suggests that QWL in organisations is

crucial to ensure the smooth running and the success of its employees, therefore, work-life balance must be maintained effectively to ensure that all employees are running at their peak potential and free from stress and strain. Effective QWL is fundamentally a tool of improving working conditions (from an employee's point of view) and greater organisational efficiency (particularly from the employer's point of view) (Ramawickrama, Opatha & Pushpakumari 2017:170). Hence, the importance of QWL discussion through both employee and employer perspectives.

### **2.5.3 The objective of quality of work life (QWL)**

The QWL objective is to change and improve the work climate so that effective interpersonal, technological and organisational relationships make the work experience more attractive (Suyantiningsih, Haryono & Zami 2018:55). According to Reddy & Reddy (2010:22-29), the purpose of QWL is to increase employee satisfaction, improve the physical and psychological health of employees who create positive feelings, improve employee productivity, strengthen learning in the workplace, improve constant management of change and transition, building the organisation's image as the best in employee recruitment and retention and motivation.

Likewise, Rahiman and Kodikal (2018:1) agree that the basic purpose of QWL is to develop jobs and working conditions that are excellent for employees as well as the economic health of organisation, in respect of the level of satisfaction, motivation, commitment and involvement an individual experiences in their line of work.

The importance of QWL in most researches and writings has been linked to employees' job outcomes such as productivity, job satisfaction, employees' commitment and increased employee retention (Mbui 2014:5). According to Chinomona and Dhurup (2014:367), a better QWL makes employees satisfied with their job at their workplace and that contentment trickles down to their home and family life. Chinomona and Dhurup (2014:367) further state that there is some evidence showing that satisfied employees are happy employees; happy employees are dedicated and loyal; happy employees are therefore productive and tend to stay longer with a company. Ramawickrama, Opatha and Pushpakumari (2017:17) suggest that QWL is significant in the context of motivation, job performance, job satisfaction and commitment of employees. Sumathi and Velmurugan (2017:139) identify objectives of QWL as follows:

- Improve employee satisfaction;
- Improve physical and psychological health of employees, which creates positive feelings;
- Enhance productivity of employees;

- Reinforce workplace learning;
- Improved management of the ongoing change and transition;
- Build the image of the company as best in recruitment, intent to stay and in general motivation of employees.

#### **2.5.4 Dimensions of quality of work life (QWL)**

Mirkamalia and Thanib (2011:180) contend that QWL has a multi-perspectival structure that is made of relations such as compensation or reward systems, securing jobs for employees, workflows and workloads, involvement in the decision-making process and opportunities for career growth. Boas and Morin (2013:68) advocate that dimensions of QWL include ability to use judgment, implication of decisions, independence at work, forecasts for learning, application of skills, obstacles in the workplace, performance management criteria, varied responsibilities, acknowledgement, interpersonal relations, accomplishments and job contribution to the apprehension of organisational goals and employees' participating in the decision-making processes. Sojka (2014:285) conducted research in the Slovak environment and classified the dimensions of QWL into three classes, namely primary, secondary and tertiary characteristics. These classes were broken down into a ten-structure dimension of QWL listed as workload, content of work, financial reward, work position, social relations and a possibility for further development, location, working conditions, benefits, organisational culture and the business image. Hence, Ngcamu (2017:120) declares that the literature review of QWL points out many different but somewhat related dimensions of QWL.

Shankar (2014:906) concludes that better QWL can lead to increased employee morale, minimise attrition and turnover intention and absenteeism. Nayak (2016:7) maintains that employees' intention to stay or leave is mostly influenced by the extent to which the employees are satisfied with the aspects of their work life.

Mirkamalia and Thanib (2011:180) contend that QWL has a multi-perspectival structure that is made of relations such as compensation, securing jobs for employees, workflows and workloads, involvement in the decision-making and opportunities for career growth. Boas and Morin (2013:68) advocate that dimensions of QWL include ability to use judgment, implication of decisions, independence at work, forecasts for learning, application of skills, obstacles in the workplace, performance management criteria, varied responsibilities, acknowledgement, interpersonal relations, accomplishments and job contribution to the apprehension of organisational goals.

Sojka's (2014:285) studied the Slovak environment classified the dimensions of QWL into three classes, namely primary, secondary and tertiary characteristics. These classes were broken down into the ten-structure dimension of QWL listed as work load, content of work, financial reward, work position, social relations and the possibility for further development, location, working conditions, benefits, organisational culture and the business image. Ramawickrama, Opatha and Pushpakumari (2017:170) identify them as employment conditions (safety, health, physical environment), equity of pay, benefits and other rewards, employment security, social interaction, self-esteem, democracy (participation in decision making), worker satisfaction, income adequacy, voluntary participation by employees, training provided to employees, managers and support staffs (professionals) on their new roles and responsibilities, availability of ongoing skills training, encouragement of multi-skills development and job rotation, participation by the union when relevant and team building.

Against this backdrop, Ngcamu (2017:120) points out that QWL has many different but somewhat related dimensions. Examining how QWL was perceived, Wyatt and Yue Wah (2001) suggest four dimensions, which are favourable work environment, personal growth and autonomy, nature of job and stimulating opportunities and co-workers. Mohammad (2012:1) conducted a study on factors affecting QWL on employees of private limited companies in Bangladesh. From the study, factors affecting QWL were identified as communication, career development and growth, organisational commitment, emotional supervisory support, flexible work arrangement, family-responsive culture, employee motivation, organisational climate, organisational support, job satisfaction, compensation, rewards and benefits, working environment and the work load. Since these were identified in private companies, this study has focused on these factors.

#### **2.5.4.1 Determinants of QWL**

##### **➤ Communication**

Sinha (2012:32) proposes that achieving some level of personal growth may be quite related to the quality of communication in the organisation. Such achievement could improve the quality of working life through improving the nature and quality of communication of the mission and vision through the use of team briefings as a first step in the process of employee participation. Mohammadi, Tavakoli, Yazdanian and Babaei (2017:35) also adduce that QWL is a process by which the staff members of an organisation can influence major decisions. According to Robbins and Judge (2013:371), communication nurtures QWL. This is done through clarifying to employees what they should do, how well they should do it and how they can improve their performance.

### ➤ **Career development and growth**

The purpose of career planning as part of an employee's development program is not only to help employees feel like their employers are investing in them, but also to help people manage the many aspects of their lives and deal with the fact that there is a clear promotion track (Sinha 2012:33). Many research studies have found correlation between career development and growth and QWL. Farjad and Varnous (2013:450) list growth opportunities and future development as drivers for QWL. Saraji and Dargahi (2006:11) point out that training and career advancement opportunities are some of the drivers of QWL. Sinha (2012:31) studied the drivers of QWL and found that career development and growth are the major drivers of QWL. The results indicate that three exogenous variables are substantial: career achievement, career satisfaction and career balance, with 63 percent of the alteration in QWL. As Sinha (2012:33) suggests that the extent to which an organisation to have an understanding of employees who combine work and family roles, results in employees not being likely to worry about career opportunities even if their working hours are reduced due to family responsibilities.

### ➤ **Organisational commitment**

The association of organisational commitment and work life quality is another part of working life that is regularly examined by researchers. Studies have concluded that committed employees remain with the organisation for longer periods of time than those who are less committed. Thus, committed employees have a stronger desire to attend work and a more positive attitude about their employment (Sinha 2012:33). Steers (1977:55) concludes that commitment was significantly and inversely related to employee intention to stay. According to Arthur (1994:670), when organisations seek to foster a philosophy of commitment, their likelihood to seek employment elsewhere is lowered. In his study, that was designed to study the relationship between training and organisational outcomes, Owens (2006:167) had a similar finding. It was found that committed employees were more willing to stay with the organisation than those who were not. Chinomona and Dhurup (2014:368) state that employees who are emotionally attached to a job are regarded as having affective commitment. Mafini (2015:3) adds that in terms of the outcomes of QWL in an organisation, it is important to offer employees with a vigorous QWL as it is linked with desirable results, such as lower absenteeism and intention to stay rate and organisational commitment. Sinha (2012:33) agrees that commitment has a significant and positive impact on job performance and on employees' intention to stay. Therefore, the underlying belief is that a more committed employee will remain with his/her employer for longer.



### ➤ **Emotional supervisory support**

It has been suggested that emotional support at work helps balance work and family roles because it contributes to the employee's energy levels (Sinha 2012:34). Patel (2014:25) proposes that a leader's ability to provide support and guidance with work-related activities is crucial to creating QWL. Sinha (2012:33) also found that top management involvement is a significant driver of QWL. However, Sinha (2012:34) concludes that supervisor support is not aimed primarily at combining work and family tasks but it helps employees function better at work and find a work-life fit.

### ➤ **Flexible work arrangements**

Previous studies, however, have shown that flexible work arrangements can have disadvantageous side effects on QWL because they blur the boundaries between family and work, thus increasing work-family conflict (Sinha 2012:34). For example, Peters and van der Lippe (2007:431) show that flexitime and telecommuting led to more time pressure in the long run among employees with children. Hill, Hawkins and Miller (1996:295) report that some telecommuters experienced more work-family interference, increasing stress.

### ➤ **Family-responsive culture**

Mohammadi, Tavakoli, Yazdanian and Babaei (2017:26) state that QWL affects other aspects of life such as family life, social life and other psychological aspects of life, which are not related to the job. A supportive working environment provides the employee with emotional resources, such as advice, understanding and recognition (Sinha 2012:33). When organisations have an understanding attitude toward employees who combine work and family roles (family-responsive culture), employees are not likely to worry about career opportunities if they reduce their working hours due to family responsibilities (Sinha 2012:33). Hence, the degree that supervisors offer encouragement and support to their employees within work groups is a strong determinant of QWL and can reinforce the employees' intention to stay with the organisation (Nayak 2016:80).

### ➤ **Employee motivation**

Das (2013:400) points out that although there is no completely accepted definition of QWL, most researchers agree that QWL involves a focus on all aspects of working life that might conceivably be relevant to worker satisfaction and motivation and that QWL is related to the well-being of employees. The general perception is that people leave organisations for higher salaries. This assumption is quite appealing although it is not often sufficient in describing the entire picture with regard to poor QWL and turnover (Sinha 2012:34). Sinha (2012:34) states that money is not

the only motivator because other environmental factors also play a significant role in employee motivation and performance. Robbins and Judge (2013:259) add that some companies incorrectly assume that all employees want the same thing, consequently overlooking the motivational effects. Therefore, it is important to recognise that individuals have different motives for working.

➤ **Organisational climate**

Various facets of organisational climate have been used in preceding researches on QWL. The literature suggests three of them as affective, cognitive and instrumental. According to Sinha (2012:36-37), the affective facet of organisational climate primarily comprises of the quality of relationships in the organisation while cognitive climate facet consists of a sense of deriving intrinsic rewards from one's work comprising of meaningfulness, competence, self-determination, impact and work-family interference and instrumental climate facet is referred to as work processes, structure and extrinsic rewards, including access to resources and time control.

➤ **Organisational support**

Robbins and Judge (2013:110) define organisational support as the extent to which employees perceive that the organisation values their contributions and cares about their wellbeing. This is a key factor in influencing employee commitment to the organisation, job satisfaction and general QWL. Many researchers have studied the relationship between perceived organisational support and work-life quality of workers and have found it to have a positive impact on organisational commitment, employee performance as well as job satisfaction (Sinha 2012:37).

➤ **Job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction describes a positive feeling about a job, resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics; an employee with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive feelings about his or her job, while an employee with a low level holds negative feelings (Robbins & Judge 2013:108). Aziz, Nadzar, Husaini, Maarof, Radzi and Ismail (2011:155) found that QWL increases when librarians are satisfied with their level of work variable and non-work variables. Cohen, Kinnevy and Dichter (2007:39) found that job satisfaction is one of the central variables in work and is seen as an important indicator of working life quality, determining the extent to which the employee is satisfied or is enthusiastic about his;. Similarly, Noor and Abdullah (2012:753) found that there is a substantial relationship between job satisfaction and QWL. Mosadeghrad (2013:89), in his study on hospital employees, found that the employees who had low QWL were employees who were least satisfied with pay, benefits, job promotion and management support. However, there are many studies that have found that job satisfaction is not

an effective driver of QWL. Studies such as Hosseini, Jorjafki and Ashrafi (2010:559-562) did not mention job satisfaction as a driver of QWL.

➤ **Rewards and benefits**

Mitonga-Monga, Flotman and Cilliers (2018:5) found that employees experience a high level of QWL if they feel satisfied with their working conditions, the opportunity for personal growth, reward systems and relationship with colleagues. These results are analogous to Yeh (2014:98) who found that employees who work in a positive environment, with proper facilities and adequate extrinsic and intrinsic reward systems, tend to have high QWL. Lowe, Schellenburg and Shannon (2003:390-399) conducted a study to explore the relationship between work-life experiences and personal life of employees. In their study, they observed that workers are likely to perceive their workplace in a positive way if certain conditions exist in the workplace. The conditions identified included having reasonable demands, high intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, good social support, influence over workplace decisions and available resources to do the job. Based on their research, Lowe, Schellenburg and Shannon (2003:393) argue that all the above mentioned conditions contribute in enhancing the QWL of employees.

➤ **Work environment**

According to Nanjundeswaraswamy and Sandhya (2016:13), working environment is a place in which one works, it is a social and professional environment in which employees are supposed to interact with a number of people and have to work with coordination in one or the other way. A healthy worker registers a high QWL, cheerful attitude, confidence and may prove to be an invaluable asset to the organisation if the working environment is good (Chanana & Gupta 2016:137). It consists of safe physical and mental working situations and determining reasonable working hours, motivating environment, working conditions, time for personal care, support for self-development, information related to work, own style and pace of work (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Sandhya 2016:13). This can be achieved by acting upon the concerns that are raised by employees and providing feedback to enhance the workplace environment, where employees feel that they are valued (Letooane 2013:1).

➤ **Work overload**

Work overload means the assignment of duties to employees that create extreme demands that are beyond their abilities, resulting in poorer levels of QWL (Moyes & Redd 2008:24). Overloading employees with work does not only affect their QWL but also affects their intention to stay with their current employer (Mokhathi 2012:37).

## ➤ Compensation

Besides rewards and benefits, the level of support created by the compensation structure is also an indication of the work-life quality in organisations (Sinha 2012:35). Sinha (2012:35) further claims that many organisations declare to base their salary raises on performance, but that is not actually the case as some companies try to emphasise a team environment, but continue to reward people for individual achievement. These discrepancies can cause frustration and pessimism in employees. Rahiman and Kodikal (2018:3) submit that compensation in the work place is considered to be one of the key factors influencing QWL; employees must be paid legitimate compensation. Kwahar and Iyortsuun (2018:61) imply that employees place high premium on remuneration, allowances and benefits as an important element of their work satisfaction and indeed non-work satisfaction, they expect employers or organisations to ensure a fair, adequate and comprehensive system of pay and reward. Likewise, Mitonga-Monga, Flotman and Cilliers (2018:5) agree that when employees have a positive experience of rewards and compensation, fair promotion practices and positive relationships with colleagues, their QWL is likely to be high and they are also likely to be psychologically attached to the organisation. However, Elisaveta (2006:459) argues that compensation can lead to the decrease of QWL; not necessarily to the increase of QWL. Sinha (2012:36) states that it is difficult when employees are not compensated significantly, while company leaders are rewarded. Therefore, organisations must adopt the philosophy of employee development. Table 2.5 indicates QWL indicators that were identified by other researchers.

**Table 2.5: Results of research on QWL components**

Researchers	QWL indicators
<b>Stein (1983)</b>	Independence and autonomy, identification and importance, property and belongings, growth and development and outside incentives.
<b>Levine, Taylor and Davis (1984)</b>	Respected by supervisor and trusting employees' capabilities, change of work, work challenges, the opportunity for growth in the future resulting from the existing work, self-esteem, the degree of cohesion and interference between work and life, contribution of work in society promoting.
<b>Rethinam and Maimunah (2008)</b>	Health and well-being, job security, job satisfaction, competence development and the balance between work and non-work life.
<b>Martel and Dupuis (2006)</b>	Life quality: compensation of services, welfare, work security, work support. Social quality: rapport with the superior, co-workers and customers. Growth quality: collaborative management, individual growth improvement, self-esteem and work characteristics.

**Table 2.5: Results of research on QWL components (continued ...)**

<b>Researchers</b>	<b>QWL indicators</b>
<b>Mitchell (2012)</b>	Communication, supervision, learning and involvement.
<b>Che Rose, Beh, Uli and Idris (2006)</b>	Task, physical work environment, social environment within the organisation, administrative system, relationship between life on and off the job.
<b>Jia Haiwei (2005)</b>	Need for survival, need for passion, need for belongings, need oneself
<b>Almalki, Fitzgerald and Clark (2012)</b>	Work life/home life, work design, work context and work world.
<b>Lee and Singhapakdi (2007)</b>	Workplace, wages and benefits, welfare, promotion, nature of work, education and development, superior leadership style, collaboration among co-workers, organisation mien, communications, organisational regulations, organisational climate and culture, working time and working pressure.
<b>Stephen (2012)</b>	Adequate and fair compensation, fringe benefits and welfare measures, job security, physical work environment, work load and job stress, opportunity to use and develop human capacity, opportunity for continued growth, human relations and social aspect of work life, participation in decision making, reward and penalty system, equity, justice and grievance handling, work and total life space and image of organisation.

Adapted from: Mohammadi, Tavakoli, Yazdanian and Babaei (2017:26)

Almarsh (2015:pg) listed the most important benefits of the employees' quality of working life as the following:

- The degree to which superiors treat employees with respect
- Diversity in the daily work schedule
- Work challenge
- The feeling that employees constantly have to prove themselves to their superiors to open future opportunities for advancement
- Self-respect
- The degree to which the life outside of work affects the life at work and the degree to which completed work contributes to society

Human capital has been identified as one of the key factors to enhance business competitiveness, particularly in the service sector, of which retail is an example (Warden, Han & Nzawou 2018:1). To this end, intention to stay refers to the degree of likelihood that an employee plans to remain with the current organisation (Al-Omari, Qablan & Khasawneh 2008:pg; Lyons 1971:pg; Kim, Price, Mueller & Watson 1996:pg). Youcef, Ahmed and Ahmed (2016:199) suggest that intention to stay is the positive aspect compared to intention to leave. The abovementioned authors suggest that intention to stay is what makes employees willing to work in the organisation. Markowitz (2012:17) proposes that like organisational commitment, intention to stay is a psychological process.

Shoprite (2016:23) agrees that employees' intention to stay is of key importance to the retail industry on managerial levels, even though, due to the working environment, lower level employees' intention to stay remains very high. Camps and Luna-Arocas (2008:26) also find that most research activity is conducted on large retail business organisations, making employee intention to stay issues a challenge facing many human resource departments. Huselid (1995:635) states that managerial power practices can contribute to organisational business outcomes by shaping employee behaviour and attitudes. According to the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics (2010:2), an increasing number of employers are finding that employees stay employed for only about 24 months. Warden, Han and Nzawou (2018:1) confirm that employee intention to stay is one of the key challenges facing business owners and managers within the retail industry.

Intentions to stay studies distinguish between actually staying and the intent to stay, with much of the research focusing on intent (Johnsrud & Rosser 2002:520). Intent to stay is an employee's inclination to stay, which is the last step before actually staying (Martin 1979:313) and is a powerful predictor of actual intention to stay (Lee & Mowday 1987:738; Vigoda-Gadot & Ben-Zion 2004:217). Price (1977:42); Price & Mueller (1986:543-565) found that perceptions of an employee's current work environment and perceptions of the external work environment (the grass is greener phenomenon) explained intent to stay. Neelie (2018:1) declares that retailers regularly struggle to retain their employees.

In Hong Kong, the retail sector in 2008 recorded its highest annual turnover rate of 36.7% (Warden, Han & Nzawou 2018:1). This is still higher than found in South Africa where the retail business sector has an average staff turnover rate of between 20% and 25% (Shoprite 2017:4). Rijamampianina (2015:250) found that taking into account the mean proportion of dysfunctional turnover, the optimal functional voluntary employee turnover rate is at 19%.

According to Neelie (2018:2), for example, states that turnover rate for the convenience store industry is 54 percent. Another survey found that intention to stay is at its highest among hourly store employees: 65 percent for part-time retail employees, an 8 percent increase compared to 2015 when turnover was at 57 percent and for retail distribution centres the turnover was at 23 percent in 2016, compared to 21 percent of the preceding year, according to the same survey (Neelie 2018:1).

A research study by Dockel, Basson and Coetzee (2006:20) investigated retention aspects that enhance organisational commitment of high technology employees in a telecommunication organisation in Gauteng, South Africa. The most valid issues that affected these employees were compensation, supervisor and leader support and QWL. In a study by Johnsrud, Heck and Rosser (2000) as cited in Johnsrud (2002:391) that analysed the intentions of the employees to leave, revealed that their intentions to stay were similar to those of faculty members; morale was the common denominator that had a significant impact on both groups' intention to stay. Therefore, the intention to stay is not a specific group of employees, but it is common to all employees as it has an impact on their QWL.

Warden, Han, Nzawou (2018:1-2) identified five internal factors driving high levels of employee intention to stay in retail as: poor training, management practices, working conditions, rate of pay, recruitment and the employee selection processes and external factors driving high employee intention to stay in retail as: unemployment rate, employee personal interest and status and environmental indirect external factors. Table 2.6 demonstrates some of the factors driving employee intention to stay in retail businesses.

**Table 2.6: Factors driving employee intention to stay in retail businesses**

	<b>Universal intention to stay model</b>	<b>Modal theory model</b>	<b>Sub-population intention to stay model</b>
<b>Internal factors</b>	Poor training Working conditions Management practice Rate of pay Recruitment process	Poor training Working conditions Management practices Rate of pay Recruitment process	Poor training Working conditions Management practices Rate of pay
<b>External factors</b>	Unemployment rate	Unemployment rate Employee personal interest	Employee personal interest

Source: Warden, Han, Nzawou (2018:5)

## **2.6.1 Internal factors for employee intention to stay in the retail industry**

There are five internal factors that drive high levels of employee intention to stay as mentioned above: poor training, working conditions, management practices, rate of pay, recruitment and employee selection processes, which are now briefly discussed:

### **2.6.1.1 Poor training**

The importance of training started gaining attention in the 1990s whereby Barcala, Perez, & Cutierrez (1999:335) established that there is a relationship between improved levels of employees training and declining employee intention to stay. Proper training stimulates a higher job satisfaction and condenses work stress, which in return, leads to employee retention (Warden, Han, Nzawou 2018:3). Most managers continuously ignore the value of employee training. Therefore, it can be inferred that it is discouraging when new employees start jobs without receiving proper employee training (Michaels 2010:7).

### **2.6.1.2 Working conditions**

According to Warden, Han, Nzawou (2018:3), employee intention to stay is also related to working conditions and organisational stability. This suggests that employees are likely to stay with their current employer when the work environment is predictable and provided that the organisation is stable. In contrast to organisations that are experiencing higher instability, there is a less level of employee intention to stay (Preeti 2017:2). Conversely, Hart, Stachnow, Farrell and Reed (2007:195) articulates that most South African retailers operate between 10 to 12 hours on a daily basis, seven days a week, which also contributes to the low level of employee intention to stay, as it influences both their personal and social lives.

### **2.6.1.3 Management practices**

Warden, Han and Nzawou (2018:1) indicate that it is found in the literature that most employees' intention to stay occurrences can be traced back to management practices, for instance, their leadership styles and use of power. The authors further state that employee intention to stay tends to be lower in workplaces where employees do not feel helpful, are disrespected or feel they are not important. Clearly, if managers are impersonal, arbitrary and demanding, there is a greater risk of employee intention to stay. Thus, management's use of power may also affect the direct workplace such as the benefits of employees or whether the company responds to the needs of the employees. However, Anderson (2015:38) suggests that leaders who are more effective are likely to retain their employees. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, states that when employees' lower needs



have been satisfied, they will then look for higher needs to be satisfied. Therefore, management, as leaders of the company, should aim to keep the balance of employees' needs (Ongori 2007:50). As Shuck and Herd (2012:2) mention that leaders' abilities to motivate, inspire and mollify their employees are important drivers of employees' intention to stay with their current organisations.

#### **2.6.1.4 Rate of pay**

Michaels (2010:8) proposes that when employees are paid the lowest rate within the industry, it is likely to result in dissatisfied employees and might result in a lower level of employee intention to stay. Hence, the likelihood of getting higher wages in a different place is one of the most common reasons for deliberate resignations. Vather (2008:10) found that low employee intention to stay continues when employees search for reasons to leave; remuneration is often a suitable justification to leave.

#### **2.6.1.5 Recruitment and selection processes**

Poor recruitment and selection processes are also possible reasons for employee intention to stay, as informal recruitment programs could attract the wrong employees that will rarely stay long; either resigning or being dismissed (Warden, Han & Nzawou 2018:3)

### **2.6.2 External factors driving high employee intention to stay**

As mentioned above, there are two external factors that drive low heights of employee intention to stay, namely unemployment rates and the employee's personal interests and status.

#### **2.6.2.1 Unemployment rate**

Warden, Han and Nzawou (2018:3) contend that there is a negative correlation amongst employee intention to stay and unemployment rates. When unemployment rates decrease, employee intention to stay rates increase (Preeti 2017:7). Research conducted by the Chartered Institute of Personnel & Development settles that high employee turnover levels are found where unemployment is lowest and difficult for people to find secure, desirable, substitute employment (Chartered Institute of Personnel & Development 2017:1).

#### **2.6.2.2 Employee personal interest and status**

According to Warden, Han and Nzawou (2018:3), several factors influence employee intention to stay, namely an individual's attitude, an individual's personality, aptitudes and abilities and the opinions they have about the organisation, an individual's marital status, age and gender.

### **2.6.3 Environmental indirect external factors**

Other external motives for low heights of employee intention to stay have been acknowledged such as supply and demand, skill shortages, improved rewards or the high cost of living impacts, economic environment fluctuations can also possibly be an external reason for employees' intention to stay (Warden, Han & Nzawou 2018:3).

## **2.7 CONCLUSION**

This chapter covered an overview on the retail industry. The chapter also delivered a literature review of the underlying theory. French and Raven's (1959) formal category of power bases was reviewed and discussed. This was followed by an exploration of the literature on power bases and it was discovered that employees' intention to stay is affected by leadership power bases. On the other hand, QWL is affected by communication, career development and growth, organisational commitment, emotional supervisory support, flexible work arrangement, family-responsive culture, employee motivation, organisational climate, organisational support, job satisfaction, compensation, rewards and benefits, working environment and the work load. The permutation of these issues helps the employees in decision-making. Supplementary, the chapter concluded with a discussion of intention to stay as well as the relevant literature to identify factors affecting employees' intention to stay. The succeeding chapter proffers an overview of the research methodology implemented in the study.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the literature review on leadership power base, QWL, employees' intention to stay and on the theory of reasoned action. This chapter presents the research methodology employed to investigate the influence of leadership power base on QWL and employees' intention to stay within a selected retail outlet. The research design, the target population, sampling frame, sampling method, sample size, the instrument used to collect the data, including methods executed to sustain validity and reliability of the questionnaire are described along with ethical considerations and statistical analysis.

#### 3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

According to Holland and Campbell (2005:241), methodology is a critical part of research if answers to the research questions have to be given and the research objectives met. Thus, as Nayak (2016:111) notes, methodology provides an inexhaustible explanation to the research questions.

A research design is a framework or a blueprint used for conducting a research task that spans the procedural steps of obtaining and retrieving relevant information in order to address specific research objectives (McDaniel & Gates 2013:42). Essentially, a research design specifies the type of a research study undertaken and affords answers to the research question. Martin (2007:61) states that if the research design is sufficiently planned and executed, it can assist in validating the conclusions. Malhotra (2010:103) suggests three major research designs, namely exploratory research (involves qualitative data), causal research and descriptive research (both involve quantitative data). Comparisons of different research designs are illustrated in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Research designs**

	<b>Exploratory</b>	<b>Descriptive</b>	<b>Casual</b>
<b>Objectives:</b>	Discovery of ideas and insights.	Describe the market characteristics or functions.	Determine the cause and effect relationships.
<b>Characteristics:</b>	Flexible, versatile.	Marked by the prior formulation of specific hypotheses.	Manipulation of one or more independent variables.

**Table 3.1: Research designs (continued ...)**

	<b>Exploratory</b>	<b>Descriptive</b>	<b>Casual</b>
<b>Methods</b>	Expert surveys Pilot surveys Secondary data: Qualitative analysis Qualitative research	Secondary data Quantitative analysis Surveys Panels Observation and other data.	Experiments.

Source: Singh (2014:322)

### **3.2.1 Descriptive research design**

Malhotra (2010:102) states that descriptive research design is employed when the objective of the study is to describe relationships between the variables under study. Maloi (2011:69) points out that descriptive research studies are constructed to answer who, what, when, where and how questions. Therefore, descriptive research may be utilised to describe the individualities of the target population, make predictions and determine the relationship between variables and measure perceptions (Malhotra 2010:106). Therefore, the main aim of descriptive research is to afford a precise and valid representation of the factors or variables that relate to the research question (van Wyk 2017:9). This study adopted a descriptive research design and intrinsically, the quantitative research approach was followed to collect data, whereby a research survey questionnaire was utilised to collect the data.

Cooper and Schindler (2011:427) view descriptive statistics as a measure of location (median, mean and mode) and dispersion of variability (standard deviation, variance, quartile deviation and range). Therefore, this research design was selected because it offers an accurate portrayal of the characteristics, for example, opinions, behaviours, abilities, beliefs and knowledge of a precise individual, group or condition. Consequently, Malhotra (2010:106) suggests that descriptive research can be utilised to designate the traits of a specific target population, make estimations and determine the relationship between variables or measure perceptions. The results will be shown in Section 4.4.

## **3.3 RESEARCH METHOD**

Research is collecting information or data about a specific topic either to advance the information we already have or to gain new information about a certain issue in question (Holland & Campbell 2005:166). Before starting and drafting research, it is important to first collect existing information

to see what has already been done; therefore, a gap for research may be identified. Research is aimed to solve a certain problem or discover a problem that has not been discovered before to come about a clearer understanding and solutions. Vijayalakshmi and Sivapragasam (2008:56) identified three research methods that can be followed when conducting a research, namely qualitative, quantitative or a mixed research method. Therefore, research can be done in different ways, which will guide a researcher on what kind of information to gather, numerical, theoretical information or both.

### 3.3.1 Quantitative method

Quantitative method is a scientific method and its grounds can be identified in positivist paradigm (Rahi 2017:2). Therefore, this method focuses on fresh data collection in accordance with the problem from a large population and analysis of the data, but ignores an individual's emotions and feelings or environmental context. Quantitative data are defined as any data collection technique or data analysis procedure that generates or uses numerical data (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2009:151). On the other hand, Sheldon (2015:14) views quantitative research as an approach that pays particular attention to the objective measurement and the statistical, mathematical, or numerical analysis of the collected data by making use of questionnaires and surveys or by controlling pre-existing statistical data using computational techniques.

Table 3.2 presents a summary of the variances between the different research methods.

**Table 3.2: Different research methods**

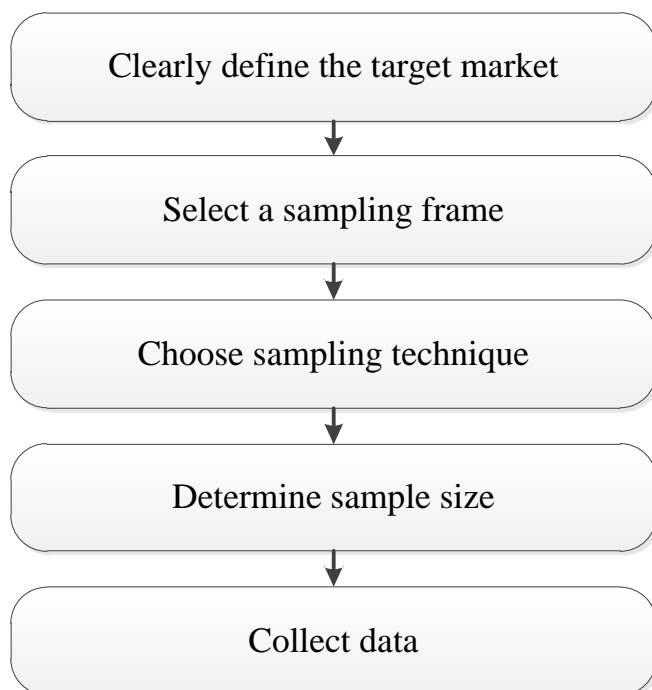
Quantitative method	Mixed method	Qualitative method
<b>Pre-determined</b>	Both predetermined and emerging methods	Emerging methods
<b>Instrument-based questions</b>	Both open- and closed-ended questions	Open-ended questions
<b>Performance data, attitude data, observational data and census data</b>	Multiple forms of data drawing on all possibilities	Interview data, observation data, document data, and audio-visual data
<b>Statistical analysis</b>	Statistical and text analysis	Text and image analysis
<b>Statistical interpretation</b>	Across databases interpretation	Themes, patterns interpretation

Source: Creswell (2012:45)

For the purpose of this study, a quantitative research method was considered the most appropriate in the context of the present study (Ncede 2013:51), due to its low cost and ease of administration (Malhotra 2010:138). Furthermore, this research method was chosen because quantitative research allows the researcher to examine relationships and differences among variables (Golafshani 2003:597).

### 3.4 SAMPLING DESIGN PROCEDURE

Sampling is the statistical process of selecting a subset of a population of interest for purposes of making observations and statistical inferences about that population (Taherdoost 2016:19). The sampling design procedure comprises of several stages. Figure 3.1 indicates the steps that were used in the process of sampling in this study in line with Taherdoost's (2016:19) recommendation.



**Figure 3.1: Steps in conducting a sampling design**

Source: Taherdoost (2016:19)

#### 3.4.1 Target population

As indicated in Figure 3.1, the first step was to clearly define the target population. Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:52) define the target population as “the total collection of all units of analysis about which the researcher wishes to make specific conclusions”. It is the total group of individuals from which the sample might be drawn (McLeod 2014:9). The target population for

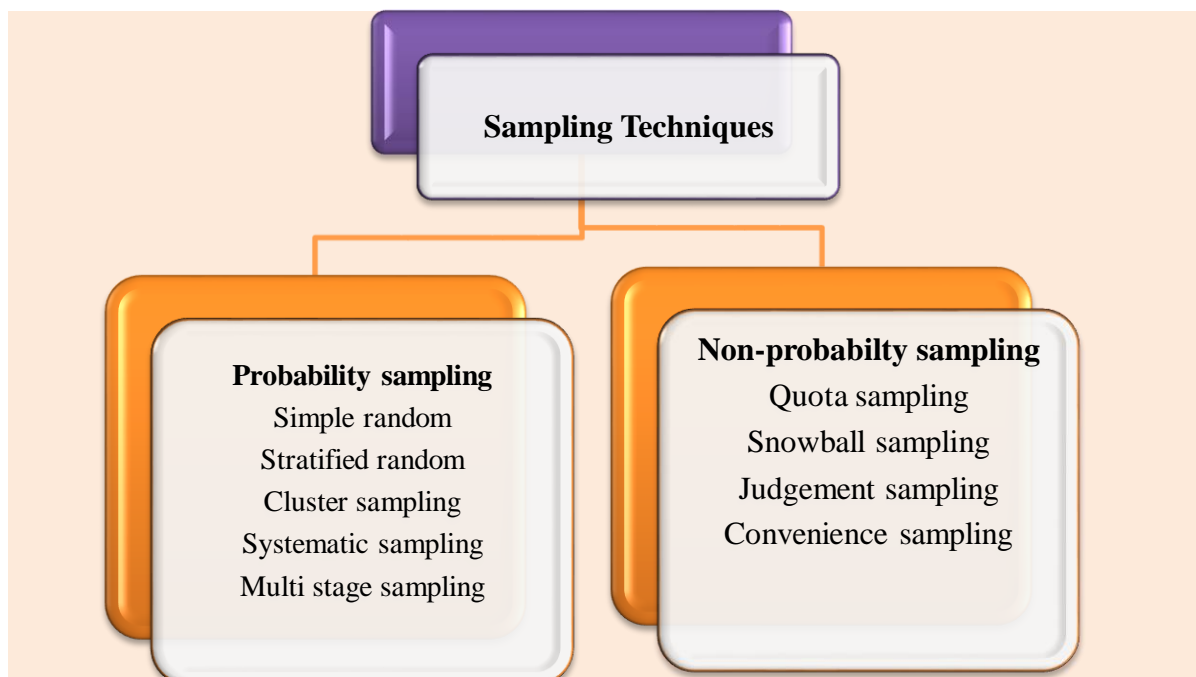
this study was restricted to all the employees of the selected retailer, both female and male, ranging from the age of 18 to 65.

### 3.4.2 Sampling frame

Following the identification of the target population, the researcher delineated the setting where the target population had to be drawn, using a sampling frame. According to Rahi (2017:3), a sampling frame delineates a setting where the sample of the target population may be drawn. Malhotra (2010:373) also points out that a sampling frame is a widespread list of the elements of the target population. The sample frame for this study consists of all employees from the selected three stores. The employees' list was provided by the regional human resource manager.

### 3.4.3 Sampling method techniques

With regard to the sampling techniques, Dahlberg and McCaig (2010:175) assert that two methods exist for sampling, namely probability and non-probability sampling. Figure 3.2 demonstrates various types of sampling techniques.



**Figure 3.2: Various techniques of sampling**

Source: Taherdoost (2016:20)

### **3.4.3.1 Probability sampling**

John, White and Hebson (2014:73) refer to probability sampling as a sample in which every constituent of the population has an equal chance of being nominated. Malhotra (2010:395) states that probability samples are nominated in a way that every component of the population has an acknowledged possibility of being involved in the sample, with probability sampling techniques including random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling and multistage sampling. Because of the nature of the business, this study made use of the probability sampling method to avoid too many employees being away from work simultaneously. Furthermore, the simple random sampling method was adopted since each employee had an equal chance of being nominated and an employee list from each store was used.

#### **Simple random sampling**

According to Weideman (2014:84), in simple random sampling, each component of the population has an equal and well-known chance of being nominated as part of the sample. However, in 2005, Ghauri and Gronhaug identify disadvantages in simple random sampling as:

- A complete list of all components of the entire population is required.
- The costs can be higher if the components are geographically broadly scattered.
- The errors of estimators may be high.

### **3.5 SAMPLE SIZE**

Dube, Roberts-Lombard and Van Tonder (2015:243) define a sample size as a larger population, while Roets (2013:36) articulates that a sample size is a count of elements involved in the study. Likewise, Rahi (2017:3) suggests that the selection of a precise sample size remains a big concern for researchers as sample sizes need to be sensibly deliberated as statistical techniques are intensely affected by it. The determination of the sample size is influenced by a number of factors, including the research design, the average sample size used in similar studies, the number of variables and proposed methods of data analysis (Malhotra 2010:374). In determining the sample size for the study, a historical evidence method was utilised whereby the researcher was led by preceding research studies on power bases. Table 3.3 provides a synopsis of the determination of the sample size in preceding studies that focused on power bases. Based on these studies, the sample size of 350 participants was considered adequate for this study.



**Table 3.3: Sample size determination**

Year	Author(s)	Scope of the study	Sample size
2017	Cummings, A	The effects of social power bases within varying organizational cultures	238
2014	Kozan, M.K., Ergin, C. & Varoglu, K.	Bases of power and conflict intervention strategy.	204
2018	Megheirkouni, M.	Power bases and job satisfaction in sports organizations	225
2014	Rahim, M.A.	A model of managerial power bases: alternative explanations of reported results	254
2013	Ramezani, Z.N., Nedaei, T., Alimohammadi, H. & Firouzjah, J.N.	Managers power bases, employees' job stress and intent to stay	288

Source: Author's own compilation

The deemed sample size (n=350) is also in line with Cooper and Emory's (1995:207) recommendations that sample sizes greater than 300 are suitable to represent a particular population.

### 3.6 DATA COLLECTION AND MEASURING INSTRUMENT

A survey method, with a structured questionnaire as a data collection instrument was used in this study. Data were collected from three different retail stores with the assistance of three trained field-workers. The use of a questionnaire has a number of advantages that include having an organised format, easy and opportune for respondents, cheap and fast to administer. Mokoena (2015:180) adds that questionnaires reduce the likelihood of the observer to be biased and instead enhances the reliability of data.

#### 3.6.1 Questionnaire format

A questionnaire is a predetermined collection of questions employed to collect data (Bolarinwa 2015:196). Salkind (2012:149) suggests that the design of the questionnaire ought to be in accordance with the researcher's objectives and meet the purpose of the study. A questionnaire was preferred as a measuring tool as it is simpler to administer and eases the variability in the outcomes that may be instigated by dissimilarities in other types of interviews (Malhotra

2010:225). The questionnaire was self-administered to attain relevant data from the respondents and comprised four sections.

Section A consisted of general demographic information of the participants, for example, age, gender, marital status and the highest education level. Section B consisted of the revised Rahim's Leader Power Inventory (1988) to measure leadership power bases with 15 items with a reported reliability of 0.87. Section C consisted of six items measuring QWL adapted from Chinomona and Dhurup's (2014) study with a reported reliability of 0.87 and Section D consisted of Price and Mueller's (1986) measure of intent to stay that has four items with a reported reliability of 0.78. Section A comprised multiple choice and dichotomous questions, while Sections B to D consisted of five-point Likert scales with one denoting strongly disagree and five denoting strongly agree for all scale items

### **3.7 PILOT STUDY**

According to Crossman (2014:1), a pilot study is a research project that is undertaken on a very limited scale that permits the researcher to get a perfect idea of what they want to know and how they can best find it without the expense of a full-fledged study. The pilot study was undertaken in order to institute the appropriateness of the reliability of the scales and validity under investigation. Hence, the questionnaire was tested on a sample of 40 participants to examine the potential variances within the population. The results of the pilot study are recorded in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.

### **3.8 DATA PREPARATION**

After the collection of data, it needed to be processed (Mokoena 2015:184). There are four stages of data preparation the researcher used in this study, namely data editing, data coding, data capturing and data cleaning. These stages were used in order to ensure that the data collected was complete and ready to be analysed (Kumar, Aaker & Day 2004:356).

#### **3.8.1 Data editing**

Referring to Malhotra (2010:453), editing is an evaluation of a questionnaire with the goal of increasing accuracy. As specified by Singleton and Straits (2005:531), editing is intended to certify that the data to be captured into the computer are as error-free, complete and readable as they can be. Hence, the objective is to ensure consistency, completeness and readability of the data that need to be stored and inspecting and correcting the questionnaire if necessary (Churchill &

Iacobucci 2010:406). In this study, the researcher checked for errors on the returned questionnaires.

### **3.8.2 Data coding**

Malhotra (2007:8) refers to data coding as conveying a code (usually a number) to each response and to each question, of which the code contains an indication of the column and data record it will occupy. McDaniel and Gates (2013:444) further clarify data coding as the process of combining and assigning numerical codes to the responses of a question. Therefore, coding consists of allocating numbers to the categories per variable. In this study, a five-point Likert scale was utilised, where strongly disagree was coded one and strongly agree was coded five.

### **3.8.3 Data capturing**

Data capturing is a spreadsheet with observations as rows and variables as columns (Singleton & Straits 2005:531). Malhotra (2010:459) states that data capturing is a process of transmitting coded data from the questionnaires directly into a computer through key punching. The researcher made use of the Microsoft Excel program, whereby data were entered directly from the questionnaires with the use of a personal computer into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet.

### **3.8.4 Data cleaning**

After the capturing of data, the data were cleaned for errors and omissions in coding and transmitted to the computer (Singleton & Straits 2005:531). Data cleaning was done through the use of wild code checks to identify codes that were not defined for a specific variable together with extreme cases to a variable that is far-off from ordinary (Malhotra 2010:461).

## **3.9 DATA ANALYSIS**

Data collected from questionnaires in quantitative research method have to be analysed and interpreted. A Microsoft Excel spreadsheet was used to enter all the data, in order to make inferences from the data obtained. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 25.0 for Windows was used to code data and to run the statistical analysis. Furthermore, the statistical analysis was used for testing and confirming relationships among hypothesised variables. It is essential to mention that the selection of the data analysis practices in this study was guided by the data analysis techniques used in the past researches in the area of leader power bases, namely:

- Inferential analysis

- Descriptive analysis
- Correlation analysis
- Regression analysis
- Reliability and validity analysis
- Hypotheses testing.

### **3.9.1 Descriptive analysis**

The rationale behind using descriptive statistics was to decrease data to interpretable states, so that the relationships of the previously identified research problem could be studied, verified and conclusions drawn (Norusis 2008:3). Trochim (2006:1) agree that descriptive statistics provide a simple summary of the sample and the measures. For that reason, this study made use of descriptive statistics to analyse the composition and normality of the data. The various measures of distribution that were used in the study are described in the succeeding sub-sections.

#### **3.9.1.1 Frequency distribution**

Frequency distribution is defined as a mathematical distribution with the objective of obtaining a count of the number of responses associated with different values of one variable (Salkind 2012:50). This simply means the number of instances in a class by showing what percentage of respondents answered, for each attitude category, to the statement. In a survey study, it is associated with the use of Likert scales (Norusis 2012:499). Various illustrations of data were presented in the form of frequency distribution (refer to figures 4.6 to 4.11 of Chapter 4). This involves the construction of a table that shows in absolute and relative terms how often the different values of the variable are encountered in the sample. Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:231) suggest that descriptive statistics are associated with the description of the data obtained for a group of individual units of analysis. It indicates how popular the different values of the variables were among the units of analysis (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins & Van Wyk 2005:523). These frequency distributions were useful in portraying the sample and understanding the data conformation as presented in Section 4.3.1.1 to Section 4.3.1.6 in Chapter 4.

#### **3.9.1.2 Use of graphs and charts**

Wells, Burnett and Moriart (2008:232) explain that descriptive statistics can be presented graphically through histograms, pie charts and bar diagrams. Hair, Lukas, Miller and Ortinau (2009:530) recommend that charts and graphs are an effective visual aid to enhance the

communication process and add clarity. Therefore, the researcher engaged some pie charts and graphs instead of only relying on frequency distribution to exhibit the research results. The graphs and charts are demonstrated in Chapter 4.

### 3.9.1.3 The means

Maree, Creswell, Ebersöhn, Eloff, Ferreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Pietersen, Plana Clark and Van Der Westhuizen (2011:187) explain that the mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) is the most frequently utilised measure of location and is computed as the mathematical average of all the data values. The mean uses every score of the distribution, therefore, is the most correct measure of central tendency (Bless & Kathuria 2001:46) According to Van Deventer (2013:96), the mean is calculated by adding the values for all the observations for a specific variable and dividing the sum by the number of observations. The following formula is used to calculate the mean value:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\text{total of all values}}{\text{the number of all values}}$$

According to Remler and Van Ryzin (2011:251), the mean can also be articulated as in the following formulas:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

Where:

$\bar{x}$ = Sample mean

n= Sample size

$\Sigma$ = Summation symbol meaning add up

$x_i$ = Individual observations

The results are also shown in Table 4.3 to Table 4.7.

### 3.9.1.4 Standard deviation

Standard deviation is the most commonly used tool of variation as it includes all the scores in the dissemination using the mean, it specifies how much variance exists from the average, that is the mean or expected value (Bless & Kathuria 2008:63). Remler and Van Ryzin (2011:253) agree that standard deviation is a representation of how far the values are on average from the mean. Zikmund and Babin (2013:343) present a basic definition by stating that the standard deviation is the square root of the variance for a distribution. Gray (2009:458) proposes that a low standard deviation points out that the data points are very close to the mean, while high standard deviation

shows that the data points are spread out over a large range of values. According to McDaniel and Gates (2010:234), standard deviation can be presented as follows:

$$S = \frac{\sqrt{\sum(x - \bar{x})^2}}{N-1}$$

Where:

$x_i$  =  $i^{th}$  observation

$\bar{x}$  = Mean of the observations

N = Number of non-missing observations

### 3.9.2 Correlations

Kumar (2014:13) proposes that correlation analysis institutes the point at which modifications in a single variable are associated with variations in another variable and attempts to evaluate the size of the changes. Similarly, McDaniel and Gates (2006:407) refer to correlation analysis as the magnitude to which changes in one variable are ascribed with changes in a different variable, which is shown by correlation coefficients (r). However, correlation analysis is not only inclined to the discovery of existing relationships between two variables but also analyses the magnitude and direction of the relationship between those variables (Diamantopoulos 2000:214).

Gray (2009:485) claims that when a relationship is measured in a numerical way, the researcher develops a correlation coefficient that specifies the direction and strength of the relationship between variables, which can range from -1.00 to +1.00. Therefore, -1.00 symbolises a negative correlation, whereas a value of +1.00 symbolises a positive correlation, while a value of 0.00 means there is no existing relationship at all (Coetzee 2005:72). Correlation analysis was adopted to explore the relationships between the constructs used in the study.

**Table 3.4: Strength of relationship between variables**

Size of correlation	Interpretation
<b>0.50 to 1.00</b>	Strong relationship or high correlation
<b>0.30 to 0.49</b>	Moderate relationship or medium correlation
<b>0.10 to 0.29</b>	Weak correlation or relationship
<b>0.00 to 0.09</b>	Very weak or no relationship

Source: Turkmen (2013:1011)

Correlation analysis reveals some correlations, whether positive or negative, in between the constructs identified in a study, as it defines a relationship between dependent and independent variables (Rasli 2006:29). Mukaka (2013:2) proposes that there are two main types of correlation coefficient, namely Pearson's correlation and Spearman's correlation. Pearson's correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two variables while Spearman's evaluates the monotonic relationship between two ordinal variables (Hauke & Kossowsk 2011:88). Hauke and Kossowsk (2011:88) further state that in a monotonic relationship, the variables tend to change together but not necessarily at a constant rate. For that reason, this study adopted the Spearman correlation coefficient (r) to measure the level of association between the constructs. Thereby, in examining the relationship amongst leadership power bases, QWL and employees' intentions to stay within a retail outlet, correlations were computed. Spearman's correlation coefficient was used to measure the strength of the relationship between paired data (Singh 2007:147), (see tables 4.7 in Chapter 4).

According to Kendall and Gibbons (1990:54), the formula for Spearman's correlation may be expressed as follows:

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6\sum d_i^2}{n(n^2-1)}$$

Where:

p= Spearman's correlation

di= the difference between the ranks of corresponding variables

n= number of observations

The results of the analysis are conveyed in Section 4.6 of Chapter 4 (Table 4.8).

### 3.9.3 Regression analysis

Regression analysis is one of the most useful tools for business analysis as it applies to so many situations. It is used to study of relationships between variables independent and dependent variables (Albright, Winston and Zappe (2006:562). In the case of one independent variable predicting the dependent variable, it is called as simple regression, whereas when two or more independent variables predict the dependent variable, it is called multiple regression (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson 2014:158). Therefore, this study employed both simple and multiple regressions to predict relationships between constructs.

Nayak (2016:124-125) proposes that multiple regressions are the most extensively used multivariate technique for prediction and explanation. Nayak (2016:125) further states that it fulfils two objectives in a study; optimises the forecasting strength of all the independent variables

and, secondly, compares several sets of independent variables to establish the predictive power of the individual sets. For that reason, regression analysis is the most widely applied data analysis technique for measuring linear relationships between multiple variables (Kumar, Ramendran & Yacob 2012:21). The goal in regression analysis is to create a regression model or rather a prediction equation that relates the dependent variable to one or additional independent variables (Aaker, Kumar, Leone & Day 2013:407). Hence, the regression model may be used to describe, predict and control the variables of interest on the basis of independent variables.

### **3.9.3.1 Multi-collinearity**

The correlation between independent variables is referred to as multi-collinearity (Nayak 2016:125). Multi-collinearity was employed to identify the presence of multi-collinearity, that is a condition for utilising a non-parametric technique in data analysis (see Section 4.7.1 in Chapter 4)

### **3.9.3.2 R-square: The coefficient of determination**

The R-square is the percentage of the variation of the dependent variable explained by the regression and can only be increased or improved by the addition of one or more explanatory variables (Vather 2008:28-29).

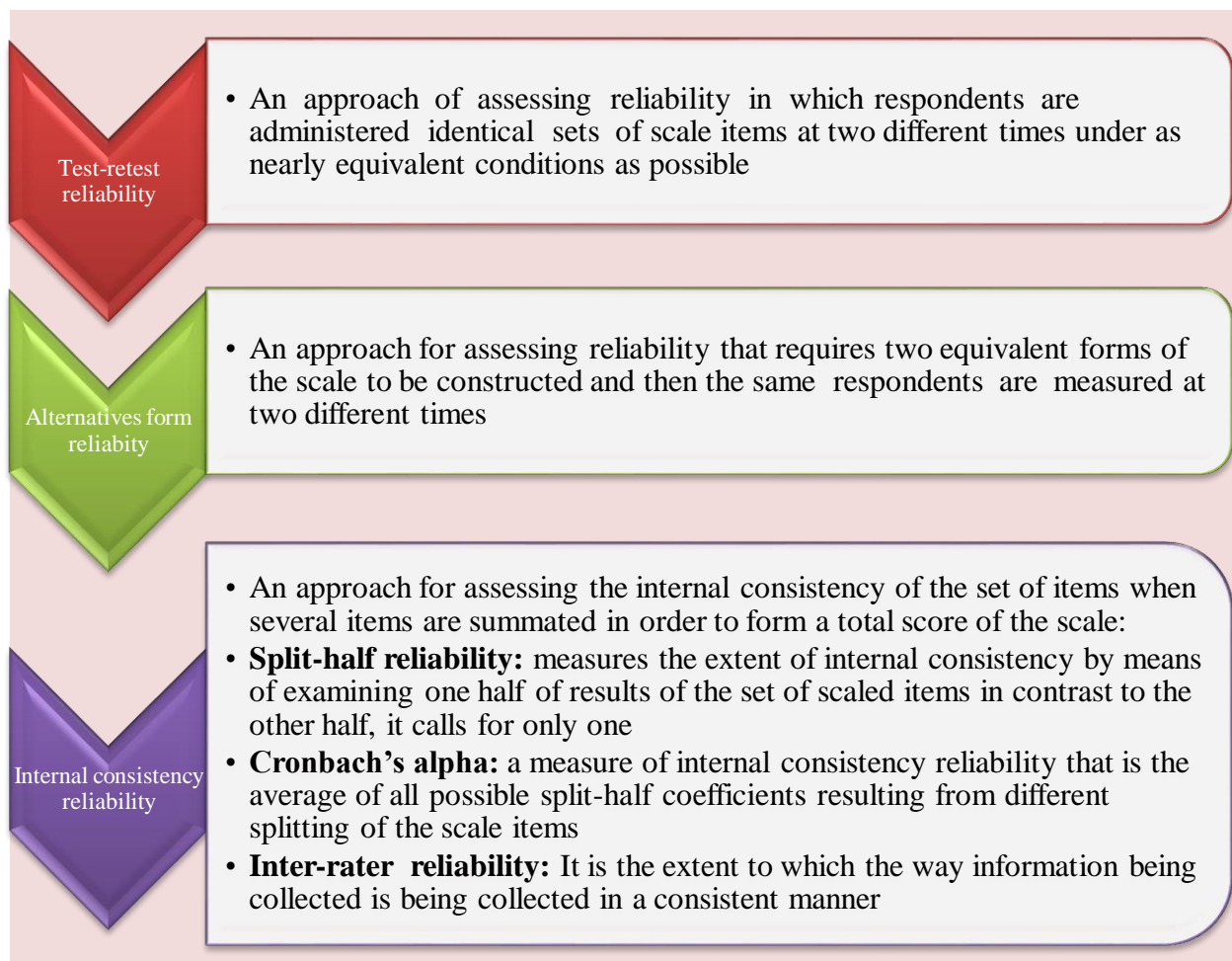
## **3.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY**

The evidence of validity and reliability are fundamentals to guarantee the integrity and the quality of a measuring instrument in research (Mohajan 2017:2). Singh (2014:7) articulates that reliability and validity increase the transparency and decrease chances to insert researcher's bias in research. Compatibly, Mokoena (2015:188) postulates that the main purpose of a research study is to attain information that people can have assurance of and to make sure that the information is accurate, data must be acquired by using measurement techniques that are reliable.

### **3.10.1 Reliability**

Hammond and Wellington (2013:150) posit that the main purpose of reliability is to deliver reliable results with minimum errors and biases. Cummings (2017:61) defines reliability as a measure of consistency and correlation of response with continual supervision of the scale to same participants. Reliability is the extent to which results can be generalised to a larger population (Berghe 2011:27). Rubin and Babbie (2011:194) conclude that reliability refers to whether a specific technique, applied repeatedly to the same entity, would yield the same outcome each time. Figure 3.3 demonstrates forms of reliability.





**Figure 3.3: Forms of reliability**

Source: Malhotra (2004:268) and Mohajan (2017:13)

Polit and Beck (2010:45) point out that reliability for quantitative research design mainly emphasises stability and consistency and Jones and Rattray (2010:1003) add that internal consistency measures whether or not research questions measure the same concept. Consistency may be tested through Cronbach's alpha (Polit & Beck 2010:199). Therefore, internal consistency was employed and Cronbach's alpha measure was used, see Chapter 4, Table 4.2.

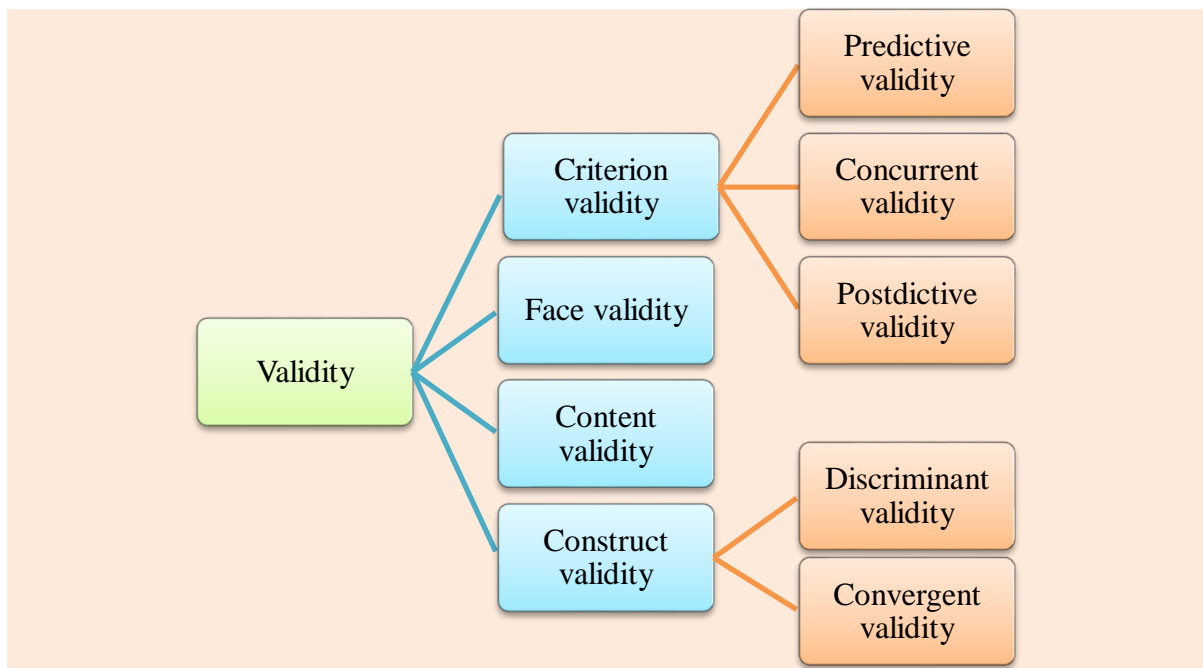
### **3.10.1.1 Cronbach's coefficient alpha test**

Malhotra (2010:724) suggests that the closer the co-efficient is to 1.00, the better is the internal consistency of the items in the scale. While Sekaran (2005:185) states that if the Cronbach's alpha is less than 0.6, this implicates that the measurement used has a very low reliability and thus allows for errors. According to Mohajan (2017:13), Cronbach's alpha fluctuates between 0 and 1, whereby 0 signifies that there is no relationship amongst the items on the given scale and 1 signifies an absolute internal consistency. Alpha values above 0.7 are commonly considered

acceptable and satisfactory, exceeding 0.8 are customarily considered good and beyond 0.9 are believed to reflect exceptional internal consistency although, in the social sciences, the acceptable range of Cronbach's alpha value ranges from 0.7 to 0.8 (Cronbach 1951:298). McDaniel and Gates (2010:252) suggest that Cronbach's alpha overcomes the issue related with split-half technique, wherein the estimate of the coefficient of reliability is highly dependent on how the items were split. For that reason, Cronbach's alpha was employed and the results are shown in Chapter 4, Table 4.2.

### **3.10.2          Validity**

Validity is the extent to which a research studies study actually measures what it initially claimed to measure (Berghe 2011:27). Likewise, Gupta (2011:132) refers to validity as the authenticity of a measuring tool to measure what it is supposed to measure. Researchers may assess validity in different ways: content validity, criterion validity and or construct validity (which can be concurrent validity or predictive validity) (Malhotra & Peterson 2006:274). Bolarinwa (2015:195) further adds that the above mentioned validity tests can be categorised into two general components, namely internal validities and external validities, whereby internal validity denotes how precisely the measures attained from the study were actually measuring what they were premeditated to measure whereas external validity denotes how correctly the measures attained from the research sample defined the population from which the research sample was drawn. Taherdoost (2016:29) adds that there are subtypes of validity tests, which are predictive, concurrent, postdictive, discriminant and convergent validity. These subtypes are confirmed in Figure 3.4.



**Figure 3.4: Subtypes of various validity tests**

Source: Taherdoost (2016:29)

### **3.10.2.1 Criterion validity**

Criterion validity is an extent of correspondence amongst test measures and one or more external referents, which are usually measured by their correlation (Drost 2011:118). Taherdoost (2016:29) states that there are subtypes of criterion validity, namely predictive, concurrent and postdictive validity. Malhotra and Peterson (2006:274) describe those subtypes as follows:

#### **➤ Predictive validity**

Predictive validity seeks to settle the significant relationships between the constructs anticipated by the theory (Malhotra & Peterson 2006:274). Van Helvoort, Brand-Gruwel, Huysmans and Sjoer (2017:306) explain that predictive validity denotes the question of whether the scores with an assessment instrument correlate with the scores of another instrument that is supposed to measure similar concepts. In predictive validity, if the correlation between two measures (or events) is high, the initial measure is said to have predictive validity (Feinberg, Kinnear & Taylor 2013:131). The study employed regression analysis to assess the predictive validity of the scale amongst constructs (see Chapter 4, sections 4.8 and 4.9).

### ➤ **Concurrent validity**

According to Taherdoost (2016:33), concurrent validity is evidence that can be collected to support the choice of a measuring tool for predicting other outcomes. It refers to the degree to which the results of a measurement correspond to those of a previously established measurement tool for the same construct. In this study, preceding studies' results were used to defend choice of the questionnaires used.

### ➤ **Postdictive validity**

Postdictive validity is a type of criterion-referenced validity that is determined by the degree to which the scores on a given test are related to the scores on another, already established test or criterion administered at a previous point in time (Taherdoost 2016:29)

#### **3.10.2.2 Content validity**

Content validity is defined as “the degree to which items in an instrument reflect the content universe to which the instrument will be generalised” (Taherdoost 2016:30). Content validity was carried out in this study through the literature review and piloting with an appropriately selected sample (n=40) to allow the enhancement of the questionnaire. The piloting information is provided in this chapter in Section 3.6 and results delivered in Section 4.2 of Chapter 4.

#### **3.10.2.3 Construct validity**

Construct validity is how well an idea, construct or behaviour is translated or transformed into a functioning and operating reality, the operationalisation (Drost 2011:112). Taherdoost (2016:29) states that there are subtypes of construct validity, namely discriminant and convergent validity.

### ➤ **Discriminant validity**

Malhotra and Peterson (2006:274) propose that discriminant validity assesses the degree to which a measure does not relate with other constructs from which it is intended to vary.

### ➤ **Convergent validity**

Convergent validity is a type of construct validity that measures the degree to which the scale relates positively with other measures belonging to the same construct (Malhotra & Peterson 2006:274). Sekaran and Bougie (2013:227) suggest that convergent validity can be assessed by correlation analysis. Thus, in this study, convergent analysis was assessed through correlation analysis (see Section 4.7.1 of Chapter 4).

### **3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Research ethics refers to the norms or standards that guide the research process (Harding 2013:26). Moreover, this study took into consideration the university's research ethics policy and requirements. First, permission was sought from VUT ethical committee and the participating selected retail outlet before the commencement of the study. See Annexure A for the letter of permission granted by the participating retail outlet.

Secondly, participants were informed about the nature of this research and the purpose thereof, as well as given the assurance of the confidentiality of their responses and anonymity of their identity. Thirdly, the participants were informed of their right to withdraw from participation should they feel uncomfortable during the course of the study. Fourthly, the identity of the organisation was assured to be protected and kept anonymous. Finally, for assurance purposes, participants were guaranteed that the data to be gathered will be purely for academic purposes.

### **3.12 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the research design and methodology utilised in the study, including the sampling method, questionnaire development and data collection were explained. The rationale behind choices of methods and techniques was also given. Data collection methods that were employed in the study were also discussed in detail. The layout of the questionnaire was explained. It was shown that it was premeditated, structured and administered in the research field. The data analysis process was revised and different statistical procedures, including reliability and validity valuation procedures were stressed. In addition, ethical considerations were expounded upon. The next chapter focuses on the statistical analysis of the raw data and the discussion of the results.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF EMPIRICAL RESULTS**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The preceding chapter covered the research design and methodology of the research study. An in-depth explanation of the sample selection, the questionnaire development, data collection and statistical analysis was delivered. A detailed layout used to acquire empirical evidence to successfully achieve the research objectives was elaborated upon.

In order to complete this study appropriately, it is essential to analyse the data that was collected in an attempt to answer the research question (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:210). This chapter reports on the analysis exposition and discussions of the empirical results of the study's pilot study and the main survey. With the main survey, attributes of the research participants are described. The data attained on the primary constructs, that is leadership power bases, QWL and employees' intention to stay, contracted focus through exploratory factor analysis and were verified for validity and reliability. These constructs were scrutinised for any substantial relationship amongst the factors through the correlation analysis. The data were interpreted and the results from this research study were consequentially analysed in a meaningful and applicable manner (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:231).

#### **4.2 RESULTS OF THE PILOT TEST**

The questionnaire was piloted on a sample of 40 employees who were excluded from the main survey. In evaluating the reliability of the measuring instrument, the coefficient alpha was primarily computed for the interpreted scales of the questionnaire. These results are reported in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1: Results of the pilot test**

Construct	Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's alpha based on standardised items	Number of items
<b>Section B Leader power bases</b>	0.796	0.798	21
<b>Section C Quality of work life</b>	0.749	0.756	6
<b>Section D Intention to stay</b>	0.867	0.873	4

The results that were acquired provided an acceptable indication of the construct reliability for the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha value for Section B was 0.796, for Section C 0.749 and for Section D 0.867 respectively. Thus, reporting values surpassed the threshold of 0.70 which, according to Shuttleworth (2015:1), suggests satisfactory levels of reliability as mentioned in Section 1.4.3.

### 4.3 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ANALYSIS

The statistical methods of accuracy tests revealed in Table 4.2 stipulate the unique measures that were utilised to evaluate the reliability and validity of the constructs for this study as mentioned in Chapter 3 (refer to Section 3.13).

#### 4.3.1 Reliability

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to assess the internal consistency of each construct employed in the study as shown in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: Reliability results**

Construct	Cronbach's alpha	Inter-item Correlation	Number of items
<b>Section B: Coercive power base</b>	0.808	.643	7
<b>Reward power base</b>	0.847	.667	7
<b>Legitimate power base</b>	0.764	.762	7
<b>Section C: Quality of work life</b>	0.863	.750	6
<b>Section D: Intention to stay</b>	0.913	.402	4

All Cronbach alpha values ranged from 0.764 to 0.913, thus exceeding the recommended threshold of 0.7 and suggesting that all the items in the scale tap into the same underlying constructs (Hair, Wolfinbarger, Bush & Ortinau 2010:44). In addition, the inter-item correlation values are between 0.402 and 0.762, which is above the threshold of 0.30 as recommended by Hajjar (2018:34). Therefore, the measuring instrument was reliable (Hair *et al.* 2014:98).

#### **4.3.2 Validity**

The study also conducted validity measures and the results are reported in the succeeding sections.

##### **4.3.2.1 Content validity**

Content validity was determined through a review of literature and the pilot testing. The scale items in the main questionnaire sufficiently covered the dominion of the constructs and the content validity of the questionnaire was thus addressed. In preparation of the pilot testing and with the assistance of the supervisor, the questionnaire was examined for suitability and whether the questionnaire measured the constructs of the study. A total of 40 respondents were selected to participate on the pilot study. Based on the pilot study, results reported in Table 4.1, no changes were needed on the questionnaire.

##### **4.3.2.2 Construct validity**

Construct validity was established in this study through Spearman's correlation analysis results with values between  $r=0.124$  and  $r=0.756$  and Cronbach's alpha coefficients (refer to Table 4.8) of the final study. These results revealed acceptable reliability values and thus construct validity of the measuring instrument is confirmed.

##### **4.3.2.3 Predictive validity**

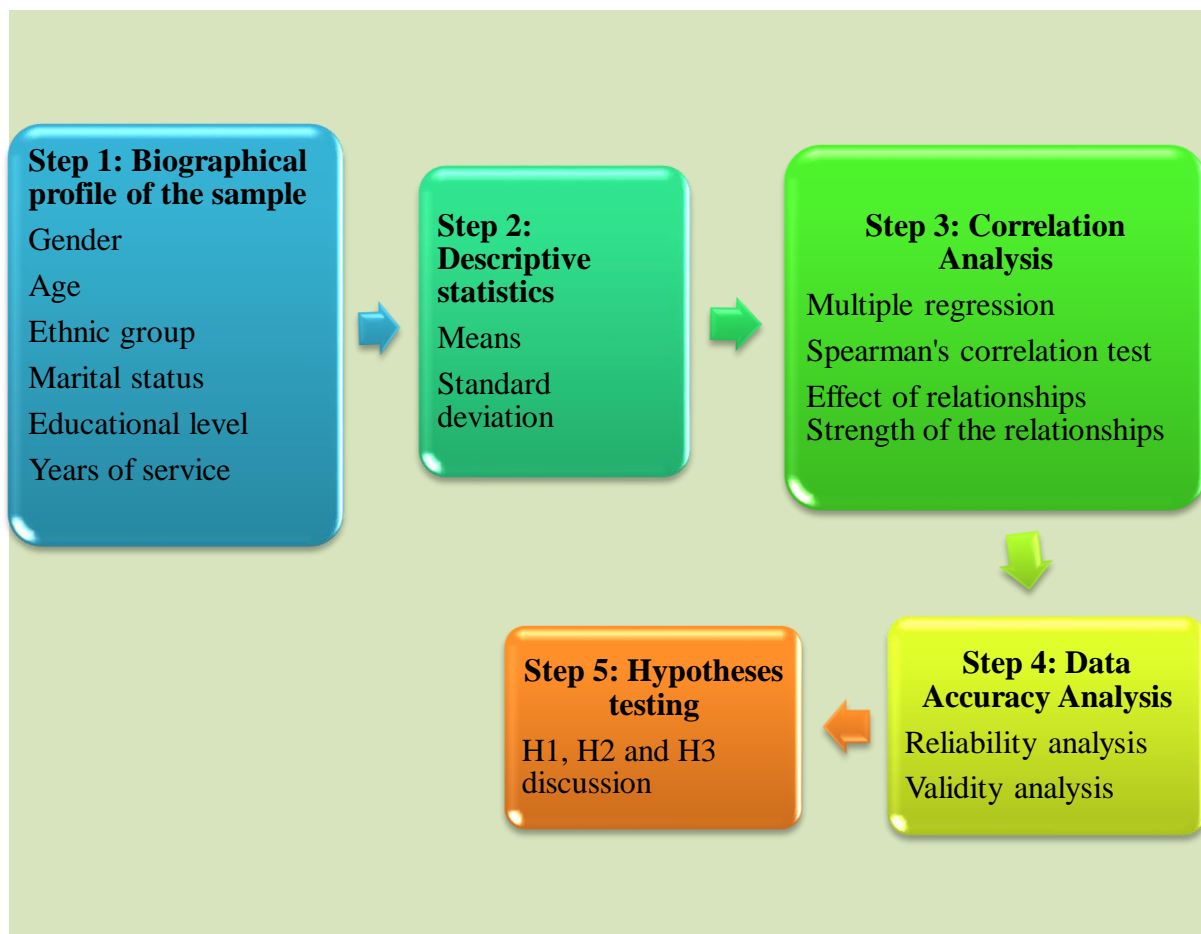
In this study, predictive validity was assessed by indicating that leader power bases predict employees' QWL and resultantly QWL significantly influences employees' intention to stay. Regression analysis revealed significant relationships between the dependent variables and independent variables (refer to Tables 4.9 and 4.10).

#### **4.4 MAIN SURVEY RESULTS**

A total of 336 questionnaires were completed in full out of the original sample of 350 questionnaires that were distributed; therefore, a response rate of 90.4 percent was recorded. Five questionnaires were not usable as they were not fully completed and nine were returned



unanswered. Figure 4.1 shows the different stages of data analysis and interpretation that were adopted in the study for discussion.



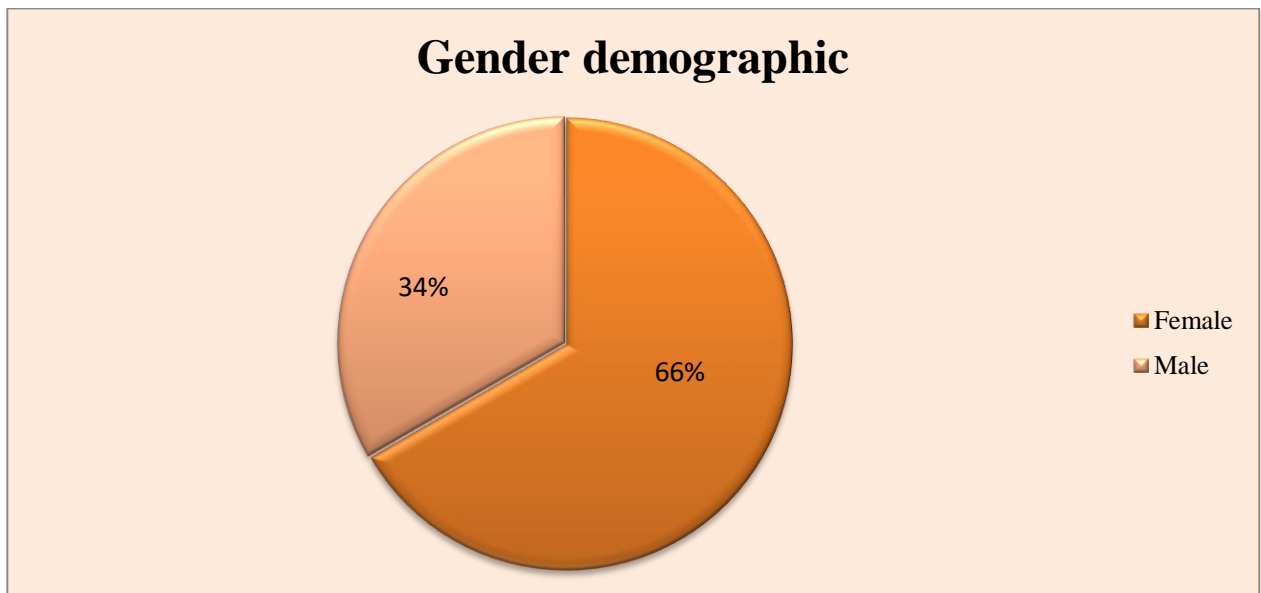
**Figure 4.1: Stages of data analysis and interpretation**

#### **4.4.1 Biographical profile of the sample**

Demographic data indicates socio-economic descriptors of the participants involved in the survey, which is referred to as the classification of information (Malhotra 2010:350). The data attained are offered by means of pie charts and bar graphs. Section A of the questionnaire reports on the demographic information of the sample, which refers to the respondents' gender, age, ethnical group, marital status, highest qualification and year of employment in the organisation. These characteristics are discussed in the succeeding subcategories.

##### **4.4.1.1 Gender of the respondents**

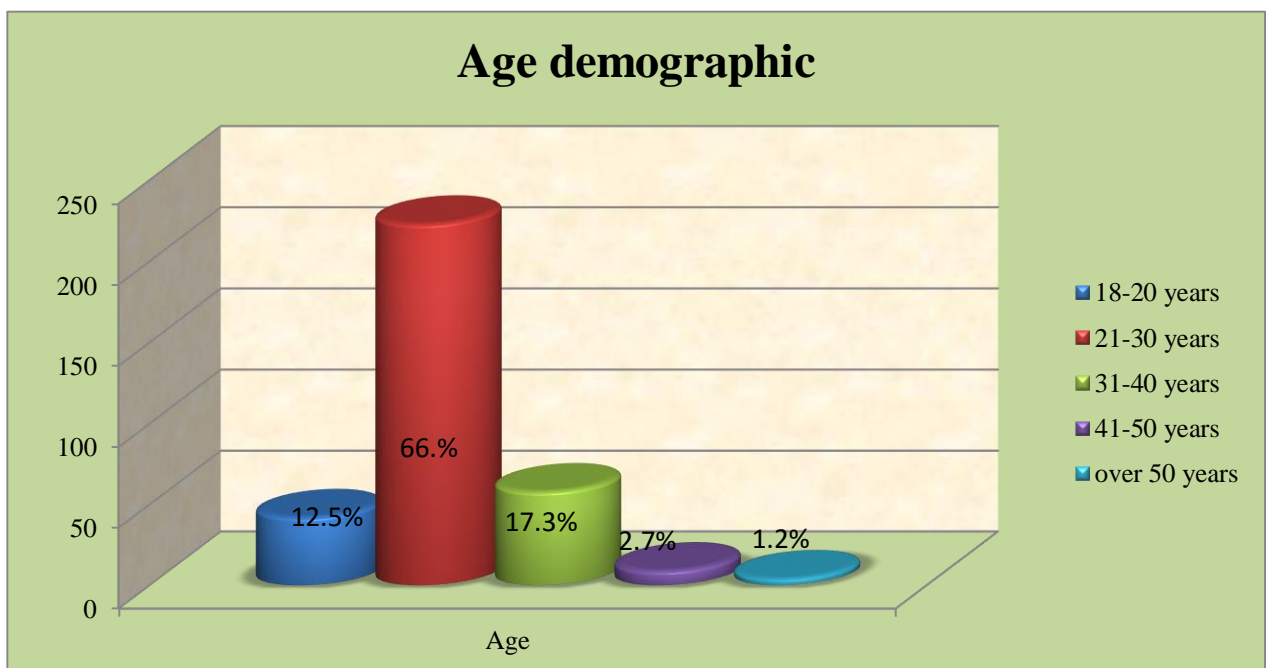
Both males and females participated in the study as described under the target population in Chapter 3 (refer to Section 3.5.1). The organisation was female dominated as majority of the sample, 66 percent (n=223), consisted of female employees and the remaining 34 percent (n=113) were male employees.



**Figure 4.2: Gender**

#### **4.4.1.2 Age distribution of the sample**

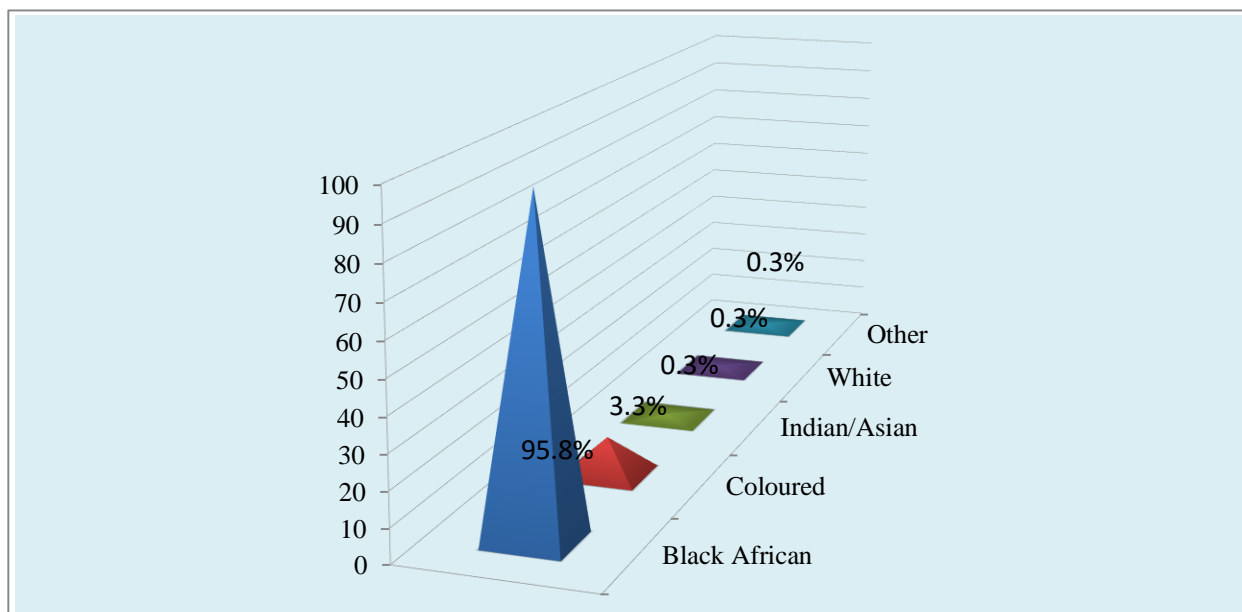
The majority of the participants were between 21 to 30 years of age ( $n=223$ ; 66.4 percent), closely followed by employees between 31 to 40 years of age ( $n=58$ ; 17.3 percent), then followed by those who are from 18 to 20 years of age ( $n=42$ ; 12.5 percent). The remaining respondents were between 41 to 50 years of age ( $n=9$ ; 2.7 percent) and those employees who were over 50 years of age ( $n=4$ ; 1.2 percent). The age distribution of the sample is illustrated in Figure 4.3.



**Figure 4.3: Age demographic**

#### 4.4.1.3 Ethnic group profile

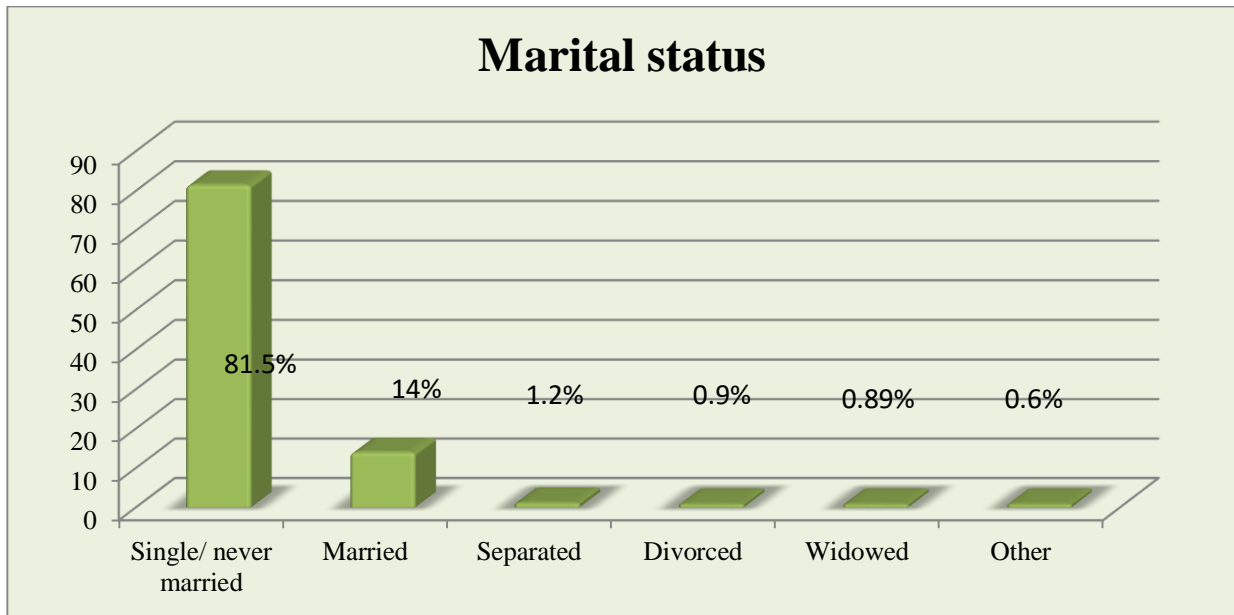
Figure 4.4 shows the demographical information relating to the respondents' ethnic groups. The majority ethnic group of the respondents were Black-Africans (n=322; 95.8 percent), followed by those who identified themselves as coloureds (n=11; 3.3 percent), Indian/Asian represented the smallest portion of this sample group (n=1; 0.3 percent), as well as White (n=1; 0.3 percent) and other (n=1; 0.3 percent). The ethnic group is shown in Figure 4.4.



**Figure 4.4: Ethnic group**

#### 4.4.1.4 Marital status

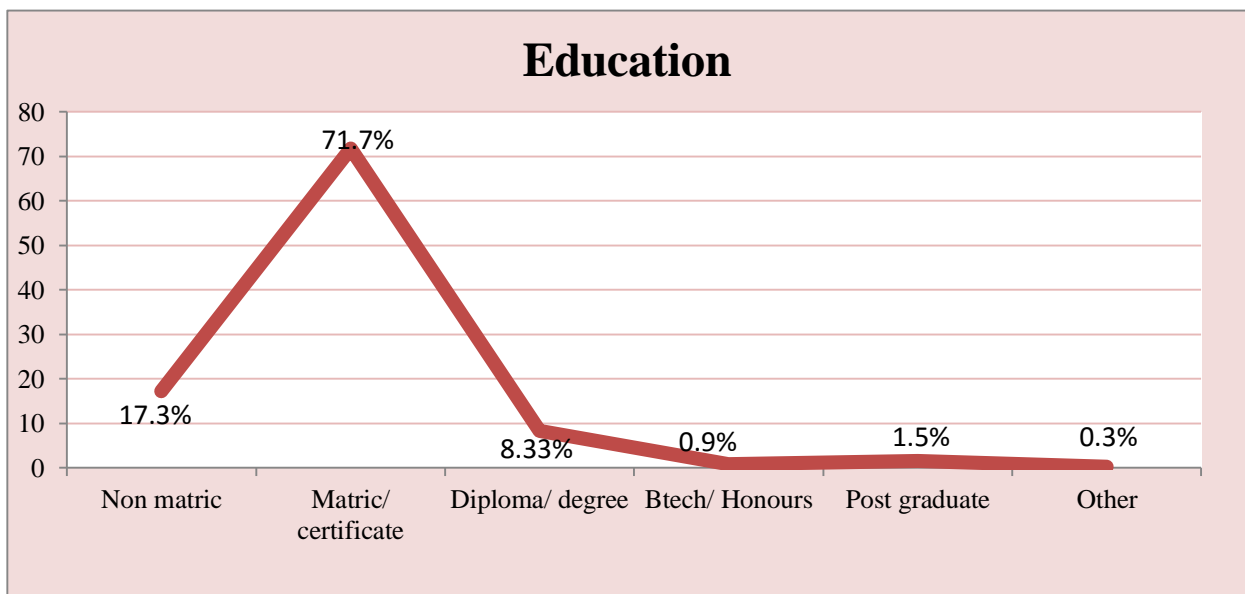
Figure 4.5 shows that the majority of the respondents were single (n=274; 81.5 percent), followed by those that were married (n=47; 14 percent), those who were separated (n=4; 1.2 percent), those who were divorced (n=6; 0.9 percent), and, finally, those who were widowed (n=5; 0.89 percent); other indicated n=2; 0.6 percent.



**Figure 4.5: Marital demographic**

#### 4.4.1.5 Highest qualification

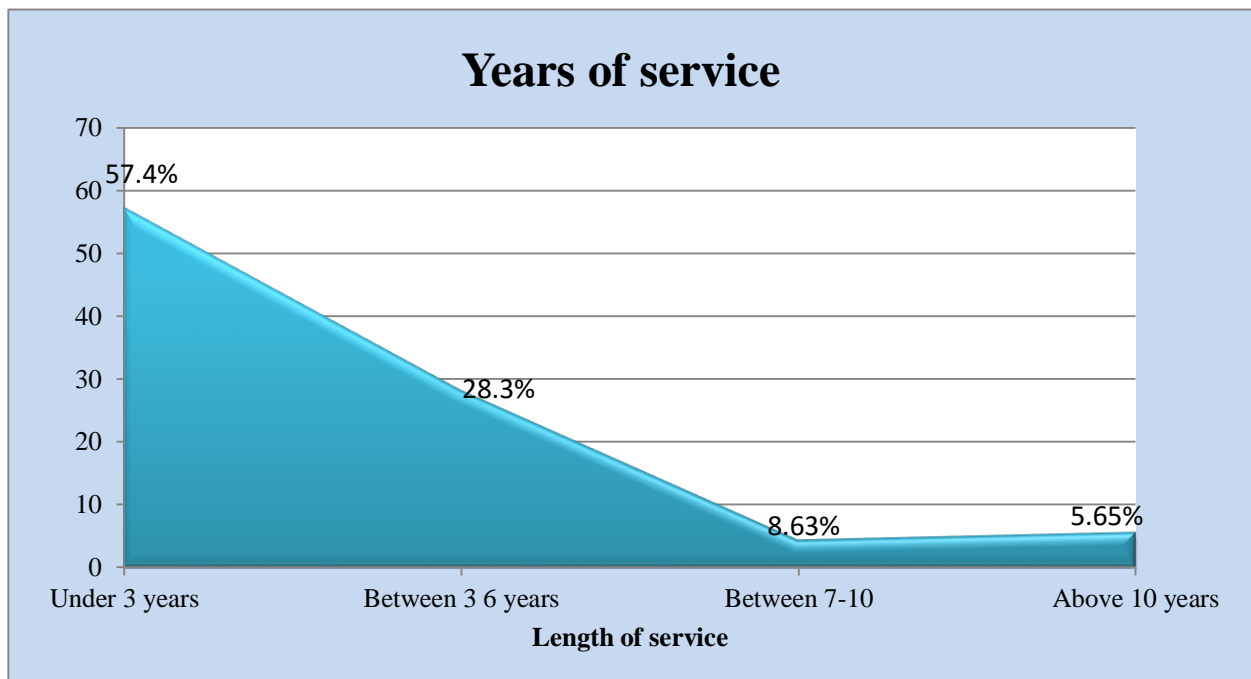
Figure 4.6 provides the qualification composition of the respondents. The majority of respondents had a matric qualification (n=241; 71.7 percent), followed by respondents who indicated that they had no matric (n=58; 17.3 percent), while n=28; 8.33 percent of the total sample had a diploma/ degree qualification. The fourth category representing respondents who had a post graduate qualification (n=5; 1.5 percent) of the total sample, was closely followed by those respondents who had BTech/ honours degrees (n=3; 0.9 percent) and other indicated n=1; 0.3 percent.



**Figure 4.6: Qualification**

#### 4.4.1.6 Years of service (Tenure)

Figure 4.7 presents the classification of data related to the respondents' years of service. According to Figure 4.7, most respondents indicate under 3 years of service (n=193; 57.4 percent) followed by employees who had between 3 to 6 years of service (n=95; 28.3 percent), then employees who had between 7 to 10 years (n=29; 8.63 percent) and the remainder (small portion) of the respondents (n=19; 5.65 percent) had above 10 years of service. Figure 4.7 comprises of the years of service.



**Figure 4.7: Years of service**

The following section refers to descriptive analysis pertaining to the study.

## 4.5 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

As mentioned in Section 3.2.3 of Chapter 3, a descriptive analysis was conducted to indicate the level of the respondents' agreement or disagreement for each construct. Tables 4.2, 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 respectively account on the descriptive statistics comprising of the means and standard deviations of the predetermined constructs.

#### 4.5.1 Reward power

**Table 4.3: Descriptive statistical analysis (Section B – Reward power bases)**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
B1	336	1	5	3.85	1.197
B2	336	1	5	4.01	1.236
B3	336	1	5	3.71	1.303
B4	336	1	5	2.85	1.534
B5	336	1	5	3.27	1.410
B6	336	1	5	3.45	1.432
B7	336	1	5	3.73	1.417

The reward leadership power base had the highest mean score of 4.01 (Item B2) and the lowest mean score was 2.85 (Item B4) with a standard deviation ranging between 1.206 and 1.559. The lowest mean, 2.85 (Item B4), indicated that the employees feel that the superior cannot give them a pay raise even if they do their job very well, while results from B2 of the questionnaire pointed to the fact that the highest mean score was 4.01 (Item B2), which indicates that most employees believe that their superior can inform his/her superior if the quality for their work is good.

#### 4.5.2 Coercive power

**Table 4.4: Descriptive statistical analysis (Section B – Coercive power bases)**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
B8	336	1	5	4.09	1.169
B9	336	1	5	3.64	1.322
B10	336	1	5	3.93	1.244
B11	336	1	5	3.92	1.279
B12	336	1	5	3.43	1.442
B13	336	1	5	3.92	1.210
B14	336	1	5	4.00	1.206

Table 4.4 indicates the uppermost mean score of 4.09 (Item B8) and the lowest mean score was 3.43 (Item B12). The standard deviation ranged between 1.206 and 1.442. The lowest mean, 3.43 (Item B12), indicated that the employees feel that the superior can fire them if they neglect their duties. Meanwhile, B8 with a mean of 4.09 suggests that most employees believe that the superior can take disciplinary action against them for insubordination.

### 4.5.3 Legitimate power

**Table 4.5: Descriptive statistical analysis (Section B – Legitimate power bases)**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
B15	336	1	5	3.90	1.267
B16	336	1	5	3.82	1.381
B17	336	1	5	3.92	1.194
B18	336	1	5	3.75	1.282
B19	336	1	5	3.26	1.559
B20	336	1	5	3.56	1.442
B21	336	1	5	4.02	1.207

Section B of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 4.09 (Item B21) and the lowest mean score was 3.26 (Item B19) with the standard deviation ranging from 1.207 to 1.559. 3.26. Item B19, with a mean score of 3.26, suggests that respondents neither agree nor disagree that they should do what the superior wants because he/she is the superior and the mean score of 4.02 (item B21) advocates that the employees agree that the superior has the right to expect them to carry out her/his instructions while they neither disagree nor agree whether they should do what the superior wants because he/she is the superior.

#### 4.5.4 Quality of Work Life (QWL)

**Table 4.6: Descriptive statistical analysis (Section C – Quality of work life)**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
C1	336	1	5	3.57	1.336
C2	336	1	5	3.32	1.363
C3	336	1	5	3.01	1.526
C4	336	1	5	3.76	1.287
C5	336	1	5	3.65	1.312
C6	336	1	5	3.21	1.540

With orientation to Section C, the mean score fluctuated between 3.01 and 3.76. The standard deviation ranged between 1.312 and 1.540. The lowest mean, 3.01 (Item C3), revealed that employees neither agreed nor disagreed about their work being stressful. Meanwhile, the highest mean score of 3.76 (Item C4) showed that the majority of the respondents agree that they get along well with their co-workers. Therefore, the agreeability was between the mean of 3.01 to 3.76.

#### 4.5.5 Intention to stay

**Table 4.7: Descriptive statistical analysis (Section D – Intention to stay)**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
D1	336	1	5	2.99	1.26
D2	336	1	5	3.31	1.300
D3	336	1	5	2.91	1.519
D4	336	1	5	3.04	1.554

Section D had the maximum mean score of 3.31 (Item D2) and the lowermost mean score was 2.91 (Item D3). The standard deviation vacillated between 1.26 and 1.554. The respondents rated D3 with a mean score of 2.91. This entailed that respondents disagree to not having an intention of leaving their current jobs. The respondents rated D2 with a mean score of 3.31, which reflects that the respondents neither agree nor disagree to having intentions of maintaining their current relationship with their current jobs.



## 4.6 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

As narrated in Section 3.9.2 of Chapter 3, it was essential to utilise correlation analysis amongst leader power bases, QWL and employees' intention to stay to investigate the strength of the fundamental relationship. The results of the non-parametric Pearson's correlation analysis are reported in Table 4.8.

**Table 4.8: Spearman's correlation matrix between constructs**

	CP	RP	LP	QWL	ITS
CP	1.000	.242**	.475**	.464**	.542**
RP	.242**	1.000	.124*	.512**	.173**
LP	.464**	.512**	.397**	1.000	.402**
QWL	.542**	.173**	.756**	.402**	1.000
ITS	.475**	.124*	1.000	.397**	.756**
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)					
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)					
Key CP= coercive power base, RP= reward power base, LP= legitimate power base, QWL= quality of work life and ITS= intention to stay					

A significant and strong correlation was revealed between CP and QWL ( $r=0.542$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). However, a weak relationship was recorded between RP and QWL ( $r=0.173$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) and a significant and medium relationship between LP and QWL showed results of  $r=0.402$ ;  $p<0.01$ . Lastly, there was a strong positive linear relationship between QWL and ITS shown at  $r=0.756$ ,  $p<0.01$  level of significance.

The results revealed a significant and positive correlation between coercive power and QWL ( $r=.546$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). This suggests that coercive power will increase QWL towards an employee's intention to stay. There was a significant and positive but weak correlation between reward power and QWL ( $r=.181$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). This implies that reinforcing reward power on QWL will moderately increase employees' intention to stay. Legitimate power and QWL revealed a positive correlation ( $r=.405$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). This implies that legitimate power positively influences QWL towards employees' intention to stay. The results indicated a strong positive correlation between QWL and intention to stay. ( $r=.754$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). This suggests that increased levels of QWL may have a positive association with employees' intention to stay. The next section discusses multiple regression analysis.

## 4.7 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Once the strength of correlations between the variables was established, multiple regression analysis was undertaken to determine the predictive relationships between the variables as stated in Section 3.9.4.

### 4.7.1 Multi-collinearity

A multi-collinearity test was conducted as a preliminary procedure to precede the multiple regression process as prescribed by Zikmund & Babin (2010:585). The multi-collinearity test was evaluated through the inspection of Tol (the tolerance value) ( $>0.1$ ) and the VIF (variance inflation factor) ( $<10$ ) for each separate construct under review. As presented in Table 4.10, all the independent variables had VIF values of  $<10$  and tolerance values of  $>0.10$ , thus dispelling any multicollinearity threat (Malhotra 2010:560). Since the multi-collinearity values were not too high, multicollinearity was not problematic in this study. As Nayak (2016:125) states, individual parameter estimates are difficult to interpret when multi-collinearity is too high. Regression analysis was then performed and the results are recorded in tables 4.8 and 4.9 respectively.

**Table 4.9: Regression Model 1**

Dependent variable: Quality of work life	Standardised Beta	T	Sig	Collinearity statistics	
Independent variables				Tol.	VIF
Coercive power (H1)	.456	8.886	.000	.770	1.229
Reward power (H2)	-.044	-.827	.409	.710	1.409
Legitimate power (H3)	.210	3.556	.000	.582	1.720
<b>R = 0.571 R<sup>2</sup> = 0.326 Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> = 0.320 F change 53.588 **sig at &lt;0.000</b> <b>Tol.= tolerance value, VIF= variance inflation</b>					

The beta coefficients indicate that coercive power and legitimate power contribute positively to the prediction of QWL, while reward power indicated a negative prediction of QWL. The beta coefficient of  $\beta=0.456$  suggested that there was a strong positive relationship between coercive power and QWL, followed by reward power ( $\beta= -0.044$ ), then by legitimate power ( $\beta=0.210$ ) in a retail outlet. In terms of the beta weights, coercive power is a stronger prediction of QWL, followed by legitimate power and a negative prediction of QWL reflected the  $-0.044$  of reward power. Therefore, reward power does not contribute towards explaining the variation in QWL of the retail outlet in Daveyton township.

In addition, the three factors (coercive power, reward power and legitimate power) explained approximately 32.6 percent ( $R^2 = 0.326$ ) of the variance in leader power bases on QWL. For that reason, the results from multiple regression analysis in Table 4.9 indicate that there is significant relationship between leadership power bases and QWL.

The results in Regression Model 1 indicate that coercive power, reward power and legitimate power have significant influence on QWL, namely coercive power ( $p=0.000$ ;  $p<0.05$ ), reward power ( $p=0.409$ ;  $p<0.000$ ), legitimate power ( $p=0.000$ ;  $p<0.000$ ) .

Table 4.10 presents the multiple regression results for intention to stay within a retail outlet and QWL.

**Table 4.10: Regression Model 2**

Dependent variable: Intention to stay	Standardised beta	T	Sig	Collinearity statistics	
Independent variables				Tol.	VIF
Quality of work life (H4)	.754	20.990	.000	1.000	1.000
<b>R = 0.754 R<sup>2</sup> = 0.569 Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> = 0.568 F change 440.581 **sig at &lt;0.000</b> <b>Tol.= tolerance value, VIF= variance inflation</b>					

The  $R^2$  value of 0.569 on the second regression model suggests that 56.9 percent of the variance in QWL directly contributes to employees' intention to stay. The influence of QWL towards employees' intention to stay was represented by a beta weight of ( $\beta=0.754$ ).

## 4.8 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

### 4.8.1 Discussion of hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) states that a significant relationship exists between coercive power and QWL among employees in a selected retail outlet in Daveyton township. As a result of the survey, it emerged that coercive leadership power base is significantly correlated with QWL as indicated by Spearman's coefficient ( $r=0.542$ ). In addition, the regression analysis results ( $\beta=0.456$ ,  $t$ -value=8.886,  $p>0.000$ ) show that coercive power is a good predictor of QWL. This suggests that coercive power (independent variable) contributes towards explaining the variation in QWL (dependent variable). These results are in line with results of the study conducted by Quain (2019:2), which demonstrated that coercive power shapes employee efficiency and turnover. Similarly, Cumming's (2017:82) study found that coercive power yields higher compliance and

trust outcomes compared to other kinds of power. Therefore, these results indicate that the first hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) is supported with a direct effect.

#### **4.8.2 Discussion of hypothesis 2 ( $H_2$ )**

The second hypothesis ( $H_2$ ) states that there is a significant relationship between reward power and QWL among employees in a selected retail outlet in Daveyton township. The correlation results point out that a low association exists between reward power and QWL ( $r=0.172$ ). Additionally, regression analysis results show that reward power has a negative, insignificant association with QWL ( $\beta = -0.044$ ,  $t\text{-value} = -0.827$ ,  $p>0.409$ ). This suggests that reward power (independent variable) does not contribute towards explaining QWL (dependent variable). Thus,  $H_2$  is insignificant and rejected. These results are in line with studies of Omisore and Nweke (2014:5) and Faiz (2013:1) who reported that reward power influences employees' job satisfaction negatively and inversely.

#### **4.8.3 Discussion of hypothesis 3 ( $H_3$ )**

The third hypothesis ( $H_3$ ) in the study stated that there is a significant relationship between legitimate power and QWL among employees in a selected retail outlet in Daveyton township. A strong association between legitimate power and QWL revealed by a coefficient of  $r=0.402$  and the regression analysis values reveal that legitimate power is indeed a significant predictor of QWL ( $\beta=0.210$ ,  $t\text{-value}=3.556$ ,  $p<0.000$ ). This proposes that legitimate power (independent variable) makes a positive contribution towards explaining the distinction in QWL (dependent variable). Therefore,  $H_3$  is supported. The results of this study are affirmed with the studies undertaken by Tost, Plunkett, Gino and Larrick (2018:21) who found that employees are only likely to emerge when the leader holds legitimate power. Also, Cummings (2017:86) found that legitimate power was positively associated with behaviour and attitudinal compliance.

#### **4.8.4 Discussion of hypothesis 4 ( $H_4$ )**

$H_4$  is supported with a direct result ( $\beta=0.754$ ,  $t\text{-value}=20.990$ ,  $p<0.000$ ). This means that QWL (independent variable) makes a positive contribution towards explaining the variation on intention to stay (dependent variable) within the selected retail outlet. Furthermore, a strong positive correlation ( $r=0.756$ ), which indicates a very strong association and relationship between QWL and intention to stay, was observed. Hence,  $H_4$  is also supported and significant. The results are in agreement with previous research completed by Naude (2010:80) who investigated QWL of front office employees in selected accommodation establishments. Similarly, Vather (2008:50) found a good working environment to be positively associated with staff decisions to stay within a retail

company and Normala (2010:75) found that there is an existing solid positive relationship between QWL and retention of employees.

#### **4.9 CONCLUSION**

This chapter presented and analysed a report on the results of the empirical study. The chapter began with a brief discussion of the results of the pilot study. It elaborated on the variation of the research instruments. Reliability and validity of the measuring instrument were also reported. Then, data analysis was completed through descriptive analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis. Hypothesis testing concluded the chapter. The succeeding chapter will provide the overview of the study, recommendations, limitations, implications of the study as well as the main conclusion.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **OVERVIEW, RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The preceding chapter provided the analysis, discussions and interpretations of the empirical results. The phases for data collection and analysis were identified and described. The information was analysed and summarised using descriptive analysis, correlation analysis reliability and validity analysis as well as regression analysis.

This chapter offers an overview of the study by placing the theoretical and empirical objectives into context. The purpose of the study was to determine the influence of leadership power base on towards employees' intention to stay within a retail outlet in Daveyton township, South Africa. Arising from the theory and the empirical study, recommendations are suggested. Furthermore, the benefits of the study, limitations and implications for future research opportunities are covered.

#### **5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY**

In order to give significant recommendations and conclude the study, it is vital to use the discussions flowing from the four previous chapters of the study. Therefore, the primary objective of the study as specified in Chapter 1 is revaluated in Section 5.3.1, followed by theoretical objectives revised in Section 5.3.2 and then the empirical objectives re-addressed in Section 5.3.4.

The main purpose of Chapter 1 was to introduce the study, lay out the background, problem definition, formulate research objectives and outline research methods. The proposed research model and hypothesis development were also presented in Chapter 1 under Section 1.5.4. Chapter 1 presented the research methodology and design procedures employed in the study.

The theoretical objectives formulated in Chapter 1 under Section 1.5.2 were used in structuring Chapter 2, the literature review component of the study. Chapter 2 began with an introduction, followed by the overview of research in the retail industry (Section 2.2). This was followed by the theory that guided and located the study into perspective. The theoretical objectives dictated the discussions on leader power base (Section 2.4), QWL (Section 2.5) and employees' intention to stay (Section 2.6).

Chapter 3 rendered an explanation of the research methodology followed in this study. An exposition of the different research designs, namely explanatory, casual and descriptive research

design was done (Section 3.2). The research method used in the study (Section 3.3) as well as the sampling design procedure (Section 3.4) were addressed. Thereafter, means of data collection and a measuring tool were discussed in Section 3.5, which prompted a pilot study (Section 3.6) and then data were prepared (Section 3.7) and analysed in Section 3.8. Section 3.9 discussed the various techniques used to interpret and report on the collected data for the statistical analysis in Chapter 4. The chapter also explained the forms of reliability and validity (Section 3.10) employed in the study, followed by ethical considerations in Section 3.11.

Chapter 4 reported on the empirical results of the study. The results presented in this chapter are in accordance with the empirical objectives formulated for the study.

Chapter 5 covers, most importantly, how the research objectives were accomplished and concludes the study.

### **5.3 EVALUATION OF THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

All research objectives were addressed based on the data generated from the study to ensure that the envisioned purpose of the study was accomplished.

#### **5.3.1 Primary objective**

The study was designed to investigate the influence of leadership power base on QWL towards employees' intention to stay within a retail outlet in Daveyton township. The objectives that were identified in Chapter 1 are all indicated, thereafter, the research results are summarised.

#### **5.3.2 Theoretical objectives**

The theoretical objectives, as set out in Chapter 1 under Section 1.4, are outlined and reviewed. In order for retailers and researchers to make informed decisions and derive value from this study, all research objectives were addressed based on the data generated from the survey in order to ensure that the initial purpose of the study was achieved. Both theoretical and empirical results were achieved respectively as follows:

#### **5.3.3 Achievement of the theoretical objectives**

The theoretical objectives of the study were accomplished by means of a comprehensive review of secondary sources such as peer reviewed journal articles, textbooks and published reports as outlined in Table 4.1.

**Table 5.1: Achievement of the theoretical research objectives**

<b>Specific research objective</b>	<b>Theoretical research objective being addressed</b>	<b>Section where the research objective was addressed</b>
<b>Theoretical objective 1</b>	To provide an overview of the retail industry.	Section 2.2
<b>Theoretical objective 2</b>	To appraise literature on the underlying theory to the constructs under investigation	Section 2.3
<b>Theoretical objective 3</b>	To conduct a literature review on leadership power base dimensions.	Section 2.4
<b>Theoretical objective 4</b>	To undertake a literature review on the quality of work life among employees.	Section 2.5
<b>Theoretical objective 5</b>	To synthesise literature on employees' intention to stay.	Section 2.6

### **5.3.3.1 To provide an overview of the retail industry**

The retail industry was reviewed in Section 2.2 of Chapter 2 in order to comprehensively understand the industry on which the study focused and its role in the economy. Section 2.2 of this study delivered a foundation of this research project through an overview of the retail industry. From the review, it emerged that the role played by the retail industry in the economy of South Africa is very significant (Stops 2013:1). For example, the industry accounts for about 12.5 percent of GDP and about 21 percent of the total workforce; increases in job creation in the sector can have a large impact on unemployment (Malgas, Khatle & Mason (2018:2). Section 2.2 proceeded to describe the underlying theory to the constructs under investigation.

### **5.3.3.2 To appraise the literature on the underlying theory to the constructs under investigation**

The second theoretical research objective, intended to theoretically review the TRA theory in view of determining the influence of leadership power bases on QWL towards employees' intention to stay, was accomplished in Section 2.3 of the study. It was indicated that the theory resulted from attitude research that used the expectancy value models to explain how and why attitude affects behaviour. It was also found that the formulation of TRA was done after attempting to estimate the inconsistency that occurred between attitude and behaviour (Otieno, Liyala, Odongo & Abeka 2016:1). The objective to appraise the literature on the theory adopted in this study was done in Section 2.3.



### **5.3.3.3 To conduct a literature review on leadership power base dimensions**

Leadership is a social influence process that is necessary for the attainment of organisational goals (Faeth 2004:1). In the achievement of theoretical objective 3, Section 2.4 rendered a detailed literature review of the work of French and Raven (1959). In addition, the various leadership power bases (coercive power, reward power, legitimate power, expert power, referent power and informational power) were discussed in order to explain the entity of each leader power base. The third theoretical research objective was aimed at reviewing the literature on the French and Raven's (1959) leader power bases. This section further provided an evaluation of the formal leader power bases. As Vecchio (2003:7) proposed, it was found that power that influences employees is dependent on the perceptions of the target employees.

### **5.3.3.4 To undertake a literature review on the quality of work life (QWL) among employees**

This objective is achieved under Section 2.5 of Chapter 2. While definitions can provide a broad understanding of QWL, it remains a complex concept, as there are many different definitions of QWL. This section discussed the importance of QWL, objectives of QWL and also outlined the dimensions of QWL. The discussion showed that the dimensions of QWL impact the degree of QWL as a whole, therefore, influences employees' intention to stay. The dimensions that entailed QWL were identified as communication, career development and growth, organisational commitment, emotional supervisory support, flexible work arrangement, family-responsive culture, employee motivation, organisational climate, organisational support, job satisfaction, compensation, rewards and benefits, working environment and the work load.

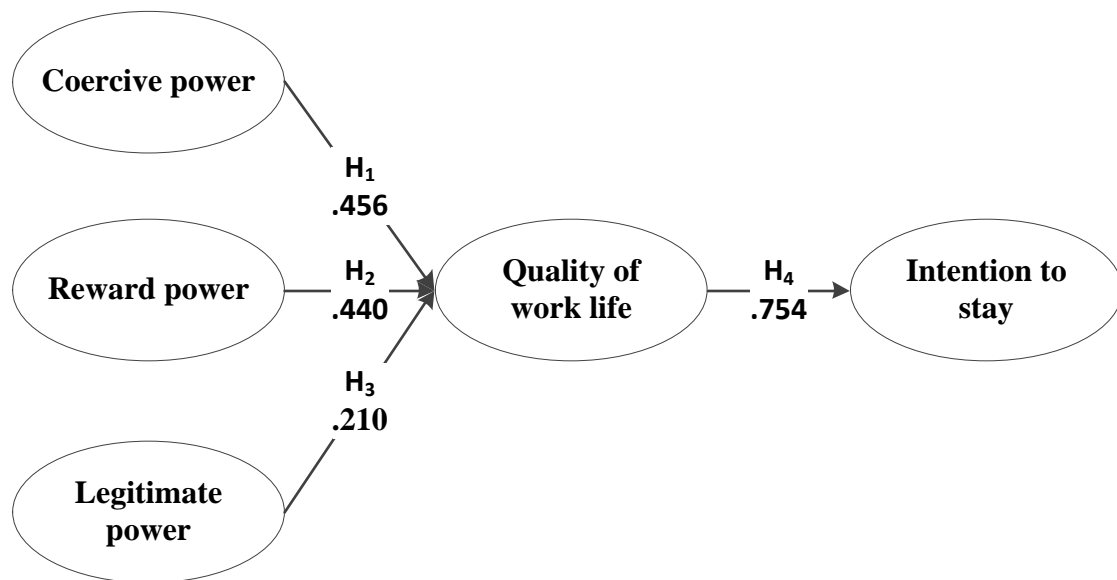
### **5.3.3.5 To synthesise the literature on employees' intention to stay**

Finally, this theoretical research objective, aimed to synthesise the literature on employees' intention to stay, was conducted in Section 2.6 of this study in order to provide a precise understanding of the construct. Nonetheless, this research suggests that there are two clusters of factors influencing employees' intention to stay, namely internal and external. These internal factors are poor training, working conditions, management practice, rate of pay and recruitment process and external factors are unemployment rate and employee personal interest. Accordingly, the literature supported the notion that leadership power bases influence the QWL towards employees' intention to stay within a retail outlet. The knowledge and understanding of the factors influencing employees' intention to stay is paramount as it will help practitioners, managers and

organisations to develop strategies on how to improve intention to stay in the retail industry (Ongori 2007:49).

### 5.3.4 Achievement of the empirical research objectives

The figure 5.1 demonstrates the proven relationship among constructs.



**Figure 5.1: The empirical objectives with results**

As stated in Chapter 1, the empirical objectives are revisited in the following sections:

- **To assess employees’ perceptions of selected leadership power base, quality of work life (QWL) and intention to stay within a retail outlet in Daveyton township**

The first empirical objective set out in Chapter 1 was to assess the employees’ perceptions of selected leadership power base, QWL and intention to stay within a retail outlet in Daveyton township. Correlation analysis was conducted in order to achieve this objective. According to the results reported in Table 4.8 and Table 4.9, significant and low to high correlation was revealed with the leadership power base, QWL and intention to stay ( $r=0.173$ ) to ( $r=0.756$ );  $p<0.01$ ). This indicated that there is a moderate relationship between leadership power base, QWL and intention to stay. The results of regression analysis revealed that coercive power and legitimate power positively influence QWL, reward power reflected a low influence and significance and, lastly, QWL strongly influences employees’ intention to stay with a retail outlet. Furthermore, the relation between the leadership power bases and QWL indicated a beta of 0.456 coercive power, -0.044 for reward power, 0.210 for legitimate power and between QWL and intention to stay

0.754. Therefore, there was a strong positive relation between constructs coercive power and QWL, legitimate power and QWL and lastly, between QWL and intention to stay.

- **To ascertain the relationship and influence of coercive power on the quality of work life (QWL) among employees at a retail outlet in Daveyton township**

The second empirical objective formulated in Chapter 1 was to ascertain the relationship and influence of coercive power on the QWL among employees at a retail outlet in Daveyton. As with the first empirical objective, the relationship was also confirmed using regression analysis (refer to Table 4.8). The empirical results revealed the existence of the significant association between coercive power and the QWL ( $r=0.542$ ;  $p<0.001$ ). Results of the regression analysis revealed that coercive power had a significant positive influence on QWL. The results from Table 4.10 shows that coercive power is a good predictor of QWL ( $\beta=0.456$ ,  $t\text{-value}=8.886$ ,  $p>0.000$ ). This means that the hypothesis is significant and supported.

- **To ascertain the relationship and influence of legitimate power on the quality of work life (QWL) among employees at a retail outlet in Daveyton township**

With reference to the above empirical objective, correlation analysis was undertaken and the results reported in Table 4.10 revealed a significant and medium correlation ( $r=0.402$ ;  $p<0.01$ ), thus, signifying that there is a positive relationship between legitimate power and QWL. In addition, the regression analysis values show that legitimate power is certainly a predictor of QWL ( $\beta=0.210$ ,  $t\text{-value}=3.556$ ,  $p<0.000$ ), which is an indication of a strong positive association and relationship between legitimate power and QWL.

- **To investigate the relationship and influence of reward power on the quality of work life (QWL) among employees at a retail outlet in Daveyton township**

This empirical objective set out in Chapter 1 was to investigate the relationship and influence of reward power on the QWL among employees at a retail outlet in Daveyton township. Correlation analysis was taken in order to achieve this objective. The objective was accomplished empirically in Section 4.7 of Chapter 4. To institute the relationship between reward power and QWL, a correlation analysis was conducted to discover if there was a relationship between the QWL and intention to stay. With reference to the results reported in Table 4.8, a significant and low correlation was revealed with reward power and QWL association ( $r=0.173$ ;  $p>0.01$ ). The results of the regression analysis procedure indicated  $\beta= -0.044$ ,  $t\text{-value}= -0.827$ ,  $p=0.409$  (refer to Table 4.9). Therefore,  $H_3$  is rejected.

- **To establish the relationship between quality of work life (QWL) and employees' intention to stay at a retail outlet in Daveyton township.**

The last empirical objective mentioned in Chapter 1 was to establish the relationship between QWL and employees' intention to stay at a retail outlet in Daveyton township. Correlation analysis was also taken in order to achieve this objective. According to the results reported in Table 4.8, a significant and medium correlation was revealed ( $r=0.756$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), therefore, indicating that there is a strong relationship between QWL and intention to stay. In addition, regression analysis was used to measure the relationship between QWL and intention to stay (refer to Table 4.10).  $H_4$  is supported with a direct effect ( $\beta=0.754$ ,  $t\text{-value}=20.990$ ,  $p<0.000$ ) and a strong positive correlation ( $r=0.756$ ), which stipulates a very strong association and relationship between QWL and intention to stay.

#### **5.4 LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

This research study had some limitations. The major limitation of this study was complexity of the topic. Since the survey was conducted through a self-administered questionnaire, it was a great challenge to ensure the actual validity of the responses. In some cases, the topics were not understood by the employees who have minimal idea about QWL and thus returned the questionnaires unanswered.

Participants are mainly from Daveyton township; therefore, this research does not reflect the perception of employees of each branch of the company. Additionally, employees' level of education and understanding of the questionnaire was another limitation of my study.

This research only focused on the influence of three power bases (coercive power, reward power and legitimate power), while the other three were not investigated (expert power, referent power and information power).

Another limitation is that a probability simple random sampling technique was employed in the study. Therefore, the process was time-consuming and tedious. It is imperative to note that the aforementioned limitations do not necessarily negate the contributions of this study but open up further avenues for future research

The last limitation was the choice of using a single method of data collection. The study engaged with a quantitative research approach. Future research may perhaps consider using both quantitative and qualitative research designs, where the qualitative research design can be used to generate insightful ideas and clarifications. It would be advantageous to utilise both quantitative

and qualitative paradigms to complement each other. The qualitative research design can be supportive in following up to the feedback provided in the quantitative research design.

Due to the limited scope of this research, which is in partial fulfilment of research based on a Master's degree in Business Administration, the research concentrated on employees working for a specific retailer and only in the Daveyton township. Given ample funds and organisational support, the researcher would in future like to undertake a comprehensive national research project within the same company. A broader and more geographically diverse group of participants can be used. This would enlarge the research sample and reliability and validity of the research results to a much more representative section of the population. Tinofirei (2011:98) agrees that extended research results that have greater applicability, reliability and validity and assist in an evidence-based employer approach to accentuating employee intention to stay in an organisation.

The researcher suggests that this research study be considered as means of thought-provoking discussions, measurement, further exploration, effective reporting and documentation of leader power base' influence on QWL towards employee intention to stay within the retail industry in South Africa.

Since the research only focused on the influence of the formal category of power bases, it is recommended that future research focuses on the influence of the informal category of power bases on QWL towards employees' intention to stay in a retail outlet.

## **5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the analysis of the literature and, more specifically, in light of the results of the theoretical and empirical research, the following recommendations are offered:

### **5.5.1 Theoretical recommendations**

This research only focused on the influence of formal power. The researcher recommends a focus on the influence of the informal power category as well. The researcher also recommends research to be done on a broader geographical area and by other retailers to acquire a better reflection of the influence of leadership power dynamics on QWL towards employees' intention to stay.

#### **5.5.1.1 Recommendation regarding the significance of leadership power bases towards quality of work life (QWL)**

Power bases, namely coercive power, legitimate power and reward power, explain 32.6 percent of the variance of QWL (refer to Section 4.7.1 of Chapter 4). These results advocate that elements of

power dynamics have a 32.6 percent contribution towards QWL. It is recommended that retailers should put emphasis on QWL. Naude (2010:101) mentions that with the comparison between industries, it was determined that other industries are more satisfied with their QWL, therefore, retailers should consider looking into the QWL of their employees.

Schulze (2006:322) recommends that leadership power bases at retailers must be considered as crucial factors that influence QWL. Sureshkumar and Selvakumar (2014:15) further elaborate that management should take steps towards improving the QWL by maintaining employees proper work life balance, providing adequate facilities, creating supportive work groups, improving communication, eliminating bias, proper use of power, providing enough privacy in their job, creating a sense of one community, that employees are encouraged to develop their new skills, create clear set of goals and provide opportunities to improve their jobs; these kind of effort from management will be much appreciated by employees. Dey and Tripathy (2015:19) add that in order to improve QWL in retail industries, employers, employees, managers and the government are required to participate. The authors further state that companies should encourage management through objectives, have a suggestion system in place and include other employees' participation to improve QWL. When there are harmonious relationships between management and employees, the mission and objectives of the organisation will be accomplished, leading to high levels of QWL satisfaction and intention to stay (Tsai 2011:8).

#### **5.5.1.2 Recommendation regarding the significance of quality of work life (QWL) towards employees' intention to stay.**

QWL made a contribution of 56.9 percent of the variance in QWL to employees intention to stay (refer to Table 4.14 of Chapter 4). Given the strong association between QWL and intention to stay, it is recommended that retailers must pay more attention towards improving employees' intention to stay that could be achieved through a better QWL.

An important recommendation is that managers should take initiatives to increase QWL with a view to amplifying organisational commitment and intent to stay of employees in their organisations (Youcef, Ahmed & Ahmed 2016:200). Letooane (2013:139) highlights that management must understand the implications and benefits of QWL before they can even start to implement QWL programmes as implementation of the recommendations can make a significant contribution to alleviate QWL and retention challenges. The recommendation arising from this is that first, Company H should provide a list of the training courses they currently run to a new employee. Further to this, they should map the career paths within the organisations that these

training courses can facilitate. The issue of the mix of training interventions, the age of employees and its effect on turnover require further research in the retail industry (Vather 2008:65).

The recommendation being that the issue of management needs further research, but from a learning perspective, managers should expose employees to the full career spectrum and see training as a pre-condition to achieving financial goals (Vather 2008:62).

### **5.5.2 Practical recommendations**

French and Raven (1959:151) suggest types of leadership power, aimed at providing a rational basis for selecting among alternative courses of action, namely legitimate, reward, coercive, referent and management attempts to understand the power bases that improve QWL as power is perceived as an essential element at work at all management levels (operational-, middle- and top management) and regardless of the type of organisation (non-profit, for-profit and state sport organisations) (Megheirkouni 2018:1-2). This is because power can affect decision making by managers and may go further to affect QWL and employees, managers or leaders and organisations if misused. The study showed a strong correlation (refer to Section 4.6) between the constructs; legitimate power and QWL association ( $r=0.402$ ), coercive power and QWL at ( $r=0.542$ ), reward power and QWL showed ( $0.173$ ) and QWL and intention to stay ( $r=0.756$ ). However, reward power had a low association and a negative beta  $-0.044$ . Therefore, with regards to the results, managers may need to use reward power less and aim at increasing QWL for employees in retail outlets.

Managers in retail have to arrange innovative means of retaining employees in their pool in order to avoid frequent recruitment, which is costly and time-consuming (Michaels 2010:8). They also need to acknowledge that each individual is unique and that their needs may change over time (Amos, Ristow, Ristow & Pearse 2008:179). It is imperative, therefore, for managers to know and understand factors that satisfy their key employees in their jobs to improve their QWL (Amos *et al.* 2008:172).

Barzegar, Afzal, Tabibi, Delgoshaei and Koochakyazdi (2012:9) propose that subordinates are directly influenced by the leader's personal relationship with him or her. Barzegar *et al.* (2012:9) recommend that leaders who want to promote QWL need to establish close and friendly relationships with subordinates, involve them in the organisation's goals, build high degrees of confidence and develop good leadership abilities.

Due to changing times and values held by each generation, the perception of QWL suggests a need to build a working environment by managers that is supportive of multiple generations (Ashwini

& Anand 2014:3). Ashwini and Anand (2014:3) further suggests that high quality initial training must be provided to employees to ensure better QWL and further retain them. Therefore, Ashwini and Anand (2014:6) recommend that training be given a priority to strategically improve high intention to stay rates.

It can also be recommended that QWL is a critical concept that might be disturbed due to the leader power base that is used. Nonetheless, companies can focus on their employees' welfare by providing them with a better, attractive compensation policy and optimum workload by providing a superior work environment and creating a career growth opportunity within their environment that may lead to better performance, therefore, better productivity (Mohammad 2012:6). Moreover, participation management will increase the enthusiasm amongst employees as they will have an opportunity to participate with their ideas.

## **5.6 CONCLUSION**

In this final chapter, the objectives of the study were evaluated, limitations and suggestions and recommendations were discussed. The chapter presented an evaluation of the objectives, achievement of the objectives, limitations and suggestions and recommendations based on the research results.



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## ANNEXURE A: LETTER OF CONSENT



REG. NO. 1929/001817/07 (PTY) LTD  
15 May 2019

To whom it may concern

I am writing formally to indicate our awareness of the research proposed by Mbali Eveltha Maphanga student number 211094749, a student at Vaal University of Technology. We are aware that Mbali Eveltha Maphanga intends to conduct her research by giving survey questionnaires to our employees.

I am in my capacity as the Regional Human Resources Manager of Jhb East region aware of the study that Mbali Eveltha Maphanga is conducting. Permission has been granted for her to conduct her research.

If you have questions or concerns, please contact me on 0737745232.

Regards  
Mr. Phumla Nkosi  
Regional Human Resources Manager  
Contact Number: 073 7745 232



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## ANNEXURE B: COVER LETTER FOR MAIN SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE



### **LEADERSHIP POWER BASES' INFLUENCES ON QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND INTENTION TO STAY AMONG EMPLOYEES AT A SELECTED RETAIL OUTLET**

Dear participant

I am currently undertaking a research project for MTech degree in Business Administration at the Vaal University of Technology. In the fulfilment of the requirements for the degree I am conducting a study titled **“LEADERSHIP POWER BASES' INFLUENCES ON QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND INTENTION TO STAY AMONG EMPLOYEES AT A SELECTED RETAIL OUTLET.”** The purpose of this study is to investigate the influence of leadership power base on QWL towards employees' intention to stay within a retail outlet in Daveyton township. As such, the study aims to determine the influence of leadership power base on QWL towards employees' intention to stay.

Kindly assist us by completing the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire is user-friendly and should take, approximately 15 minutes to complete. All responses are confidential and the results will only be used for research purposes, outlined in the form of statistical data.

Thank you – your assistance and contribution is highly appreciated.

Department of Human Resource

Vaal University of Technology (Vanderbijlpark campus)

## ANNEXURE C: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

### **SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIAL MEDIA USAGE INFORMATION**

Please answer the following questions by selecting the appropriate box.

A1	<b>Gender:</b>	Male	Female
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A2	<b>Age range:</b>	18-20 years	21-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	Over 50 years
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A3	<b>Ethnic group:</b>	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
	Other (Please specify)				

A4	<b>Marital status:</b>	Single/Never been married	Married	Separated	Divorced	Widowed
	Other (specify):					

A6	<b>Please indicate your highest qualification:</b>					
	Non-matric	Matric/Certificate	Diploma/Degree	BTech/Honours	Post graduate qualification	Other (specify):

A7	<b>Please indicate number of years in this organisation:</b>				
	Number of completed years at this organisation	Under 3 years	Between 3-6 years	Between -7-10 years	Above 10years

## **SECTION B: LEADER POWER INVENTORY**

Please indicate in your opinion, the extent to which you agree with the following statements anchored along 5 = strongly agree, 4 = somewhat agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 1 = strongly disagree

Reward power								
B1	My superior can recommend me for merit recognition if my performance is especially good.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B2	My superior can inform his/her superior if the quality for my work is especially good.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B3	My superior can provide opportunities for my advancement if my work is outstanding.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B4	My superior cannot get me a pay raise even if I do my job well.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B5	If I put forth extra effort, my superior can take it into consideration to determine my pay raise.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B6	My superior can get me a bonus if I earn a good performance rating.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B7	My superior can recommend a promotion for me if my performance is consistently above average.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
Coercive power								
B8	My superior can take disciplinary action against me for insubordination.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B9	My superior can fire me if my performance is consistently below standards	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B10	My superior can give me a written reprimand if my work is consistently below standards.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B11	My superior can suspend me if I am habitually late in coming to work.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B12	My superior can see to it that I get no pay raise if my work is unsatisfactory.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

B13	My superior can fire me if I neglect my duties.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B14	My superior can give me a verbal reprimand if I neglect to follow her/his policies.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
<b>Legitimate power</b>								
B15	My superior's position gives him/her the right to direct my activities as he/she sees fit.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B16	It is reasonable for my superior to decide what he/she wants me to do.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B17	My superior is justified in expecting cooperation from me in work related matters.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B18	My superior's position entitles him/her to expect support of his/her policies from me.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B19	My superior's position does not give him/her the authority to change the procedures of my work.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B20	I should do what my superior wants because he/she is my superior.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B21	My superior has the right to expect me to carry out her/his instructions.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

### **SECTION C: QUALITY OF WORK LIFE**

<b>This section describes your overall evaluations regarding the Quality of Work Life in retail. Please indicate in your opinion, the extent to which you agree with the following statements anchored along 1 (Strongly Disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Neither agree nor disagree), 4 (Agree) and 5 (Strongly Agree). Mark only one number with an "X" for each statement.</b>								
C1	My company provides a good working environment for its employees.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C2	I am happy at my company.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C3	My work is not stressful.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

C4	I get along well with my co-workers.	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
C5	I have a good supervision at work.	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
C6	My job security is good.	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>

#### **SECTION D: EMPLOYEE INTENTION TO STAY**

<p><b>This section describes your overall evaluations regarding Employee Intention To Stay. Please indicate in your opinion, the extent to which you agree with the following statements anchored along 1 (Strongly Disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Neither agree nor disagree), 4 (Agree) and 5 (Strongly Agree). Mark only one number with an “X” for each statement.</b></p>								
D1	I will most probably stay in this job in the foreseeable future.	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
D2	I definitely intend to maintain my current relationship with this job	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
D3	I have no intention of leaving this job.	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
D4	I plan to stay at this company as long as possible	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>

**Thank you for your time and co-operation!**

## ANNEXURE D: LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR



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

**28 April 2020**

To whom it may concern

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

**Mbali Eveltha Maphanga**

for the degree

**Magister Technologiae: Business Administration**

entitled:

***Leadership power bases influences on quality of work life and intention to stay  
among employees at a selected retail outlet***

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

Yours truly,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'Linda Scott', is written over a light blue rectangular background.

Linda Scott