

**THE INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYEE FIT DIMENSIONS ON JOB  
SATISFACTION, ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND  
INTENTION TO STAY IN SELECTED SOUTH AFRICAN MUNICIPALITIES**



by

**JOSIAH COBA MASOKA**

**Student number: 20007086**

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PhD)**

in the discipline of

**BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION**

in the

**DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

in the

**FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES**

at the

**VAAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**

**Promoter: Prof M. Dhurup**

**Co-Promoter: Prof P.A. Joubert**

2021

## **DECLARATION**

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

Signed.....

Date.....

### **STATEMENT 1**

This thesis is being submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy (PhD): in Business Administration.

Signed.....

Date.....

### **STATEMENT 2**

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

Signed.....

Date.....

### **STATEMENT 3**

I hereby give consent for my thesis, if accepted, to be available for photocopying and for interlibrary loans and for the title and summary to be made available to external stakeholders.

Signed.....

Date.....

## DEDICATION

---

First and foremost, I would like to give thanks to the Almighty God who through His son, the Right Reverent Bishop Dr B.E. Lekganyane, has given me strength and encouragement throughout my journey. Without you, Lord it was mission impossible.

To my parents, Piet Ndaweni and Lizzy Khabonina Masoka, your love for education has touched me so deeply. I wish I could graduate each and every one of your children. Even if, at times it looked impossible, I would think of you and the interest you have in education and immediately feel rejuvenated. Thanks once again, this one is dedicated to both of you.

A very special appreciation goes to my caring, supportive pillar, my wife Busisiwe Lucia Masoka whom without her support and belief in my abilities this would not have been possible. I also extend my appreciation to my children, Nokukhanya, Nokwanda, Khayelihle and Pitty, especially the little ones, Khayelihle and Nokukhanya who would not sleep until I returned from office.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To Prof M Dhurup, my promoter, it has been a long journey this far. I feel so privileged to have worked with you as my promoter. I could not have asked for anyone else. You never stopped pushing me even when I seemed to have lost hope, you were there. I could not face you on many occasions because I was not sure of the quality of the work I had submitted. Even in your difficult times, you still cared about my progress. May God keep and bless you, for you are a blessing to many.

To Prof P. Joubert, my co-promoter. You have been a pillar of strength and my hope in all spheres. I do not have enough words to express my gratitude to you, you were a father and a source of energy. You supported me throughout my studies in many ways and I want you to know that I appreciate everything.

I would also like to extend my appreciation to the following people whose support has been immense:

- Rochelle Moolman - Technical Editor. Thanks for your support in every aspect on my studies. You have been my pillar throughout and your support is highly appreciated.
- The late Dr A.A. Ntisa - Had you still been alive, I would have graduated long a time ago because you wanted to see this one through. You have been in my mind throughout my journey. May your soul rest in peace.
- Prof C Mafini- Your contribution is well recorded, thanks for your support.
- Dr C Marais- Thank you so much for your support and encouragement
- Dr A Isabirye - Thank you for your moral support
- To all my colleagues and everyone who contributed directly or indirectly to this thesis and whose names are not mentioned here, I would like to extend my gratitude to you as well.

## ABSTRACT

Given the inevitable changes and dynamics in the nature of the global market, the recruitment, attraction, employment, motivation and retention of valuable workers has become critical for the continued success of both employees and organisations. Organisations are continuously faced with the dilemma of uncovering and understanding employment packages that are essential in attracting fitting individuals to join their establishment and remain in such organisations for a longer period of time. Similarly, people spend a substantial amount of effort and time searching for organisations and jobs that matches their qualifications and skills; fulfil their specific needs, while meeting their goals and values.

This study investigated the influence employee fit dimensions (person-job fit, person-environment fit and person-organisation fit) on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to stay. These different conceptualisations of fit have typically been studied independently, but this study responded to calls that proposed for a study that incorporated multiple types of employee fit dimensions in a single study. When deliberating on the different fit concepts, some empirical evidence confirmed the existing conceptual distinctions between the three types of fit such as person-job fit, person-environment fit, and person-organisation fit and how each fit dimension positively or negatively influences job satisfaction and the extent to which job satisfaction influences organisational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, the study examined the influence of organisational citizenship dimension on intention to stay.

This study is embedded in a post-positivist quantitative research paradigm. The positivism paradigm was adopted as its underlying philosophy is grounded on cause-effect relationships amongst constructs within a given theoretical model. Since the study was descriptive in nature, the reliability and validity of data was analysed and correlation analysis and regression analysis were also computed. The exploratory factor analysis was performed using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test and the Bartlett's test of sphericity in order to examine the appropriateness of data for factor analysis and to establish the interrelationship amongst constructs. Preceding the main study's data collection process, a pilot survey was undertaken to examine the correctness and accuracy of the questionnaire. The data collected were examined with the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 25.0. The KMO values of all the constructs were above 0.80 which is well within the acceptable value of 0.50.

Normality tests were performed using the skewness and kurtosis values and the standard deviation values ranged from 0.65311 to 1.05471 indicating that data was normally distributed. To confirm the consistency of the measuring instrument and its items, reliability tests were carried out and the results indicated that all the constructs were within range (0.786 to 0.891), having surpassed the threshold for reliability of 0.70. The results of the consistency of measures demonstrated that the measuring instrument was reliable. The correlation analysis revealed that there is a strong relationship between person-job fit, person-environment fit, person-organisation fit and job satisfaction. The results further disclosed a moderate association between job satisfaction with altruism, courtesy and civic virtue. A negative relationship is reported between job satisfactions and sportsmanship. A weak but positive relationship is shown between job satisfaction and conscientiousness. The results further indicate a moderate relationship between altruism, conscientiousness and intention to stay. The relationship between courtesy, sportsmanship and intention to stay is reportedly weak. The results indicate that a positive relationship exists between civic virtue and intention to stay.

Regression analysis was also performed in order to establish the predictive relationships between variables. The regression analysis results indicate that person-job fit, person-environment fit and person-organisation fit are positive predictors of job satisfaction. Further, altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness contributed positively towards predicting job satisfaction. The results further reveal that sportsmanship showed no relationship with job satisfaction and weak predictor of job satisfaction.

The results of the regression analysis further revealed that altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness showed no predictive relationship with intention to stay. However, sportsmanship showed strong predictive relationship towards intention to stay.

The study proposes both the theoretical and practical contributions to the organisational behaviour and human resource management literature in the form of recommendations. Limitations and implications for further research is alluded to. The outcome of this study advanced a framework of the influence of employee fit dimensions on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to stay which may possibly benefit future researchers.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION .....	ii
DEDICATION .....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	iv
ABSTRACT .....	v
LIST OF ANNEXURES .....	xii
LIST OF TABLES .....	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xiv
GLOSSARY OF TERMS.....	xv
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY, PROBLEM ORIENTATION AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES .....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY .....	3
1.2.1 Significance of the study .....	4
1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT.....	5
1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY .....	8
1.4.1 Primary objective .....	8
1.4.2 Theoretical objectives.....	8
1.4.3 Empirical objectives.....	9
1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN .....	9
1.6 LITERATURE STUDY .....	10
1.7 EMPIRICAL STUDY .....	10
1.8 TARGET POPULATION .....	10
1.9 SAMPLING PROCEDURE.....	11
1.10 SAMPLE SIZE .....	11
1.11 MEASURING INSTRUMENT .....	11
1.12 DATA ANALYSIS .....	12
1.13 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY .....	12
1.14 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION .....	12
1.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	14

<b>CHAPTER 2 EMPLOYEE FIT DIMENSIONS: PERSON JOB FIT, PERSON ENVIRONMENT FIT AND PERSON ORGANISATION FIT.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2.1 INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2.2 THEORIES AND MODELS .....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2.2.1 Parsons' Matching Model of Career Decision-Making (MMCDM).....</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>2.2.2 The Field Theory (ft).....</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>2.2.3 Theory of Work Adjustment .....</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>2.3 EMPLOYEE FIT DIMENSIONS .....</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>2.3.1 Person job fit .....</b>	<b>26</b>
2.3.1.1 Definition .....	26
2.3.1.2 The domain of person-job fit.....	27
2.3.1.3 Matching people and jobs .....	28
2.3.1.4 The effect of person job fit on job satisfaction .....	29
<b>2.3.2 Person-environment fit .....</b>	<b>29</b>
2.3.2.1 Background and definitions .....	29
2.3.2.2 The phenomenology of person-environment fit .....	32
2.3.2.3 Attraction-Selection-Attrition framework .....	33
2.3.2.4 Conceptualisation of person-environment fit .....	34
2.3.2.5 Job Characteristics Model .....	35
2.3.2.6 Job design .....	38
2.3.2.7 Correlation between person-environment fit and job satisfaction .....	40
<b>2.3.3 Person organisation fit .....</b>	<b>40</b>
2.3.3.1 Background and definitions of person organisational fit .....	40
2.3.3.2 The role of person-organisation fit in organisational selection decisions ....	44
2.3.3.3 Perceived outcomes of person-organisation fit on job satisfaction .....	46
<b>2.4 CONCLUSION .....</b>	<b>47</b>
<b>CHAPTER 3 JOB SATISFACTION .....</b>	<b>48</b>
<b>3.1 INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>48</b>
<b>3.2 DEFINITION OF JOB SATISFACTION .....</b>	<b>48</b>
<b>3.3 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION .....</b>	<b>49</b>
<b>3.3.1 Content theories.....</b>	<b>50</b>
3.3.1.1 Maslow's needs hierarchy theory .....	50
3.3.1.2 Herzberg's two factor theory of motivation .....	52
3.3.1.3 McClelland's theory of needs .....	58
<b>3.3.2 Process theory .....</b>	<b>61</b>
3.3.2.1 Vroom's Expectancy Theory.....	61



<b>3.4</b>	<b>DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION .....</b>	<b>63</b>
<b>3.4.1</b>	<b>Organisational factors: Extrinsic sources of job satisfaction .....</b>	<b>64</b>
3.4.1.1	Remuneration packages .....	64
3.4.1.2	Working conditions .....	64
3.4.1.3	Company policies, administration and procedures .....	65
3.4.1.4	Job security .....	66
3.4.1.5	Supervision.....	67
<b>3.4.2</b>	<b>Personal factors: Intrinsic sources of job satisfaction .....</b>	<b>68</b>
3.4.2.1	Relationships with co-workers .....	68
3.4.2.2	Promotion opportunities .....	68
3.4.2.3	Recognition .....	69
3.4.2.4	The work itself .....	70
<b>3.4.3</b>	<b>Demographic determinants of job satisfaction .....</b>	<b>70</b>
3.4.3.1	Age.....	71
3.4.3.2	Gender .....	71
3.4.3.3	Work experience and job satisfaction .....	72
3.4.3.4	Education level and job satisfaction .....	72
3.4.3.5	Marital status and job satisfaction .....	73
<b>3.4.4</b>	<b>The influence of job satisfaction on organisational citizenship behaviour .....</b>	<b>74</b>
<b>3.5</b>	<b>CONCLUSION .....</b>	<b>75</b>
 <b>CHAPTER 4 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND INTENTION TO STAY..... 76</b>		
<b>4.1</b>	<b>INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>76</b>
<b>4.2</b>	<b>ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR .....</b>	<b>76</b>
4.2.1	Clarification of the concept .....	76
<b>4.3</b>	<b>THE THEORETICAL ORIENTATION .....</b>	<b>78</b>
<b>4.4</b>	<b>DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR .....</b>	<b>81</b>
4.4.1	Helping behaviour .....	81
4.4.2	Courtesy.....	82
4.4.3	Conscientiousness .....	82
4.4.4	Sportsmanship .....	82
4.4.5	Civic virtue .....	83
4.4.6	Organisational loyalty .....	83
4.4.7	Self-development .....	83
<b>4.5</b>	<b>ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR ...</b>	<b>84</b>

<b>4.6</b>	<b>CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR.....</b>	<b>89</b>
<b>4.6.1</b>	<b>Reduced absenteeism .....</b>	<b>89</b>
<b>4.6.2</b>	<b>Reduced turnover.....</b>	<b>90</b>
<b>4.6.3</b>	<b>Employee satisfaction .....</b>	<b>90</b>
<b>4.6.4</b>	<b>Customer satisfaction.....</b>	<b>90</b>
<b>4.6.5</b>	<b>Work-family conflict .....</b>	<b>91</b>
<b>4.6.6</b>	<b>Role overload.....</b>	<b>91</b>
<b>4.7</b>	<b>IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR .....</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>4.8</b>	<b>INTENTION TO STAY .....</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>4.8.1</b>	<b>Definition of intention to stay .....</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>4.8.2</b>	<b>Theoretical framework of intention to stay .....</b>	<b>93</b>
<b>4.8.3</b>	<b>The Behavioural Reasoning Theory .....</b>	<b>93</b>
<b>4.8.4</b>	<b>Theory of Planned Behaviour.....</b>	<b>94</b>
<b>4.9</b>	<b>DETERMINANTS OF INTENTION TO STAY .....</b>	<b>95</b>
<b>4.9.1</b>	<b>Manager characteristics .....</b>	<b>96</b>
<b>4.9.2</b>	<b>Organisation characteristics .....</b>	<b>97</b>
<b>4.9.3</b>	<b>Work characteristics .....</b>	<b>97</b>
<b>4.9.4</b>	<b>Individual characteristics .....</b>	<b>97</b>
<b>4.10</b>	<b>JOB SATISFACTION AND INTENTION TO STAY .....</b>	<b>98</b>
<b>4.11</b>	<b>JOB STRESS AND INTENTION TO STAY .....</b>	<b>98</b>
<b>4.12</b>	<b>INSTITUTIONAL / ORGANISATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AND INTENTION TO STAY .....</b>	<b>98</b>
<b>4.13</b>	<b>CONCLUSION .....</b>	<b>99</b>
	<b>CHAPTER 5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>5.1</b>	<b>INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>5.2</b>	<b>RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY .....</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>5.2.1</b>	<b>Positivism .....</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>5.2.2</b>	<b>Realism .....</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>5.2.3</b>	<b>Interpretivism.....</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>5.2.4</b>	<b>Postmodernism .....</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>5.2.5</b>	<b>Pragmatism.....</b>	<b>104</b>
<b>5.3</b>	<b>RESEARCH DESIGN .....</b>	<b>104</b>
<b>5.4</b>	<b>DIFFERENT FORMS OF RESEARCH DESIGN.....</b>	<b>105</b>
<b>5.5</b>	<b>RESEARCH APPROACHES .....</b>	<b>106</b>
<b>5.6</b>	<b>RESEARCH SETTING.....</b>	<b>107</b>
<b>5.7</b>	<b>SAMPLING DESIGN AND PROCEDURE .....</b>	<b>107</b>

5.7.1	Target population .....	108
5.7.2	Sample size .....	108
5.8	MEASURING INSTRUMENT .....	109
5.8.1	Person-job fit .....	110
5.8.2	Person-environment fit .....	110
5.8.3	Person-organisation fit .....	110
5.8.4	Job satisfaction .....	110
5.8.5	Organisational citizenship behaviour .....	110
5.8.6	Intention to stay .....	110
5.9	ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE .....	110
5.10	PILOT STUDY .....	111
5.11	DATA PREPARATION .....	111
5.11.1	Editing .....	111
5.11.2	Coding .....	111
5.12	DATA ANALYSIS AND STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES .....	112
5.12.1	Descriptive statistics .....	112
5.12.2	Exploratory factor analysis .....	113
5.12.3	Correlation analysis .....	114
5.12.4	Regression analysis .....	115
5.13	RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY .....	115
5.13.1	Reliability .....	116
5.13.2	Validity .....	117
5.13.2.1	Content validity .....	117
5.13.2.2	Construct validity .....	118
5.13.2.3	Convergent validity .....	118
5.13.2.4	Predictive validity .....	118
5.14	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS .....	118
5.15	CONCLUSION .....	119
CHAPTER 6 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS .....		120
6.1	INTRODUCTION .....	120
6.2	PILOT TEST ANALYSIS .....	120
6.3	MAIN STUDY RESPONSES .....	121
6.4	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS .....	121
6.4.1	Participating municipalities .....	121
6.4.2	Gender of respondents .....	122
6.4.3	Marital status of respondents .....	122

6.4.4	Age of respondents.....	123
6.4.5	Education level of respondents .....	123
6.4.6	Length of time in the current position .....	124
6.4.7	Respondents experience .....	125
6.4.8	Respondents job position .....	125
6.4.9	Department in which respondents worked .....	126
6.5	EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS .....	127
6.5.1	Exploratory factor analysis for the PJF scale.....	128
6.5.2	Exploratory factor analysis for the PEF scale .....	129
6.5.3	Exploratory factor analysis for the POF Scale.....	130
6.5.4	Exploratory factor analysis for the JS scale .....	131
6.5.5	Exploratory factor analysis for the OCB scale .....	132
6.5.6	Exploratory factor analysis for the JS scale .....	134
6.6	NORMALITY TESTS .....	135
6.7	DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF SECTIONS B TO G .....	136
6.7.1	Section B: Person job fit.....	137
6.7.2	Section C: Person-environment fit .....	138
6.7.3	Section D: Person-organisation fit .....	139
6.7.4	Section E: Job satisfaction.....	140
6.7.5	Section F: Organisational citizenship behaviour .....	141
6.7.6	Section G: Intention to stay.....	144
6.8	CORRELATION ANALYSIS .....	145
6.9	REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULTS.....	148
6.10	RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY .....	155
6.10.1	Reliability .....	155
6.10.2	Validity .....	156
6.10.2.1	Content validity.....	156
6.10.2.2	Construct validity .....	157
6.10.2.3	Convergent validity .....	157
6.10.2.4	Predictive validity.....	157
6.11	ADDRESSING COMMON METHOD BIAS REMEDIES .....	157
6.12	CONCLUSION .....	159
	CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS .....	160
7.1	INTRODUCTION.....	160
7.2	PRIMARY RESEARCH OBJECTIVES .....	160
7.3	REVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS .....	160

7.4	EVALUATION OF THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES .....	161
7.5	EVALUATION OF EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES.....	163
7.6	EVALUATION OF POSITED HYPOTHESES .....	165
7.7	CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY.....	165
7.8	PRACTICAL CONTRIBUTION .....	166
7.9	RECOMMENDATIONS.....	167
7.9.1	Recommendations based on the relationship between employee fit dimensions and job satisfaction.....	167
7.9.2	Recommendations based on relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour dimensions. ....	169
7.9.3	Recommendations based on the relationship between sportsmanship behaviour and intention to stay.....	170
7.9.4	Recommendations based on the relationship between conscientiousness and intention to stay .....	170
7.10	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH .....	171
7.11	CONCLUDING REMARKS .....	172
	BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	173

## LIST OF ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION LETTER.....	223
ANNEXURE B1: FEEDBACK FROM SDM .....	224
ANNEXURE B2: PERMISSION FROM MDM .....	225
ANNEXURE B3: PERMISSION FROM EMFULENI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY .....	226
ANNEXURE C: COVER LETTER OF QUESTIONNAIRE .....	227
ANNEXURE D: QUESTIONNAIRE .....	228

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1:	Categories of employees to be part of the study .....	11
Table 5.1:	Characteristics of interpretivism .....	103
Table 5.2:	Basic descriptive statistics .....	112
Table 6.1:	Summary results of the pilot study .....	120
Table 6.2:	The KMO measure and the Bartlett test results .....	128
Table 6.3:	Uni-dimensional factor structure of the PJF scale .....	129
Table 6.4:	Uni-dimensional factor structure for the PEF construct .....	130
Table 6.5:	Uni-dimensional factor structure for the POF construct.....	131
Table 6.6:	Uni-dimensional factor structure for the JS construct.....	131
Table 6.7:	Rotated component matrix: OCB factor .....	132
Table 6.8:	Uni-dimensional factor structure for the ITS Construct.....	135
Table 6.9:	Skewness and Kurtosis values.....	135
Table 6.10:	Person-job fit.....	137
Table 6.11:	Person-environment fit .....	138
Table 6.12:	Person -organisation fit .....	139
Table 6.13:	Job satisfaction .....	140
Table 6.14:	Altruism .....	141
Table 6.15:	Courtesy.....	142
Table 6.16:	Civic virtue.....	142
Table 6.17:	Sportsmanship .....	143
Table 6.18:	Conscientiousness .....	143
Table 6.19:	Intention to stay.....	144
Table 6.20:	Correlations among study constructs .....	145
Table 6.21:	Model 1- Control variables, job satisfaction and fit dimensions.....	149
Table 6.22:	Job satisfaction and Altruism (Model 2), Courtesy (Model 3), Civic virtue (Model 4), Sportsmanship (Model 5) and Conscientiousness (Model 6)	151
Table 6.23:	Model 7 - Altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue and intention to stay .....	153
Table 6.24:	Internal-reliability .....	156

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1:	Research framework for the study .....	7
Figure 2.1:	Model of Career Decision-Making .....	17
Figure 2.2:	Theory of Work Adjustment.....	22
Figure 2.3:	Theory of Work Adjustment.....	24
Figure 2.4:	The domain of person-job fit.....	27
Figure 2.5:	Phenomenology of person-environment fit.....	32
Figure 2.6:	Attraction-Selection-Attrition framework of person-environment fit.....	33
Figure 2.7:	Job Characteristics Model .....	35
Figure 2.8:	A comprehensive model of job design .....	39
Figure 2.9:	Model of Person-organisation Fit .....	41
Figure 2.10:	Various conceptualisation of person-organisation fit .....	43
Figure 2.11:	Model of person-organisation fit in organisational selection decisions .....	45
Figure 3.1:	Maslow's needs hierarchy .....	51
Figure 3.2:	The comparison of satisfiers and dissatisfiers.....	56
Figure 3.3:	McClelland's theory of needs .....	59
Figure 3.4:	Vroom's Expectancy Model.....	61
Figure 3.5:	Job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour model .....	74
Figure 4.1:	Circumplex Model of OCB.....	79
Figure 4.2:	Antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour.....	84
Figure 4.3:	Theoretical model of intention to stay.....	96
Figure 5.1:	Research design and techniques .....	107
Figure 6.1:	Participating municipalities .....	122
Figure 6.2:	Gender of respondents .....	122
Figure 6.3:	Marital status of respondents .....	123
Figure 6.4:	Age of respondents .....	123
Figure 6.5:	Educational level of respondents .....	124
Figure 6.6:	Time spent in the same position.....	124
Figure 6.7:	Experience of respondents .....	125
Figure 6.8:	Job of respondents.....	126
Figure 6.9:	Department of respondents.....	127

## GLOSSARY OF TERMS AND ACRONYMS

PJF	Person-job fit
PEF	Person-environment fit
POF	Person-organisation fit
JS	Job satisfaction
OCB	Organisational citizenship behaviour
OCBI	Organisational citizenship behaviour-individual
OCBO	Organisational citizenship-organisation
ITS	Intention to stay
ITQ	Intention to quit
SPSS	Statistical package for social sciences
MMCDM	Matching model for career decision-making
FT	The Field theory
TWA	The theory of work adjustment
DA	Demand ability
NS	Needs suppliers
ASA	Attraction-selection-attrition
JCM	Job characteristics model
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SET	Social Exchange Theory
ALT	Altruism
COU	Courtesy
CIV	Civic virtue
SPO	Sportsmanship
CON	Conscientiousness
LMX	Leader manager exchange
TPB	The theory of planned behaviour



BRT	Behavioural Reasoning Theory
MDM	Mbombela District Municipality
SDM	Sedibeng District Municipality
NTRC	Nelspruit Transitional Local Council
WRTLC	White River Transitional Local Council
KSAP	Knowledge skills ability profile
GEFS	General Environment fit scale
OCP	Organisational culture profile
SD	Standard deviation
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
VIF	Variance inflation factor
TOL	Tolerance value

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY, PROBLEM ORIENTATION AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Given the inevitable changes and dynamics in the nature of the global market, the recruitment, attraction, employment, motivation and retention of valuable workers has become critical in the continued success of both employees and organisations. Organisations are continuously faced with the dilemma of uncovering and understanding employment packages that are essential in attracting job seekers to join and remain in organisations (Mohanty 2019:577). Equally, job seekers are also faced with a huge challenge beyond their experiences and skills, excellent academic achievements and talent in their respective fields of study to exhibit certain values, behaviours and attitudes in order for them to be considered the right fit by organisations.

Previous studies revealed that individuals' values, interests and needs should be aligned to the organisational values to achieve organisational effectiveness and competitiveness (Taha, Sirkova & Ferenkova 2016:8; Arieli, Sagiv & Roccas 2019:3). Rynes and Gerhart (1990:14) explicitly distinguish between fit constructs and general employability skills and suggest that individuals should be evaluated based on their fit to organisations rather than just idiosyncratic biases and liking.

The South African public service sector is not immune from the challenges faced by organisations worldwide in relation to the alignment of organisational values with individual needs and retention of talented employees. Govender (2009:105) posits that all three spheres of government (national, provincial and local) are faced with a number of challenges, one of them being the continuous loss of qualified and productive employees yearly, despite various policies and acts that are in place enabling public service departments to retain good talent. Problems related to employee turnover continue to frustrate and plague the public sector leading to devastating conditions in municipalities and this negatively impacts on the delivery of essential services (Koketso & Rust 2012:2221).

The transformation process of local government began in 1990 and was intended to remove the racial biases of the then oppressive government and make local government

a vehicle that would integrate society and bring about an equal distribution of municipal services without discrimination (Nyalunga 2006:3). The process was divided into three phases: The first face is the pre-interim phase. This phase covered the period from the passing of the Local Government Transition Act (209 of 1993) between 1993-1995 until the first local government elections held in 1995-1996. This phase did not provide a blueprint for a new local government system, but paved the way for transformation (Koma 2012:54). Secondly, the interim phase of 1995-1999 which began shortly after the historic national elections in 1994.

These local government elections were held for the first time in South Africa in 1995, although candidates were not yet fully democratically elected, the main purpose of the elections was to assist establish integrated municipalities. This phase ended with the implementation of the final constitutional model of local government in 1997, although power sharing arrangements remained in effect until 2000 (Koma 2012:54). The third and final phase was the 1999-2000 period, which saw the establishment of the current municipalities system (Nyalunga 2006:2; Koma 2012:7). This new developmental local government was envisioned for South Africa and it described the kind of leadership municipalities need to build with their communities, organisations, business and others who can contribute towards the local development of their geographical areas of jurisdiction. This phase further described the integrated development planning (IDP) which was intended to assist municipalities in their planning in order to fulfil their developmental role.

Within the local government settings; various studies have been conducted ranging from: enhancing service delivery in local government (Pretorius & Schurink 2007:19); community perception of quality of service in rural areas (Mashego & Peltzer 2005:13); the evolution of developmental of local government in South Africa (Koma 2012:53); factors behind violent municipal service delivery protests in South Africa (Netswera & Kgalane 2014:261) and perceived challenges to talent management in local government (Koketso & Rust 2012:2221). However, little research bore evidence on the influence of person-job fit (PJF), person-environment fit (PEF) and person-organisation fit (POF) and their relationship with job satisfaction (JS), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and intention to stay (ITS) as proposed in this study.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

Future working environment and platforms where human capital is at the centre stage in providing organisational effectiveness and efficiency, and where employees will play a key role is inevitable. Internationally, the desirability of fit between individuals and their work environment to enhance job satisfaction with the purpose of increasing employees' intention to stay has been a research interest in the field of organisational or industrial psychology (Bhat 2014:257). In the early 1950s the Field Theory (FT) was developed and presented for the first time in 1951 by Kurt Lewin to examine patterns of interactions between individuals and the environment or total field (Kaiser & Schulze 2018:60). The development of the FT was inspired by the assumption that human behaviour is the function of the person and the environment and that there is a need for both to be compatible. Bhat (2014:258) further explains that fit dimensions refers to an individual's suitability for an organisation, work teams, physical and cultural environment they work in, including the actual work they are expected to do.

Traditionally, employee selection processes in organisations focused on achieving person-job fit, which logical thinking presume that the better a person fit with the job, the less adjustment will be needed (Sekiguchi 2004: 186). There is evidence suggesting that person-job fit (extended criterion domain) with the right knowledge, skills and abilities are likely to increase their performances and reduce absenteeism (Hanafi & Ibrahim 2018:592; Mahwood, Hee, Yin & Hamli 2018:674). However, certain studies have proposed that organisations should go beyond looking for individuals who only possess the knowledge, skill and abilities and rather consider the expanded predictor domain that proposes a holistic approach in the recruitment and selection process, with more emphasis on other factors that are associated with organisational effectiveness such as OCB and extra-role behaviours (Palmer 2015:15).

To support the argument of a holistic approach to recruitment, Sekiguchi (2004: 186) advanced the following arguments. First, the need to consider that employees expect to grow, therefore there is the possibility that they will hold multiple positions over the course of their stay with the organisation. Therefore, selectors should consider the universalist perspective and begin to focus on key characteristics such as general cognitive ability rather than merely focusing on the technical abilities of a person. Secondly, applicants who share the same values and vision with the organisation should be prioritised.

Employee fit dimensions appreciate the changing nature of work and suggest that the selection process should also focus in establishing whether a candidate is a team player and is also flexible. Employers globally embark on a talent search campaign hoping and expecting that their recruits will remain with their organisations for an extended period. This expectation is informed by the exhaustive and expensive nature of the recruitment process. However, employee's intention to stay is perceived to be highly dependent on a variety of elements such as job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour (Deniz, Noyan & Ertosun 2015:371). General lack of understanding of PJF, PEF and POF negatively affects organisational attraction, JS, OCB and subsequently employees' ITS (Yu & Yang 2014:76).

### **1.2.1 Significance of the study**

The constructs in this study have been extensively researched separately in various spheres including in municipalities globally. However, the way in which the constructs have been collectively assembled in this study has not been done before particularly in Africa and more specifically sub-Saharan countries including South Africa. Focusing on finding individuals with high congruence with their jobs and their environment will not only improve services and productivity but will potentially increase JS, individual's discretionary and spontaneous behaviours and to a larger extent increase an individual's chances to extend their stay with an organisation (Johari, Yean, Adnan, Yahya & Ahmad 2012:398; Takawira, Coetzee & Schreuder 2014:2).

As a contribution to organisational behaviour studies, this study serves as an important source of knowledge on the association between the various constructs of the study within the context of South African municipalities. Focusing on municipalities will help address the increase in employee turnover at municipal level as reported by Koketso & Rust (2012:2221). In addition, the knowledge that is generated from this study could assist in reducing anxieties associated with job satisfaction as a result of individuals not fitting into their jobs and organisations (Jin, McDonald & Park 2018:187). Edwards and Shipp (2007:223) and Talbot and Billsberry (2010:1) concur that an increased incongruence between the person, environment and / or organisation potentially leads to physiological or psychological symptoms, forcing employees to adopt defence mechanisms to increase their fit.

### 1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The loss of suitably qualified, skilled and competent employees as a result of a hostile environment as well as career misfit in some instances in the local government and other spheres of government continues to affect the provision of quality services to the people negatively, thereby defeating the sole purpose for which these institutions were established (Mohale 2013:20; Mdlongwa 2014:3). Mohale (2013:23) further explains that the increase in the number of municipalities placed under administration since their formation in 1998 is associated with a shortage of skills in municipalities because of the migration of skilled and experienced staff to industry.

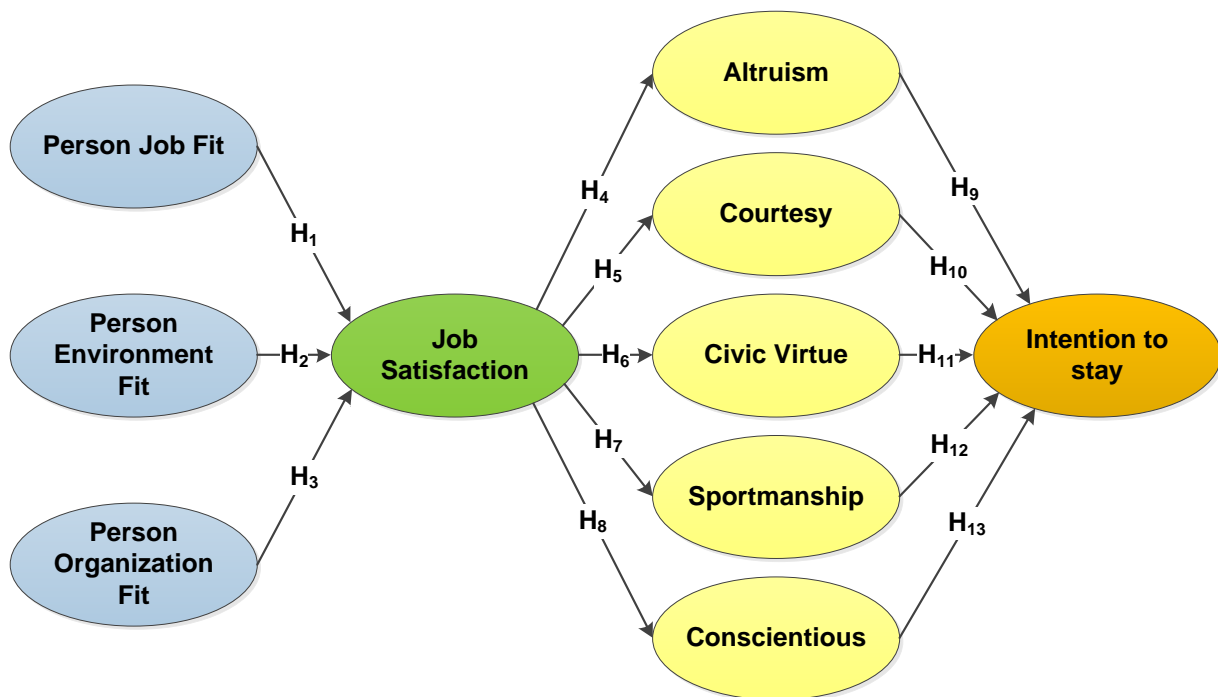
Employees' perceptions about the organisation are accurate indicators of their subsequent behaviour, whether it is an ITS, perform, not to perform or an intention to quit (ITQ) (Shahid 2018:59). Employees' ITQ in local government has been reportedly on the rise (Pietersen & Oni 2014:147; Dywili 2015:1). A provincial government study conducted in Limpopo province reflects a staff turnover rate of 23.59 percent. The statistic was drawn from various categories of divisions within local government employees, amongst them were operatives (26.48%), lower management (21.97%) and at middle management 13.33% (Pietersen & Oni 2014:147).

Globally, organisations have come to understand the importance of setting up a strong human resources division and recruitment system that will be entrusted with the responsibility of recruiting and bringing the best talent. When a solid recruitment system is in place, it assists in eliminating unqualifying candidates and identifying those that share common interests with the organisation with the purpose of minimising turnover intentions and improving ITS. In the South African (SA) local government context, the spoils system recruitment practice is the most frequently applied recruitment system at all levels of employment (Twala 2014:159). The spoils system advocates for appointments based on political connectivity of individuals, overlooking a person's suitability, qualifications, abilities, skills and their fit into the positions and environment they are meant to work in. The Local government budgets and expenditure review (Saddle & Koelble 2016:15) established that the SA local government had been marred with the deployment of unsuitably qualified "comrades" making it difficult for individuals who are suitably qualified and skilled to be employed and function effectively in their working environments.

In a study that matched jobs, skills and competencies in the city of Cape Town; a pervasive 90 percent mismatch between the knowledge, skills and job placement was established. In some instances, motor mechanics, technicians and electricians were employed in administration positions (Koketso & Rust 2011:2227). As a result of the mismatch between employees, jobs and their environment; frustration and dissatisfaction levels increased and subsequently, affected employees' willingness and possibilities of staying longer with the organisations.

Various other studies have been undertaken in South African local government in the past but focused on aspects of improving the effectiveness and efficiency of public administration including formulation of policies and procedures, roles of senior managers, accountability, leadership style, decentralisation and externalisation of local public services. Other studies focused on the constraints of local government administration (Oviasuyi, Idada & Isiraonje 2010:82); local government discretion and accountability (Yilmaz, & Beris 2008:246); political interference and costs (Tavares & Camoes 2007:535; Bel & Fageda 2008:23) planning, monitoring and evaluation, perception of communities on the quality of services provided (Pretorius & Schurink 2007:19) and the ability of the municipality to generate revenue (Braathen, Chaligha & Fjeldstad 2005:5). However, there is no evidence of studies in the local government sphere and public administration sector that investigated the influence employee' fit dimension has on JS, OCB and ITS in South African municipalities. Hence this study intends to fill this research gap.

In accordance with the outlined empirical objectives, this study views intention to stay as a product of various antecedents emanating from employee fit dimensions. To this end, the study investigated first, the influence of employee fit dimensions to JS. Secondly, it investigated the influence of JS on OCB. Thirdly, it investigated the influence of OCB on ITS. The posited influence of employee fit dimensions on JS, OCB and ITS is illustrated in Figure 1.1.



**Figure 1.1: Research framework for the study**

Based on the framework above, the following hypotheses are formulated:

- H1: There is a positive significant relationship between person-job fit and job satisfaction amongst the selected municipal employees in South Africa.
- H2: There is a positive significant relationship between person-environment fit and job satisfaction amongst the selected municipal employees South Africa.
- H3: There is a positive significant relationship between person-organisation fit and job satisfaction amongst the selected municipal employees South Africa.
- H4: There is a positive significant relationship between job satisfaction and altruism amongst the selected municipal employees South Africa.
- H5: There is a positive significant relationship between job satisfaction and courtesy amongst the selected municipal employees South Africa.
- H6: There is a positive significant relationship between job satisfaction and civic virtue amongst the selected municipal employees in South Africa.
- H7: There is a positive significant relationship between job satisfaction and sportsmanship amongst the selected municipal employees in South Africa.



- H8: There is a positive significant relationship between job satisfaction and conscientiousness amongst the selected municipal employees in South Africa.
- H9: There is a positive significant relationship between altruism and intention to stay amongst the selected municipal employees in South Africa.
- H10: There is a positive significant relationship between courtesy and intention to stay amongst the selected municipal employees in South Africa.
- H11: There is a positive significant relationship between civic virtue and intention to stay amongst the selected municipal employees in South African.
- H12: There is a positive significant relationship between sportsmanship and intention to stay amongst the selected municipal employees in South Africa.
- H13: There is a positive significant relationship between conscientious and intention to stay amongst the selected municipal employees in South Africa.

## **1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

### **1.4.1 Primary objective**

The primary objective of the study was to examine the influence of employee fit dimensions (person-job fit, person-environment fit and person-organisation fit) on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to stay in selected in South African municipalities.

### **1.4.2 Theoretical objectives**

The primary objective of the study was achieved through the following theoretical objectives:

- To conduct a literature review on person-job fit in organisations.
- To explore the literature on person-environment fit in organisations.
- To examine the literature on person-organisation fit in organisations.
- To conduct a literature review of on job satisfaction in organisations.
- To conduct a literature review on organisational citizenship behaviour in organisations.

- To conduct a literature review on intention to stay in organisations.
- To contextualise the literature on the relationship between the employee fit dimensions and job satisfaction.
- To comprehend the literature on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisation citizenship behaviour in organisations.
- To reflect on the literature on the relationship between organisation citizenship behaviour and intention to stay in organisations.

### **1.4.3 Empirical objectives**

The following empirical objectives have been set for the study:

- To investigate the construct person-job fit and its relationship with job satisfaction amongst municipal employees in South Africa.
- To investigate the construct person-environment fit and the relationship to job satisfaction amongst municipal employees in South Africa.
- To investigate the construct person-organisation fit and how it relates to job satisfaction amongst municipal employees in South Africa.
- To investigate the construct job satisfaction and how it relates with organisational citizenship behaviour amongst municipal employees in South Africa.
- To investigate the construct organisational citizenship behaviour and its relationship with intention to stay among municipalities in South Africa.

## **1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN**

The research design serves as an architecture that describes the methods and procedures used for gathering and analysing information needed for research purposes (Babbie & Mouton 2010:74). In the context of an axiology perspective, the positivism paradigm approach was adopted; this approach asserts that only scientific knowledge can reveal the truth about reality - in which case the focus was on the verification of a theory (Gligorijevic 2013:75). A review of the literature on employee fit dimensions and their influence on JS, OCB and intention to stay was carried out.

## **1.6 LITERATURE STUDY**

The literature on the proposed conceptual framework was studied thoroughly and the focus was directed at the arguments and conclusions of the influence and relationship of the constructs in order to obtain a better understanding on how these concepts influence one another. A deeper understanding of the concepts enabled the researcher to compare, critique and analyse findings made by other researchers in similar studies though in different settings. The literature was drawn from different sources such as journal articles, textbooks, conference papers, newspapers, the Internet as well as dissertations, with the objective of developing a theoretical framework for the study.

## **1.7 EMPIRICAL STUDY**

The research approach preferred for this study is a quantitative research method. Bryman and Bell (2013:26) define quantitative research as a research method that emphasises quantification in the collection and analysis of data and viewing the relationship between theory and research as deductive. This method was selected because it aims at investigating people's perceptions. Furthermore, this method helps in testing hypotheses as well as explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematical methods. It includes the use of a larger sample which is representative of the population broadening the range of possible data and ultimately forming a better picture for analysis (Cooper & Emory 1995:202). Quantitative research is suitable for testing hypotheses, measuring social reality and quantifying opinion (Cooper & Emory 1995:202).

## **1.8 TARGET POPULATION**

A population is a well-defined aggregate or totality of individuals or objects with similar characteristics about which some information is required to be ascertained (Asiamah, Mensah & Oteng-Abayie 2017:1611). The target population of this study comprised of two district municipalities: The Mbombela District Municipality (MDM) in Mpumalanga Province and the Sedibeng District Municipality (SDM) in Gauteng. A detailed discussion on the target population is provided in Chapter 5.

## 1.9 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

A sample is drawn from the total target population (Malhotra 2010:373). The study made use of a non-probability (convenience) sampling method. Details of the sampling method are provided in Chapter 5 of the study.

## 1.10 SAMPLE SIZE

To determine the appropriateness sample size in this study, the historic evidence approach was employed suggesting that a sample size between 300 and 600 is sufficient (Dlodlo 2017:14; Leedy & Ormrod 2014:222). In this study a sample size of 500 was used which falls within the estimated range as suggested by Dlodlo (2017) and Leedy and Ormrod (2014). Details of the sample size is discussed in Chapter 5. Table 1.1. outlines the categories of employees that were included in the study.

**Table 1.1: Categories of employees to be part of the study**

EMPLOYEE LEVEL	MBOMBELA	SEDIBENG
Top management	13	11
Senior management	124	113
Middle management	146	116
Lower management	380	270
Operative employees	435	400
Administrators	367	337
Total	1365	1247
Grand total		2612

**Source:** Mbombela Integrated Development Plan (2015:79) and Sedibeng Integrated Development Plan Annual report (2015:89)

## 1.11 MEASURING INSTRUMENT

For the purpose of this study, previous validated scales were adapted and utilised for the empirical portion. A structured self-administered questionnaire was employed to gather the required data for this study. Details regarding the measuring instruments used in the study is provided in Chapter 5.

The questionnaire was pre-tested to check the suitability of the questions and the general attitude of the respondents towards the survey. In addition, a pilot test was conducted with respondents in order to establish the reliability of the questionnaire. Thereafter, the questionnaire was refined to prepare it for use in the main survey.

## **1.12 DATA ANALYSIS**

For data to be useful, it must be organised in a way that results in logical conclusions. Data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25.0. This process began with the preparation of data for editing and coding purposes. Spearman's rho correlations analysis, regression analysis and skewness and kurtosis were computed to establish the factor structure of the study construct. A detailed discussion on data analysis is reported in Chapter 5.

## **1.13 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY**

Reliability is the degree to which the outcomes of the research enquiry are consistent and repeatable (Mohajan 2017:67; Shah & Brown 2020:4). Reliability supports the administration of measuring instruments used in the past on different subjects and has consistently provided the same results (Mustapha, Ahmad, Uli & Idris 2010:66; Shah & Brown 2020:4). To test reliability of the measuring instrument, the Cronbach's alpha method was used. The acceptable requirement for Cronbach alpha and composite reliability is that it should be greater than 0.70 (Mohamad, Sulaiman, Sern & Salleh 2015:165). Results of the reliability analysis are reported in Chapter 6.

Validity is the extent to which the research findings accurately reflect the phenomena being studied (Mohajan 2017:68). Content validity was ascertained through analyses. Predictive validity was assessed through regression analysis. A detailed discussion on the various types of validity and computation thereof is pursued in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 of this study.

## **1.14 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION**

### **Chapter 1: Introduction, background of the study, problem orientation and research objectives**

This chapter delivers an introduction and overview of the research problem. The study's background information and an outline of the local government. Formulation of the study

problem statement, research objectives and the proposed theoretical model were subsequently specified. Lastly, a presentation on the research methodology employed in this study is provided in Chapter 5.

## **Chapter 2: Employee fit dimensions**

An overview of employee fit dimensions namely: person-job fit, person-environment fit and person-organisation fit and, relevant models that influence job satisfaction amongst government employees are extensively discussed in this chapter.

## **Chapter 3: Relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour**

This chapter provides a detailed literature review on the influence of and relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour.

## **Chapter 4: Outcomes of organisational citizenship behaviour**

This chapter reviews the literature on organisational citizenship behaviour dimensions and their resultant behaviours on employee intention to stay or intention to leave.

## **Chapter 5: Research design**

This chapter focuses on the research methodology used in the study. Sampling techniques, method of data collection and statistical techniques are dealt with in detail in this chapter. Reliability and validity issues are also discussed.

## **Chapter 6: Statistical analysis and interpretation of the results**

Analysis and interpretation of the research findings are discussed in this chapter and the results obtained in this study are compared with findings from previous studies to substantiate the findings from this study.

## **Chapter 7: Overview, recommendations, limitations and conclusion of the study**

This chapter presents the overview and recommendations based on the main objectives and findings of the study. The limitations of the study and implications for further research are also discussed.

## **1.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter presented the introduction and background to the study. The research objectives, the research problem, the proposed hypotheses and the rationale of the study were outlined. The classification of chapters for the entire study was outlined and the key concepts clarified.

The next chapter provides a literature review on the employee fit dimensions, theories and models, PJF concept, the influence of PJF on JS, PEF concept, influence of PEF on JS, POF and its background and perceived outcomes of POF on JS.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **EMPLOYEE FIT DIMENSIONS: PERSON JOB FIT, PERSON ENVIRONMENT FIT AND PERSON ORGANISATION FIT**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter broadens the understanding of the concept of employee fit dimensions namely: PFJ, PEF and POF. It will also explore relevant theories by tracing its originality and evolution. The study on employee fit dimension is prompted by the notion that organisations and individuals have specific traits and values. The closer the match between the traits of the person and the values of an organisation, the higher the chances of JS and workplace productivity. The literature pertaining to employees fit dimensions will be separately and thoroughly discussed as well as their influence on JS in general, thus addressing the theoretical objectives of the study. Studying the literature with similar constructs provides scholars with the insight of what is known while arguments against and arguments in favour of the constructs enable a scholar to contribute to the existing literature.

#### **2.2 THEORIES AND MODELS**

Before deliberating on the identified employee fit dimensions in the study, careful consideration was given to supporting theories as the foundation of the concepts under discussion. A theory is defined as a set of interconnected variables or constructs, propositions and definitions that present a systematic view of a phenomenon by citing relations amongst variables, with the purpose of explaining a phenomenon. There are several captivating theories of job fit that requires to improve and address issues related to JS and OCB. The criteria applied in choosing theories and models was that the theory must be scholarly, validated and have significantly contributed in the field of industrial psychology or organisational behaviour as these are the guiding principles applied by scholars for any study to be acceptable (Adom, Hussein & Agyem, 2018:439).

This section reviews theories of PJF, PEF and POF which emerged from a long-established line of research on behavioural and organisational studies. These theories have traversed how people interact with their environment in an attempt to understand factors impacting on the desirable employment outcomes. The emphasis of the person



fit dimensions was the congruence, matching, contingency, or joint influence of the person and job in the prediction of individual and organisational outcomes. The appropriate theories selected for the study are Parsons' Matching Model of Career Decision-Making (MMCDM), The Field Theory (FT) and the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA). Most importantly they serve as a foundation for the variables under discussion.

### **2.2.1 Parsons' Matching Model of Career Decision-Making**

The MMCDM is considered the corner stone of PEF theories and was developed by Parsons in 1909. The early stages of PEF encompassed elements of both PJF and POF. In some discussions of the MMCDM, similarities with the earlier mentioned fits arose. However, according to Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001:454), research studies began to distinguish between specific types of fit included under the umbrella concept of PEF. The MMCDM provides three broad factors namely: (a) a clear understanding of oneself, aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations, and their cause; (b) knowledge of the requirements and conditions, opportunities and prospects in different lines of work and (c) true reasoning on the relations of these two groups of facts (Parsons 1909:5). Parsons (1909:3) further clarifies the need for a harmonious relationship between occupations. An inharmonious environment results in inefficiency, unenthusiastic and ultimately distasteful labour and possibly low wages; while a harmonious occupation with the person leads to enthusiasm, love of work and high productivity values, efficient services and good pay (Edwards 2008:173). The MMCDM is depicted in Figure 2.1.



**Figure 2.1: Model of Career Decision-Making**

**Source:** Parsons (1909)

The MCDM is built around four projections:

1. **Self-awareness** – refers to ones' conscious knowledge about what a person wants from a career and what a person has to offer an employer. Self-awareness is a conscious effort aimed at understanding one-self and others and is a key element to emotional intelligence. The focus is on the insight people have into choosing their career and whether this varies across different types of choice situation. A range of factors that need to be taken into consideration are values, skills, strength, characteristics, needs, interest and goals. These factors are discussed below

**Values** are the basis of individual differences and they function to evaluate individual behaviours and attitudes of others. Kaygin and Gulluce (2013:120) describe values as a person's moral principles or standards of behaviour which allows people to find good and bad, right and wrong. Values affect attitudes, behaviours and thoughts and therefore affects the career choices people make in their lives.

**Skills** are perceived to be amongst the important factors not only in securing a job but to also enhance long-term career success. Ghuangpeng (2011:53) defines skills as the expertise and talent one has to execute a job. Employees with the right skills and relevant work experience choose jobs that will enable them to achieve better successes and progress in their career faster than those without skills.

**Strength** is defined as the capabilities of a person to perform a task successfully (Miglianico, Martin-Krumm and Miquelon, 2019:2). According to Bhatnagar (2020:310) employees who are aware of their strength become self authentic and that enables them to use their unique capabilities to the benefit of both the organisation and themselves. This implies that employees will choose careers that will allow them use their strengths to increase higher levels of engagement and well-being and improves productivity (Harzel & Ruth 2013:967).

**Characteristics / personal style** – individual characteristics are understood to be influenced by a variety of factors including among other things education level, age, length of service, class, rank and or region/tribe. Hidayah (2020:2) believes that there are other characteristics that are influenced by the ability (physical and intellectual) and personality (heredity, environment, situation and personality traits). These factors are responsible in shaping the abilities, attitudes and experiences that are diverse in dealing with challenges and carrying out their roles and tasks as employees. Briefly, individual characteristics refers to a person's habitual pattern of behaviour, emotions and temperament.

**Needs / preferences** – job preference explains a person's attitude towards something. Gilbert, Sohi and McEachern (2008:57) further explains that preference plays an important role influencing career choice decision and are critical determinants of job attitudes and motivation

**Interests / passion** – passion is described as a strong inclination towards an activity or work that one loves, in which they invest a significant amount of time and energy that they find important (Chele 2014:3). This implies that the desire or intense emotions of a person in pursuing their dreams is vital in choosing a career. People who does work that they are passionate about find it easy to engage and feel good about their work and experience positive emotions during task execution.

**Goals / ambitions / objectives** – ambition explains a stable personal disposition and is defined as the zeal that drives people to succeed. Ambitious people tend to choose

careers that will keep them challenged and motivated that drives work-related behaviours and job performance (Hirschi & Spurk 2021:2).

2. Opportunity awareness – the awareness about the availability of job opportunities is critical in making an informed decision on a career to follow. Baloch and Shah (2014:547) found out that there is a direct relationship between career choice awareness, opportunity awareness with choosing a career.
3. Decision-making or evaluation options – refer to weighing up pros and cons of options against what is already known about oneself and assessing how realistic those choices may be. Not all job opportunities present job good news. Before accepting an offer, it is important that to weigh the pros against the cons before such a decision is made.
4. Taking action or finding work opportunities – identifying vacancies and making well-targeted job applications. Job opportunities opens up for people who are searching and available to take-up employment, failure to take actions on advertised posts makes its difficult for one to get a job.

The inference of the MCDM is that it is possible to measure both the talent of an individual and the attributes associated with a specific occupation, after matching a person and JS in achieving a good fit. High levels of JS and improved productivity are achieved when there is a fit, whereas a misfit between a person's variables and environmental variables leads to negative outcomes (Kazuyuki & Kuo-Lin 2006:21; Gostautaite & Buciuniene 2010: 505). Conclusions arrived at when the MCDM is applied is that people perform best in the jobs for which they are best suited and a happy employee is a productive employee. To date, Parsons paradigm for occupational choices prevails as the most relevant approach to career matching (Subrt & Subrt 2020:32). Erdogan, Šaparauskas and Turskis (2019:5) concur by further stating that current job fit practices are still governed by the MCDM making it a relevant model to date.

However, critics of the MCDM argue that it is impractical to implement the model in its current form in the 21<sup>st</sup> century because people do not follow the same pattern when taking decisions, they consider several other factors and circumstances necessary in making a sound decision (Argyropoulos & Kaliris 2018: 485). Matching means stability in the labour market while the volatile nature of occupational environment, with the ever-increasing pressure on individual to change and adapt to new career challenges are

critical in decision making. Another critique levelled against the model is that the model never considered the possibilities of demographic change issues at the workplace. Historically a woman's place was at home caring for her husband and children and women were very passive participants in the labour market, but of late, women are active members of society in terms of social change and growing the economy worldwide (Subramanian 2018:111). Udayar, Levin, Lipshits-Braziler, Rochat, Di Fabio, Gati, Sovet and Rossier (2020:610) point out that the model failed to recognise other factors that are critical in decision making: individual characteristics such as personality traits, emotional intelligent and core self-evaluation, career decision-making self-efficacy and career adaptability (Atitsogbe, Moumoula, Rochat, Antonietti, & Rossier 2018:129) and its role in vocational selection (Rudolph, Lavigne, Katz, & Zacher 2017:157).

### **2.2.2 The Field Theory**

The Field Theory (FT) is a social psychological theory which explains the format of interaction between the individual and the total field or environment. The FT was developed and published by Lewin in the 1920's and was presented for the first time in the form of a mathematical equation widely known as Lewin's equation for behaviour  $B=f(P, E)$  (Burnes & Cooke 2013:408; Andela & Van der Doef 2019:569; Gander, Hofmann & Ruch 2020:3). The basic statement of the FT is that behaviour (B) is a function of the person (p) and the environment (e) or  $B=f(P, E)$ . The acronyms in the field theory are explained as (e) representing the environment, which refers to the objective situation in which the person perceives and act, the person (p) refers to the characteristics of the individuals (needs, beliefs, values and abilities), life space and behaving self, while behaviour (b) refers to any change within the life space resulting from and the action of an act (Duch 2017:4).

The FT asserts that it is possible to predict, understand and provide the basis for individual behaviour by constructing a life space consisting of psychological forces influencing their behaviour at any given time. Life space talks to the total psychological environment, which a person experiences subjectively irrespective of it being conscious or subconscious (Wheeler 2008:1640). This theory emphasised that everything about a person and his/her environment needs to be taken into consideration in-order to influence the behaviour positively and improve JS.

Despite the fact that Kurt Lewin is hailed as a father of modern social psychology due to him breaking new grounds in employing scientific methods and experimentation in the

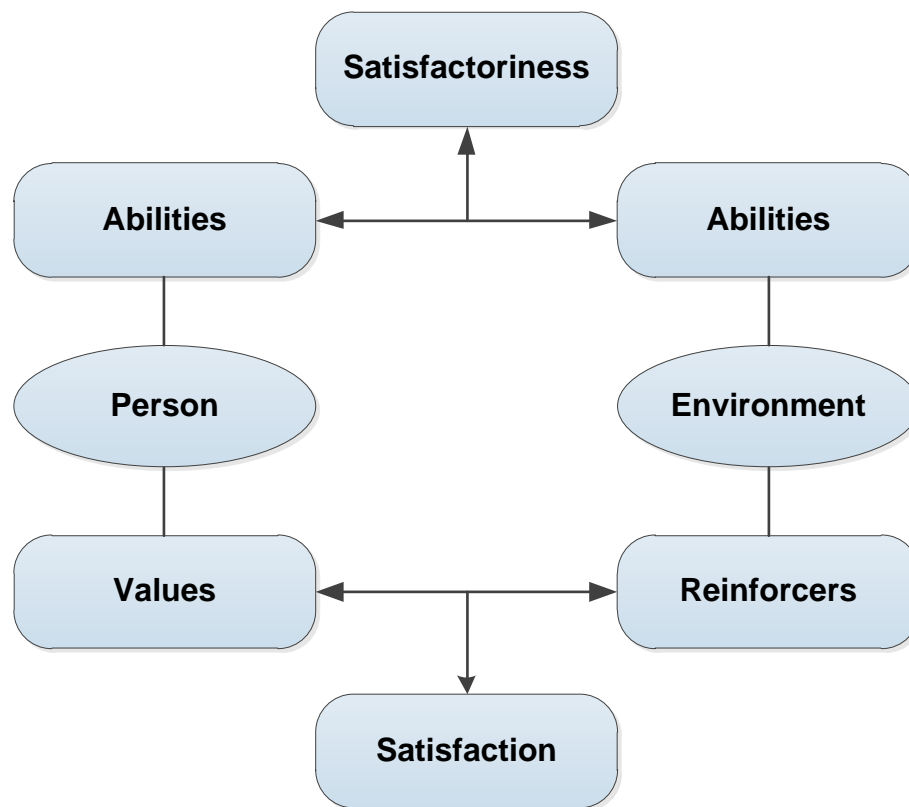
study of social behaviour, his critics are of the view that his conceptions were more of an approach rather than a theory. Critics of the FT pointed out that the theory merely focused on a few noticeable driving and restraining forces, while disregarding the complicated psychological conditions that make up the entire life space, thus limiting the full understanding of the entire situation with a potential to mislead (Burnes & Cookes 2013:416). The unintended consequences arising from ignoring critical factors that are likely to influence the outcome of an action and of any consequences other than those expected are critical in endorsing the FT.

Finding the right person for the right position at the right time is crucial for the success of organisations. Person-job fit suggests that both the person and the job should operate as joint determinants of an individual and organisational outcome (Sylva, Mol, Hartog & Dorenbosch 2019:635). Studies on PJF reveal that there have been drastic developments in this domain which were mainly conducted independently. As a result of the independent nature of these studies, they produced high quality results which shared more similarities in their findings (Abdul-Hamid & Yahya 2011:14).

Previous PJF studies presented various options of models to choose from. Models that do not only provide a simpler and more perspicuous explanation, but the one that is pertinent to this study is selected. The model selected in this study is influenced by its meaningful contribution in the field of industrial psychology or organisational behaviour and has been scientifically written and validated. The use of a scholarly written model serves as a guideline throughout the study and also assists in the creation and advancement of new knowledge.

### **2.2.3 Theory of Work Adjustment**

The Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) was developed in two phases during the 1960s and 1970s by Dawis and Lofquist. The first version of TWA focused on a trait-and-factor matching model that suggested that the more closely a person's abilities (skills, knowledge, experience, attitude and behaviours) correspond with the requirements of the role or that of the organisation, the more likely it is that they will perform the job well and be perceived as satisfactory by the employer (Risman 2014:8; Abdalla, Elsetouhi, Negm, Abdou 2018:865). The TWA is depicted in Figure 2.2.



**Figure 2.2: Theory of Work Adjustment**

**Source:** Dawis, England and Lofquist (1964:9)

Dawis, *et al.* (1964:9) conceptualised a person in terms of abilities and needs. Abilities refer to the dimension of responses measurable through the application of intellectual testing procedures in the form of aptitude tests. Needs were referred to as dimensions of reinforcement experience linked to classes of stimulus conditions. The TWA predicted that the more closely the reinforcers of the organisation correspond to the values that the person intends to satisfy through their work, the higher the chances that JS will improve (Dawis, *et al.*, 1964:10). Six key values were identified in the first phase of the TWA which individuals attempt to satisfy, namely: achievement, comfort, status, altruism, safety and autonomy.

- **Achievements**

These are conditions that encourage accomplishment and progress. The TWA achievement value is linked with the stimulus ability utilisation and achievement which propels a person to want to achieve more. These stimuli are linked with the satisfaction one receives from doing work properly, successfully rising to a challenge at work and from the feeling that the work of a person is meaningful.

- **Comfort**

Comfort refers to the extent to which the occupation is physically comfortable to work in and free from stress. The TWA comfort is greatly associated with stimuli that provide for independence, variety of tasks, compensation, security and good working conditions. Satisfaction is received from the fact that there is work to do for most of the day, opportunities to work alone, being paid well, having stable, steady employment and a physically comfortable workplace (Eggerth & Flynn 2015:11).

- **Status**

The TWA status value is linked to the stimulus advancement, recognition, authority and social status. These stimuli are associated with the satisfaction a person receive from having opportunities to move into better job positions, being praised for doing a good job, directing the work activities of others, being respected for the work a person does and conditions that provide recognition and prestige.

- **Altruism**

Altruism value refers to the extent to which the occupation fosters harmonious interpersonal relationships and service to others. These stimuli are linked to satisfaction which result from having cordial relations with others, feeling that one's job contributes to the greater good and being able to perform a job without hindering and violating one's values.

- **Safety**

Safety refers to the extent to which a person's occupation is stable and predictable. The TWA safety values are associated with company policies and supervision-human relations. Satisfaction is derived from the perception one has about being employed in a setting where company policies are clearly stated and fairly enforced, supervisors who are respectful and responsive to workers needs and technically competent and able to teach subordinates how to do their jobs (Eggerth & Flynn 2015:90).

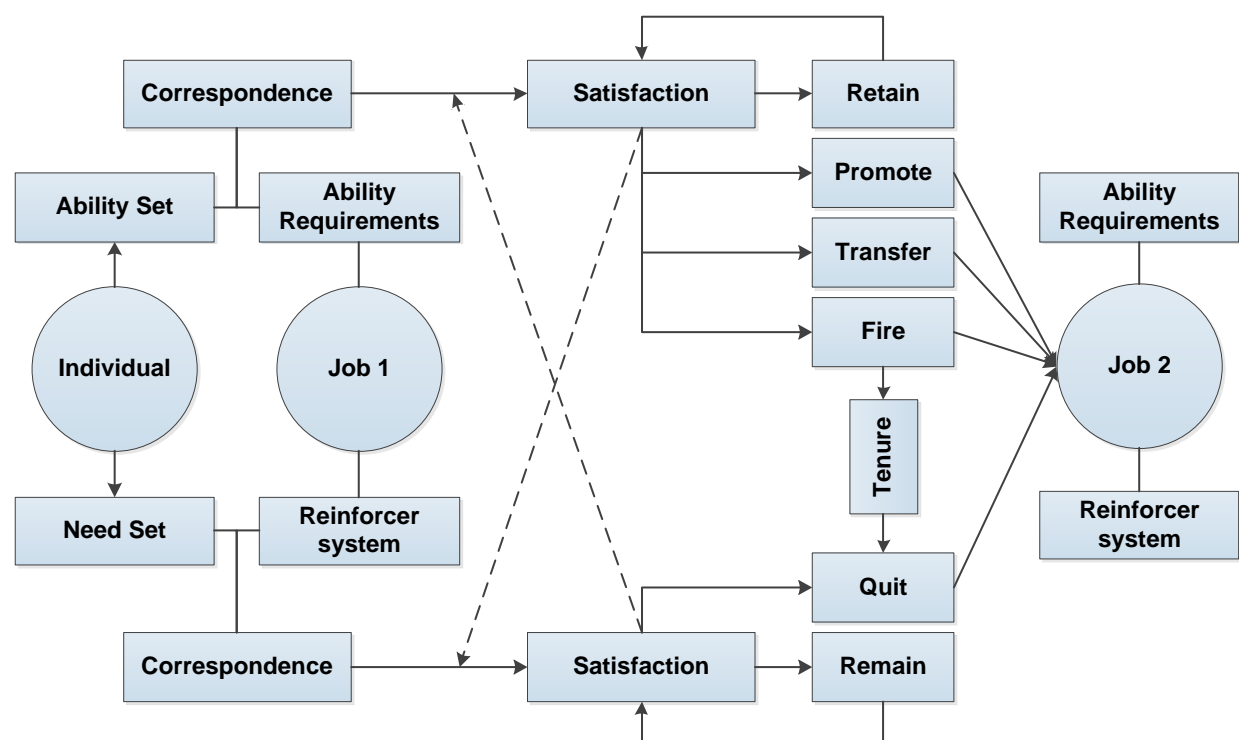
- **Autonomy**

The autonomy value is linked with the stimuli creativity and responsibility that increase personal control and initiative. Satisfaction is drawn by the degree of independence an employee receives from being able to use his/her own judgement to direct work activities and being able to develop an innovative approach to the work (Gonzalez-Mule 2015:81).



The first phase of the theory was at the time viewed as a great discovery, specifically because it attempted to directly address the person fit dimensions in an organisation. However, there was a theoretical gap between vocational needs and work values, which was overlooked by the founders of the theory.

A second phase of TWA was therefore introduced and was transformed from a static trait-and factor model to a developmentally oriented model that better described the ongoing interaction between individuals and their work environment (Jones 1972:20). The second phase of TWA proposed a continuous and dynamic process whereby workers attempt to achieve and maintain correspondence with a work environment. The correspondence becomes reciprocal between an employee's satisfaction and the employer's satisfactoriness; the interpretation of this is that the employee must be satisfied with the work they do while the employer becomes satisfied with how the work is performed. Further depiction of TWA is shown in Figure 2.3.



**Figure 2.3: Theory of Work Adjustment**

**Source:** Dawis and Lofquist (1984:15)

Job satisfaction and satisfactoriness are seen as predictors of a person's likelihood to remain in job, receive advancement, be transferred or be successful. However, the theory recognised that the correspondence between person and environment may not be perfect

and even a good fit can change over time. People skills might develop and outgrow their immediate roles or there could be a change in one's priorities.

The second phase of the TWA redefined abilities as pragmatically derived factors that circumscribe specific skills. These skills are repeated response progressions that are modified regularly and refined with repetition (Dawis & Lofquist 1984:15). The theory further explains that skill can be described on proportions such as level of difficulty, economy of effort and efficiency. Dawis and Lofquist (1984:17) further explain that ability requirements are conceived in parallel terms as general factors containing specific requirements. Similarly, values are empirically derived factors that comprise specific needs defined as requirements for a reinforcer at a given strength.

The revised TWA is a product of more than five decades of research at the University of Minnesota and one of the most robust and best validated theories in vocational psychology (Dahling & Librizzi 2014:2). The revised TWA places more emphasis on the meaning and outcomes of correspondence and define work adjustment as continuous and dynamic by which a worker seeks to achieve and maintain correspondence with a work environment (Dawis & Lofquist 1984:237). Correspondence is defined as a harmonious relationship between the individual and environment and between the environment and the individual, making the relationship a reciprocal process and interdependent. In simplest terms, an individual worker is expected to fulfil the labour requirements of the work environment expecting that the work environment will fulfil a wide range of financial, social and psychological needs for the individual (Eggerth 2008:62).

The previous TWA states that satisfaction and satisfactoriness appraise the outcomes of correspondence. In the revised TWA, satisfaction and satisfactoriness were modified to suggest that they refer to appraisals of correspondence itself as opposed to outcomes of correspondence. For instance, an individual worker evaluates the extent to which the working environment fulfils the requirements of the environment, while satisfactoriness refers to an appraisal of ones' fulfilment of the requirements of the work environment derived from sources other than the work.

## **2.3 EMPLOYEE FIT DIMENSIONS**

Before engaging in definitions and discussions on employee fit dimensions, it is necessary to have a broader understanding of the originality of the concepts under

investigation. While there are numerous conceptualisations of person fit dimensions, this study focuses on PJF, PEF and POF. The selection of the constructs is based on the notion that a person functions effectively when his/her characteristics match that of the job and, that an enabling environment must be created within which the person must work. Furthermore, organisations themselves have their own traits and values which only individuals with a match can function and work harmoniously in. Theories of fit have arisen from a long-established line of research in industrial psychology and organisational behaviour that explored how people interact with their environment in a quest to understand factors that potentially influence both individual employment and organisational outcome.

### **2.3.1 Person job fit**

#### **2.3.1.1 Definition**

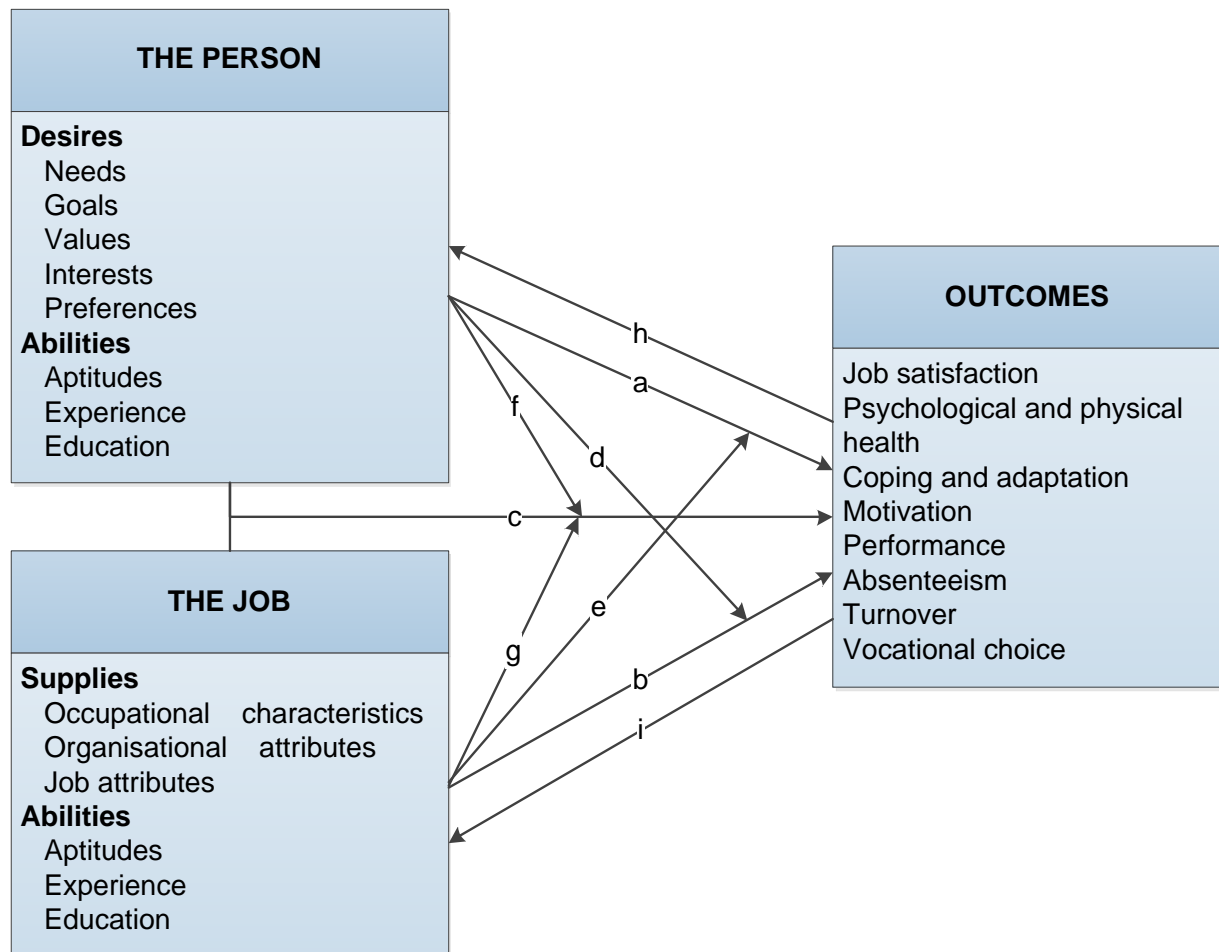
Ever since the origin of the construct PJF, it has received enormous attention from scholars and has been researched extensively and defined many times and definitions seem to complement each other in one way or another (Hassan, Akram & Naz 2012:174; Igbal, Latif & Naseer 2013:524; Lu, Wang, Du & Bakker 2014:143).

Huang, Yuan and Li (2019:135) define PJF as the degree of alignment between the person and the job to which a person's cognitive abilities, interests and personality dynamics fit the requirements of the job. Han, Chiang, McConville and Chiang (2015:430) and Kristof-Brown (1996:2) refer to PJF as the congruence between the personal characteristics of employees' and characteristics of tasks and jobs. An inference one could make from this is that higher levels of satisfaction, psychological and physical well-being occur when there is a good fit between the person and the environment which could, if a right fit was achieved it will lead to organisations functioning effectively and efficiently.

The definition of PJF is traceable to Edwards (1991:262) who refers to PJF as the degree of compatibility between the person and job will operate as joint determinant of an individual and organisational outcome. Edward's (1991) view was echoed by Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001:455), Sekiguchi (2004:183) and Bayona, Caballer and Peiro (2020:2) who further elaborate that a person's job fit is characterised by personality, knowledge, skills and abilities an employee needs to execute a job and which should be matched with the requirements of a specific job or task.

This study has adopted the definition provided by Edwards (1991) because that definition is so germane that it presumed among other constructs that job satisfaction is influenced by a greater degree of compatibility between the person and the job; thus, the influence of PJF is to be tested in this study. The domain of PJF is depicted in Figure 2.4.

### 2.3.1.2 The domain of person-job fit



**Figure 2.4: The domain of person-job fit**

**Source:** Edwards (1991:285)

The domain of PJF consists of two key components. The first component is referred to as demands-ability (DA). Job demands habitually takes the form of quantitative and qualitative workloads, performance requirements, instrumental activities, role expectations and group and organisational norms. It simply refers to the degree to which an employee's knowledge, skills and abilities match the requirements of the job, whereas, abilities (A) refer to employee's aptitudes, experience and education.

The second component is supplies or needs-supplies (NS); this component refers to the degree to which the employee's needs are addressed by the supplies that emerge from their job. Employees' needs consist of psychological desires, values, goals, interests and preferences. In contrast job supplies which include pay, benefits, training, interesting and challenging work, promotion opportunities, recognition, good working conditions and decision-making latitude are key in enhancing job satisfaction (Dahling & Librizzi 2014:12). The inference one can make based on the findings above is that DA fit focuses more on the job (job demands are fulfilled by employees), whereas SN fit possesses a stronger employee focus (fulfilling the needs of employees).

According to the psychological need fulfilment paradigm underlying PJF, employees express more positive attitudes at work when their needs are fully addressed (Hetland, Hetland, Bakker, Demerouti, Andreassen & Pallesen 2015:466). Subsequently, as suggested by Boon and Biron (2016:5) employees strive to achieve and sustain congruity with their work environment by fulfilling the requirements of their jobs.

In relation to the domain of the PJF model in Figure 2.4, the emphasis is placed on the combined effects of the person and the job on outcomes, Figure 2.4, (arrows a and b). Another alternative is the reduction of person and job measures to a single pointer Figure 2.4, (arrow c). In another attempt to combine a person and job, job measures are used to calculate a product term, demonstrating the moderating effects of the person on the relationship between the job and outcomes as shown in Figure 2.4, (arrow d), or the moderating effects of the job on the relationship between the person and outcome Figure 2.4, (arrow e). Another set of moderating effects involve the effluence of the person Figure 2.4, (arrow f) or the job Figure 2.4, (arrow g) on the relationship between a combined index of the person, job and outcomes. A final set of relationships is based on transactional and cybernetic approaches to PJF where the effects of individual and organisational outcomes on the person and job are reflected in Figure 2.4, (arrows h and i) (Edwards 1991:287).

### **2.3.1.3 Matching people and jobs**

One of the biggest challenges' organisations face is finding the right person to fill a job. Without the right people in the right positions organisations will struggle to compete in the market (Griffin 2018:7). Griffin further explains that over 80 percent of turnover is linked to bad hiring decisions. The most important step in the process of finding the right person is a job analysis, which provide organisations with the necessary information about the

required job characteristics. According to Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2018:167) job analysis refers to a process that encourages the optimal use of personality character tests related to the tasks that forms a job where knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics are crucial in successfully performing a task.

Previous studies reveal that human resource officers have overlooked personality factors of individuals for a long time when recruiting and focused only on the abilities of a person to perform the job (Ghani, Yunus & Bahry 2015:47; Alhendi 2019:223). The definition of job analysis recognises the two main fundamental concepts of PJF (DA and SN) and further emphasises that any appointment made based on a person meeting only one aspect of the requirements of the job (academic knowledge and experience or personal characteristics) is highly unlikely to achieve a good fit.

To achieve a good fit, organisations should consider blending ability tests with employment tests, which according to Boon, Den Hartog, Boselie and Paauwe (2011:140) provides useful information about a person's characteristics.

#### **2.3.1.4 The effect of person job fit on job satisfaction**

There has been some growing debate by researchers on whether PJF has a positive or negative effect on job satisfaction. To establish the effect of PJF on JS various scientific studies have been conducted. Empirical studies show that PJF has a significant influence on employees' attitudes, specifically JS (Peng & Mao 2015:806; Langer, Feeney & Lee 2019:147). Job satisfaction is greatly disposed by employees' assessment of the job and tasks they execute, which are critical components of PJF. Iqbal, *et al.* (2012:525) and Farooqui and Nagendra (2014:127) are of the view that a high degree of PJF leads towards JS while tasks and responsibilities, which are not suited to the abilities of employees, may lead to job dissatisfaction.

### **2.3.2 Person-environment fit**

#### **2.3.2.1 Background and definitions**

The construct PEF is the second primary independent variable of the study. Person-environment fit is centred on interactional behaviour and has been extensively applied in industrial and organisational psychology for over 100 years (Bayl-Smith & Griffin 2015:132; Su, Murdock & Rounds 2015:81; Follmer 2016:1). The general interest in PEF by organisations is linked to the assumption that the presence of fit predicts many positive

outcomes for individuals and organisations. However, the relationship between person and environment is in different shapes and such differences of what constitute PEF led researchers to approach the PEF constructs in many ways, separated by what aspects of the environment are considered in the person-environment relationship and how fit is conceived and measured (Follmer 2016:6).

Previous studies (Ahmad & Veerapandian 2012:92; Yu 2012:116; Su, *et al* 2015:83; Bednarka 2017:69) share the following common characteristics and assumptions about PEF: (a) people seek and create environments that allow them to demonstrate their attributes behaviourally (b) the extent to which people fit in their working environment has an impact of either satisfaction, productivity or intention to stay (c) a better fit is linked to better out and (d) person-environment fit is a correlative and endless process that allows people to shape their environment and environment shape people.

Person-environment fit is defined broadly as the general degree of compatibility between a person's inner state and aspects of their external environment (Bayl-Smith & Griffin 2015:132; Su, *et al* 2015:81; Nguyen & Borteyrou 2016:89; Bednarska 2017:69). The definition postulates that a suitable balance between a person's functional capabilities and the environmental surroundings is of paramount importance in sustaining a good fit. The degree of congruency between the person and the environment determines the degree of job satisfaction of that person. High compatibility is likely to result in JS, while low compatibility could lead to job dissatisfaction. Although PEF is not the only determinant of JS in a working environment, it is one of the crucial contributors to JS. There are other determinants of JS that will be discussed later.

Edwards (2008:170) and Van Vianen (2018:77) concur with the definition provided above by emphasising the need to have similarities and / or matches between the person and the environment. Both Edwards (2008:170) and Van Vianen's definitions separate PEF into two sub-concepts, namely ÷ supplementary fit and complementary fit. Supplementary fit exists where a person possesses characteristics with similarities to other individuals in the environment, while complementary fit exists where a weakness or environmental need is offset by the individual's strength and *vice versa*.

This study adopted definitions of both Edwards (2008:170) and Su, *et al.* (2015:81) of PEF because they recognised the fact that for the relationship to work it should be beneficial to both parties and that both aspects of the relationship are compatible and

similar on some dimension. Another observation from their definitions is that they acknowledged that although PEF results in JS, there are other contributors to JS.

Congruence is defined as the compatibility of the person's similarity to the type of environment or work where the person finds him/herself in. Su, *et al.* (2015:86) proposes the following specific work or environmental congruencies:

**Occupational congruence:** a person's vocational interest or personality type belongs to the same type of occupations as his or her actual occupational choice. Holland's theory of career choice suggest that specific personality traits predict greater success in certain fields of work. A practical example will be that of a who find satisfaction in helping others, such people are intrinsically motivated and will adhere to a particular set of self-concepts and perspectives such as a desire to provide treatment and advocate for marginal members of society (Graham, Shier & Nicholas 2016:1099).

**Environmental congruence:** this describes a situation where a person's personality type corresponds with that of the dominant persons within the environment. Achieving high level of environmental congruence is necessary to develop and sustain positive worker and organisational outcomes because a working environment that is no functional and psychological congruent does not promote trust, teamwork, reflective practice and job satisfaction (Dendaas, 2011:27).

**Skill utilisation congruence:** skill utilisation describes a person's beliefs concerning his or her skills are compatible or correspond with the requirements of the job and recognised as a critical job characteristic in promoting positive experiences at work as it enhances the scope for employee creativity and the exercise of expertise. According to Wang, Johnson, Nguyen and Goodwin (2006:4) employees who are able to use their skills report higher levels of well-being and tend to be more satisfied and productive.

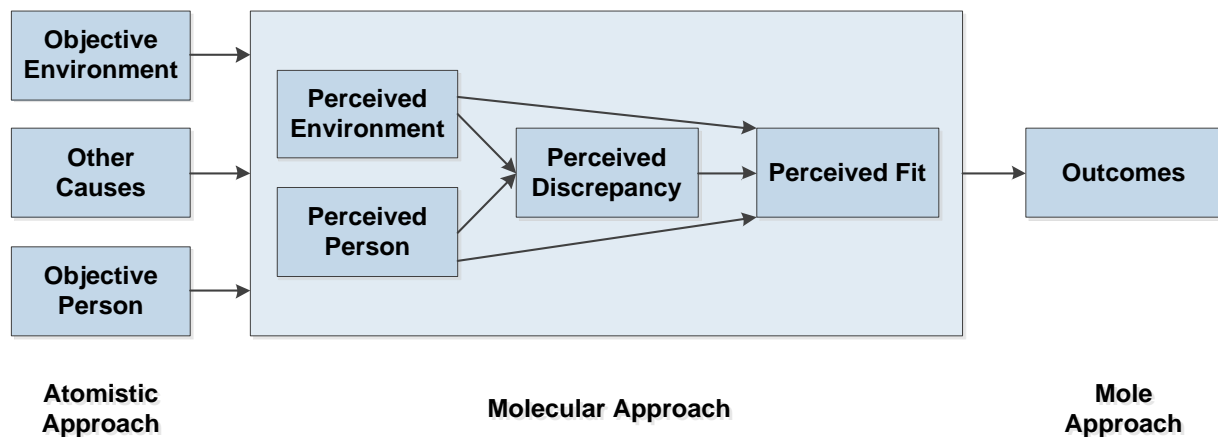
- **Aspect-based congruence:** aspect-based congruence is achieved by comparing a range of occupational characteristics with worker preferences for those aspects. The assumption is that the closer the match of the person and the occupational aspects, the better the chances of congruency.

This study focuses on general PEF because different levels of compatibility may require specialised studies. An occupational environment may represent a sub-environment whereby congruence occurs even though the overall PEF is incongruent.



### 2.3.2.2 The phenomenology of person-environment fit

Person-environment fit is generally viewed as a psychological experience of a person; thus, the effect of PEF requires that the person is aware of his or her compatibility with the environment. The awareness is grounded on the person's perception of the environment, which is cognitively compared to determine the perceived PEF. The phenomenology model of person-environment fit provides three basic approaches within the broader context of PEF as depicted in Figure 2.5



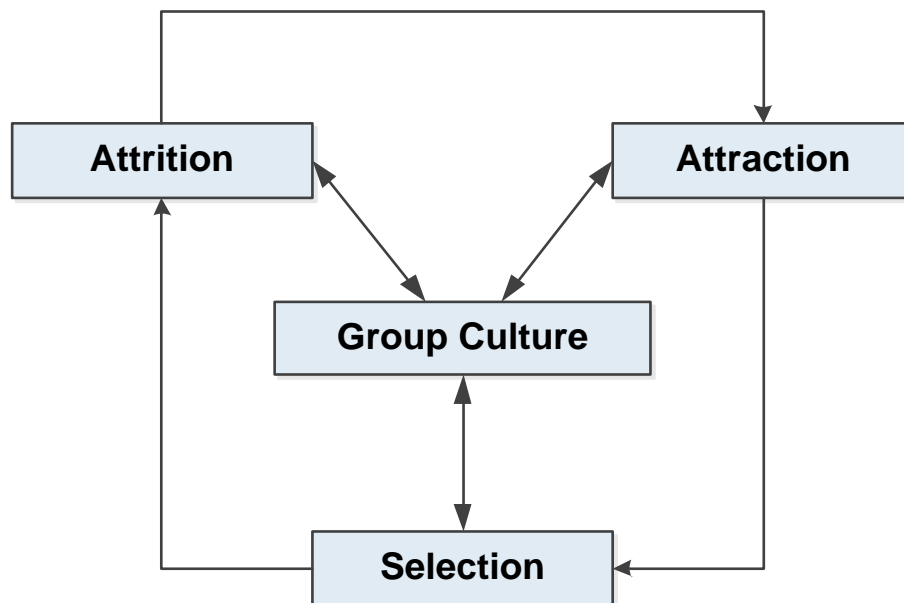
**Figure 2.5: Phenomenology of person-environment fit**

**Source:** Edwards *et al* (2006:803)

The atomistic approach examines the perceptions of the person and the environment as separate entities and puts them together to represent the concept of PEF. Molecular approach focuses on the perceived comparison between the person and environment and it directly assesses subjective person-environment discrepancies that combine the person and environment but also preserve the direction of their difference. Mole approach focuses on the perceived similarities between the person and environment by directly measuring similarities (Bohndick, Rosman, Kohlmeyer & Buhl 2017:6). The objective approach is represented by the fit between personal factors and environmental attributes whereas the perceived personal and situational factors fall under subjective PEF.

### 2.3.2.3 Attraction-Selection-Attrition framework

Figure 2.6 depicts the Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) framework of PEF.



**Figure 2.6: Attraction-Selection-Attrition framework of person-environment fit**

**Source:** Schneider (1987:445)

The focus of the ASA framework shifted from primarily focusing on an individual to being a dynamic process focusing on both individuals and the organisation (Schneider 1987:441). Nevertheless, the ASA maintained the stance adopted by the founders of PEF theories that it is based on interactional psychology. The framework proposes that individual behaviour is a function of the person and the environment. According to the ASA, framework there are three interrelated dynamic processes (attraction-selection-attrition) that determine the kinds of people in an organisation. The flow of homogeneous people with a distinct personality helps to create a fitting environment acceptable to all who work in it. In the event where an incongruent fit is realised, the person eventually leaves the organisation (attrition).

The attraction process is concerned with the attraction of suitably highly qualified and congruent applicants to apply to the organisation. The basis of that is the fact that people find organisations differentially attractive, informed by their judgement of congruence (Perez, Walton, Cooper & Pacheco 2014:111). Dahesihsari (2017:187) is of the view that people are attracted to and select situations of interest to them. For example, a person may choose to join a certain political party based on his or her estimate of congruence

between her or his own personality and the values characterised by various political parties.

The next step is the selection process, which concerns itself with carefully choosing someone as the most suitable to fill a vacant post. This process varies from one organisation to the next, and includes aptitude tests, fitness test, medical tests and interviews (Butler, Bateman, Gray & Diamant 2015:5). The final process is attrition, which alludes to the view that incongruent people leave organisations after realising that they do not fit (Redelinghuys 2015:23; Follmer 2016:9).

The ASA framework is opposed to the interactionist model of the PEF as originally argued by Edwards (2008:170) which seeks to achieve congruency between individuals and the environment. According to the ASA framework, it is people who make the environment. This view is strengthened by the prediction that when people with the same personality characteristics are brought together, they become united. Billsberry (2004:4) and Oyibo and Vassileva (2019:4) concur by further stating that the overall effect of the ASA cycle is that people within organisations are increasingly becoming similar resulting in homogeneity in the work environment. However, a strong homogeneous workforce eventually can be detrimental for long-term organisation effectiveness (Sekiguchi 2004:182; Moore 2018:43). High levels of homogeneity may restrain organisations from changing themselves when environmental demands and conditions for organisational renewal and competitiveness are changing.

Interactional models view the environment as a moderating factor where people need to fit in in-order for them to be satisfied and effective. Risman (2014:10) established that need fulfilment is central to fit and outcome variables such as JS and commitment.

#### **2.3.2.4 Conceptualisation of person-environment fit**

Person-environment fit models are based on assumptions of similarities being a form of fit. As explained, Edwards (2008:170) categorised PEF into the complementary and supplementary fit. An important distinction is presented between complementary fit and supplementary fit. Complementary fit prevails when a person or organisation's characteristics meet the needs of the other, thus, suggesting that an employee possess a set of skills that an organisation requires, while the organisation offers rewards appealing to an individual. Complementary fit is perceptive in nature and it relies heavily on the psychological need fulfilment (Gander *et al.*, 2020:3). This implies that

complementary fit examines how people's attitudes are affected by the fit between their desires and the supplies.

In contrast, supplementary fit analyses similarities on different angles such as goals, values, personality and demographics. Supplementary fit occurs when a person embellishes characteristics and skills similar to those already widely possessed in that environment (Ahmad & Veerapandian 2012:93; Van Vianan 2018:79). Mutual exchange is more likely to emerge when the interaction partners are similar to each other than when there is no similarity. Greguras and Diefendor (2009:6) and Van Vianan (2018:79) emphasises that supplementary skill or characteristic should be added in order have a complete set of skills and competencies. A factor that distinguishes between complementary and supplementary fit is the environment.

In complementary fit, the environment is defined separately from its inhabitants, it is described according to demands and requirements. In supplementary fit the environment is defined according to the people who inhabit it. The ASA model is responsible for the provision of a strong theoretical statement of how the similarity-attraction paradigm is embedded in organisational systems to induce high levels of supplementary fit with the organisation (Kristof-brown & Guay 2011:11; Wilson 2016:48).

### 2.3.2.5 Job Characteristics Model

The job characteristics Model (JCM) as depicted in Figure 2.7 was derived from Job Characteristics Theory (JCT).



**Figure 2.7: Job Characteristics Model**

**Source:** Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009:170).

The JCT was developed and introduced by Hackman and Oldham in 1976 and its emphasis was that job design influences JS, work performance and motivation. Hackman and Oldham's model was adapted from researches of Turner and Lawrence (1965) and the work of Hackman and Lawler (1971), which stated that the amount of variety, autonomy, identity and feedback a certain job provides will lead to internal motivation (Jacobs 2014:12). The JCM sought to explain the conditions under which employees will exhibit productive behaviours, satisfaction and motivation.

The JCM attracted fewer revisions on organisational behaviour studies and its primary structure has been kept unchanged over the years. One prominent update of the JCM is that of Gostautaite and Buciuniene (2010:505) who proposed that the success of any organisation is dependent upon the collection of individuals, their leaders and subordinates and their feelings concerning their jobs. Johari *et al.* (2015:69) assert that the JCM contains situational factors influencing the psychological as well as attitudinal condition of employees. In spite of the JCM advocating for a suitable environment for employees, the model recognised the fact that not all employees are likely to respond positively to a job high in motivating potential (Faturochman 1997:3; Matilu & Obonyo 2018:53).

The JCM was developed for job design and facilitation of workplace interventions through which organisations maximise the fit between employees and their jobs (Gostautaite & Buciuniene 2010:508). When this model was developed Hackman and Oldham were of the view that the possible outcome of job design included high work effectiveness, high job satisfaction, high growth satisfaction and high internal motivation (Jacobs 2014:4). The JCM provides a diagnostic approach to job enrichment and is founded on three critical psychological states of workers that determine the extent to which the characteristics of the job affect and enhance the responses of employees to the job itself (Nadhir & Puteh 2017:28).

The three critical psychological states of workers, as originally proposed by Nadhir and Puteh (2017:28) are:

**i) Experienced meaningfulness**

Experienced meaningfulness is the degree to which the individual experiences and perceives her/his work as generally meaningful, valuable and worthwhile by some system of values which s/he accepts.

## ii) **Experienced responsibility for work outcomes**

Experienced responsibility for work outcomes is the degree to which an individual feel personally responsible for the outcome of his/her efforts.

## iii) **Knowledge of results**

Knowledge of results state that the employee must be able to determine the degree of quality of output of his/her efforts. S/he must receive frequent and regular feedback from his/her supervisors as to how satisfactory performance continues to be.

The above psychological states are triggered by five characteristics of the job termed core job dimension. The first three of these characteristics contribute to the psychological state of “experienced meaningfulness” and the other two characteristics contribute towards the states of “experienced responsibility” and “knowledge of results” respectively (Fried & Ferris 1987:293; Pee 2012:5).

The five core job dimensions are:

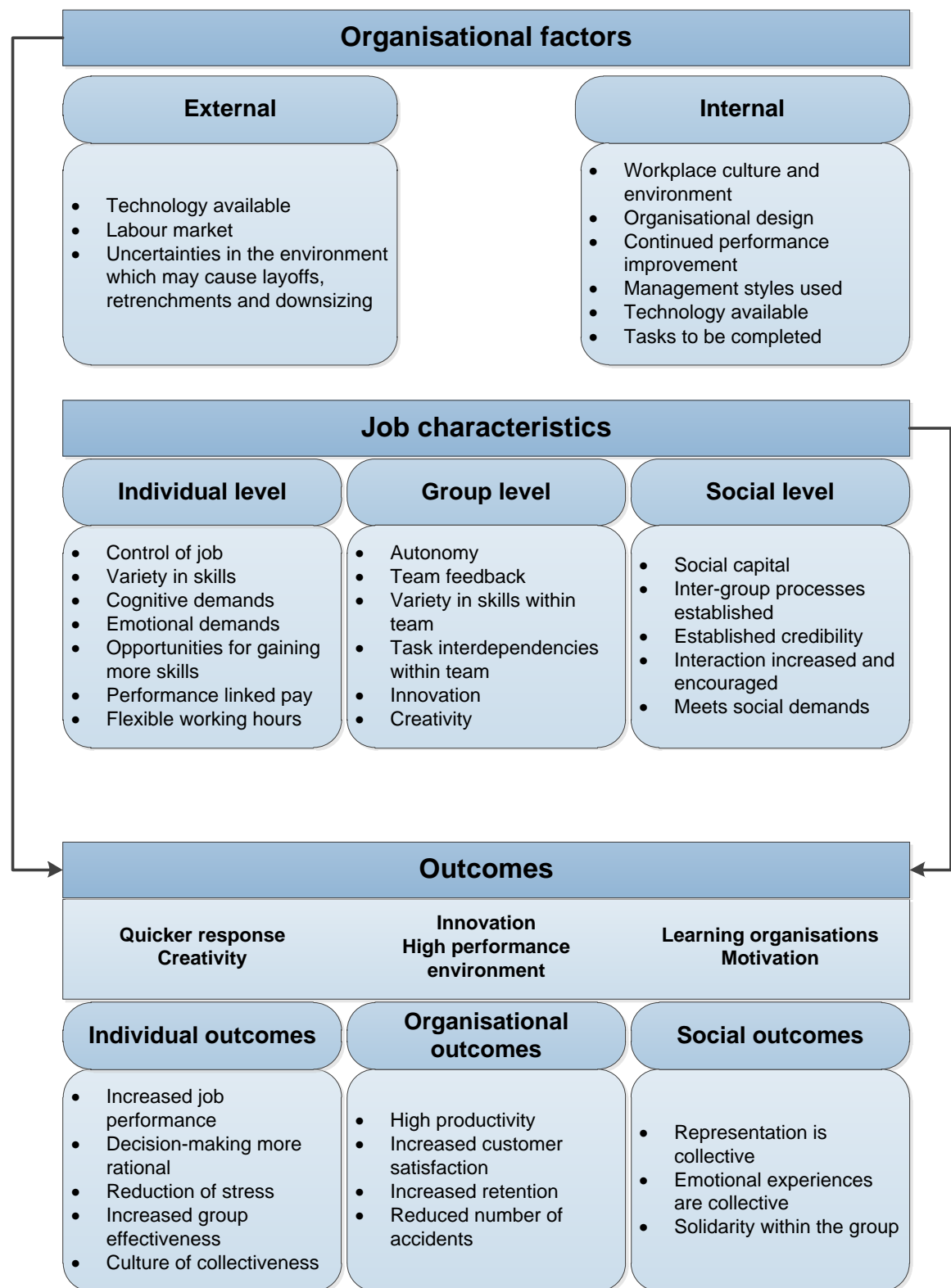
- i) **Skill variety** - Skill variety is the degree to which the job contains a variety of different activities which would challenge the worker’s skills and abilities. The skill variety assesses whether a job is monotonous and repetitive. Monotonous and repetitive jobs are those that are elementary in nature and require tasks to be performed in a routine and repetitive manner. Such jobs do not demand many skills and abilities. The different number of skills to be used and tasks to be performed will determine satisfaction levels of the employee.
- ii) **Task identity** – explains the degree to which the job requires completion of the whole identifiable unit of work from beginning to end, with visible and tangible outcomes. Employees are involved in the execution of work on an entire work process rather than in bits and pieces. Jobs that provide a high degree of task identity and responsibility are known to increase satisfaction levels of employees.
- iii) **Task significance** – describes the extent to which a job has a significant impact on the lives or work of other people either within the organisation itself or the outside environment. Jobs that help improve the well-being of others whether psychologically, physically or emotionally provide a high degree of task

significance. The meaning of these jobs comes in the form of recognition by other people.

- iv) **Autonomy** – explains the core dimension which contributes towards the psychological state of “experienced responsibility” and is the degree to which the job allows the worker substantial freedom, independence and discretion in scheduling his own work and in establishing procedures to be employed in carrying it out. This way, the worker will feel responsible for the success or failure of ones’ efforts and of course, one will spare no efforts to make the work performance and outcome a success.
- v) **Feedback** – describes the degree to which the work performance results in the worker obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of performance. Constant feedback on job performance enables employees to not only be apprised on their work progress, but also assist in boosting their self-esteem. Positive feedback from line managers is likely to motivate employees to continue their good work, whereas negative feedback provides an opportunity to self-correct and improve performance.

#### 2.3.2.6 Job design

Figure 2.8 shows a comprehensive model of job design. Job design serve as a framework to identify how certain job characteristics affect the outcomes of the job as outlined by the JCM. Job design studies various factors that makes a specific job satisfying for the organisation and for the person doing the job. Warnich *et al.* (2018:151) define job design as the manipulation of the content, function and relationships of jobs in a way that satisfies the personal needs of an individual while at the same time assists in achieving the goals of an organisation. Perpetual exposure to unpleasant working conditions tempers with the physical health, mental health, employee morale and productivity levels (Bagrain, Cunningham, Potgieter & Viedge 2016:269). Al-Omari and Okasher (2017:15546) identify lighting problems, chemical environment, workstation design, temperature, noise and un-cooperating colleagues as amongst working environments contributing to job dissatisfaction. Bagrain *et al.* (2016:269) proposes other factors such as severe time constraints, lack of clear objectives, complex problems, lack of intellectual demands, repetitive routine work, unpopular decision making and lack of creative opportunities as contributors to job dissatisfaction.



**Figure 2.8: A comprehensive model of job design**

**Source:** Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2018:152)



### **2.3.2.7 Correlation between person-environment fit and job satisfaction**

Correlational findings on PEF and JS studies indicated a positive relationship between them. Nguyen and Borteyrou (2016:92) confirm a strong correlation between PEF and JS ( $r = .66$ ) which is relatively higher compared to when other constructs are correlated with JS. The perceived correlation between PEF and JS does not in any way translate to an improvement in productivity. Shaikh, Shaikh and Shaikh (2019:144) clarify that when people indicate that they are satisfied with their jobs, they are effectively saying that they are satisfied with the environment which does not in any way lead to effectiveness in job performance.

## **2.3.3 Person organisation fit**

### **2.3.3.1 Background and definitions of person organisational fit**

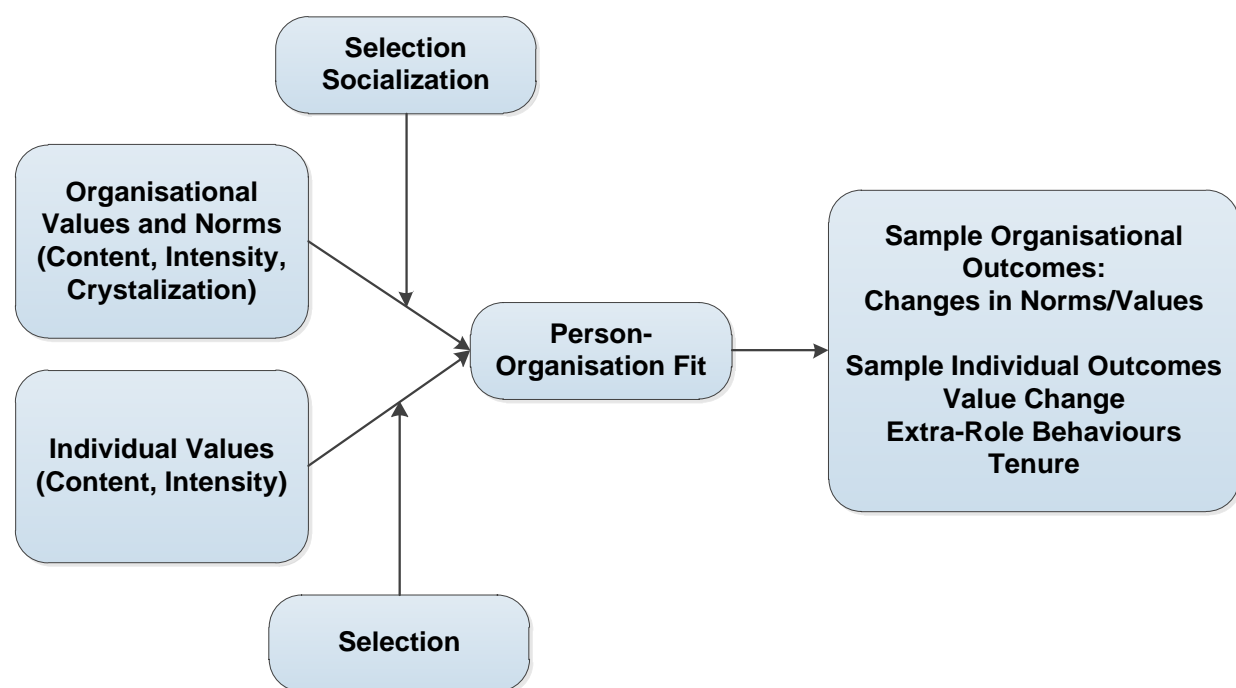
Person-organisation fit is a topic within the person-environment fit area that has attracted substantial attention from both managers and scholars in the discipline of organisational behaviour and human resource management. As organisations are faced with a vast amount of challenges ranging from quality improvement, creativity, JS, retention and maximising profit, it is imperative that organisations bring on-board people who in one way or the other are compatible with the organisation (Habib, Kamran & Jamal 2015:30).

Defining POF has been characterised by confusion due to its multiple conceptualisation and operationalisation, including its limited distinction from other forms of PEF. The implication of that is that p-o fit carries some characteristics similar to those of PEF.

Person-organisation fit is broadly defined as a match between distinctive characteristics of the employee and the organisation in which the employee is working (Hanafi, Adam, & Aprideni 2018:104). This implies that POF is assessed by corresponding the personality of the person with that of the organisation. Vogel and Feldman (2009:70) and Sorlie, Hetland, Deyvik, Fosse and Martinsen (2020:238) define POF as the compatibility or congruency between the people and organisations that exist when (a) at least one entity supply what the other needs, (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both. Saleem (2014:247) and Afsar and Badir (2016:254) concur when referring to POF as the congruence between the norms and values of organisations and the values of persons.

Afsar and Badir's (2016:254) definition is the most appropriate for this study because it addresses two very important concepts, namely: norms and values. A person's attitude and behaviour vary depending on fit and the congruence degree between the individual and the organisation. This argument was put forward by Cable and Judge (1994) when clarifying that POF can be measured by assessing the extent to which an organisation supports the needs of its employees and establishing the bases of POF on the congruity between personal values and organisational goals. Gaspar and Brown (2015:375) and Afsar and Badir (2016:254) postulate that the influence of compatibility between the parties will manifest itself into two different forms, at personal level in various forms such as JS, OCB, organisational commitment, turnover intentions and performance and at an organisational level manifests itself in a form of productivity, innovation and a healthy culture.

Figure 2.9 illustrates a model of person-organisational fit



**Figure 2.9: Model of Person-organisation Fit**

**Source:** Chatman (1989:340)

The Chatman's model presents values and norms as the two important founding principles that bind the organisation and people. The impact that an organisation has on its people and the impact those people have on the organisation is speculated on the basis of information gathered about the organisation and people. Various behavioural

determinant aspects of organisations and people's abilities, job requirements, personality, characteristics and vocations are viewed as critical in POF. However, Chatman (1989:339) argues that the fundamental and enduring aspects of both the organisation and people lie in their values.

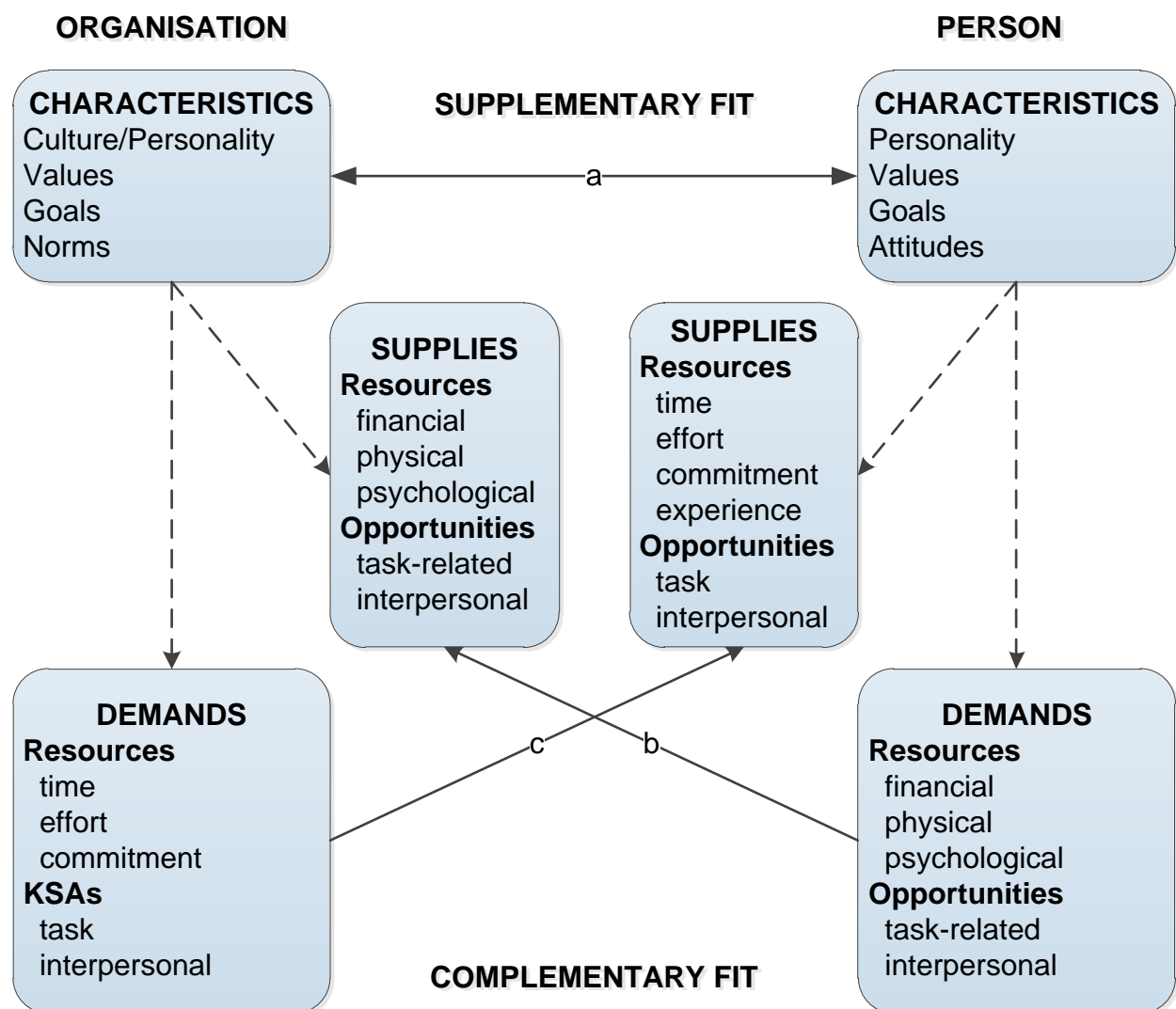
From the organisation's perspective, value codes provide detailed and generalised justification for appropriate behaviour and for the activities and functions of the system. Members of the organisation accept the norms and values by selecting themselves to the organisation which eventually culminates in a culture within the organisation. The model suggests that the effect of both the organisational and individual values on POF are influenced by selection and socialisation. The selection is in such a way that enables organisations to locate people whose values are compatible with those of the organisation, while socialisation shapes personal values and aligns them with organisational values (Ertosun & Adiguzel 2018:56).

Both the organisational and individual values are described in terms of their intensity. Organisational value codes are also referred to as crystallisation, or how widely these values are shared by members within the organisation. Strong organisational values are strongly embraced and shared by all members. Person-organisation fit then manifests itself in the form of change in personal and organisational values, with the purpose of increasing POF.

The construct values have taken centre stage to many fields in the social sciences and humanities and we have seen a growing body of psychological research investigating the content, structure and consequences of values at personal and organisational level. Spranger, an influential writer in the late 1920s defined values from a person's perspective as the constellation of likes, dislikes, viewpoints, inner inclinations, rational and irrational judgements, prejudices and association of patterns that determine a person's view of the world (Spranger 1928; Bruno & Lay 2006:1; Sagiv, Roccas Cieciuch & Schwartz 2017:4). Once these value codes are activated and internalised, they become consciously or subconsciously a criterion that guides one's actions. Personal and organisational values are described in terms of a substantive dimension, (referring to security, competitiveness) and intensity, referring to how strongly the value is held relative to other values. From an individual point of view, the outcomes of POF include extra-role behaviour, tenure, satisfaction, commitment and feelings of comfort and competence (Siyal, Xin, Peng, Siyal & Ahmed 2020:4).

However, Chatman (1989:343) cautions that extremely high levels of POF amongst a sizeable number of individuals within the organisation may result in ineffective individual and organisational behaviour. For example, it may lead to conformity, homogeneity and lowered innovation as people and organisations struggle to adapt to new environmental contingencies. Low fit between an organisation and people is needed because it enhances learning and inspires individual growth within the organisation (Chatman 1989:344).

Figure 2.10 outlines the various conceptualisations of POF.



**Figure 2.10: Conceptualisations of person-organisation fit**

**Source:** Kristof-Brown (1996:4)

The generally accepted definition of POF fit is the compatibility between individuals and the organisation. However, according to Kristof-Brown (1996:3), compatibility may be

conceptualised in different ways. The first notable distinction is between supplementary and complementary fit. Supplementary fit occurs when a person displays characteristics similar to that of others in an environment. While complementary fit occurs when a person's characteristics completes the environment by providing what is missing for it to be complete.

The second notable distinction is the need-supplies and demand-abilities which also featured in PEF. From the needs-supplies point of view POF occurs when individual's needs, preferences and desires are satisfied by an organisation, whereas from the demands-abilities' point of view, fit occurs when an individual has the abilities required to meet the demands of the organisation. In this model, arrow (a) pointed to the relationship between the fundamental characteristics of an organisation and a person. Characteristics of the organisation include culture, climate, values, goals and norms while person characteristics include values, goals, personality and attitudes.

The model further explains that when organisational supplies meet employees' demands, needs-supplies fit is realised (arrow b). Organisations expect employees to contribute their time, effort, commitment, knowledge, skills and abilities. Demands-abilities fit is realised when employees supply meet organisational demands (arrow c). The model provides an undisputable clarification of Vogel and Feldman's definition of POF that refers to the compatibility or congruency between the people and organisations that exist when (a) at least one entity supplies what the other needs, (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both. Vogel and Feldman's (2009) definition recognises the multiple conceptualisations of POF and allows for both the supplementary and complementary fit to be considered concurrently.

### **2.3.3.2 The role of person-organisation fit in organisational selection decisions**

The recruitment, selection and hiring process of individuals by organisations may be complex, yet they are crucial for the survival of any organisation. This suggests that organisations need to proactively install selection devices that are aligned to its culture, values and interest. Judge and Ferris (1992) cited in Cable and Judge (1995:3) and Sharom (2017:27) state that POF affects the degree to which an individual is liked by co-workers, supervisors and subordinates, which subsequently paves the way for individual and organisational effectiveness. Furthermore, Sharom (2017:50) and Siyal *et al.*, (2020:5) postulates that organisations that have more opportunities of realising its goals

are those that are able to attract, retain and motivate individuals who embrace the beliefs, values, norms, goals and priorities of the organisation and also ensure that individuals' needs and goals are met.

The challenge faced by organisations is aligning their recruitment strategies to incorporate the elements embodied in POF. In the past, the role of POF in the recruitment process has been practitioner-oriented, however, recently POF is treated as a separate construct from general employability and interviewers should assess POF in accordance with the organisations perspective and not based on biases towards and liking of candidates (Cable & Judge 1995:3).

Figure 2.11 outlines the model of POF in organisational selection decisions.



**Figure 2.11: Model of person-organisation fit in organisational selection decisions**

**Source:** Adapted from Cable and Judge (1995)

Interview processes are critical components of organisations' hiring strategy. The model reflects that interviewers should base their POF perceptions on the congruence between their organisations' values and applicant values. The values of organisations and applicants are measured ideographically as recommended by Cable and Judge (1995:6). Work values become an important ingredient in determining organisations' selection processes. The degree of congruence between an organisation and an applicant determines whether a job offer is made and accepted or not.

### **2.3.3.3 Perceived outcomes of person-organisation fit on job satisfaction**

A person's perception of their fitness for an organisation and the environment they work in is crucial for both the organisation and an individual employee. Recent studies suggest that there are few positive outcomes that can be linked to POF such as JS, ITS and commitment (Farooqui & Nagendra 2014:122, Risman, Erickson & Diefendorff 2016: 121). The shared values between the organisation and an employee are identified as strong predictors of JS which subsequently results in favourable outcomes for the organisation in achieving goals (Latif & Bashir 2013:385; Habib, Kamran & Jamal 2015:30).

Thus, JS becomes powerfully disposed by employees' assessment of task performance and organisational factors. Employees who perceive their values as consistently aligned to those of the organisation are likely to enjoy their work and possibly improve their performance. The emphasis is more on employees' perception than the actual fit because it was established that effects are consistently stronger for perceived compared to actual POF (De Cooman, De Gieter & Hofmans 2010:4).

## 2.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused mainly on providing the theoretical aspects of the three-identified employee fit dimensions namely: PJF, PEF and POF, deliberation of various definitions and presentation of models of employee fit dimensions. The review of the literature discussed the effect employee fit dimensions have on JS and the value of employee perceptions about the organisation they are working for. The review established that fit theories revolves around PEF theories. The literature also confirmed the level of importance attached to shared values between an applicant and an organisation in making an offer and its acceptance thereof. When PJF, PEF and POF measures are considered during the recruitment process, such measures are perceived to be able to provide robust information about JS levels as well as turnover risks before a hiring decision is made. Thus, it is important for an organisation to be the position of being able to assess the risks involved in hiring a person with a known probability of increased JS and ITS with the organisation. In organisations that do not have a vigorous recruitment process in place, interviewers base their employment decisions on either the qualifications, experience or performance during the interview or the attractiveness of a candidate.

It can also be argued that fit dimensions do not provide a guarantee on productivity from the employee's part, however, they increase opportunities for a healthy working environment and good interpersonal working relationships with other colleagues. The literature also provided an unequivocal conclusion that the fit dimensions lead to improved JS, however, JS does not automatically translate to productivity.

The chapter that follows focuses on JS and its impact on OCB.



## **CHAPTER 3**

### **JOB SATISFACTION**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter traced the inception and developments of person fit dimensions identified in this study, with specific reference to theories, models, definitions and the correlation between PJF dimensions and JS.

This chapter will focus on the theoretical aspects of JS. The discussion will focus on the clarification of the concepts, theories and models, approaches as well as dimensions. An assessment or analysis on the impact of JS on the organisation and individual employee was undertaken.

#### **3.2 DEFINITION OF JOB SATISFACTION**

The construct JS features prominently in many discussions and scientific studies especially in the field of human resource management, industrial psychology or organisational behaviour, nursing, economics and sociology. Given that there are several perspectives of JS provided by various scholars in their pursuit to describe job satisfaction, different definitions of JS are provided that will assist in providing guidance on how the concept should be defined in the context of this study.

The popular definition of JS can be traced back to the studies of Fisher and Hanna in 1931 where they described JS as a product of non-regulatory mood tendency (Zhu 2013:293). Locke (1969:328) takes a step further and defines job satisfaction as a “pleasurable and positive emotional state of feeling resulting from the job, thus fulfilling individuals’ value towards their job”.

Chimanikire, Mutandwa, Gadzirayi, Muzondo and Mutandwa (2007:167) view JS as “the quality of work life as experienced by employees and the condition that could be promoted by social responsibility programs executed by their employer”. According to Man, Modrak, Dima and Pachura (2011:8), JS is defined as “a general expression of workers’ positive attitudes built up towards their job, which is maintained because of diverse features of their job, social status gained about their jobs and experienced in their job environment”.

Generally, there is a clear consensus on the definition of JS from the collection of various scholars (Aziri 2011:78; Hajdukova, Klementova & Klementova 2015:472; Lee, Yang & Li 2017:497 and Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu 2020:9). Their consensus is that JS largely refers to affective and cognitive (attitude) reaction resulting from the job holders' comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired (expected or deserved). However, for this study the definition of job satisfaction is derived from Hoppock (1935:47) who describes JS as a tripartite phenomenon consisting of, "any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person to be joyous about their jobs and surroundings". This definition postulates that JS is influenced by subjective evaluation, psychological and physical (intrinsic) factors of the job as well as environmental factors (extrinsic).

### **3.3 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Since JS has been studied extensively, a variety of theories and models were developed by various researchers in different fields of studies. Notable in all different theories and models of JS is the strong overlap with theories explaining human motivation and person fit within organisations. These theories were developed, then either supported or rejected by other researchers in the field of work motivation and behavioural research. A number of these theories are very interesting and make sense depending on what was studied and the purpose thereof. Only those theories and models that will assist in addressing and answering the research questions of this study were reviewed. In doing so, only scholarly and validated theories and models formed the basis of this study.

Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weid (cited in Motowidlo, Dowel, Hopp, Borman, Johnson and Dunnette 1976:4) divide JS theories into two groups, namely content and process theories. This study focused on both groups as they serve as a basis for the evolution of JS and motivation research in the field of organisational behaviour and education. Content theories account for factors that influence JS where the emphasis is on factors and needs that propel employees' behaviour as well as their performance. Kian, *et al.* (2014:94) refers to content theories as motivation theories focusing on employees' internal factors that energise them and direct their work behaviour.

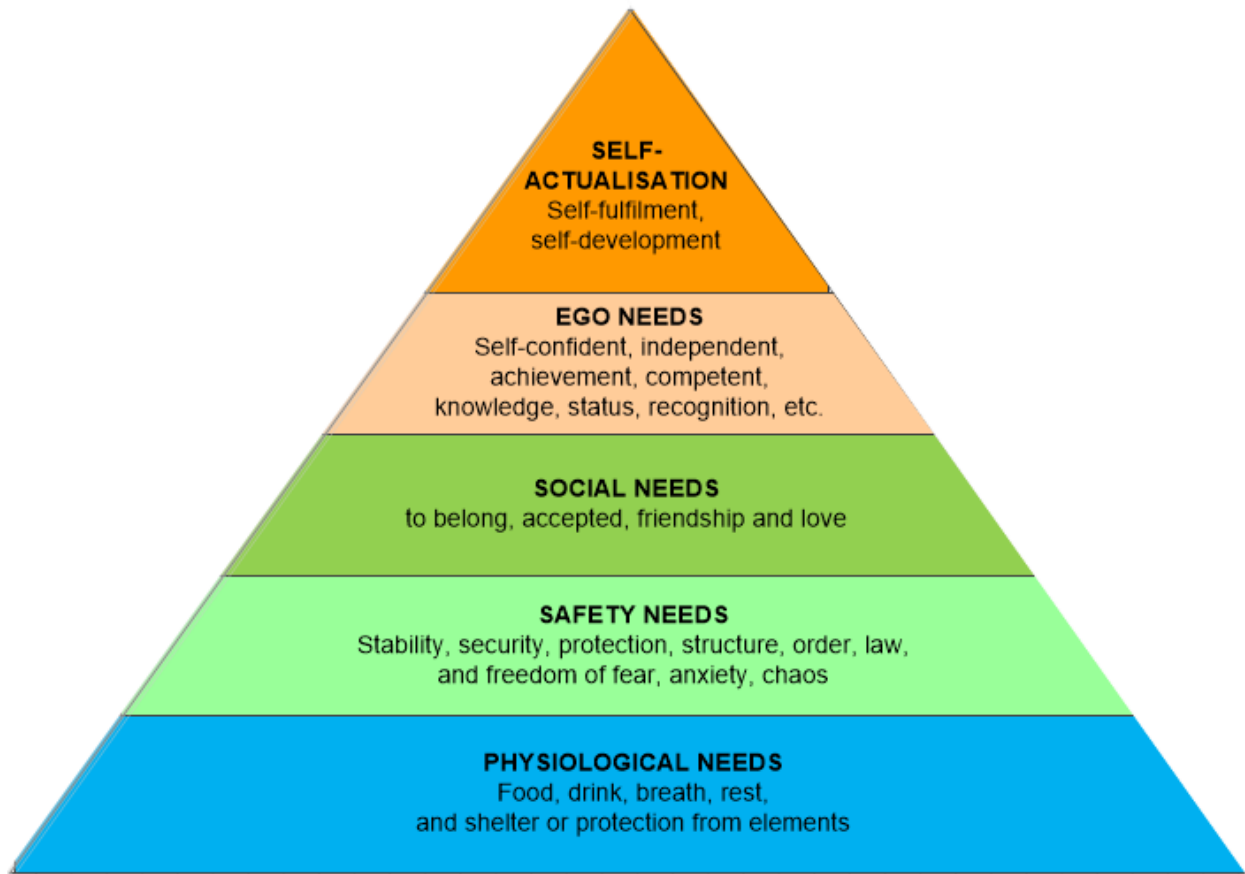
While process theories account for the process by which variables such as needs, values and expectations associated with the characteristics of the job produce JS, the extent to which the employees' needs are met becomes a focal point that determines the satisfaction of an individual with his/her job.

### **3.3.1 Content theories**

Content theories are described as those theories that focus on identifying specific factors that stimulate an employee to work (Govender 2013:21). These theories are often referred to as the needs theories because they focus on an employee's personal needs and motives (growth and self-actualisation). Govender (2013) identifies Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg two-factor theory of motivation, McClelland's achievement theory of needs and Alderfer's ERG model as the most recognised content theories.

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

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory was developed by Maslow in the early 1940's and was classified as content theory. According to Johnson (2004:11), Maslow's theory is regarded as the most widely studied and accepted descriptor of human needs. According to Huitt (2007:1), Maslow presented a hierarchy of human needs based on two groupings: deficiency needs and growth needs. These human needs were arranged in a relatively explicit hierarchical fashion of five levels based on the principles of pre-potency. The first four levels on the hierarchy represent the deficiency needs which need to be fulfilled before a person can act unselfishly. The last level of the hierarchy represents being needs, which is a person in a self-actualisation mode. Figure 3.1 illustrates Maslow's needs hierarchy.



**Figure 3.1: Maslow's needs hierarchy**

**Source:** Motowidlo, Dowel, Hopp, Borman, Johnson and Dunnettee (1976:4).

Maslow's theory presupposes that the physiological and safety need aspect in the hierarchy must be fulfilled before any other need as per their arrangement in the hierarchy can be satisfied. The implication of Maslow's theory is that gratification is equally important as deprivation in motivation. A need in the hierarchy that remains unfulfilled is presumed to hamper an employee's work progress, while a satisfied need positively contributes towards JS.

According to McGregor (1967:276), Seguin (1997:11) and Abdel-Khalek (2016:5) the ego needs are categorised into those that are related to a person's self-esteem: (self-confidence, independence, achievement, competence and knowledge) and those related to a person's reputation (status, recognition, appreciation and respect from fellow employees). The ego needs are alleged to be attainable through performance investments, implying that employers should be cognisant of the fact that providing rewards related to higher order needs based on performance is motivational on its own. Seguin (1997:13) states that failure by organisations to meet these needs would produce

feelings of inferiority, weakness and helplessness leading to discouragement and potentially neurotic behaviours.

As much as Maslow's theory received wide recognition in human motivation studies, the theory was equally criticised by other scholars. The notable criticisms are those of Alderfer (1967:510), Lawler and Suttle (1972:266), Barling (1977:8) and Beck (2000:31). Their criticisms are based on the notion that each person is unique and has his or her own hierarchy of motivation and that this hierarchy is driven by the individuals' choices. These scholars are of the view that employees derive satisfaction from their actual on-the-job experience which influences their future behaviours. Green, Finkel, Fitzsimons and Gino (2017:4) argue that because fulfilment of one level of needs activates the higher-level need, an employee with an unfulfilled need will remain unsatisfied making long-term JS unlikely in terms of this theory.

### **3.3.1.2 Herzberg's two factor theory of motivation**

Herzberg, in his two-factor theory of motivation, labelled certain factors as satisfiers while others were labelled as dissatisfiers (Motowidlo, *et al.*, 1976:8; Ozsoy 2019:11). Herzberg and his colleagues interviewed 200 engineers and accountants representing a cross-section of the Pittsburgh industry concerning their job attitudes. Their interest was in knowing what people wanted from their jobs for them to remain motivated and satisfied (Khalid 2016:4). The information obtained related to occasions when the engineers and accountants felt exceptionally good and exceptionally bad towards their jobs.

The Herzberg two-factor theory of motivation contains two dimensions, namely the hygiene (extrinsic) and motivator (intrinsic) factors (Hamman-Fisher 2008:20; Almohtasib, Bergström & Nguyen 2020:14). The assumption presented by this theory is that the motivators account for higher motivational levels, give intrinsic satisfaction and present the need for self-actualisation and growth. The motivators were based on personal perceptions about the job tasks, job content, experience, achievement, responsibility, change of status resulting from promotions and other intrinsic aspects of the job that could lead to satisfaction. Almohtasib *et al.* (2020:14) posit that, if an organisation fails to provide employees with the motivators, individuals will be dissatisfied.

Sithiphand (1983:8) explains the motivation-hygiene factors using explicit descriptions as follows:

### **a) Motivators**

**Growth** – include the opportunities and possibilities of an individual being moved upwards within the organisation. This also includes advancing one's skills in their profession. Good employees are determined, eager, enthusiastic and ambitious and are always looking for better opportunities to grow, to acquire more knowledge, learn new skills, widen their network and further challenge themselves with different positions. Thus according to Nguyen (2017:17) providing employees with jobs that are stimulating is essential in increasing the levels of motivation.

**Advancement** – this applies only when there is an actual change in a person's position or status within the organisation, **for example** this comes in a form of being promoted to higher position, having higher salary and more benefits in the company.

**Responsibility** – employee participation may improve motivation and job satisfaction through power sharing and increased responsibility. Njambi (2014:14) encourages employers to allow employees opportunities to make key managerial decisions that have an impact on other employees in order for them to experience an increase on the level of job satisfaction and performance.

**Work itself** – this refers to when the actual performance of the job or its component tasks are considered as a source of how employees feel about their jobs, whether good or bad. Getachew (2020:16) argues that employees might absolutely love their jobs, be satisfied with their pay and enjoy a good working relationship with their colleagues but still find the work itself completely boring and uninspiring. Happy employees remain with an organisation for what they stand to benefit unlike people who prefer work that is interesting and that also allows them engage with it.

**Recognition** - the emphasis is on some act of recognition or notice in which praise or blame is involved. Effective recognition enhances employee motivation and increases employee productivity which Roberts (2005:4) argues that there is a close relationship between the two constructs.

**Achievement** – relates to the flexibility of the job that allows for the successful completion of a job solution of problems or the visible results of one's work. Employees who are eager to succeed and attain excellence are self-motivated and require less effort from management to inspire them.

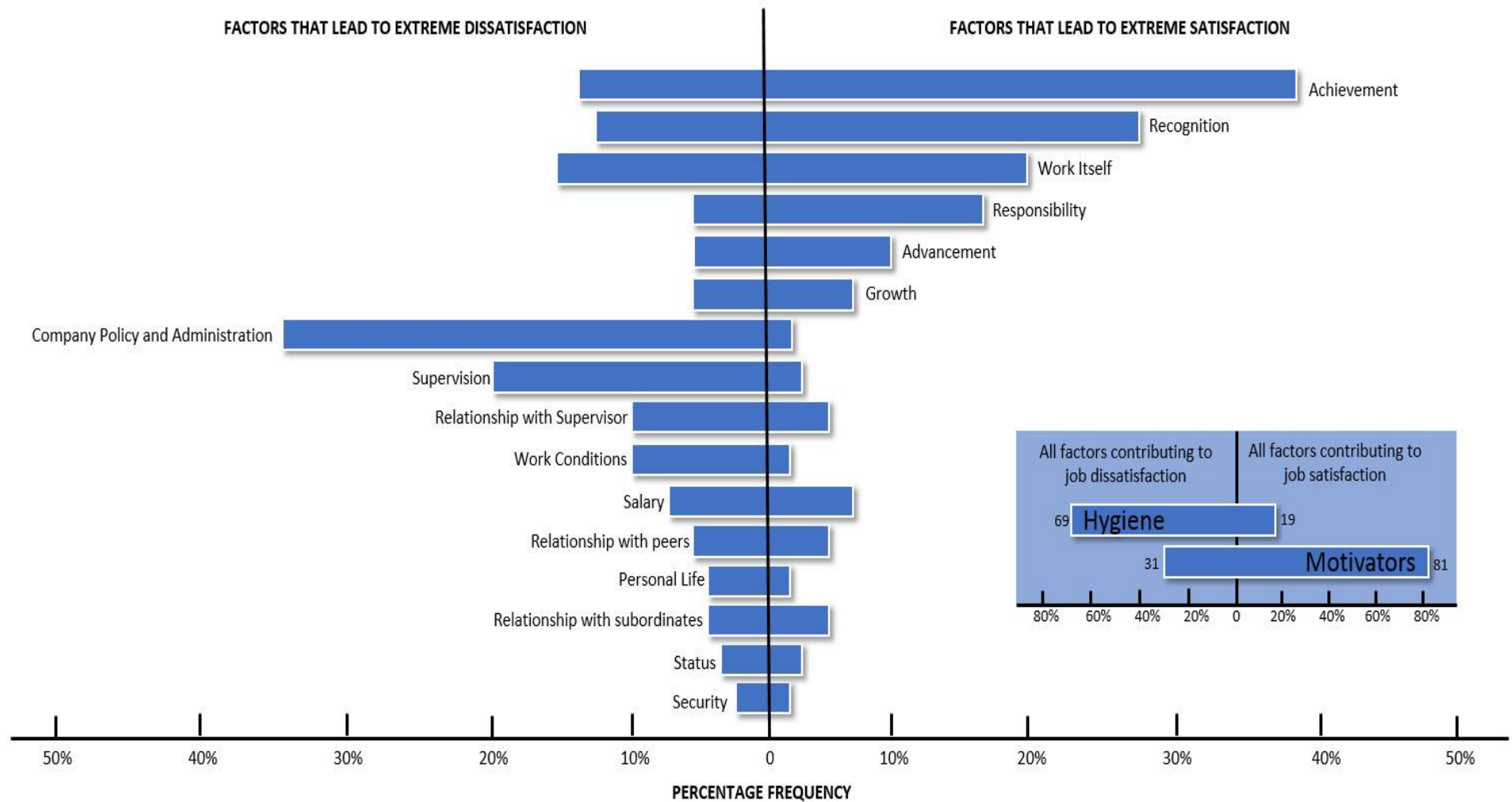
## **b) Hygiene factors**

- Security – this category refers to continued employment with the same employer. There are several factors contributing to job insecurity such as economic recession, information technology, restructuring and increased global competition. Workers who have a sense of insecurity are likely to experience less satisfaction with their jobs than those who perceive their employment to be secured.
- Status – refers to the feeling an employee has about his or her new job or position. This could take the form of (a) getting a secretary in one's new position (b) being allowed to drive company cars, and / or have people reporting to you.
- Salary – salary includes the entire progression in which compensation plays a role. This includes salary or wage increments and unfulfilled expectations of salary increases. Paying employees, a competitive wage will up to a certain extent increase their job satisfaction level.
- Working conditions – this category includes the physical conditions at work, the quantity of work activities and the availability of facilities to do a job.
- Interpersonal relations – this refers to the interaction (actual verbalisation) between the person speaking and others listening. This interaction takes place in three major categories:
  - i) Interpersonal relations – superior
  - ii) Interpersonal relations – subordinate
  - iii) Interpersonal relations – peers
- Supervision – focuses on the competence or incompetence, fairness or unfairness of the supervisors. Also, to be included in this category is the supervisor's willingness or unwillingness to delegate responsibilities and train workers.
- Company policy and administration – this describes the components of a sequence of events in which some component of the overall aspects of the organisation is a factor. Sithiphand (1983:9) categorises company policy and administration into the adequacy or inadequacy of an organisation and its management and the detrimental or beneficial effects of the organisation's policies and primary human resource policies.

The hygiene or maintenance factors, which are presumed to evoke unhappiness within a working environment include supervision, interpersonal relations, benefits, job security, company policy and management, physical working conditions, recognition and management (Tech-Hong & Waheed 2011:75; Unutmaz 2014:16). These are environmental elements alleged to prevent job dissatisfaction, but still have no positive effect on JS. These hygiene factors serve as a stepping-stone for motivation.

The comparison of satisfiers and dissatisfiers is depicted in Figure 3.2.





**Figure 3.2: The comparison of satisfiers and dissatisfiers**

**Source:** Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009:147)

The comparison between satisfiers and dissatisfiers in Figure 3.2 was conducted by Backer at the South African timber industry in 1979 by replicating Herzberg's study that was done in 1959 (Robbins *et al.*, 2009:147). Similar questions that were asked by Herzberg were asked by Backer in his study in 1979. In both studies, similar motivators and hygiene factors caused satisfaction and dissatisfaction respectively. The studies revealed that responses given by employees when they felt good about their jobs were visibly different compared to when they felt bad. Figure 3.2 illustrates that certain characteristics are consistently related to JS (motivators/intrinsic factors) while others are related to job dissatisfaction (hygiene/extrinsic factors). The concept JS is related to the quality of the job, which is responsible for facilitating personal growth and development.

The Herzberg two factor theory of motivation fits the environment in which this study is conducted in a sense that Herzberg's original study involved a group of educated people as his population in the form of engineers and accountants. The results of that study produced the motivator factors and hygiene factors of motivation. Equally, the study that was conducted by Backer in 1979 involved educated and uneducated employees (Robbins *et al.*, 2009:146). The results of the study from the category of the educated population correlated with those of Herzberg 1959, while the results from the uneducated black population indicated that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were caused by hygiene factors only. This was caused mainly because the employees had no exposure to motivators (Robbins *et al.*, 2009:146). With reference to this study, it should be noted that the primary objective of local municipalities is to deliver services to society. With a highly motivated and satisfied workforce, municipal employees would be able to put more effort into their jobs and realise the purpose of their existence.

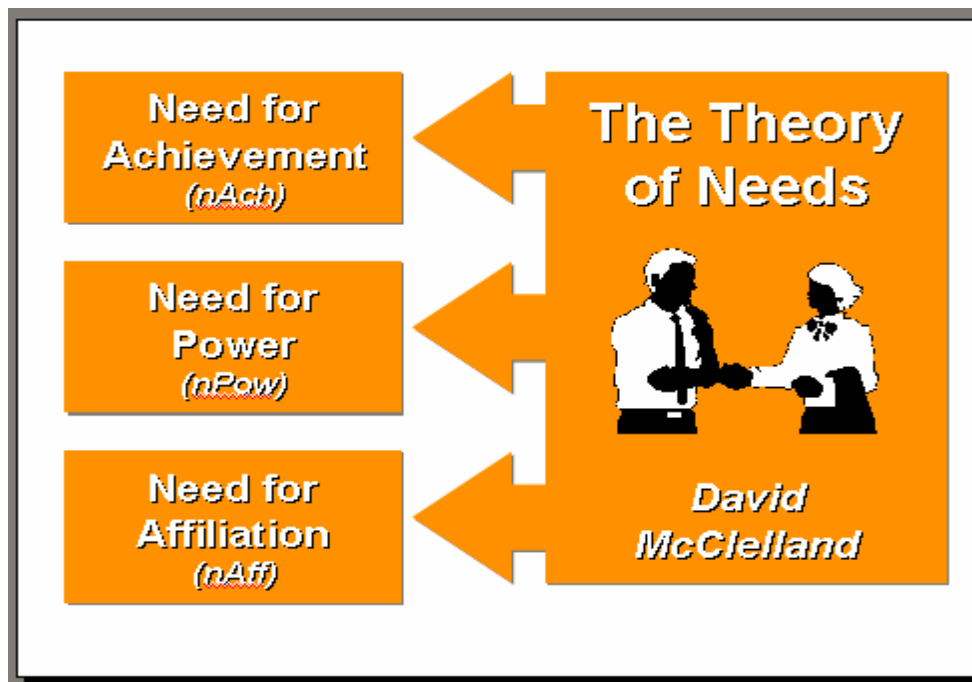
Although Herzberg's two factor theory of motivation has gained widespread acceptance amongst managers due to the reasoning that the theory made good intuitive sense and assists in understanding JS and related job performances, critics of the theory have highlighted three factors that include the basic assumptions of the study, its methodology and findings of the study (Sanjeev & Surya 2016:5). Other researchers have alluded to the fact that the theory oversimplified work motivation and ignored other factors that leads to both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction (Ozsoy 2019:13; Almohtasib, *et al.*, 2020:15). Other criticisms levelled against the theory relate to:

- the procedure that Herzberg used is limited by its methodology. When things are going well, people tend to take credit themselves. Contrary, they blame failure on the extrinsic environment (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd 2005:933; Hendricks 2014:31).
- Herzberg's assumption a relationship between satisfaction and productivity, but the research methodology Herzberg used considered only satisfaction and not at productivity. To make such research relevant, one must assume a strong relationship between satisfaction and productivity (Khalid:2016:6).
- the theory did not consider individual differences. For example, close supervision may be resented by some yet welcomed by others (Martin & Fellenz 2010:165).
- the reliability of Herzberg's methodology is questioned. Raters need to make interpretations, so they may contaminate the findings by interpreting one response in one manner while treating a similar response differently (Robbins, Judge, Millet & Water-Marsh 2008:185)
- data did not show a clear dichotomisation of incidents into hygiene and motivation factors. For example, employees almost equally classify pay as a hygiene factor and a motivation factor (Quick & Nelson 2011:153).

Regardless of all the criticisms meted out towards the Herzberg two factor theory of motivation, Quick and Nelson (2011:153) assert that they do not invalidate the theory.

### **3.3.1.3 McClelland's theory of needs**

The theory of needs (learned) popularly known as McClelland's theory of needs was developed by McClelland in 1961 and reviewed in 1975 and 1985 respectively (Pardee 1990:14). The McClelland's theory is believed to be one of the most ubiquitous and pragmatic in personality organisational scholarship (Royle & Hall 2012:25). McClelland's theory is associated with learning concepts in a sense that needs are learned through coping with one's environment, thus, proposing that the stronger the need in a person, the more the desire to exert more effort towards attaining the need. Once a person has learned that achievement of goals is rewarding, such behaviour is expected to recur at a higher frequency (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly 1979:112). McClelland's theory of needs is shown in Figure 3.3.



**Figure 3.3: McClelland's theory of needs**

**Source:** Robbins (2001)

Furthermore, McClelland's theory proposes the need for affiliation, need for power and need for achievement as employees' basic drivers for motivation. The theory acknowledges that employees differ in terms of their needs for achievement, affiliation and power. These motivation drivers are also mentioned by Maslow in the hierarchy of needs. However, McClelland's theory differs from Maslow's theory because the needs are not arranged in any hierarchical order through which an employee must move. The need for achievement involves a persons' desire to excel independently with respect to established standards (Quick & Nelson 2011:148). The implication is that these needs not only motivate individuals, but are concerned with how well goals and objectives are achieved beyond the set standards. The theory further acknowledges the challenges and competitions to be faced by employees. However, the persistence of an individual employee towards overcoming these difficulties is of utmost importance to the theory.

People with a high need for achievement arguably perform far better than those with a moderate or low need for achievement. The theory identified individuals with a high need for achievement as people who share the following three unique characteristics (Quick & Nelson 2011:149).

- setting goals that are moderately difficult yet achievable. They draw satisfaction from the fact that they are personally responsible for finding solutions to problems.

- taking moderately achievable goals and calculated risk. They do not appreciate interference of any form with their progress towards their set goals, and
- preferring to receive concrete feedback on their progress towards their goals.

Brunstein and Maier (2005:206) observe separate but interrelated dimensions of achievement needs as explicit and implicit motives. Explicit motives are demonstrated by deliberate but devoted choice in behaviour, whereas, implicit motives invigorate spontaneous impulses to act (Bender, Woike, Burke & Dow 2012:374; Royle & Hall 2012:26). On the contrary, employees with low self-esteem or low achievement needs tend to be more content with jobs that provide little challenge than jobs that have a high possibility of success. This implies that exposing individuals who have low self-esteem to challenging jobs will frustrate them and subsequently lead to a drop in performance. The opposite can also be a possibility where individuals with low self-esteem will rise to the occasion and produce results beyond their expectations when exposed to complex and challenging jobs.

This is because they do not want to disappoint those who showed confidence and hope in their capabilities, which is one aspect that has not been explored. The need for power relates to the desire to be influential and make an impact on other peoples' lives. Powerful individuals try to make those around them behave in a manner they would like them to or in a manner that they would not have behaved had it not been for their influence (Robbins *et al.*, 2008:186). Venter and Levy (2011:15) view power as distinct with dictatorship in a sense that power impact positively on others and equally improve their effectiveness within the working environment. This is contrary to behaviours that oppress the views and livelihood of others.

The need for affiliation is concerned with the desire to establish and maintain close and friendly relationships. People with a high need for affiliation tend to spend a considerable amount of time expressing their emotions and feelings towards others and expect of them to do the same (Royle & Hall 2012:27). Although the need for affiliation received less critical scholarly attention compared to achievement and power needs, it is worth noting that during social interaction people exchange valuable information and experiences about how to behave in a given situation. This is crucial particularly in the development of novice researchers and future leaders who are overwhelmed by fear of making mistakes. Belonging to a social or any other club provides a platform where people can

ask questions and voice their frustrations with people who are capable of providing guidance without feeling undermined.

### 3.3.2 Process theory

The Process theory is described as a system of ideas that explains and analyses how behaviours are energised, directed, sustained and stopped (McSweeney & Swindell 1999:438).

The Expectancy Model was developed by Vroom in 1964 explaining the motivation process (Alsemer 2016:36). The model contains different significant implications on employee motivation. Vroom's Expectancy Model was based on the pretext that an individual will perform a certain act on the perception or expectation that the outcome will satisfy their needs. The model uses three major concepts: force (effort), performance and outcome (valence) to substantiate its existence (Martin & Fellenz 2010:166). Motivation according to the model is dependent on the notion that if the value of the outcome is high and the employee views the task to be undertaken as achievable and will lead to the expected outcome an employee is likely to take the risk and put more effort into achieving the goal hoping that s/he will be compensated later (Luddy 2005:31).

#### 3.3.2.1 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Figure 3.4 represents Vroom's Expectancy Model.

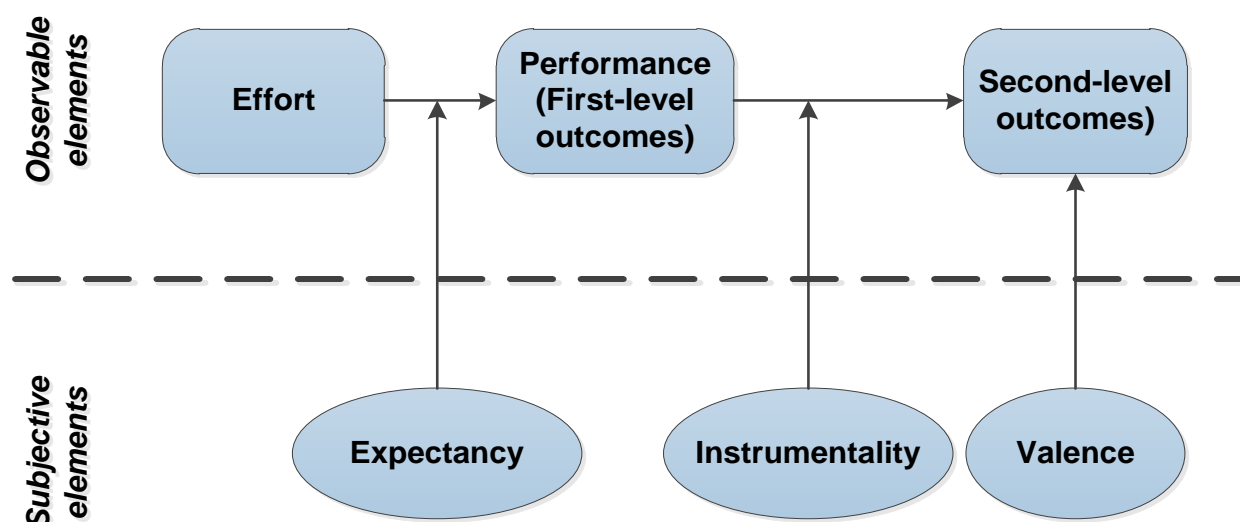


Figure 3.4: Vroom's Expectancy Model

**Source:** Martin and Fellenz (2010:166)

Valence is affectively oriented towards a particular outcome; a positive valence is when a person wants to achieve a goal; while a negative valence refers to when a person prefers not to attain a goal because the motivation is not encouraging. This implies that some outcomes are preferred while others are not preferred because of what they stand to satisfy. The model emphasises that if an individual believes that a particular behaviour is critical to attain certain crucial outcomes, the individual will adjust his or her behaviour in line with the requirements of attaining the goal.

Martin and Fellenz (2010:166) identify the six elements that are central to the model as effort, first-level outcomes, second-level outcomes, expectancy, instrumentality and valence as discussed below.

- **Effort:** Refers to the actual energy a person is expected to apply that will enable him or her to reach a specified target (performance or first level outcome).
- **First-level outcomes:** Refers to immediate results of the effort being made by a person resulting from behavioural adjustment in relation to the work itself. This happens in various ways depending on the nature of the job and project to be completed. This is measured by comparing expected outcomes as a set standard or as per client need versus the quality of the completed task.
- **Second- level outcome:** Depending on the satisfaction level for delivering on the earlier made commitment, individuals get rewarded at this level. For example, exceeding or production of the highest level that translates to massive financial gain (first-level outcome) may generate a bonus (second-level outcome). Should employees not be rewarded after successfully completing a task as per their expectations not as per their agreement, such behaviour is not likely to be repeated to the detriment of the organisation. This, according to Martin and Fellenz (2010:167), is caused by companies not having incentive schemes in place successful accomplishment of tasks is viewed as a primary responsibility of every employee.
- **Expectancy:** Classified under subjective elements, expectation refers to the subjective assessment of probabilities that a particular level of effort will lead to the specific performance. The working place is so unpredictable to such an extent that, so many things can cause disappointment; for example, breakdown of machines and little effort from colleagues. However, the strength of the theory lies in self-efficacy. The determination and self-belief of an individual employee becomes a source of strength

and courage (Axelrod 2017:5). Other factors that influence a person's expectancy perception Hamman-Fisher (2008:36) are:

- ✓ self-esteem
  - ✓ previous success at the task or similar tasks
  - ✓ support from others (supervisors, subordinates and or colleagues
  - ✓ access to information
  - ✓ sufficient materials and working tools.
- Instrumentality.

instrumentality serves as a fortuitous link between the first level and second level outcomes. If the imagination of attaining a set goal leads to satisfactory outcomes for an employee, instrumentality is activated at the highest level (Moloantoa 2015:25).

- Valence.

Valence takes the shape of three different forms, it can be positive, neutral or negative (Alsemer 2016:326). According to Turcan (2010:46) if the valence is positive it predicts achievement, if negative it means the individual wishes to avoid the outcome. A neutral valence means that the outcomes do not have motivational aspects.

Criticism levelled against the expectancy theory is that it is based on assumptions (calculations), people in general do not think about the probability of effort resulting in performance and performance resulting in positive outcome (Maharaj 2011:12). Furthermore, the Model failed to address the changes that come with time, especially when realising that a specific outcome does not provide them with the satisfaction they expected.

### **3.4 DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Establishing factors that affect JS has been a complex issue for years and has remained like that for obvious reasons that people are different and therefore they are satisfied by different things. The role JS plays in organisations has prompted a considerable interest from researchers to investigate amongst other things factors that determine JS (Yuen, Loh, Zhou & Wong 2018:3). By studying the antecedents of JS, it enables a researcher to identify key determinants of JS. Factors affecting JS are generally addressed under



two main categories, namely: organisational causes (extrinsic) and personal causes (intrinsic). Gautam (2016:50) and Gautam and Phil (2016:45) assembled the following determinants of JS within an organisation:

### **3.4.1 Organisational factors: Extrinsic sources of job satisfaction**

#### **3.4.1.1 Remuneration packages**

Salaries and benefits are identified as critical components of JS because they serve as a reflection of self-worth (Moloantoa 2015:29). Previous studies have continuously supported the long-established positive relationship between salary and JS (Young, Milner, Edmunds, Pentsil & Broman 2014:3). Chaudhry, Sabir, Rafi and Kalyar (2011:2) and Bhardwaj, Mishra and Jain (2020:3) suggest that salary satisfaction influences employee involvement on the job, work inspiration, performance and motivation. There is evidence supported by the literature and empirical studies that suggest that high levels of JS are associated with salaries and benefits (Rabbanee, Yasmin & Mamun 2012:30). It can also be argued that JS is a function of a combination of factors; and that no empirical evidence available suggest that good pay alone improves JS. Therefore, the notion that salary alone improves JS cannot be left unchallenged hence Herzberg classified remuneration and pay under hygiene factor that can lead to a person experiencing dissatisfaction, providing no association with satisfaction (Moloantoa 2015:29).

#### **3.4.1.2 Working conditions**

Working conditions describe a compatible working environment that provides employees with physical comfort which facilitates the execution of tasks well and contributes towards JS (Bakotic & Babic 2013:213). The conditions under which jobs are executed form part of organisational factors that management has control over. These conditions vary between those that are completely comfortable and acceptable to those that present danger and threaten the health and safety of employees. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act No75 of 1997 of the Republic of South Africa provides the basic conditions of employment for both the public and private sectors (BCEA 1997). Health and safety working conditions are the primary responsibility of employers regulated by the Occupational Health and Safety Act No 85 of 1993 of the Republic of South Africa, which reads: "Every employer shall provide and maintain, as far as is reasonably

practicable, a working environment that is safe and without risk to the health of his employees” (OHSA, 1993:13).

Marcia-Garcia, Bonavia and Losilla (2011:2053) and Bhardwaj, *et al.* (2020:3) enlisted the following organisational features presumed to influence JS: working hours, noise, ventilation, cleanliness of the workplace, adequate tools and equipment unfavourable posture during work, work schedules and excessive strain. Extremely bad working conditions are purported to result in employee dissatisfaction and poor-quality work (Bakotic & Babic 2013:207). Some studies suggest that working conditions significantly influence JS (Parvin & Kabir 2011:116; Mishra 2013:46; Mohajane 2017:27). Ntisa (2015:14) further explains that when a friendly working environment is created, employees become happier and productive and ultimately experience an improvement in JS.

#### **3.4.1.3 Company policies, administration and procedures**

Sound, effective and efficient workplace policies, administration and procedures have never been more important than they are in the current ever-changing workplace. Abdulla (2009:91) defines organisational policies as principles and practices dealing with the ongoing management and administration of the organisation in order to achieve objectives by following broad patterns of behaviour. The perception (positive or bad) employees have about organisational policies and procedures, whether unambiguous or fair which are followed within the organisation can either increase or drop job satisfactory levels (Dugguh & Dennis 2014:13). For instance, if policies afford employees with opportunities to use their discretion and initiatives in the discharge of their duties, the more satisfied the employees become.

Organisational policies and administration elements that impact employees’ job satisfaction are outlined as follows:

##### **a) Decentralisation**

Decentralisation describes a situation where decision making powers reside in several people or divisions as opposed to the one where power is centralised to one person or just a handful (Willem, Buelens & De Jonghe 2006:1013). A workplace that provides employees with decision making powers increases their level of JS caused by the belief that they have some level of influence over their jobs such as responsibility and autonomy

(Abdulla 2009:92). This is confirmed by Lambert, Paoline and Hogan (2006:41) who found that centralisation of power had negatively impacted on JS.

#### b) Ethics, moral and values

Ethics and values are basic convictions that a specific mode or way of conduct is socially or personally preferred to a converse mode of conduct (Abdulla 2009:92). Moral values contain a judgmental element in that they carry an individuals' ideas as to what is right, good, or desirable (Thomas 2013:18). Thus, people tend to conform to what is considered personally and societally acceptable. According to Cheteni and Shindika (2017:3) the challenges faced by the millennium generation that organisations need to take into consideration are ethics, morals and values. Organisational values and morals do not only assist organisations to attract a talent pool of employees, but also help in instilling organisational pride, influences JS and work behaviour towards achieving organisational goals (Arshad & Imran 2016:961). Abdulla (2009:92) posits that organisations that engage in immoral activities against the moral values of workers' risk experiencing an increase in job dissatisfaction and increased labour turnover.

Ntisa (2015:39) observes that numerous resources have been dedicated to drafting sound organisational policies. However, these policies are not properly communicated and in some instances, employees were never given an opportunity to make inputs. The involvement of employees in policy development is not only perceived as increasing JS but also improves ownership and commitment to those policies (Ehlers & Lazenby 2011:344). Developed policies need to be reviewed in consultation with employees timeously to keep up with latest practices and development as this helps in establishing an internal positive working climate that increases JS.

#### **3.4.1.4 Job security**

Dugguh and Dennis (2014:13) define job security as freedom from job insecurity or danger of layoffs, harassment, discrimination and bullying. With the escalating use of labour brokers in South Africa over the past two decades, where the traditional full-time, permanent and employer-employee relationship has been externalised, job insecurity rates and uncertainty has overwhelmed job seekers. Employees or job seekers have been at the receiving end of the exploitation and uncertainty brought about by the practice of labour brokering (Van Eck 2010:3). Job security in the South African context is viewed

as the most influential factor of JS and alleged to have a strong psychological impact on those affected (Alsemer 2016:111).

Long-term threats to job security are perceived to have dire consequences on the overall economic life situation and other highly valued aspects of life of the employees. The use of labour brokers, outsourcing and temporary employment is practiced across industries and job dissatisfaction levels in organisations where labour brokering is practiced are reportedly high (Dugguh & Dennis 2014:13; Sene & Nkomo 2015:60). Job satisfaction levels have been reportedly high in organisations where job security has been prioritised by management (Abdulla 2009:93). One can anticipate that emanating from the improved JS levels, employees are likely to exhibit behaviours (OCB) that are crucial in advancing the organisation's mission and objectives, although this is a hypothesis that is yet to be established later in the study.

#### **3.4.1.5 Supervision**

The relationship between employees and bosses matters far more for employee JS than any other factor (Artz, Goodall & Oswald 2016:2; Bhardwaj, *et al.*, 2020:3). Supervisors make a significant contribution towards the success and failure of organisations as well as the decisions employees make about their continued employment or quitting of the organisation (Mohajane 2017:29). The popular adage that, "people join companies and quit/leave their supervisors" has been proven empirically valid (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursiere & Raymond 2016:114). Irrespective of the shared vision and desire to last longer with an organisation, employees will leave if they sense that their relationship with the supervisor or leadership style of the supervisor is not good for them.

A supervisor's leadership style as well as his or her technical and tactical knowledge is crucial in determining levels of JS in a workplace. Supervisors who were observed establishing a supportive personal relationship with subordinates and taking a personal interest in their development, promotions and career advancement directly contribute to their employees' satisfaction (Ahmad, Ing & Bujang 2014:1761).

Packard and Kauppi (1999) in Luddy (2005:47) established that supervisors who display democratic management style to their subordinates have resulted in those employees experiencing higher levels of JS and respect compared to those employees whose supervisors displayed autocratic or laissez-faire leadership style. Unutmaz (2014:24) pointed out at communication between supervisors and subordinates as another

contributor to the attitude and behaviour of employees towards their work. Effective supervisors and communication are alleged to have a positive influence on employees' attitude, happiness and improvement in JS (Proctor 2014:4).

### **3.4.2 Personal factors: Intrinsic sources of job satisfaction**

#### **3.4.2.1 Relationships with co-workers**

Maintaining good working relationship with co-workers is another significant aspect of JS and part of a conducive working environment (Danish & Usman 2010:162). Good working relationships promotes smooth communication and facilitate effective teamwork towards achieving organisational goals (Mohajane 2017:25). Interpersonal relationships emanate from Maslow's hierarchy of needs when pointing out the social need of employees. Onyebounyi (2016:33) postulates that the more an employee or person feels accepted by colleagues within the workplace, the more the psychological needs of that person improve.

Employees who struggle to associate with co-workers find it difficult to share valuable company information and personal experiences that could possibly move the organisation forward (Issah 2013:20). Thus, management needs to encourage a culture of trustworthy, honest and open communication throughout the organisation. Sias and Cahill (1998:279) posit that an open and honest communication with your employees and colleagues enhances oneness, dependability and mutual trust.

#### **3.4.2.2 Promotion opportunities**

Studies conducted by various groups of researchers established that growth opportunities found within an organisation can to some extent influence job satisfaction levels of employees (Danish & Usman 2010:159; Zainudin, Junaidah, & Nazmi 2010:45 and Mustapha & Zakaria 2013:23). According to Zhang, Jinpeng and Khan (2020:4), promotions provide employees with opportunities for personal growth, autonomy and increased job responsibilities. Although various studies have presented evidence that suggest that promotional opportunities are positively and significantly related to JS, it should also be noted that similarly, promotional opportunities alone cannot singlehandedly improve JS. However, if opportunities are available while at the same time ensuring that determinants of JS are met, JS improves. On the contrary, lack of promotional opportunities is found to be frustrating and demoralising but does not lead to

dissatisfaction because job satisfaction is a product of a combination of factors (Odembo 2013:26).

The relationship between promotion and JS is seen as dependent on employees' perception of equity (Luddy 2005:48). As Lehman (2014:9) puts it "only promotional opportunities that are viewed by employees as good and handled fairly by management positively influences JS". A working environment that subject its employees to the same position and provides no promotion opportunities leaving employees stuck in those positions for a longer period increases job dissatisfaction (Lehman 2014:9). Employees commit to their work and put in extra effort hoping that management will notice their dedication and reward them with promotion, which is often hampered by non-existence of promotion policies and fair practices (Govender 2013:14). Thus, organisations need to put in place unquestionable advancement policies, succession planning and fair practices if they are to succeed in sustaining job satisfaction levels of their workforce and continuously attract the best talent to the organisation (Naveed, Usman & Bushra 2011:301).

#### **3.4.2.3 Recognition**

Recognition is described as non-monetary appreciation and acknowledgement employees wish to get from their employers, supervisors, peers, other superiors and personalities in the organisation (Akafo & Boateng 2015:114). Non-monetary rewards such as recognition have a significant impact on JS, as do monetary rewards (He, An & Li 2015:767)). The perception of employees on the recognition criteria implemented by an organisation is critical in determining satisfaction levels with the organisation. For recognition to have a meaningful impact on JS, it should be immediate and ongoing while it is still fresh in the minds of the employees (Shonubi, Abdullah, Hashim & Hamid 2016:5222).

Delayed recognitions can stall or impede performance and commitment levels of employees because the employee would have long forgotten about the act and any reward or recognition made after the employee has already started showing some withdrawal syndromes will have less or no effect on the part of the employee. For example, if employees perceive recognition as constructive and providing genuine feedback acknowledging people as sincere and approval of positive accomplishment, employees will be highly motivated and use their expertise to benefit the organisation. This view is further strengthened by findings from previous studies suggesting that people

are no longer attracted only by lucrative salaries and benefits, but also expect that their efforts will be appreciated, valued and treated fairly (Vijayakumar & Subha 2013:66; Amoatema & Kyeremeh 2016:46; Zeb & Jamal 2016:63).

In order to increase JS and maximise organisational commitment, Tessema, Ready and Embaye (2013:4) propose that recognition programmes should be aligned to achievement, outstanding outcomes and business-related activities. While, on a personal level, for recognition to be appreciated it must have a personal value, everlasting and positive memory and needed to be celebrated in a fitting platform or forum (Akafo & Boateng 2015:116).

#### **3.4.2.4 The work itself**

Work itself relates to the content, tasks and activities contained in the job description and how the work is executed. Regarding JS, the type of work is viewed as a major cause of JS rather than routine work (Mishra 2013:46). Hettiarachchi (2014:909) defines work as how employees perceive their job as fun, comfortable, challenging or respected by others. Job contents are different and some employees are content executing the same job the same way time and again. Although jobs that are not mentally challenging could lead to frustration, boredom and dissatisfaction.

Generally, educated people, prefer jobs that present them with opportunities to execute a variety of activities and are mentally stimulating, who are driven by achievement, authority, creativity, independence and responsibility (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt 2003:77). The feeling of not knowing what your next assignment looks like and the amount of creative thinking and innovation is motivating and satisfying for such people. In addressing these challenges managers need to be extremely careful when designing jobs because too many challenges create frustration and leave room for a feeling of failure when expectations are not met.

#### **3.4.3 Demographic determinants of job satisfaction**

Other than the intrinsic and extrinsic determinants of JS discussed above. Yapa, Rathnayake, Senanayake and Premakumara (2014:304) and Mohajane (2017:18) are of the view that demographic variables such as age, gender, years of experience, educational level and marital status are critical in influencing JS. These variables are discussed in the following sections.

### **3.4.3.1 Age**

The association between age and JS has been consistently reported in various studies as a critical variable that can predict different behaviours in a working environment (Mohajane 2017:21). The relationship between age and JS is assumed to be following three different basic stages in a person's life, namely: the young, middle and old stages. Amarasena, Ajward and Ahasanul-Haque (2015:92) made the following three observations about the relationship between age and JS. The first observation is that JS grows with age; the older a person becomes the more JS increases. The second observation is that JS increases as chronological age increases and thirdly, JS drops with age. This observation is noticeable towards a terminal period of an employee where there is a significant drop in levels of JS.

Kemunto, Raburu and Joseph (2018:5) concur with previous studies and further explain that JS levels are reportedly lower amongst younger workers (mid-twenties and early thirties), after which a steady climb in JS will be noticed as a person grows older and later drops significantly towards retirement. Often younger employees enter the labour market highly motivated and satisfied due to employment novelty, which suddenly decreases due to lack of skills, boredom and conflict in ones' social life. According to Mhlongo (2014:21) revitalisation or restoration of JS of an older person could be best achieved by creating better working conditions, job knowledge or expertise and responsibility. In addition, older employees place more value in intrinsic motivational factors than younger employees (Amarasena *et al.*, 2015:92).

### **3.4.3.2 Gender**

Quite a significant number of studies have investigated the relationship between gender and JS and have been reported differently (Redmond 2019:17; Shrestha 2019:32; Kollmann, Stockmann, Kensbock & Peschl 2020:105). Some of the results indicate that men are more satisfied with their work compared to women (Marasinghe & Wijaratne 2018:16). What is common of the results is that there is a positive relationship between gender and JS (Kollmann, *et al.*, 2020:105). The relationship between gender and JS is dependent on other factors such as personality traits, status and working conditions and varies between public, private and non-government sectors (Danish & Usman 2010:159; Mohajane 2017:20). According to Unutmaz (2014:26) women prefer working environments that encourage social relations, whereas men are more satisfied with a working environment that provides growth opportunities and better pay.



Although, globally a lot of effort has been exerted by governments and civil societies to ensure that women are treated with dignity and features at all organisational level, female employees irrespective of their levels of education, are often confronted by challenges such as sexual harassment, unfair treatment, limited growth opportunities, less responsibility and autonomy as well as poor salaries (Martin & Barnard 2013:3; Maseko 2013:27). Under the above-mentioned conditions and challenges, one will expect the satisfaction levels of women to be very low compared to their counterparts. The argument advanced by Bonte and Krabel (2014:1) in defence of the reportedly higher satisfaction levels by women under challenging situations is that, women's expectancy levels and needs are relatively less compared to their counterparts. Their needs and expectations are easily fulfilled and their concern is in maintaining good relations, good work schedules and taking care of their families who are their main source of satisfaction (Bonte & Krabel 2014:18; Sarwar 2014:4).

#### **3.4.3.3 Work experience and job satisfaction**

Taking a leaf from the relationship between age and JS that suggests that JS levels amongst new and younger employees are at an all-time low, an argument can be advanced that years of experience have a positive influence on JS. This view is supported by Clark, Oswald and Warrs (1996:58) where JS levels of younger were matched with those of older employees and it was established that older employees have higher JS levels emanating from their experience and knowledge about the jobs. Lower JS levels on the part of younger employees were attributed to their lack of job experience. Similar findings were made by Nestor and Leary (2000:10) in a study that involved extension agents where older employees were discovered to have enjoyed higher satisfaction levels than younger employees. The increase in JS levels according to Mohajane (2017:23) are as a result of a vast experience that may not necessarily have been acquired with the same employer, but with multiple previous employers.

#### **3.4.3.4 Education level and job satisfaction**

The significance of education in relation to its effect on JS has been inconsistently reported, some studies finding no correlation while others found a positive relationship between education and JS. Metle (2001:316), Hamman-Fisher (2008:67), González, Sánchez and; López-Guzmán (2016:245) report that there is no pattern of positive correlation between education and JS in certain jobs. The researchers' based their argument on the assumption that generalising findings on the relationship between

education and JS is responsible for conflicting or contradicting results. Metle (2001:318) established that the relationship between JS and education is organisationally and occupationally determined. For example, in manufacturing industries education may be negatively associated with JS because it may increase the job expectation beyond a level achievable under those circumstances.

Mishra (2013:46) and González *et al.* (2016:245) maintain that the more educated an employee becomes, the greater the chances are that an employee (the young employees in particular) will be highly dissatisfied with routine tasks and unattractive offers within the industry. Another contributing factor is that education induces higher aspirations, in situations where an employee is highly educated but not equitably compensated and less growth opportunities results in lower JS (Clark, & Oswald 1996:362).

Several other studies Wright and Davis, (2003:73); Gürbüz (2007: 39); Ashraf, Ahmad, Shaikh, Bhatti and Soomro (2013:362) established that as the level of education increases JS also increases, confirming a positive relationship between education level and JS. However, it is critical to note that the positive relationship between educational level and JS is subject to a successful match between an individual's work, character and qualifications (Jones & Johnson 2000:538). The implication of this is that educated employees only experiences high levels of job satisfaction when performing jobs aligned to their qualifications (Hamman-Fisher 2008:68).

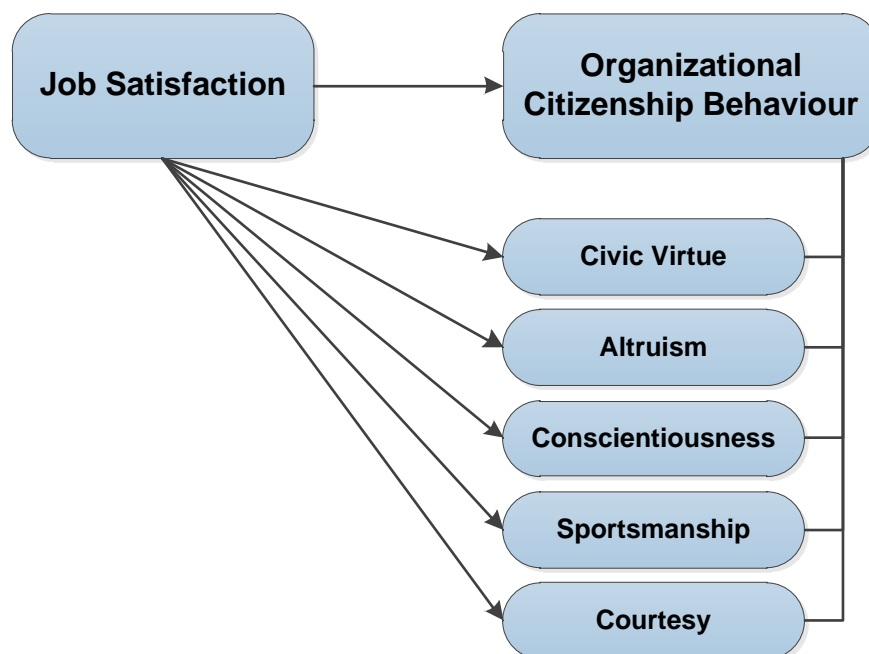
#### **3.4.3.5 Marital status and job satisfaction**

Marital status is another biographic variable that might have an impact on a person's job satisfaction. However, according to Robbins, *et al.* (2003:79) studies on the effect of marital status on job satisfaction have produced inconclusive results. The available results of the limited studies conducted reveal two contradictory conclusions, one reflecting higher job satisfaction levels amongst married employees than unmarried employees (Azim, Haque & Chowdhury 2013:491), the other reflecting higher job satisfaction levels amongst the unmarried employees (Luddy 2005:43). Those arguing in favour of the relationship between marital status and job satisfaction are of the view that marriage places a lot of responsibilities that may make a steady job more valuable and important (Azim *et al.*, 2013: 491).

### 3.4.4 The influence of job satisfaction on organisational citizenship behaviour

Numerous studies have been done in the past investigating the influence and association between JS and OCB (Mushtaq, Ahmed & Warraich 2014:7; Talachi, Gorji & Boerhannoedinn 2014:431, Saraswati & Sulistiyo 2017:441; Yumuk-Günay 2018:69). In SET, there is a generally accepted view that “gestures of goodwill are exchanged between employees and their organisations including between supervisors and subordinates” when particular actions warrant reciprocity (Hopkins 2002:2). A significant number of studies have established that a strong correlation exists between job satisfaction and OCB (Mushtaq *et al.*, 2014:7; Mitonga-Monga, Flotman & Cilliers 2015:1080; Saraswati & Sulistiyo 2017:441; Yumuk-Günay 2018:69). While some established the existence of relationships with some of the dimensions of OCB and found no relationship with other dimensions of OCB (Perumalsami 2015:44, El Din Mohamed 2016:5).

Figure 3.5 outlines the influence JS on OCB.



**Figure 3.5: Job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour model**

**Source:** Talachi, Gorji and Boerhannoedinn (2014:431)

As explained in Section 3.3.3, JS is sub-divided into intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions. Striving for a balance on these two factors is critical in achieving OCB. Figure 3.4

conceptualised that JS influences OCB. In their research, Talachi *et al.* (2014:431) investigated the influence of JS on the five dimensions of OCB and discovered that JS is a key measure in predicting OCB. Talachi *et al.* 2014 further established JS provided a positive prediction in all five dimensions of OCB. Similar results were reported by Mushtaq *et al.* (2014:7) in Pakistan and Perumalsami (2015:44) in South Africa, who after conducting their research reported a positive association between JS and OCB. From these results both scholars' stress that organisations should focus more on sustaining competitive advantage by improving JS levels of employees because of its association with OCB.

There is no single study thus far that disputed the role of job satisfaction on OCB, except that in certain studies JS was found not to have correlated with other dimensions of OCB. Therefore, the present study seeks to further investigate the relationship or non-existence of a relationship between JS and the five dimensions of OCB. Sportsmanship and altruism are among those dimensions identified as unpredictable of JS (Itiola, Odebiyi & Alabi 2014:262).

### **3.5 CONCLUSION**

The main purpose of this chapter was to provide a theoretical facet of the concept JS, with specific attention paid to clarification of the concept job satisfaction, models and theories of JS, determinants of job satisfaction (organisational and personal factors) as well as demographic determinants of JS. The literature covers a range of valuable pointers contributing towards JS which have been positively confirmed in various studies. Studies that reported contradictory results from different fields of studies have also been studied.

The next chapter will explore OCB and ITS in detail, focusing on definitions and theories of those concepts.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND INTENTION TO STAY**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter dealt extensively with JS theories, models and factors affecting or determining JS.

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first part provides a comprehensive review of OCB, focusing on OCB as a concept and related frameworks for the explanation of OCB. The second part provides a review of the concept ITS. Theoretical aspects of ITS will be provided with specific reference to definitions and determinants of intention to stay.

#### **4.2 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

In today's competitive world organisations constantly seek to achieve excellence by enhancing employee effectiveness and efficiency. The behaviour of employees is at the centre stage in ensuring that this objective is achievable. Individual behaviour may, according to Dash and Pradhan (2014:17), be classified into in-role behaviours and extra-role behaviours. The extra-role behaviours are central in this discussion because they explicitly explain what OCB represents including other behaviours like helping colleagues who have a heavy workload, helping new employees with their work and offering constructive suggestions. These extra-role behaviours are expected to facilitate the increase in individual and organisational performance. The extent to which OCB is perceived important by municipal employees is a hypothesis under investigation in this study.

##### **4.2.1 Clarification of the concept**

Earlier studies emphasised that employees should be assigned tasks that they needed to execute in the most efficient manner and that employees should be closely monitored to ensure that the work is done as per the instruction. The concept of OCB is traced back from the deliberation of management theorist Barnard in the late 1930's. Although it had not been properly termed OCB at the time; it provided a comprehensive theory of cooperative behaviour in organisations and triggered a vast interest in that line of

research (Barnard 1966:83; Harper & College 2015:2). According to Barnard the vibrancy of an organisation is dependent on the “willingness of individuals to contribute efforts to the cooperative system” (Barnard 1966:85). Willingness is referred to as de-personalisation of personal action which impact on oneness or unity within the organisation (Kucukbayrak 2010:8).

Despite OCB being continuously studied, shaped and debated for the past two to three decades, its definition varies slightly amongst scholars (Fall 2013:2). OCB originates from citizenship behaviour which was introduced by Bateman and Organ in 1983 (Dash & Pradhan 2014:18). Bateman and Organ (1983:588) opine that organisational functioning is dependent on supra-role behaviours, such behaviours facilitate the social machinery of the organisation but cannot be prescribed or are not required to advance a given job or directly contained in the usual notion of task performance.

The concept OCB was officially introduced in 1988 by Organ who defined as it as an “individual behaviour that is discretionary or not explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (Organ 1988:4). Organ further clarified what he meant by discretionary by explaining that it refers to behaviour that is not an enforceable pre-condition of the job, not specifiable in terms of the person’s contract with the organisation, but behaviour that is voluntary in nature and its omission is not a punishable offence (Organ 1988:4; Robbins & Judge 2011:60).

There are three important highlights in Organ’s (1988) definition of OCB. The first one is that the behaviour is not included in the official role prescription of an employee, thus becoming difficult to reward a person who displays such behaviour. Secondly, employees who display such behaviour are not guaranteed rewards. Lastly, the behaviour contributes to the effective operation or functioning of the organisation.

Smith, Organ and Near (1983:653) and Velickovska (2017:42) define OCB as extra-role behaviours discretionarily displayed by employees which promote organisational effectiveness. The definition excluded in-role behaviours as they form part of the contractual agreement and they are explicitly recognised by the organisation’s formal rewards system (Kucukbayrak 2010:6). Katz and Kahn (1966:339) add that extra-role behaviours are spontaneous, innovative and intrinsically cooperative and interconnected to each other to a point where they resemble habitual behaviour, which we are not aware of. Katz and Kahn (1966:340) argue that there are still organisations that exclusively

depend on a set of patterns of prescribed behaviours which have an incapacitated social system. Therefore, if organisations are serious about realising their goals and objectives, they need to explore the multitude of acts of cooperation, helpfulness, suggestions and gestures of goodwill.

Polat (2009:1591); Mohammad, Habib and Alias (2011:152) and; Massoudi, Jameel and Ahmad (2020:20) define OCB as those actions performed by employees that transcend the normal prescribed role requirements expected by the organisation and promote the welfare of co-workers, work groups and the entire organisation. The inference that can be made by analysing these definitions is that the spirit of helping others, voluntarily doing extra work, advocating for harmonious working relationships and respecting one another are the underpinning facets of the construct.

In this study, OCB represents the willingness of local municipality employees to voluntarily exhibit behaviours beyond their scope of work, but which are necessary in creating a healthy working environment, facilitate effective running of the municipality and behaviour that advocates for service quality. In a manufacturing and product-oriented setting, OCB improves productivity and maximises performance (Zainul & Zamrudi 2019:22). But, because municipalities are service oriented, it is expected that OCB will improve service quality and embrace the founding principles of “Batho Pele” of the Republic of South Africa (RSA). Batho Pele is a Sesotho expression loosely translated as “putting people first”. One of the eight “Batho Pele” principles that public servants are expected to live by is courtesy, which refers to politeness and considerate behaviour (Mboweni 2013:16).

### **4.3 THE THEORETICAL ORIENTATION**

Organisational citizenship behaviour is grounded in the Social Exchange Theory (SET), with its venerable roots linked to social psychology e.g., (Homans, 1958, Thibault & Kelley 1959), and in sociology e.g., Blau, 1964, (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005:874). According to Mohammad, *et al.* (2011:151) and Bateman and Organ (1983:588), SET projects that people seek to reciprocate those who benefit them. The proposition advanced by the SET is that organisations that make an effort to take care of the needs of its employees results in job satisfaction. Employees who view such organisational efforts as volitional and non-manipulative in intent, are likely to seek to reciprocate those efforts.

Emerson (1976:351) suggests trusting, loyal and mutual commitment as a set of rules and norms for SET that should be adopted by both parties (employer and employees) for the relationship to produce effective results. However, it is crucial to note the fact that individuals are linked through mutual dependencies and dependency becomes a characteristic of the relationship between organisations and employees (Mohammad, *et al* 2011:151). Bateman and Organ (1983:588) predict job satisfaction as a causal connection prior to employees displaying of organisational citizenship related behaviours. Figure 4.1 illustrates the circumplex model of OCB.



**Figure 4.1: Circumplex Model of OCB**

**Source:** Moon, Van Dyne and Wrobel (2005:5)

The Circumplex model of OCB used groundwork to conceptualise and simplify the different facets of personality within an organisation. Moon *et al.* (2005:6) distinguish between behaviours that are either promotive or protective (prohibitive) in nature and those that are either oriented towards the organisation or oriented towards other individuals. The difference between OCB focused on individual co-workers and OCB



focused on the organisation holistically has been distinguished between organisational citizenship behaviour-individual (OCBI) which refers to pro-social citizenship behaviours directed towards a specific group of people or groups within the organisation and organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation (OCBO) to indicate behaviours benefiting the organisation (Hosseini 2013:25). The Circumplex model suggests that contextual factors such as reward-equity and recognition predicted organisationally focused on OCB while individual differences such as concern for others, predicted interpersonally focused OCBs (Kvitne 2017:6)

Odinioba (2015:59) advances that OCBI is performed purposefully by organisational members with whom a person has a constant interaction while carrying their organisational role and executed with the intention of promoting and protecting the welfare of the individual, group or organisation towards which it is directed. Moon *et al.* (2005:7) differentiate between promotive and protective behaviour as follows: promotive behaviours are those behaviours that protect organisational values, norms and rules while preventing undesirable or unethical behaviours. Promotive behaviour is behaviour that is proactive, adaptive and moves the organisation in new directions.

Helping or interpersonal and promotive citizenship behaviour is another dimension of the Circumplex model referring to an interpersonal act of voluntarily giving time or energy to support co-workers. Muzanenhano (2016:57) views helping co-workers as an affiliative behaviour that reinforces relationships and promotes efficiency while encouraging a positive social context, which is promotive in orientation or direction.

Sportsmanship is an interpersonal and protective citizenship behaviour that refers to behaviours that reduce or prevent negative events in the workplace (Pastor 2012:25). According to Moon *et al.* (2005:8) employees who display sportsmanship are tolerant and flexible. Muzanenhano (2016:57) adds that such employees will refrain from complaining about undesirable conditions, do not criticise co-workers and avoid focusing on negative or less than perfect aspects of the work situation.

Innovative behaviours entail both organisational and promotive citizenship behaviour, which focuses its efforts on promoting general changes and improving products, processes, services, ideas and relationships (Simo, Sallan, Fernandez & Enache 2016:63). Odinioba (2015:57) agrees with Simo *et al.* (2016), that innovative OCB is seen to include among other things, offering constructive input, speaking up with new ideas, proactively developing new methods and taking charge. Considering that innovative

behaviour is proactive, positive and change-oriented, it is promotive. Therefore, it can be concluded that innovative behaviour is directed towards the overall improvement of the organisation's OCB (Jordan 2014:9).

The last component of the Circumplex model is compliance as an organisational and protective citizenship behaviour. Compliance implies that efforts are organisationally focused to support and follow long established formal or informal rules and regulations (Qureshi 2015:25). Intense respect of rules by employees leads to compliance and obedience to them even when nobody is observing them. Generally, employees are expected to ordinarily obey the rules and regulations of organisations, however, the reality is that in many instances that does not happen. Compliance includes punctuality, not taking long breaks and displaying conscientiousness (Khan, Yasir, Yusof, Saleem, & Khan 2017:84). Therefore, employees who meticulously obey all rules and regulations voluntarily are often regarded as good citizens thus, compliance is portrayed as organisationally focused since it focuses on conformity and loyalty to explicit and implicit norms of the organisation (Qureshi 2015:28).

#### **4.4 DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

Since the introduction of the construct OCB over the past three decades, studies have identified approximately 30 different classifications of OCB (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine & Bachrach 2000:516; Ozturk 2010:20). However, Kucukbayrak (2010:16) found a great deal of conceptual overlap between the constructs. A considerable number of researchers identified and described five dimensions of OCB as comprising of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue (Swaminathan & Jawahar 2013:73; Kolade, Oluseye & A 2014: 39; Velickovska 2017:43). However, Podsakoff *et al.* (2000:516) identified and captured seven dimensions and explained them as follows:

##### **4.4.1 Helping behaviour**

Helping behaviour encapsulates a discretionary behaviour of helping others with work related issues and is considered a very important dimension of citizenship behaviour by many researchers (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000:516; Lu 2012:2; Daly, Dubose, Hosseini, Baik & Stark 2014:30). The first part of the definition (helping others with work-related issues) contains Organ's altruism, cheerleading and peace-making dimensions (Harper & College 2015:3) and interpersonal helping (Redelinguys, Rothmann & Botha 2019:5).

Smith *et al.* (1983:657) and Raul and Kumar (2019:67) define altruism as behaviour that is intentionally aimed and directed at assisting fellow employees in a specific face-to-face situation (e.g., assisting someone with a heavy workload, orienting new employees, showing a person how to use a machine). Cheerleading is defined as “the gesture and words of encouragement and reinforcement of co-worker’s accomplishments and professional development” (Organ 1990:96). Organ (1990:97) further explains peace-making as “the actions that helps to prevent, resolve or mitigate unconstructive interpersonal conflict”. Interpersonal helping focuses on helping co-workers in their jobs in situations where the assistance is needed (Moorman & Blakely 1995:130).

#### **4.4.2           Courtesy**

Courtesy entails all those anticipated gestures that help a fellow colleague to avoid a potential problem that may arise and take essential initiatives to lessen the results of the problem in future (Swaminathan & Jawahar 2013:73). Courtesy behaviours seeks to promote organisational effectiveness and efficiency by engaging in interpersonal sensitivity, like giving in advance notice of work schedule to anybody in need, notifying co-workers of impending interruptions or consulting others before taking any decision that may affect them (Talebloo, Basri, Hassan & Asimiran 2015:15).

#### **4.4.3           Conscientiousness**

Conscientiousness is referred to as individual initiative by Moorman and Blakely (1995: 130) and Kolade *et al.*, (2014:38). Individual initiative was used interchangeably with personal industry, which described communication within the workplace that is aimed at improving individual and group performance. The dimension conscientiousness explains patterns of behaviour that go well beyond the prescribed minimum required levels of punctuality, attendance, housekeeping, conserving resources and related matters of effectiveness and efficiency (Uzonwanne 2014:88; Raul & Kumar 2019:67).

#### **4.4.4           Sportsmanship**

This OCB dimension refers to behaviour that exhibits a citizen-like gesture of tolerating the unavoidable inconveniences and impositions of work without whining and grievances (Mahembe, Engelbrecht, Chinyamurindi & Kandekande 2015:4; Kaur, Malhotra & Sharma 2020:123). In other words, sportsmanship focuses on the positive attitude and outlook of employees in critical and tense situations. For example, positive thinking by

health workers and their efforts to improve care service of patients notwithstanding all the financial and working condition challenges faced by the department of health.

#### **4.4.5 Civic virtue**

Civic virtue is referred to as organisational participation by Graham (1991:255) who explains organisational participation as the interest a person has in organisational affairs led by ideal standards of virtue, validated by keeping informed and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organisational governance. Included in the description is attending non-required meetings, sharing knowledgeable ideas and being willing to deliver bad news and support unpopular views to fight group thinking. Civic virtue concerns itself with responsible, constructive involvement in the political affairs and processes of the organisation, the behaviour is extended to reading organisational mails, attending meetings and keeping abreast of issues affecting the organisation (Thiruvankadam & Durairaj 2017:50).

#### **4.4.6 Organisational loyalty**

Organisational loyalty is an additional dimension of OCB identified by Podsakoff, *et al.*, (2000:517) that contains an element of marketing the organisation to outsiders, protecting it against external threat and remaining committed to it even under difficult conditions. Muradi, Podder and Seema (2019:62) define organisational loyalty as a glue that binds an employee to his or her organisation. It is a deliberate commitment by employees that requires sacrificing some aspects of ones' self-interest beyond what would be required by ones' moral. Organisational loyalty relates to loyal boosterism and loyalty, spreading goodwill and protecting the organisation and as well as the endorsing, supporting and defending of organisational objectives (Podsakoff, *et al.*, 2000:517, Redelinghuys, *et al.*, 2019:5).

#### **4.4.7 Self-development**

Self-development is the final dimension of OCB identified by Podsakoff, *et al.*, (2000:525). Self-development refers to discretionary behaviours by employees aimed at improving their skills, knowledge and abilities. Self-developmental employees seek training opportunities and take advantage of training courses, keep abreast of the latest developments in their own field of work and specialisation, taking initiative to learn new sets of skills in order to expand their range of contribution to the organisation (Thiruvankadam & Durairaj 2017:52).

## 4.5 ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Early studies regarding the antecedents of OCB identified employee attitudes, dispositions and leader supportiveness (Zhang 2011:6). However, recent studies identified and examined many different variables in an effort to determine the antecedents of OCB (Jahangir, Akbar & Haq 2004:81). Figure 4.2 shows the recently reviewed antecedents of OCB.



**Figure 4.2: Antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour**

**Source:** Jahangir, Akbar and Haq (2004:81)

Alizadeh, Darvishi, Nazari and Emami. (2012:500) posit that the basis of OCB is JS. According to Jahangir *et al.* (2004:80), JS has a significant positive relationship with OCB, which in turn has an impact on employee turnover, absenteeism and psychological distress. Employees with higher levels of JS display affective commitment. Affective commitment constitutes a strong belief and acceptance of the values and norms of the organisation. Naturally, affective commitment sustains the behavioural direction of

employees without any reinforcement nor expecting any form of reward from the organisation.

Concerning role perception, Jahangir *et al.* (2004:80) advance that role perception includes a person's perception about the job such as role ambiguity, role conflict (both have a negative effect on OCB) role clarity and role facilitation which are positively related to OCB. Considering that role conflict and role ambiguity are known to have a negative correlation with JS, and JS is known to influence OCB, a portion of the relationship between role perception and OCB is arbitrated by satisfaction (Palomino & Frezatti 2016:168).

Leadership behaviour is perceived to have a strong influence on employees' willingness to voluntarily engage in OCB. Boiral, Talbot and Paille (2015:535) connote that it is the quality of the relationship that exists between employees and their leaders that is important rather than a particular leadership style. Leadership is viewed as instrumental in enhancing team spirit, morale and cohesiveness of the employees which fosters OCB. That quality in the relationship between subordinates and a leader is referred to as Leader Manager Exchange (LMX) and is categorised under transactional behaviours (Kucukbayrak 2010:23). Transactional leadership is a critical variable of leadership that is positively linked to OCB as leader's unanticipated reward behaviour, such as appreciation for a job well done or expressing satisfaction with employees' performance (Daily, Bishop & Govindarajulu 2009:249; Alizadeh *et al.*, 2012:501). The LMX theory advances that both leaders and followers have some role expectations from each other (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000:531).

The concept fairness or organisational justice explains the perception that reflects the employees' feelings about whether organisational decision making is made equitably and with the necessary employee input (Bahrami, Montazeralfara, Gazar & Tafti 2014:839; Bohle & Alonso 2014:341). Sjahruddin and Sudiro (2013:135) identify outcomes, processes and interpersonal interactions as three major important issues of evaluating organisational justice. Ismail (2014:91) advances the following dimensions under perceived organisational justice:

Distributive justice – distributive justice relates to fairness of outcomes or allocations due to an individual. A person attaches a judgement about the fairness or reasonableness of the distribution of the results (Bahrami *et al.*, 2014:839).

Procedural justice – procedural justice refers to whether the procedures applied by an organisation when making decisions about results allocation are fair or not. Procedural fairness assesses policies and processes of the organisation regarding how promotions are made (Nadiri & Tanova 2010:35).

Interactional justice – interactional justice focuses on employees' assessment of the fairness of administrators' behaviour. Employees evaluate their superiors' behaviour and consolidate the results of their evaluation in decision making about their exchange with the organisation.

Informational justice – informational justice focuses on the employees' perception of their managers' honesty and openness when providing information to them compared to when information is given to others (Bahrami *et al.*, 2014:839).

In general, when employees perceive that they are unfairly treated by their superiors, they are likely to reduce their participation and inputs through reflecting certain behaviours such as absenteeism, reduced organisational commitment and deviant behaviours (Devasagayam 2013:134). On the contrary, when employees perceive that they are treated fairly and equally they are likely to engage in OCB. However, Mehboob and Bhutto (2013:1449) caution that perceived leadership justice is a kind of perception that can be influenced by the perceiver's personal and demographic attributes such as needs, values and ethical framework.

The notion that employees' characteristics and personality attributes (individual disposition) explain citizenship behaviours in situations where there are no strong incentives, pressures, threats, or norms to behave in a manner that promotes good working relations is currently receiving attention of scholars (Berber & Rofcanin 2012:198). Individual disposition accounts for personality elements relating to the workplace namely: positive affectivity, negative affectivity, conscientiousness and agreeableness (Chahal & Mehta 2010:28). Personality traits are viewed as predictors of OCB, especially for people with certain personality traits and with a higher propensity to be satisfied with their job as opposed to people with other personality traits that are likely to be less satisfied and ultimately withdraw their OCB (Rasheed, Jehanzeb & Rasheed 2013:130). Attitudinal factors potentially cause a connection between personality and OCB, whereas, failure to identify individual motivational factors could potentially lead to more dissatisfaction, turnover and withdrawal of effort.

Concerning motivation, Piccolo and Colquit (2006:328) connote that follower intrinsic motivation is positively related to follower task performance and is vital in strengthening OCB. Motivation can be achieved by encouraging employees to actively participate in decision making. The perception leaders have towards their follower's motives could potentially influence employee's OCB ratings, making motivation a significant link between satisfaction and OCB. Maximum participation in decision making is then viewed as contributing to group effectiveness and efficiency, although motivation can have less impact on OCB when individuals moves to higher positions in an organisation (Chahal & Mehta 2010:28).

With respect to employee age, the current body of research has rendered inclusive results on the relationship between age and OCB (Singh & Singh 2010:269; Mitonga-Monga, Flotman & Cilliers 2017:388). However, Mauritz (2012:7) suggests that older employees are more cooperative with their colleagues compared to their younger counterparts. Younger employees have been observed focusing more on their career development and dedicating less time and effort than their co-workers (Singh & Singh 2010:270). On the contrary, older employees are known to display more discretionary OCB towards co-workers as a result of them having more positive psychological sense of community (Mauritz 2012:7; Mitonga-Monga, *et al.*, 2017:400).

Furthermore, older employees are perceived to be using their work experience to cope with negative experiences better while having a more objective view on what to expect from the organisation compared to younger employees (Profili, Sammarra & Innocenti 2016: 22). Ng and Feldman (2011:678) further state that the increased attachment to the organisation by older employees facilitates the increase in their display of OCB towards the organisation.

In addition to the above-mentioned antecedents of OCB, Qureshi (2015:45) advances the following constructs as antecedents of OCB:

Organisational commitment (OC) reflects a psychological bond that binds an employee to the organisation and facilitate organisational ownership (Ozturk 2010:31; Alrowwad, Almajali, Masa'deh, Obeidat, & Aqqad. 2020:9134). Zeinabadi (2010:999) argues that committed employees are most likely to engage in behaviour that promotes their values and support the organisation, therefore, a positive relationship between OC and OCB is critical. According to Alrowwad, *et al.* (2020:91358), OC manifest as a strength of a person's identification and involvement in an organisation characterised by a strong belief



in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values. Organisational commitment is further categorised into three dimensions, namely:

- a) affective commitment: employee's emotional attachment with and involvement in the organisation.
- b) continuance commitment refers to a comparison of what the employee is likely to lose or benefit when leaving the organisation.
- c) normative commitment refers to the employee's feeling of obligation to remain with the organisation (Qamar 2012:108; Lambert, Hogan, & Keena, 2015:6; Massoudi, Jameel, & Ahmad 2020:21)

Trust - Ke and Wei (2008:223) and Chinomona (2015:66) reflect on trust as a fundamental ingredient of the effective relationship in organisations in which OCB is based on and an inevitable dimension of social interaction. Management based on trust is believed to result in collaboration among people, groups and organisations as a result all organisational relations centres around trust (Fard & Karimi 2015:219). Botwe, Kenneth and Masih (2016:124) defines trust as belief in the credibility and kindness of colleagues within a working environment. Robbins (2016:973) defined trust as an individual's assessment of others grounded on social cognition. Trust entails a person's confidence over another person's goodwill as well as the belief in their abilities and credibility associated with qualities such as being honesty, faithfulness and truthfulness. Therefore, trust in this study is defined as the preparedness of a person to be vulnerable to the actions of another person, informed by the expectation that the other will perform a unique or specific action detrimental to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor and control the person.

Ngodo (2008:87) views trust as an important antecedent of risk-taking behaviour that is categorised into three elements:

Trustworthiness is the rational trust which entails an assessment of the dependability of the other party based on direct evidence or credibility with an attribution of that party's competence and his or her intentions to conform to agreement.

Faith in the leader describes the psychological sources of trust in the leader. For a leader to be trusted, a leader needs to set a personal example in order to win trust of their followers. The integrity of a leader is an important antecedent of trust.

Loyalty to the leader, which relates to the identification, affect and routines developed in specific relations (Saure 2015:15).

The common element found in trust is the willingness to be vulnerable or the intention to accept vulnerability due to actions of the other party irrespective of the fact that one has no control over the actions of the trusted party. Singh and Srivastava (2009:66) are of the view that trust should exist between co-workers (lateral trust), supervisor's trust of subordinates and employee's trust of management (vertical trust). Since trust is grounded in openness, experimentation with new behaviours, nonthreatening feedback on performance and perceptions of fairness in authority and processes; it manifests itself positively on group problem solving, decision making and extra-role behaviour resulting in commitment and performance beyond all expectations (Ngodo 2008:92).

## **4.6 CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

The impact of OCB on organisations and employees in general has been widely explored in the literature, although the nature and extent of the impact remains unclear (Boiral, *et al.*, 2015:537). Unlike early research studies that focused on OCB antecedents, more studies devoted attention to the consequences of OCB (Dash & Prahdan 2014:20; Yildiz & Amin 2020:25). The rising interest in the consequences of OCB is propelled by the competitiveness of business environments constantly striving to achieve excellence by enhancing employees' efficiency and effectiveness. Thus, in general it has been argued that organisations with higher degrees of OCB have recorded a significant reduction of absenteeism and turnover, while increasing employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction (Chahal & Mehta 2010:29; Yildiz & Amin 2020:25). Yildiz and Amin (2020:25) outlined the benefit that organisations with higher degree of OCB enjoys as:

### **4.6.1 Reduced absenteeism**

According to Agarwal (2015:910), employees displaying high levels of OCB are interested in the development and activities of the organisation which improves organisational effectiveness and avoids unnecessary absence. Although there is no similar research that investigated the relationship between OCB and other forms of withdrawal behaviour such as lateness and tardiness, the likelihood of similar patterns of effects on those variables is positive (Dash & Prahdan 2014:22).

#### **4.6.2 Reduced turnover**

Changes in the workplace precipitated by resignations of employees are not in the interest of organisations because the organisational costs of leaving are very high. High propensity to display OCB especially employees with altruism behaviour leads to healthy interpersonal relationships among employees and increases the stability of workgroup performance. This behaviour subsequently develops a sense of loyalty and commitment to the organisation among employees and reduces turnover in the workplace (Paul, Bamel & Garge 2016:312).

#### **4.6.3 Employee satisfaction**

Employee satisfaction refers to an employee's positive response or pleasurable emotional state resulting from their job and work performed individually or as part of a group (Ezeamama, 2019:2). Whether job satisfaction levels are high or low depends on various factors including working conditions, how well the needs and wishes of the person are met, individual personality and the way the person defines him or herself through the work (Velickovska 2017:44). Employee satisfaction manifests itself in different ways in different people.

When experienced employees display willingness behaviours to assist the less experienced employees with effective and efficient ways of performing their jobs, that gesture enhances the quality and quantity of the less experienced employees' performance. Employees with conscientious behaviour need less supervision which allows managers to delegate more responsibility to them. The helping behaviour creates a positive interpersonal relationship amongst employees resulting in increased satisfactory levels within the organisation (Ilies, Spitzmuller, Fulmer & Johnson 2009: 952).

#### **4.6.4 Customer satisfaction**

Ceaseless efforts on quality improvement to provide sustained customer satisfaction have become an important component of OCB (Alipour, Azizi & Mehni 2014:1099; Kaihatu & Djati 2016:215). Interpersonal relationships among employees are manifested in superior and valuable services to customers. Alipour, *et al.* (2014:1103) argue that employees who respect the rights and privileges of customers will consult with people who might be in influential decision-making positions to find a satisfactory way of handling

their concerns. In return, customers will be satisfied with the quality of service they are receiving and perceive it to be excellent.

#### **4.6.5 Work-family conflict**

In this modern society it is very common to find both couples working, making it inescapable to be faced with work and family conflict especially when OCB is discussed. Karachi, Asrar, Ilyas and Bhutto (2017:55) define work-family conflict as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures the work and family domains are mutually incompatible to an extent that participation in one role (work) is made more difficult by participation in another role (home)”. As a result, dedicating time, energy and effort in one role domain (work or family) hampers one’s chances of meeting the demands of the other domain (Dash & Pradhan 2014:22).

Striving for a balance between work and family is crucial to both employees and organisations because failure to manage it often leads to certain negative consequences like attitudinal, delays, leaving work early, intentions to leave, behavioural and health related problems (Jamaluddi, Asmony & Hermanto 2019:232). Several other studies made findings and advised on the adverse consequences of work and family conflict on employee’s well-being and health, they demonstrated that both work and family conflict are associated with psychological strain and health problems (Kinnunen, Feldz, Geurtz & Pulkinnen 2006:153), depression and anxiety (Lapierre & Allen 2006:172), or lower sleep quality (Williams, Franche, Ibrahim, Mustard & Layton 2006:30)

#### **4.6.6 Role overload**

The underlying principle of OCB is that employees out of their goodwill volunteer their services by doing more than what is required of them. Role overload is a phenomenon that explains the degree to which the duties and responsibilities of an employee exceed the amount of time and resources allocated for the accomplishment of the tasks (Dash & Pradhan 2014:22). Employees’ engagement in OCB subject themselves to work overload because of their multiple roles, especially when they are unable to execute or manage them simultaneously. Ahmad and Saud (2016:46) established that there is a positive relationship between OCB and role overload. When employees are challenged beyond their capabilities, they resort by taking extra time or even their weekends and neglecting their families in the process.

## **4.7 IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

Ibukunoluwa, Anuoluwapo and Agbude (2015:65) accentuate that OCB is important and mutually beneficial to both the organisation and individual employees. At the organisational level, OCB is considered important because it facilitates and advocates for social channels within the organisation. Qureshi (2015:5) suggests that OCB provides flexibility in the scope of work that goes beyond the call of duty and provides direction to work behaviour that may arise depending on the environment and tasks to be performed, while reducing employee turnover.

However, measuring OCB has proven to be challenge given that an employee's OCB may result in performance improvement of another employee or even the whole organisation (Wang, He, Lu & Yang 2018:3). Sadeghi, Ahmadi and Yazdi (2016:317) argue that organisations struggle to enhance organisational effectiveness without the voluntary willingness of employees to cooperate. Naturally, voluntary cooperation enables employees to do their duties beyond their responsibilities and use their energy and insight to develop their abilities in favour of the organisation. For the individual, organisations offer equitable rewards to employees in response to productive work behaviours. Ibukunoluwa *et al.* (2015:65) further state that these rewards improve individual job satisfaction and provide employees with intrinsic and extrinsic benefits that impact upon their productivity, knowledge, capabilities and expertise and self-esteem.

## **4.8 INTENTION TO STAY**

Municipalities, like any other organisation worldwide, are dependent on the skills, expertise, experience and commitment of their human resources to be able to render their service delivery mandate effectively and efficiently. Employees are viewed as an elephantine element of any serious organisation and should always be considered as the greatest asset in organisations (Johari, Yean, Adnam, Yahya & Ahmad 2012:397). Given the role of human resources in helping organisations obtain a competitive edge over its competitors in a challenging market environment, the stance adopted by organisations in encouraging the intention to stay of valuable employees is highly significant (Mustapha *et al.*, 2010:59; Eketu & Ogbu 2015:28).

### **4.8.1 Definition of intention to stay**

The concept ITS has been unanimously and consistently defined as employees expressed ITS in the present employment relationship with their current employer on a

long-term basis (Eketu & Ogbu 2015:29; Youcef, Ahmed & Ahmed 2016:199; Gizaw, Lema, Debancho & Germossa 2018:2). However, the description does not presume that employees will not depart if they perceive strong job opportunities in the labour market but allows for factors that enhance opportunities to remain with an organisation (Markowitz 2012:16).

Understanding reasons and factors that keep employees within organisations help with the development of programmes and interventions that will not only enable employers to retain more of their current valuable employees' but will also advocate the effect on business outcomes such as profitability and customer satisfaction (Gosser 2011:2).

#### **4.8.2 Theoretical framework of intention to stay**

Several models of intention to stay exist which offer comprehensive views of the intent to stay mechanism. Intention to stay originates from the SET, which was developed by Thibaut and Kelley in 1959. The theory clarifies the logic why people have relationships and specify appropriate times for starting and ending a relationship (Phuong & Trang 2017:2). This study will focus on Behavioural Reasoning Theory (BRT) and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) because these theories account for decision making, intention information as well as the actual behaviour of employees (Westaby, Probst & Lee 2010:483).

#### **4.8.3 The Behavioural Reasoning Theory**

When describing the definition of intention, Eketu and Ogbu (2015:29) refer to intention approach as “a theory of reasoned action”. The Behavioural reasoning theory (BRT) suggests that a person's intention is a function of two fundamental determinants, the personal and the social influence (Park, Cho, Johnson & Yurchisin 2017:334). Personal factors relate to an individual's positive and negative evaluation of displaying behaviours which can be termed as attitude towards the behaviour. On the other hand, a person's perception of the social pressure to display and / or not to display a behaviour in question cannot be underestimated (Westaby, *et al.*, 2010:482).

The BRT was advanced to help identify linkages underlying intentions and behaviours. Thus, according to Eide (2013:6) BRT acts as a critical linkage between beliefs, motives, intentions and behaviour. Moreover, the BRT postulates that reasons influence motives and intentions because they help people justify and defend their actions, which subsequently promotes and protects their self-worth (Westaby 2005:98). For instance,

irrespective of the good working conditions and safety of employees at the workplace, a person can justify leaving that organisation because of either low salary or high transport costs to get to work (Al-Mamum & Hasan 2017:67). According to Forward (2009: 199) the BRT speculate that people display changes in behaviour then provide reasons for their sudden change.

Eide (2013:6) caution that reasons are presumed to exist independently from people's beliefs and reasons. It is necessary to articulate the conceptual differences between "beliefs and reasons". Beliefs are described as a person's subjective prospects in judgment concerning some discriminable aspect of the world. Generally, beliefs are interpreted as representing many thoughts, while reasons firmly focus on the cognitive aspect that people use to explain their actions and justify behaviour (Kassim, Arokiasamy, Isa & Ping 2016:84).

#### **4.8.4 Theory of Planned Behaviour**

The Theory of planned behaviour (TPB) was developed by Ajzen and Fishbein in the early 1980's as an extension of the TRA (Kassim *et al.*, 2016:83). TPB relates to the understanding and prediction of behaviours, which suggest that behaviours are immediately determined by intentions, circumstances and control (Asare 2015:46). The TPB emphasises the controlled aspects of human information processing and decision making and focuses on behaviours that are goal-directed and steered by conscious self-regulatory processes (Kumar 2012:6). The TPB suggest that intentions and behaviours are directed by expected consequences of displaying the behaviour, by perceived normative pressures and by predictable challenges. The TPB advances that individual behaviour is driven by behaviour intentions, whereby behavioural intentions are a function of three determinants: attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen 2012:451).

Attitude towards behaviour describes the evaluation of the mental and sensual state of readiness that influences the way that person behaves (Eide 2013:6). Attitude can be used to predict the probability of behaviour. Chinomona (2015: 115) states that the importance of attitude is dependent on its high relevance to behavioural expression. Kassim *et.al.* (2016:84) postulate that people develop positive attitudes toward behaviour if such attitude will potentially produce favourable results. A positive attitude towards a certain behaviour reinforces the intention to perform that behaviour.

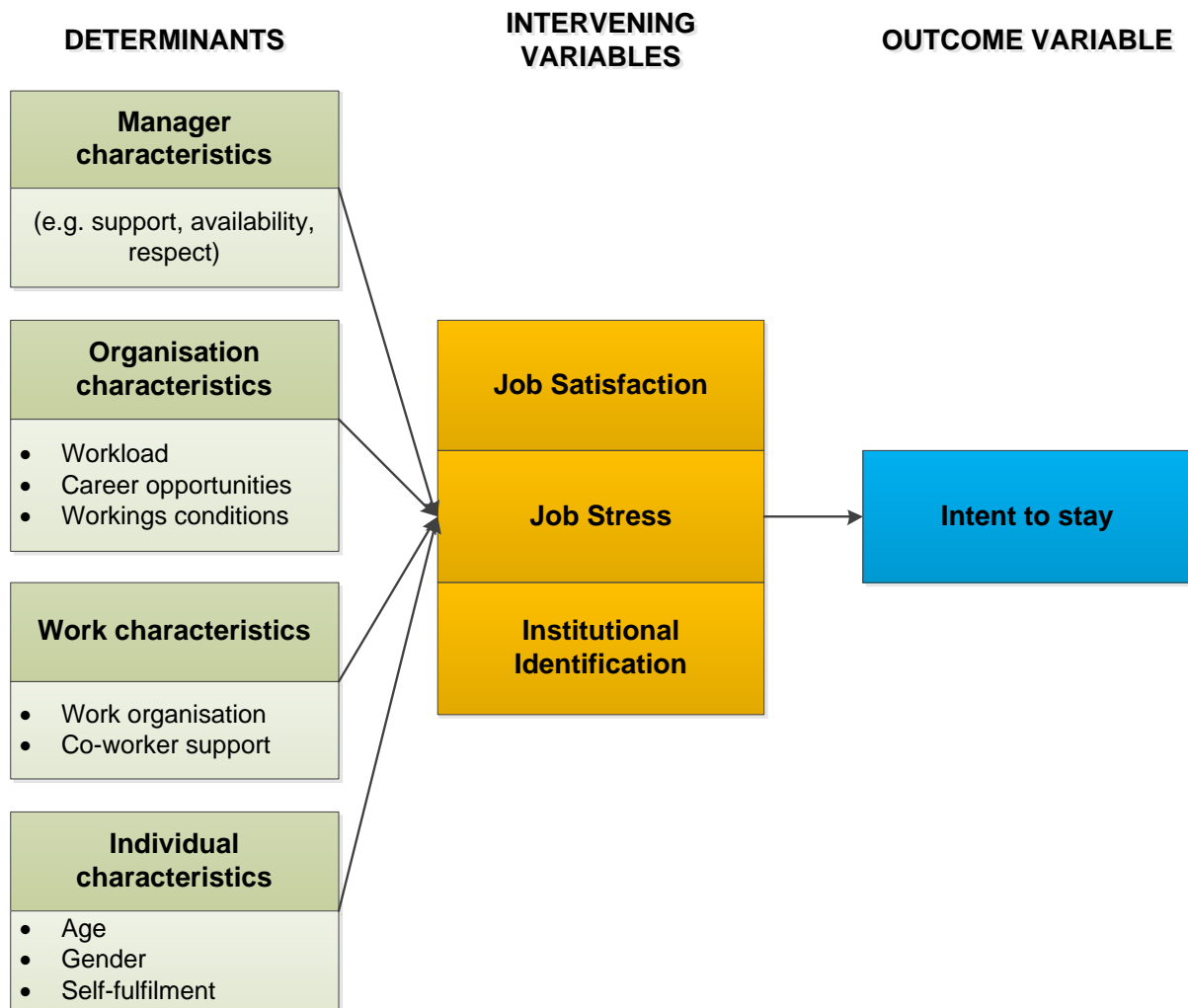
Subjective norms are understood to be a person's perception about surrounding social forces on whether the person can carry out the behaviour. Subjective norms are conceptually independent of attitudes toward behaviour but are heavily dependent on whether significant others approve or disapprove of the behaviour and the motivation to indulge in such behaviour (Al-Swidi, Huque, Hafeez & Shariff 2013:1564). Thus, people can, in principle, hold favourable attitudes towards a given behaviour yet perceive social pressure not to perform it. On the contrary, they can hold negative attitudes towards the behaviour and favourable subjective norm, or their attitudes and subjective norms may coincide (Ajzen 2012:442).

Even though the TPB has been widely researched and most frequently cited as an influential model in predicting human social behaviour, it has received its own share of criticism. According to Higuchi, Davalos and Hernani-Merino (2017:203), TPB critics believe that its explanation of human social behaviour is inadequately explained. A conclusion is made that the intention to adopt a certain course of action logically precedes actual performance of the behaviour, thus reducing intentions to a mediator role between attitudes and actions as opposed to it being a motivational influence on behaviour (Higuchi *et al.*, 2017:203).

#### **4.9 DETERMINANTS OF INTENTION TO STAY**

Many theoretical models of ITS have been developed and studied, however, these studies produced inconsistent outcomes (Gilles, Bernard, Peytremann & Bridevaux 2014:159). When studying ITS some researchers focused on cognitive determinants of behavioural intentions and not the affective determinants (Cowden & Cummings 2012:1647). Trafimow, Sheeran, Lombardo & Finlay (2004:209) are of the view that both affective and cognition determinants contribute to the development of intentions. Figure 4.3 displays the determinants of intention to stay.





**Figure 4.3: Theoretical model of intention to stay**

**Source:** Gilles, Bernard, Peytremann and Bridevaux (2014:159).

#### 4.9.1 Manager characteristics

Manager characteristics refer to “the degree of support, consideration, respect and availability a person perceives from his or immediate line manager’ with more emphasis on special situations to deliver effective and efficient job performances based on organisational strategy and objectives (Kim & Jogaratnam 2010:324, Mahadi, Woo, Baskaran & Yaakop 2020:209). The aspect of management consists of the initiation and consideration dimensions. Pechlivandis and Katsimpra (2004:202) and Almamum & Hasan (2017:66) suggest that the initiation dimension is linked with accomplishing the tasks at hand, while consideration is associated with displaying concern for the wellbeing of subordinates. Although it is expected universally that managers will have different approaches to and perspectives of leadership style, it is crucial that they encourage and

develop employees to succeed in their performances by providing appropriate resources and adequate support structures. According to Gilles *et al.* (2014:159) and Mahadi, *et al.* (2020:209), if the leadership and supervisory style of the manager is accepted by subordinates, it will lead to higher job satisfaction levels, prompting the employee to remain with the organisation.

#### **4.9.2 Organisation characteristics**

Organisation characteristics comprise several organisational factors that individuals use to develop a perception about an organisation such as workload, career opportunities, working conditions, organisational culture, organisational justice, career development and training opportunities. Good working conditions and promotional opportunities can potentially promote JS but also lead to stress and dissatisfaction if not offered which ultimately triggers a person's intention to stay or leave (Cowden & Cummings 2012:1650).

#### **4.9.3 Work characteristics**

Work characteristics encompass the physical aspect, psycho-social and organisational surrounding of work and denote how job demands, social structures and interactions in the organisation influences the psychological wellbeing of employees. Work characteristics allow for a broader understanding of how people are affected by their employment and environment, influencing a decision stay or quit (Markey, Ravenswood & Webber 2013:5). The extent to which co-workers are supportive of each other and working together to achieve organisational goals is crucial to the success of the organisation. This include collegiality and support received from peers, supervisors and other team members (Almamum & Hasan 2017:66). Cowden and Cummings (2012:1649) advance that when people perceive the work environment as accommodative their job satisfaction levels will increase resulting in a person willing to remain with the organisation.

#### **4.9.4 Individual characteristics**

Individual characteristics that have been studied in relation to ITS include age, gender, self-fulfilment, work status, education levels, marital status and tenure. The age of employees is viewed by Gilles *et al.* (2014:159) as very important in determining whether an employee will stay longer with an organisation or not. Observations by Seyrek and Turan (2017:237) and Cowden and Cummings (2012:1649) are that older employees are

more likely to stay longer with an organisation unlike younger employees who still want to grow and relocate to other places. Other factors such as education level, personal joy recognition and JS also contribute to a person deciding whether they stay with or leave the organisation.

#### **4.10 JOB SATISFACTION AND INTENTION TO STAY**

There are mixed feelings about the role of job satisfaction in ITS. Gilles *et al.* (2014:159) regard overall JS and organisational satisfaction as intervening variables in ITS, whereas Chinomona (2015:106) classifies JS as a psychological factor. Nevertheless, JS as an intervention of ITS refers to the feeling of being capable to shape one's work role and context which consists of: meaning associable to work tasks, feelings of competence and belief in one's abilities to perform work activities (Berta, Loporte, Perreira, *et al.*, 2018:19). Higher job satisfaction levels of employees increase employees' chances to stay with an organisation (Radford 2013:38).

#### **4.11 JOB STRESS AND INTENTION TO STAY**

Job stress is described as a dynamic condition where employees are faced with opportunities, restrictions or claims associated with what is wanted and the outcomes are perceived as uncertain but important and are critical in employees' propensity to stay in a job (Suhermin 2015:207). Gamage and Herath (2013:138) postulate that higher job stress levels lead to job dissatisfaction, depression, anxiety, frustration, a sense of isolation, hate and anger resulting in increased chances of turnover intention. According to Suhermin (2015:207) stress has an enormous effect in organisations given that it has a direct impact on the health of employees which directly influences employee performances and their intentions to stay in an organisation.

#### **4.12 INSTITUTIONAL / ORGANISATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AND INTENTION TO STAY**

Organisational identity and supportive environments are important work attitudes in creating a working environment that is appealing to today's workforce. Organisational identity is defined as individual's psychological attachment to the organisation and is linked with behaviour associated with improved organisational performance (Nwanzu & Babalola 2019:9). Taskiran (2017:75) infers that organisational identity minimises uncertainty and improves relational closeness among group members. Furthermore, Wang *et.al.* suggest that when employees identify with the organisation, the more the

organisation' values, norms and goals are incorporated in employee's self-concept, thus increasing opportunities for employees to stay longer with those organisations.

#### **4.13 CONCLUSION**

This chapter discussed various theoretical dimensions of the concept OCB and ITS. Specific attention was given to the clarification of the concepts OCB and intention to stay while discussing models and theories, dimensions of OCB and consequences of OCB. Furthermore, determinants of JS (organisational and personal factors) as well as demographic determinants of JS. The literature covers a range of valuable pointers contributing towards job satisfaction which has been positively confirmed in various studies. Studies that reported contradictory results from different fields of studies has also been studied. A combination of organisational and environmental factors are critical in helping develop interventions necessary for employees to be with the organisation, preventing high costs linked with staff turnover. A working environment that is not appealing to its workforce increases turn-over intentions which negatively impact job and product quality of the organisation (Liu & Liu 2016:206).

The next chapter discusses the research methodology used in this study.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the research methodology used in the study. Research methodology describes the broad philosophical underpinning a chosen research method, techniques, means and frames carried out for a study (Mafini 2014:147). Other areas of discussion included in this chapter is the research design, the sampling procedure, capturing of data, data process and data analyses. Further steps and actions taken to ensure reliability and validity are explained. Finally, ethical considerations are alluded to.

#### **5.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY**

This section focusses on the philosophical aspects and implications of the study. Research philosophy entails a system of beliefs, assumptions, value judgement, theories, perspectives, ideologies and acceptable frames of reference and procedures about the development of knowledge, thinking and actions of individuals (Saunders 2016:124). According to Odinioha (2015:121) a philosophical framework of social research affects an individual's understanding and perception of all social phenomena and behaviours. Saunders (2016:124) advances that researchers make several assumptions throughout their studies, whether consciously aware of that or not.

The assumption that researchers are likely to make in studies include the assumption about human knowledge (epistemological assumptions), about realities that researchers encounter in their studies (ontological assumptions) and the extent and ways one's values influence the research process (axiological assumptions). Five major research philosophies are identified in the field of business and management studies, namely: positivism, realism, interpretivism /constructivist, postmodernism and pragmatism. All five research philosophies are discussed in the following section.

##### **5.2.1 Positivism**

Positivism philosophy allows for the use and application of natural scientific methodologies, which entail working with an observable social reality, issues or phenomenon (Zou, Sunindijo & Dainty 2014:316). Dudovski (2018:245) acknowledges

that positivism in research philosophy is difficult to explain in a precise and succinct manner because of immeasurable differences between settings in which positivism is used by researchers. Positivism depends on quantifiable data that leads to statistical analysis. Furthermore, Aliyu, Bello, Kasimo and Martin (2014:81) view positivism as a strictly scientific empirical method that promises unambiguous and knowledge-based research on pure data and facts uninfluenced by human interpretation or bias to determine the origin of a specific problem. The five main principles of a positivist research philosophy are summarised by Gunbayi and Sorm (2018:59) as follows:

- There are no differences in the logic of inquiry across sciences,
- The research should aim to explain and predict a phenomenon,
- Research should be empirically observable via human senses. Inductive reasoning should be used to develop statements (hypotheses) to be tested during the research process.
- Science is not the same as common sense. Common sense should not be allowed to influence the research findings, and
- Science must be value-free and it should be judged only by logic.

### **5.2.2 Realism**

Realism is a research philosophy that shares common principles with the positivist and interpretivist philosophies (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler 2014:19). Realism philosophy holds the view that the social and natural world external to individual cognition is a world made up of hard, tangible and relatively immutable structures that should apply the same approach to the collection of data and explanation (Chinomona 2015:119). Vosloo (2014:311) advances that realism recognises that understanding people and behaviour requires appreciation of the subjectivity inherent to humans.

Realists are of the view that the social world has to be understood in its totality (Gunbayi & Sorm 2018:59). The main objective of realism goes beyond a description of relationships to discover how such relationships came to being. Dean, Joseph, Roberts and Wight (2006:11) categorise realism into two forms, namely: critical and empirical realism. Critical realism suggests an ontology that there exists a reality independent of observers. Critical realism focuses on explaining what is visible and experienceable in terms of the underlying structures of reality that shape the observable events (Saunders 2016:138). Critical reality is viewed as the most important philosophical consideration

with structured and layered ontology being extremely important. Gill and Johnson (2010:190) advance the key element of critical realism as the identification of generative mechanisms that offer the prospect of introducing changes that can transform the status quo. Hamed (2016:61) confirms the notion that critical realism is convenient for social research with ethnographic content, applying an empirical research design to collect and analyse data relevant to the attitudes and opinions of the participants.

Empirical realism focuses on events that are observed and/ or experienced (Bhaskar 2008:20). According to Saunders (2015:139), empirical realism posits that using appropriate methods, reality can be understood. However, empirical realism has been criticised for its failure to recognise the enduring structures and generative mechanisms underlying and producing observable phenomena and events (Park 2017:60).

### **5.2.3 Interpretivism**

Interpretivism concerns itself with the gathering of all the relevant information that relates to lived experiences of humans (Thomas 2010:295). Interpretivism acknowledges that humans are different from the physical phenomena as they generate meanings, thus an interpretivism study focuses on the meanings (Fleetwood 2014:184). The interest of interpretivism is not focused on generating new theories, but to evaluate and refine interpretive theories (Gunbayi & Sorm 2018:64). Table 5.1 outlines the characteristics of interpretivism.

**Table 5.1: Characteristics of interpretivism**

Feature	Description
Purpose of research	Understanding and interpreting students' and teachers' perspectives on the factors that could impact on the successful use of e-learning and face-to-face instructional approaches in a manner that complements each other.
Ontology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Multiple realities exist.</li><li>• Reality can be explored and constructed through human interaction and meaningful actions.</li><li>• Discover how people make sense of their social being in the natural setting by means of daily routine, conversations and writings while interacting with others around them. These writings could be text or visual pictures.</li><li>• Many social realities exist due to varying human experience, including people's knowledge, views, interpretations and experiences.</li></ul>
Epistemology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Events are understood through the mental process of interpretation that is influenced by interaction with social contexts.</li><li>• Those active in the research process socially construct knowledge by experiencing the real life or nature settings.</li><li>• Inquirer and the inquired-into are interlocked in an interactive process of talking and listening, reading and writing.</li><li>• More personal, interactive mode of data collection.</li></ul>
Methodology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Processes of data collected by text messages, interviews and reflective sessions.</li><li>• Research is a product of the values of the researcher.</li></ul>

**Source:** Thomas (2010:298)

#### 5.2.4 Postmodernism

Postmodernist philosophies refer to the set of ideas that seek to explain the state of affairs in organisations and society (Kim 2005:29). Postmodernist researchers argue that reality is not fully knowable, thus making it difficult to define the truth (Campbell 2018:67). Furthermore, postmodernist advances that neutrality in research is impossible because everyone has interests and attitudes that influence how topics are selected, which questions to ask and what means of analysis are considered appropriate (Straus 2015:3). According to Saunders (2015:149) postmodernist researchers seeks to challenge



organisational concepts and theories and demonstrate all the perspectives and realities that are excluded, rather than focusing only on the ongoing processes of management, performance and resources of the organisations.

### **5.2.5 Pragmatism**

Pragmatism attempts to reconcile both objectivism and subjectivism, facts and values, accurate and rigorous knowledge and different contextualised experiences (Saunders 2015:143). Pragmatism research originated from the work of Pierce, James and Dewes in the late 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries (Kelemen & Rumens 2008:67). The pragmatist researcher is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality, thus preferring to use a mixed approach (qualitative and quantitative) when conducting research (Creswell 2007:23).

For the purpose of this study, the positivism paradigm is adopted as its underlying philosophy as it is grounded on cause-effect relationships amongst constructs within a given theoretical model. Since the study examines the influence of employee fit dimensions (person-job fit, person-environment fit and person-organisation fit) on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to stay among employees in an organisation it was necessary to test the various relationships through the hypotheses formulated Chapter 1 using positivist approach. In addition, Hlagala (2012:294) postulates that real events are observed empirically and explained with logical analysis.

## **5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Research design is explained as a master plan that specifies methods and procedures for collecting, analysing, interpreting and reporting research data (Gabriel 2015:103). Kothari (2004:31) refers to research design as a conceptual framework within which research is conducted. Kumar (2011:95) regards research design as a systematic and organised effort aimed at investigating a specific problem to provide a solution and its output is used to add new knowledge, develop theories as well as gather evidence to make generalisations.

Mafuwane (2011:68) contributes to this view by adding that research is a scientific, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypotheses and propositions about a speculated relationship between different phenomena.

## 5.4 DIFFERENT FORMS OF RESEARCH DESIGN

Akhtar (2016:73) differentiates research designs in three categories, namely; exploratory, descriptive and casual design. Exploratory research, also referred to as formulative research, is conducted when there are few or no earlier studies to refer to or rely on to predict an outcome (Kothari 2004:36). Exploratory research intends to discover new ideas and insights, apply concepts, explanations, theories and hypotheses with the view of providing news ways of perceiving how such segments of reality function and how they relate to each other (Reiter 2017:139).

Descriptive research studies are concerned with describing the features of a group(s) or individuals, its' focus is on practices, structures, conditions, relationships or differences that exist, (Akhtar 2016:75).

Causal research designs are generally known as experimental studies where researchers attempt to test the hypotheses of causal relationships between variables, which is done by maintaining control over all factors that may potentially affect the result of an experiment (Creswell 2014:13). Dlodlo (2017:127) states that causal research designs provide evidence of concomitant variations, which relates to the extent to which two or more variables occur together or vary together, systematically, as predicted by the hypotheses. Dlodlo (2017) further clarifies concomitant variation to mean that when a change in the cause occurs, a change in the outcome is also observed.

This study will adopt the descriptive and causal research design. These designs will assist in obtaining current and relevant information concerning the status of the phenomena and to describe what exists with respect to variables in each situation. Furthermore, descriptive research is pro-quantitative in design, thus providing some valuable pointers as to what variables are worth testing quantitatively. Descriptive studies, if effectively executed can produce rich data that can lead to significant recommendations in a study, while causal research will assist in explaining the extent of variation or association between the variables that are tested. Since hypotheses are set (Chapter 1) for the study it was necessary to test the relationship between the various fit dimensions on organisational citizenship behaviour as well as the influence of organisational citizenship behaviour on employees' intention to stay in the organisation.

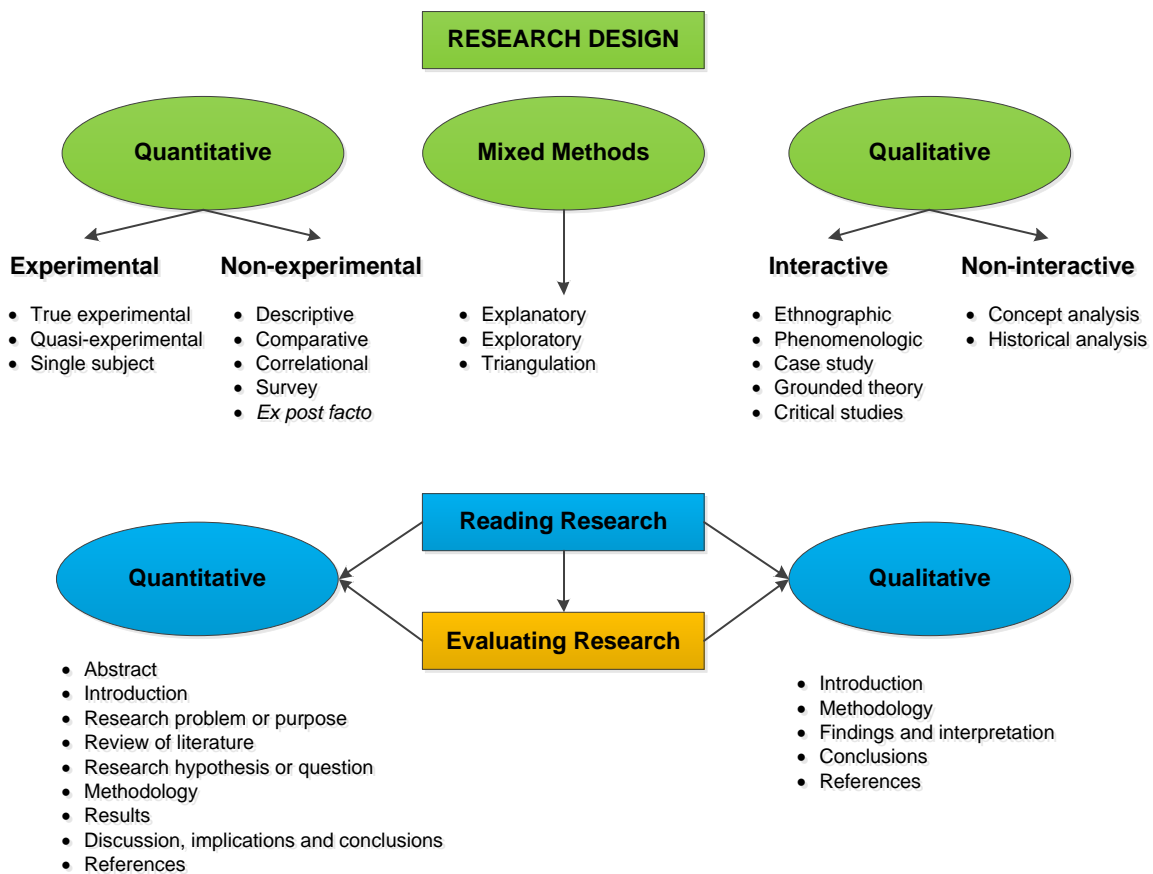
## 5.5 RESEARCH APPROACHES

Despite the existence of various research approaches, the most dominant research approaches are quantitative and qualitative in nature (Rahi 2017:2). The quantitative and qualitative research approaches present two different ends in the research space and should never be viewed as rigid, distinct categories, polar opposites or dichotomies (Creswell 2014:31). The distinction between the quantitative and qualitative is entrenched in terms of using numbers (quantitative) instead of words (qualitative), or close-ended questions (quantitative) rather than open-ended questions (qualitative).

A combination of a quantitative and qualitative approach results in a mixed method approach. According to Creswell (2014:32), the mixed method approach is found in the middle of the continuum because it integrates elements of both the quantitative and qualitative approach. The focus of this approach is on recognising the usefulness of both approaches and identifying where they can be used together in a single study to maximise the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of the other (Doyle, Byrne & Brady 2009:177).

The quantitative research approach is preferred in this study as it enables the researcher to explore the relationship between the identified employee fit dimensions, JS, OCB and ITS. Creswell (2014:32) adds that quantitative research is recognised for testing hypotheses using a questionnaire to gather data which can be analysed using statistical procedures. In addition, the approach accommodates a large sample size at a relatively low cost and is easy to administer (Gunbayi & Sorm 20 18:59).

Figure 5.1 illustrates the type of research design and the techniques applied in each approach.



**Figure 5.1: Research design and techniques**

**Source:** Adapted from Hassan (2016:12)

## 5.6 RESEARCH SETTING

The MDM in Mpumalanga province and the SDM in the Southern part of Gauteng in South Africa were used in the study as the research setting. These two municipalities were chosen in order to encapsulate a broader perspective of district municipalities from two different provinces on the topic under discussion.

## 5.7 SAMPLING DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

The primary objective of using a quantitative research approach is for the researcher to be able to generalise findings of a study. This has been demonstrated in numerous occasions where it is difficult for a researcher to sum up results for an entire population especially when the population is large (Khalid, Hilman & Kumar 2012:20). The concept population refers to the sum-total of units from which individual units are selected (Malhotra 2010:370). In other words, the entire group of people about whom a researcher wishes to obtain information. Researchers use a sample, which is a subgroup of a large

population to obtain information about the population in question and draw conclusions about that population. When a single member is chosen from any given population, that member represents an element, but when some elements are selected from a population, that represents a sample (Kish 1979:101).

A non-probability convenience sampling method was chosen for the study. Convenience sampling is a technique that makes it possible to take a sample of a population (Alvi 2016:14). Convenience sampling suits this study because it is convenient, quick and inexpensive and the researcher uses his/her judgement to select subjects who meet the eligibility criteria (Mbambo 2009:40). In convenient sampling, the researcher enjoys the benefit of using respondents who are readily available and willing to participate in the study. It was difficult to implement a probability sampling method as some of the staff members in the various categories were not willing to participate in the study.

#### **5.7.1 Target population**

Two municipalities; the Mbombela District Municipality (MDM) in Mpumalanga and the Sedibeng District Municipality (SDM) in Gauteng formed part of the study. The MDM was formed in the year 2000 after the amalgamation of previous local council (Nelspruit Transitional Local Councils (NTRC), White River TRC, White River Transitional Local Council (WRTLCL), Hazyview Transitional Local Council (HTLC) and The Greater Nelspruit (Adams & Moila 2004:2; Municipal Demarcation Board 2011), while SDM comprises the Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi local municipalities (Sedibeng District Municipality 2015:22). For ethical purposes, permission to conduct the study was requested and granted by both municipalities. The total size of the population was 2612.

#### **5.7.2 Sample size**

The sample was restricted to the following categories of employees: top management, senior management, middle management, lower management, operational employees and administrators. The grouping in the sample is informed by the fact that municipal employees are categorised as such and a sampling composition similar to the one used in this study was used and proven to be effective by Pietersen and Oni (2014:147). It has been recommended that in a population size that is above 1500, at least 15 to 20 percent of that population should be sampled (Leedy & Ormrod 2014:222). For example, Scarpi (2012:61) used a sample size of 300, Yoo, Lee and Park (2010:91) used 451, while, Mishra (2014:234) used 500. Furthermore, multiple regression analysis authors provide

guidelines on how many respondents are required. For example, Stevens (1996:72) recommends that for social science research, about 15 respondents per predictor are needed for a reliable regression equation. Tabachnick and Fidel (2007:123) provided further guidelines where  $N > 104 + m$  (where  $m$  is the number of independent variables) for multiple regression analysis for testing individual predictors. In the current study the minimum sample size is calculated as follows:  $104 + 9 = 113$  cases. Based on these estimates and taking into account the population, a sample of 500 was deemed adequate for the study in order to have a broader representation that can be used to generalise the results.

## **5.8 MEASURING INSTRUMENT**

Research measuring instruments are means or devices of obtaining data relevant to a study project and there are varieties of alternatives (open-ended, close-ended and multiple-choice questions) to choose from (Wilkinson & Birmingham 2003:3). Open-ended questions expect the respondent to freely answer the questions according to their opinion.

A structured questionnaire that contained generic questions, which were in the form of close-ended questions were used for the study. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed to available and willing respondents to complete. The questionnaire was divided into seven sections (refer to Appendix 2) and required approximately 15 minutes to complete. Section A of the questionnaire required demographic details and consisted of 8 questions that collected demographic data including gender, marital status, age, educational level, time spent in the same position, experience in the job, position and department. Section B contained seven items on person-job fit. Section C comprised seven items on person-environment fit. Section D comprised of 6 items on person-organisation fit. Section E consisted of five items on job satisfaction. Section F comprised 19 items on organisational citizenship behaviour. Section G comprised five items on intention to stay in the organisation.

The questions in sections B to G were adapted from prior research studies that were conducted that used a five-point Likert response scale: 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (neither agree nor disagree), 4 (agree) and 5 (strongly agree).

### **5.8.1 Person-job fit**

Person-job fit questions were adapted from person-job fit survey measuring the Knowledge, Skills and Ability Profile (KSAP) (Lauver & Kristof-Brown 2001:465). The KSAP uses personality tests and aptitude tests. The personality tests explore one's interests, values and motivations, analysing how your character fits with the role and organisations, while aptitude tests assess a person's reasoning or cognitive ability and determines a person has the right skillsets of the role.

### **5.8.2 Person-environment fit**

Person-environment fit questions were adapted from the General Environment Fit Scale (GEFS) developed by Cable and DeRue (2002:880).

### **5.8.3 Person-organisation fit**

Person-organisation fit questions were adapted from an Organisational Culture Profile (OCP) developed by O'Reilly III, Chatman and Caldwell (1991:498).

### **5.8.4 Job satisfaction**

The job satisfaction measuring instrument was adapted from Spector (1985:699) and Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek and Frings-Desen (2003:194) using the global scale.

### **5.8.5 Organisational citizenship behaviour**

Organisational citizenship behaviour was measured using scales adopted from Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) using five dimensions. The five dimensions of OCB that were identified by Organ (1988) are altruism (five items), courtesy (five items), civic virtue (four items), sportsmanship (five items) and conscientiousness (4 items).

### **5.8.6 Intention to stay**

Intention to stay was measured using scales adopted from Mustapha *et al.*, (2010:66).

## **5.9 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

The sample of the study was drawn from two district municipalities that are far apart from each other, the MDM and the SDM. The geographical distance between the two municipalities necessitated the appointment of two research assistants who were

adequately and properly trained as prescribed by Mouton (1996:159). The training (three hours) was necessary to ensure that participants were not forced into participating in the study and that the principles of anonymity were adhered to. Most importantly, the reliability of the information gathered should not be questionable.

## **5.10 PILOT STUDY**

A pilot study remains a crucial element of a good study design regardless of the expertise and experience of the designer of the questionnaire. Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002:5) refer to a pilot study as a mini version of a full-scale study which, according to Ismael, Kinchin and Edward (2018:4) provides the researcher with an opportunity to modify the research where problem areas are identified.

48 questionnaires were piloted on a sample with similar characteristics to those of the target group. Participants of the pilot study were a combination of administrators, technicians, supervisors and junior managers of SDM and MDM. The purpose of the pilot study was to test internal reliability of the measuring instrument and make amends where necessary (refer to sec 6.2 for the results of the pilot study). These respondents were not included in the main survey.

## **5.11 DATA PREPARATION**

Data preparation is an elementary stage of data analysis. The data preparation process starts after data collection has been completed. Zhang, Zhang and Yang (2003:376) view data preparation as highly intricate comprising techniques that are concerned with analysing raw data to produce quality and reliable data. Two primary techniques were used in the data preparation stage, namely editing and coding.

### **5.11.1 Editing**

Editing refers to the examination of questionnaires intended increase its accuracy and precision. The process consists of screening questionnaires to identify illegible, incomplete, inconsistent or ambiguous responses (Jones & Hidiroglou 2013:483). Researchers use the editing stage as a preliminary check for consistency and remove items that make the questionnaire unreliable. Central editing was done whereby these checks were undertaken by the researcher with the assistance of the co-promoter.



### 5.11.2 Coding

Coding means to group and allocate a code in a form of a number to each possible response to each question which can be entered into a database (Belotto 2018:2624). However, the method of choosing an appropriate number to represent a data point is dependent upon: (a) the type of analysis to be used to analyse the data, (b) the type of data, and (c) the requirements of the statistical programme to be used for the analyses. Coding reduces a wide variety of information to a more limited set of variable attributes. Coding for the study was done by the researcher with the assistance of the statistician.

## 5.12 DATA ANALYSIS AND STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

Data analysis relates to processes where the cleaned and aggregated data are imported into analysis tools with the view to reach certain conclusions for a given problem or situation (De Smith 2018:57). Through data analysis, a researcher can make sense of the gathered data by proper application of statistical methods. The analysis involves various statistical tests such as descriptive statistics (means and frequencies), correlation analysis and regression analysis. A detailed analysis of the data analysis is presented in Chapter 6.

### 5.12.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive analysis was done using SPSS software. Basic descriptive methods in the form of tables and graphs are used to describe certain sections of the study. Descriptive statistics are used to summarise or describe data obtained for a group of individual units of analyses (Loeb, Morris, Dynarski, Reardons, Mcfarland & Reber 2017:18). Table 5.2 presents basic descriptive statistics used in the data analysis.

**Table 5.2: Basic descriptive statistics**

<b>Variance</b>	Variance measures the average squared distance that its scores deviate from their mean. It presents the relation that a set of scores has to the mean of the sample.
<b>Frequency</b>	Frequency is a descriptive statistical method reflecting the number of occurrences of every response chosen by the respondents. When this method is used, SPSS can immediately calculate the mean, median and mode to assist the user to analyse the results and ultimately draw conclusions.

<b>Standard deviation</b>	Standard deviation is described and expressed as the positive square root of the sum of the square deviations from the mean divided by the number of scores minus one.
<b>Mean</b>	The mean represents the centre of gravity of distribution. It is calculated by adding all the values and dividing them by a total number of the values.
<b>Skewness</b>	Skewness is characterised as a measure to quantify the degree of relative distortion of a given frequency distribution in the horizontal direction. Skewness statistics are divided into two, namely: positively skewed distribution and negatively skewed distribution. Distribution is regarded as positively skewed when most of the score pile up at the low or left end of the distribution and spread out more gradually towards the end of it. Negative skew distribution happens when the scores are concentrated towards the upper value and are positively skewed if they cluster towards the lower value.
<b>Median</b>	The median is another type of descriptive statistic classified as a central tendency estimate. The median is found right at the middle of the set of value and it divides the distribution into two equal parts to enable one half of the items to fall above it and the other half below it.
<b>Kurtosis</b>	Kurtosis refers to “peakedness” or flatness of the frequency distribution as compared to normal. A frequency distribution that is more peaked than the normal distribution is referred to as leptokurtic, while a frequency distribution that is flatter than the normal is called platykurtic. A normal curve is termed mesokurtic

**Source:** Norušis (2012:499)

### 5.12.2 Exploratory factor analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) procedure is a statistical technique used to identify the complex interrelationships amongst a set of latent (hidden) constructs and group these variables as part of unified concept (Hadi, Abdullah, & Sentosa 2016:216). In other words, EFA captures the groups of observed variables which are consistently moving together. Zulkepli, Sipan & Jibril (2017:15) and Eaton and Willoughby (2018:2) also describe EFA as a “set of procedures used to identify, reduce and organise a large number of questionnaire items or factors into a specific construct for independent variable in a study”.

Gupta and Falk (2017:4) concur and further indicate that EFA is conducted to explore the underlying theoretical structure of the phenomena, eliminate problems of multicollinearity, while reducing the number of variables (Ghazali, Rabi, Hassan & Wahab

2018:523). Exploratory factor analysis is used when a researcher does not have a prior hypothesis about the factors or patterns of measured variables, which is the case in this current study and justifies why it was selected (Williams, Onsman & Brown 2010:2; Hidayat, Zamri & Zulnaldi 2018:10).

In this study, dimensions that summarise the employee fit dimensions, JS, OCB and ITS were determined using EFA and is described in Section 6.5. Two procedures namely the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) were used as statistical tools to check the suitability of data for EFA. These two identified procedures are considered the most common and reliable statistical tools (Chan & Idris 2017:403).

In order to determine the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis, three aspects were considered. The first aspect was the sample size, followed by factorability of the correlation matrix and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy or BTS. Hair, Black and Babin (2010) suggest that sample sizes should be 100 cases or larger. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that at least 300 cases are required for factor analysis. However, MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang and Hong (1999:86) and Kyriazos (2018:2211) are of the view that the sample sizes should be the greater of 5 times the number of variables. Thus, the sample size for conducting the EFA in this study must not be less than 270 respondents (54 items times five).

Furthermore, to determine the factorability of the data both the KMO and Bartlett's test of Sphericity were adopted. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that a high KMO value should be greater than 0.6 but not more than 1, to demonstrate that factor analysis may be useful, while the BTS must be significant at  $< 0.05$  to assume factorability of the correlation matrix. Maat, Zakaria, Nordin and Meerah (2011) states that the KMO test and BTS determines whether the sample was adequate to proceed with factor analysis.

In the current study, the KMO value for all the constructs of employee fit dimension, JS, OCB and ITS are between 0.832 – 0.861 (refer to Section 6.5) which is below 1, making it desirable for factor analysis. Furthermore, the BTS for all the constructs returned p values less than 0.05. These results are reflected in Table 6.2.

### **5.12.3 Correlation analysis**

Correlation analysis describes the relationship between two variables (Gogtay & Thatte 2017:78). According to Zaid (2015:4) correlation analysis measures the extent of correspondence between the ordering of two random variables. A positive correlation

reflects the extent to which those variables increase or decrease in parallel, the value of the coefficient is +1.00. A negative correlation shows the degree to which one variable increase as other decreases and is indicated by a coefficient value of -1.00 (Hamman-Fisher 2008:162). The Pearson correlation coefficient shows that when the value is close to zero, it indicates a weak linear relationship. According to Zaid (2015:8) the strength of the relationship increases as the value of the coefficient ( $r$ ) shifts towards either -1.00 or +1.00, with  $r$  +1.00 indicating a strong positive linear correlation. The Pearson's correlation coefficient was used in this study and the results are presented in Chapter 7. Correlations were computed to examine the relationships (association) between the study constructs (PJF, PEF, POF, JS, OCB and ITS).

#### **5.12.4 Regression analysis**

Regression analysis is one of the most widely used statistical techniques to predict or estimate one variable on the basis of another variable. In other words, regression analysis assigns one of the variables the status of a dependent variable, and the other variable the status of an independent variable in order to predict the existence of relationships between two variables (Ibrahim 2015:102). Ordinarily, regression analysis is used for three reasons, namely: 1) modelling the relationship between variables, 2) prediction of the target variable and, 3) testing hypotheses (Narayanan 2015:259).

Rehbinder (2011:40) and Clow and James (2014:416) identified the following types of regression analysis, namely: linear regression analysis that considers the predicting powers of the established constructs on the dependent variable using a straight-line relationship between two variables in order to establish whether the established hypotheses can be confirmed or not. In the case of nonlinear regression, data are fitted to a model and then expressed as a mathematical function. Simple regression examines how an independent variable relates to the outcome variable. Multiple regression focuses on determining the relationship between many independent variables and the outcome variable. Regression analysis will also be used to establish the predictive validity of the constructs.

In this study, linear regression analysis, simple regression analysis as well as a variant of multiple regression analysis are used to indicate the cause and effect relationships between employee fit dimensions (PJF, PEF and POF), JS, OCB and ITS as reported in Section 6.8 of Chapter 6.

## 5.13 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

A critical aspect in research is to ensure that the measuring instrument is reliable and valid, regardless of the data collection method preferred by a researcher.

### 5.13.1 Reliability

Reliability relates to the repeatability of a measuring instrument. This refers to the degree to which a test, questionnaire, observation or any instrument measures the same way each time it is applied under the same condition with the same subjects (Heale & Twycross 2015:66). Any research tool that produces different scores each time it is used is considered to have a low reliability. Thus, reliability ensures consistency of results and minimises errors and biases. However, according to Bolarinwa (2015:195) it is difficult to accurately calculate reliability, but it can be estimated. Reliability can be achieved through three attributes namely:

- **Equivalence or alternate-form reliability.** Equivalence is assessed through inter-rater reliability and is measured through a parallel form procedure where one administers alternative forms of the same measure to either the same or different groups of respondents (Bolarinwa 2015:198). Such administration could occur at the same time or be delayed for some days. The higher the degree of correlation between the two forms, the more equivalent they are (Heale & Twycross 2015:67).
- **Test-retest reliability (stability).** Test-retest refers to a situation where reliability coefficient is achieved through the repetition of the same testing instrument with the same or a similar group (Heale & Twycross 2015:67). In other words, for the score to be considered consistent, the measuring instrument should produce a similar score when used for the second or third time. Bolarinwa (2015:198) identified the following two assumptions underlying the use of the test-retest procedure. The first required assumption is that the characteristics that are measured do not change over the time period called “testing effect”. Secondly, the time period should be long enough yet short that the respondents’ memories at time one does not influence their scores when taking the test at time two “memory effect”.
- **Internal consistency reliability.** Internal consistency reliability is used to evaluate the extent to which the items on the measuring instrument measure the same group of individuals (Mohajane 2017:12). According to Sharma (2016:271) Cronbach’s alpha determines the internal consistency or average correlation of items in a survey

instrument to gauge its reliability. The coefficient of reliability when calculated typically varies between zero and one where zero or close to zero indicates no or little relationship among the items on a given scale and 1 or close to indicates strong internal consistency (Bajpai & Bajpai 2014:176).

Generally, alpha values of above 0.7 are considered acceptable and satisfactory, above 0.8 are considered good, while those above 0.9 are considered to indicate an exceptional internal consistency (Mohajane 2017:13; Ghazali, *et al.*, 2018:523). Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to assess the internal consistency of scales. Cronbach's coefficient is preferred because it is the most used, reasonable and provides multiple items to measure a variety of factors in an instrument that do not have a right or wrong answer. These results are reported in Chapter 6 of this study.

### **5.13.2 Validity**

Validity refers to the extent to which the test or inventory measures what it purports to measure and is justified by evidence (Bajpai & Bajpai 2014:173). In quantitative research, validity is the extent to which any measuring instrument measures what it is intended to measure, while in qualitative studies the researcher uses certain procedures to check for the accuracy of the research findings (Creswell 2014:55). In other words, validity concerns itself with the question of whether the measurement of a phenomenon or construct is true and the degree to which the results are truthful.

Validity requires that an instrument be reliable, however, an instrument can be reliable without being valid (Kimberlin & Winterstein 2008:2278). In this study, validity of the measuring instrument is assessed by means of the following methods content validity, construct validity, convergent validity and predictive validity.

#### **5.13.2.1 Content validity**

Content validity is the degree to which an instrument holistically measures the trait or theoretical construct intended to be measured. According to Lam, Hassan, Sulaiman and Kamarudin (2018:376) content validity entails the evaluation of each test item for its relevance to the intended construct to ensure that the items of the instrument "are representative samples of the universe of content and behaviour of the domain being addressed. Mohajane (2017:15) adds that statistically, there are no test to determine whether a measure adequately covers a content area as, content validity depends on the judgement of experts in the field. Content validity was assessed through the judgment of

the researcher, the promoter and co-promoter. Further the questionnaire was distributed to two senior lecturers in the field for comments and feedback.

#### **5.13.2.2 Construct validity**

Construct validity is concerned with “what qualities a test measures and is evaluated” by showing that certain explanatory constructs account to some degree for performance on the test (Bajpai & Bajpai 2014:174). In other words, construct validity testifies to how well the results generated from the use of the measure fit the theories around which the test is designed to test. Construct validity was assessed through a review of the literature which made use of the instruments in prior research.

#### **5.13.2.3 Convergent validity**

Constructing a correlation matrix is a useful tool in assessing convergent, validity which is achieved when the scores obtained with two different instruments measuring the same concept are highly correlated. In convergent validity reasonable correlation is considered when the  $r$  values are 0.40 or higher (Taherdoost 2016:29). In this study, the inter-construct correlation matrix coefficients were computed to assess convergent validity.

#### **5.13.2.4 Predictive validity**

Predictive validity assesses the ability of a measuring instrument to predict future performance either in some activity or another assessment of the same construct (Taherdoost 2016:34). In other words, the survey is predictively valid if the test accurately predicts what it is supposed to predict. In the current study, predictive validity was measured through multi-linear regression analysis. Strong positive and significant associations were observed between the dependant and independent variables (refer to Section 6.8), which attests to the acceptable levels of predictive validity in this study. The assessment of predictive validity is reported in Chapter 7 of this study.

### **5.14 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Generally, ethics refers to the determination of what is right and wrong that may be represented in principles (beneficence, justice and fairness), policies, codes or law (Sobocan, Bertotti & Strom-Gottfried 2018:3). Research ethics entails conducting research not only by adopting the most appropriate research methodology but by conducting research in a responsible and morally defensible manner (McKenna & Gray 2018:147). Researchers are guided by a set of established guidelines and mechanisms

to ensure compliance with the set standards. In the context of this study, the researcher complied with the ethical codes of all affected bodies (SA Board for People Practice, Vaal University of Technology and the affected municipalities). Such compliance with the guidelines enables the researcher to avoid violating employees' and employers' rights by maintaining honesty, objectivity, fairness and openness.

Permission was requested in writing and was also granted in writing from MDM and SDM involved in the study to conduct the study (refer to annexures A & B). The purpose of the study was clarified to participating municipalities and with individual respondents. The study was conducted in a very responsible manner with the values of honesty, fairness, clarity, objectivity, comprehensiveness, accountability and openness. Participants were not exposed to any known risks, participation was entirely voluntary and respondents were not forced to participate. To maintain high confidentiality, the study encouraged that respondents remained anonymous. The findings of the study shall be made accessible on request to all interested stakeholders.

A user-friendly Likert-type scale questionnaire was distributed amongst the participants. To avoid misunderstandings, the questions were asked in a simple and easy-to-understand language. Double-barrelled questions were avoided. Participation in the study was voluntary and respondents answered anonymously.

## **5.15 CONCLUSION**

This chapter outlined five major research paradigms in the field of business and management studies from which a preferred research philosophy was chosen. The positivism paradigm was a preferred philosophy in this study owing to its objectivity, dependability on quantifiable data and its use of a scientific empirical method which produces results based on data and is free from human influence. Furthermore, the chapter discussed research design, forms of research design, research approaches, research setting sampling design and procedure. The chapter further outlined the measuring instruments used in the study and how the questionnaire was distributed. This chapter further presented how the pilot study was executed, how data were prepared, how data analysis and statistical analysis was undertaken. In addition, reliability, validity and ethical consideration were outlined.

Chapter 6 presents the empirical results of both the pilot study as and the main survey.



## CHAPTER 6

### DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

While there have been various studies undertaken to analyse the effects of PJF, PEF and POF on various outcomes little is known how these fit variables in relation to JS, OCB and ITS in district municipality environments. Therefore, these three employee fit dimensions are studied together to examine their effects on JS. Further, the effects of OCB on ITS are analysed.

The preceding chapter (Chapter 5) discussed the research methodology used in the study. This chapter presents the data analysis and results obtained in the study. The SPSS was used to compute the descriptive statistics, correlations, reliability and regression analysis. The reliability of the pilot study is first discussed followed by an analysis of the main study.

#### 6.2 PILOT TEST ANALYSIS

Prior to the main study, a pilot study was conducted with administration officer at Emfuleni local municipality. The choice of the pilot was made on the basis that it will provide a clear picture of how the responses will look like. The main objective of performing the pilot study was to ensure internal consistency of the measuring instrument and to ascertain that items in the questionnaire were understandable, clear and unambiguous. The results obtained from the pre-test were used to refine the questionnaire used in the pilot study. The pilot study questionnaire comprised seven items on person job fit, seven items on person environment fit, eight items on person organisation fit, five items on job satisfaction, 23 items on OCB and five items on intention to stay. Table 6.1 reports on the pilot test results with regards to the reliabilities for each construct.

**Table 6.1: Summary results of the pilot study**

Constructs description	Cronbach's alpha coefficient	Item-total correlation	Number of items
Person job fit	0.917	0.402-0.857	7
Person environment fit	0.845	0.418-0.760	7

<b>Constructs description</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha coefficient</b>	<b>Item-total correlation</b>	<b>Number of items</b>
Person organisation fit	0.730	0.023-0.667	8
Job satisfaction	0.910	0.710-0.871	5
OCB	0.850	0.213-0.836	23
Intention to stay	0.852	0.612-0.876	5

A sample of 58 employees from SDM participated in the pilot study. The reliabilities of the items were all at an acceptable level, above 0.70. Two items were removed from the POF fit dimension ("my values prevent me from fitting in at this organisation because they are different from the organisation's values; and deciding to be a member of this organisation was a definite mistake on my part") because of low item to total correlations (<0.20). The item correlations were 0.132 and 0.023 respectively.

### **6.3 MAIN STUDY RESPONSES**

After the pilot study was concluded and the recommended changes on the questionnaire were attended to, the questionnaire retained with 54 items. A total of 500 printed questionnaires were distributed to the identified sample of municipal employees together with a covering letter explaining the purpose of the study. The data collection process took two month periods to complete using two trained field workers.

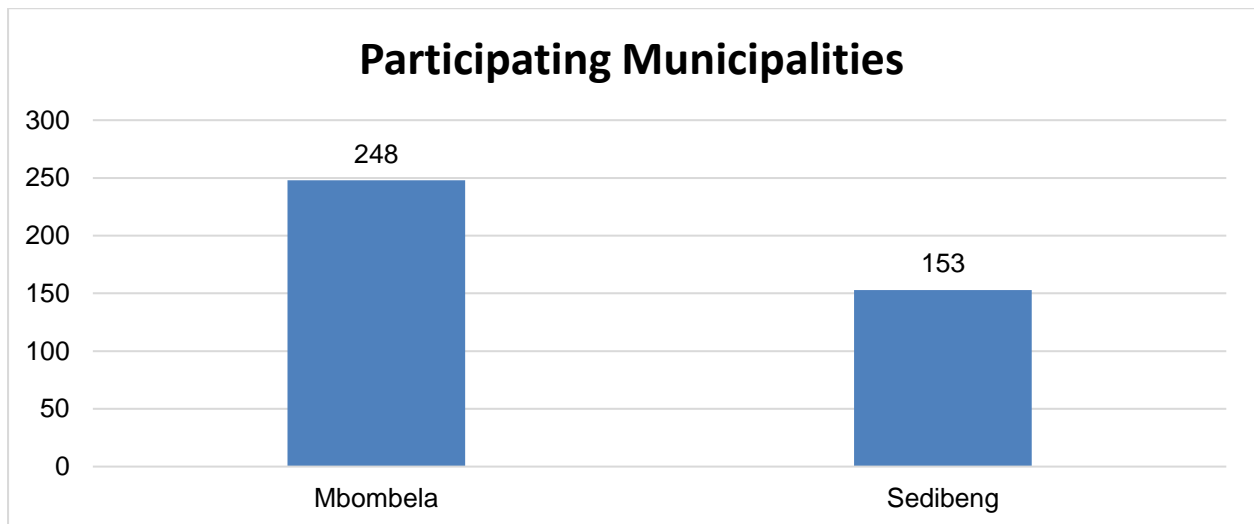
Of the 500 distributed questionnaires, 448 questionnaires were returned. A total of 47 questionnaires were discarded due to incomplete responses, which resulted in 401 questionnaires that were used (80% return rate) for the analysis.

### **6.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS**

Descriptive statistics for the demographics and general profile (Section A) are discussed. Section A required respondent to provide the following information: gender, age classification, qualification, position and estimated length of service. Descriptive analysis of variables of employee fit dimension, JS, OCB and ITS are then discussed.

#### **6.4.1 Participating municipalities**

Figure 6.1 provides statistical information on the feedback from the municipalities that took part in the study.

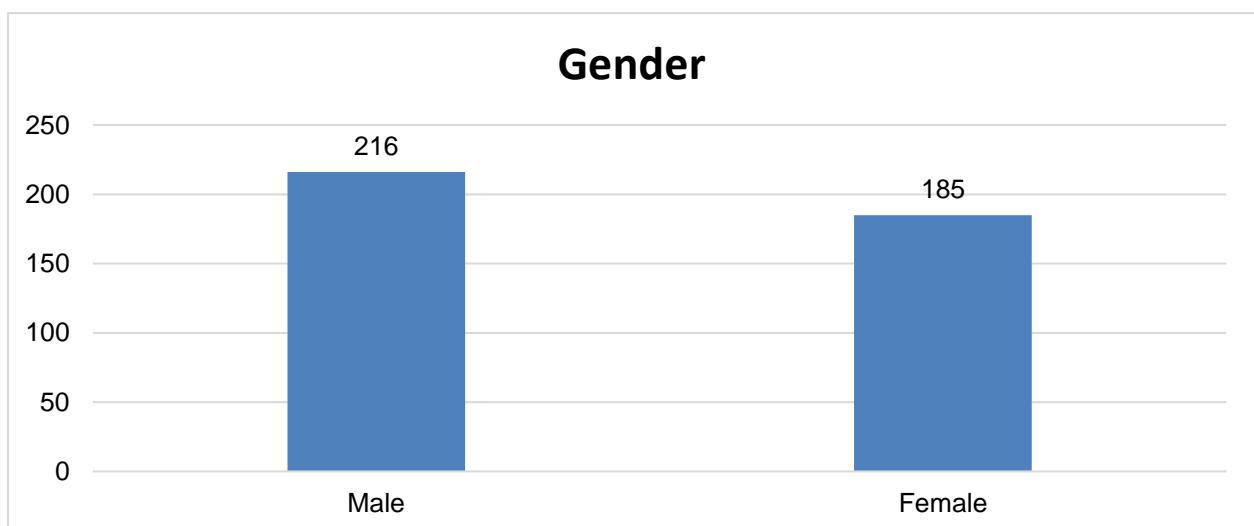


**Figure 6.1: Participating municipalities**

The MDM comprised 248 respondents (61.8%) and the SDM comprised 153 respondents (38.2%).

#### **6.4.2 Gender of respondents**

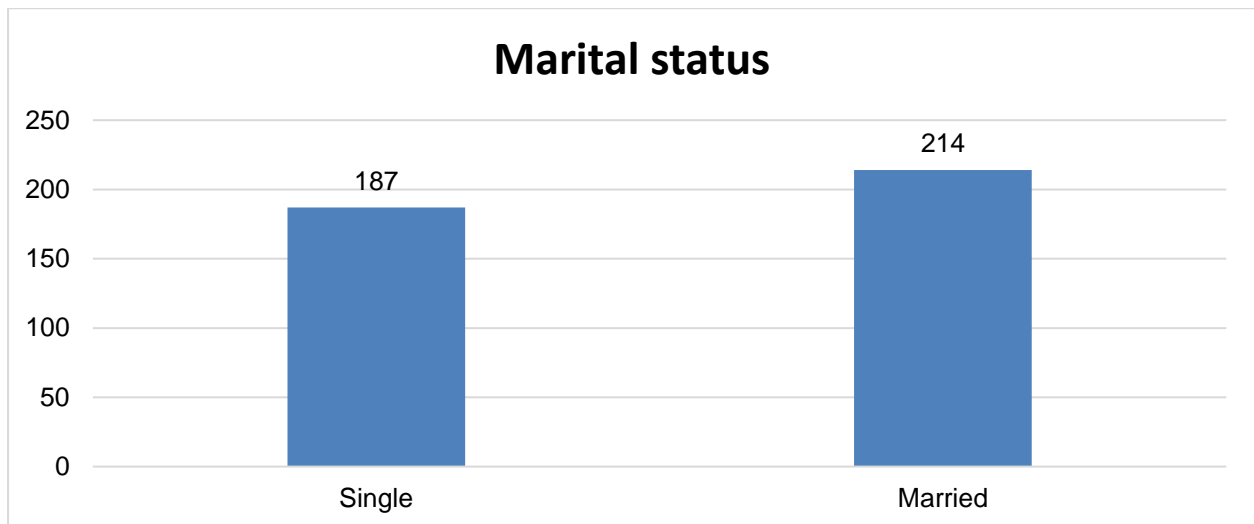
Figure 6.2 indicates that 216 (53.9%) of the respondents were males, while 185 (46.1%) were females.



**Figure 6.2: Gender of respondents**

#### **6.4.3 Marital status of respondents**

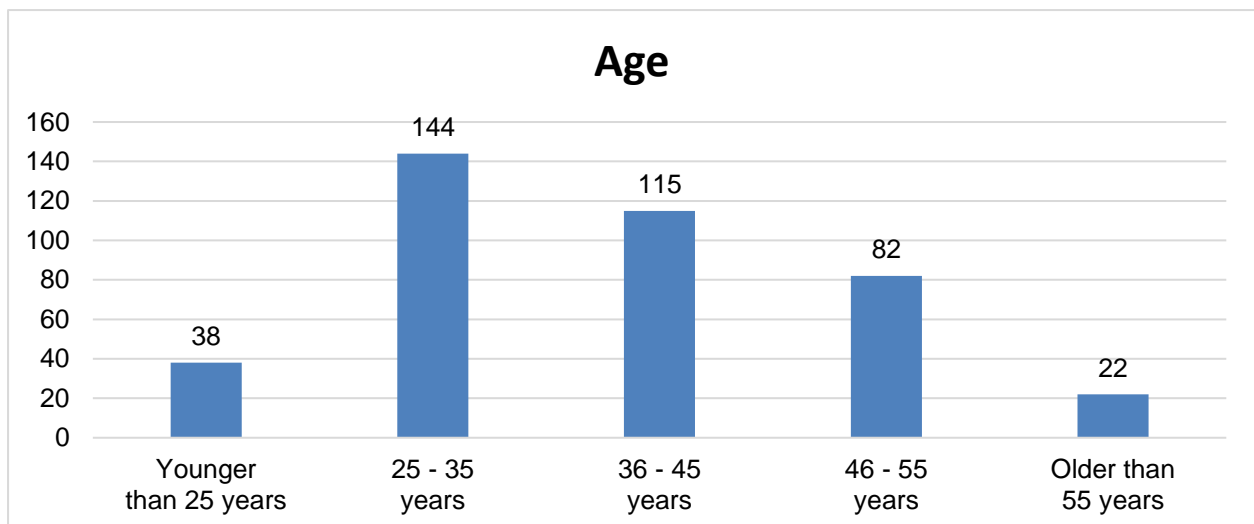
Figure 6.3 provides information on the marital status of the respondents. Of the 401 respondents, 187 (46.6%) were single while 214 (53.4%) were married.



**Figure 6.3: Marital status of respondents**

#### 6.4.4 Age of respondents

The age distribution of the respondents is provided in Figure 6.4. The figure shows that 38 (9.5%) of the respondents were under 25 years, 144 (35.9%) were between 25 and 35 years old, 115 (28.7%) were between 36 and 45 years, 82 (20.4%) were between 46 and 55 years old and 22 (5.5%) were 55 years and above.

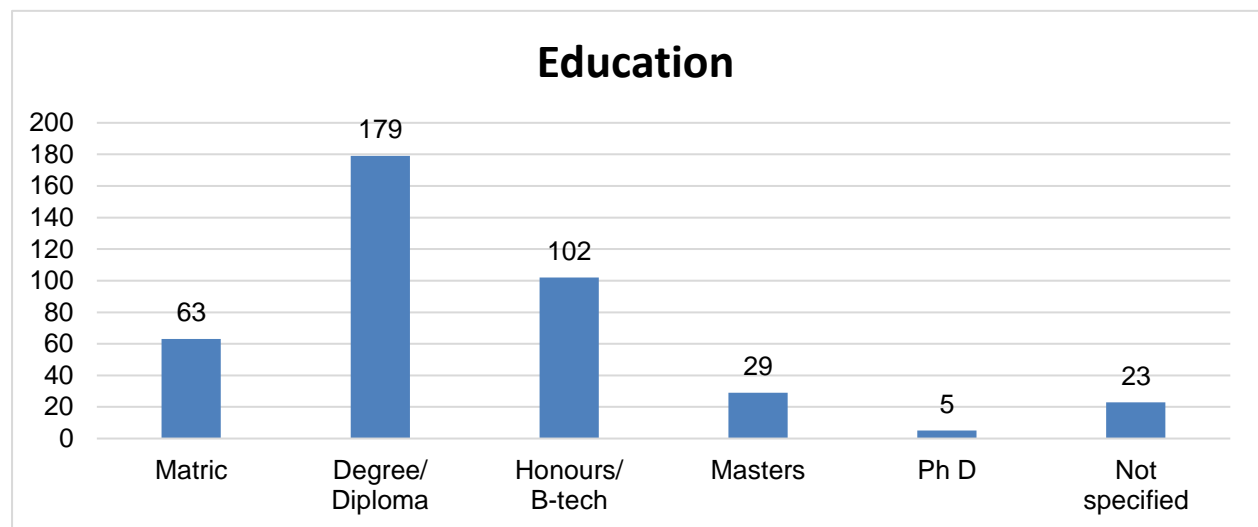


**Figure 6.4: Age of respondents**

#### 6.4.5 Education level of respondents

The education levels of the sample are shown in Figure 6.5. A total of 63 (15.7%) of the respondents were in possession of a matriculation certificate, 179 (44.6%) were in a possession of a first degree/ diploma, 102 (25.4%) were in possession of an Honours or

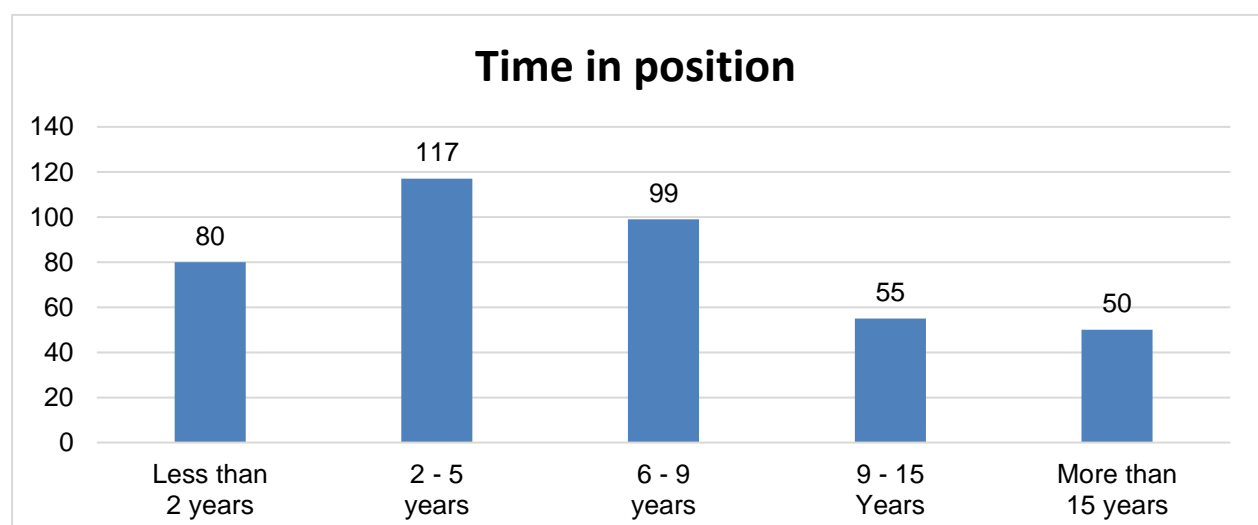
B-tech degree, 29 (7.2%) were in possession of a Masters' qualifications, while 5 (1.2%) held a PhD degree qualification. A total of 23 (5.7%) had unspecified qualifications or certificates.



**Figure 6.5: Educational level of respondents**

#### 6.4.6 Length of time in the current position

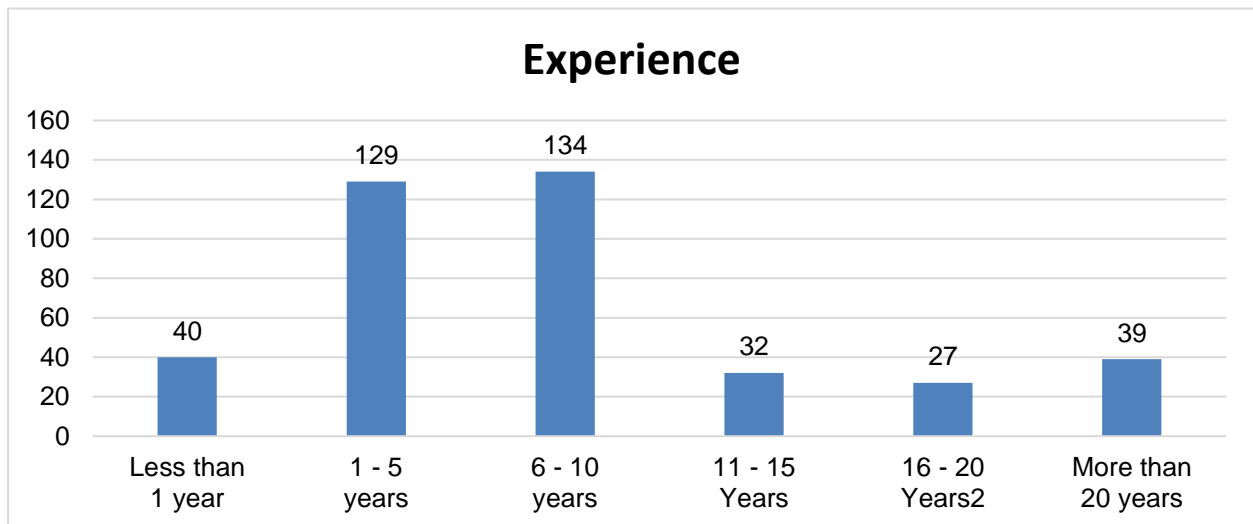
In Figure 6.6, 80 (20%) of the respondents had been to the same position for less than two years. The majority of the sample 117 (29.2%) occupied the same position for between 2-5 years, 99 (24.7%) of the respondents were in the same position for 6-9 years, 55 (13.7%) were in the same position for 10-15 years and 50 (12.5%) were in the same position for 15 years and more.



**Figure 6.6: Time spent in the same position**

#### 6.4.7 Respondents' experience

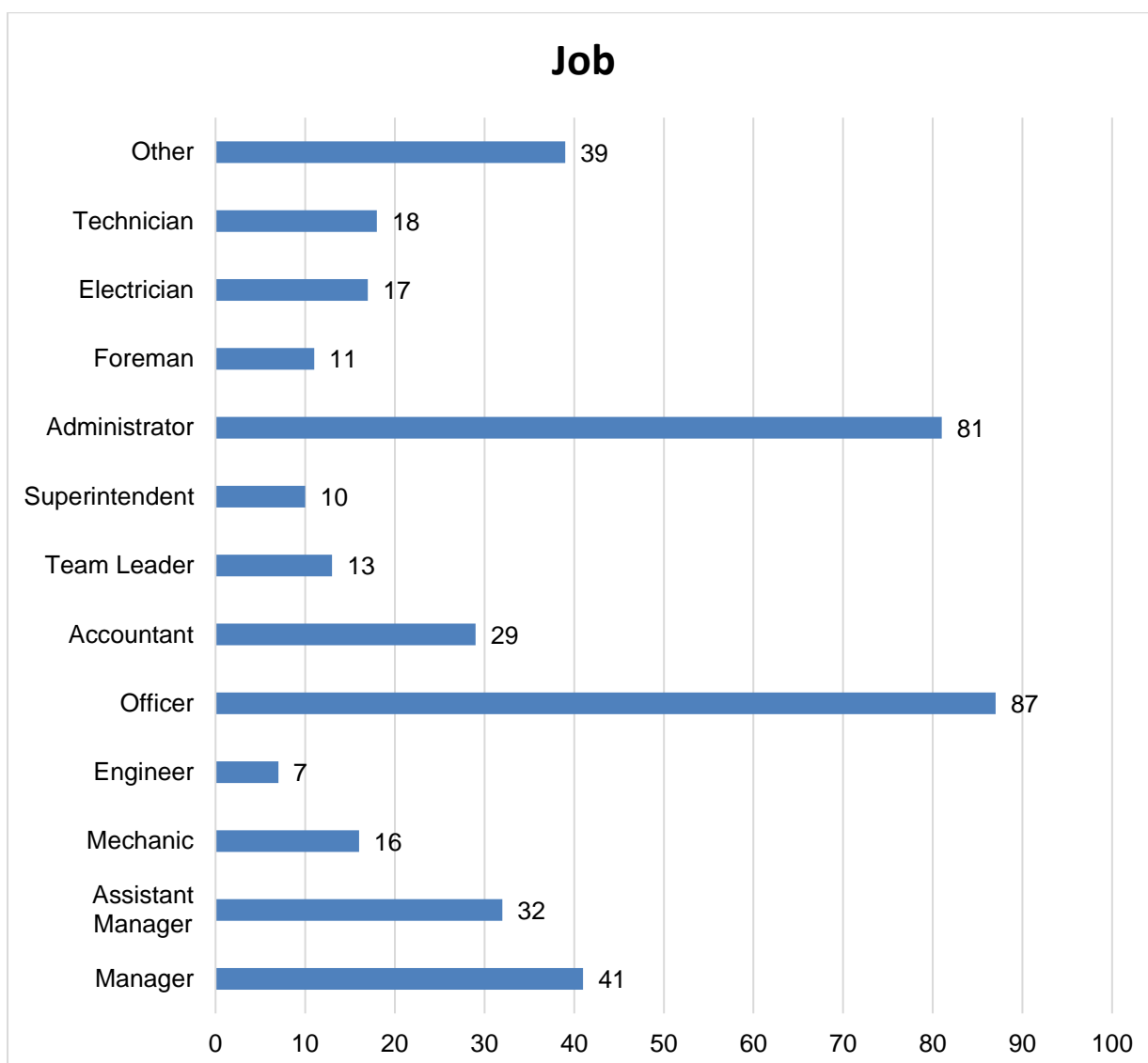
Figure 6.7 reflects the years of experience of respondents where it is reported that 40 (10%) had less than 1 year of working experience, 129 (32.2%) had between 1-5 years of experience, 134 (33.4%) respondents had between 6-10 years working experience, 32 (8.0%) had between 11-15 years' experience, 27 (6.7%) had between 16-20 years working experience and 39 (9.7%) had working experience of 20 years and more.



**Figure 6.7: Experience of respondents**

#### 6.4.8 Respondents' job position

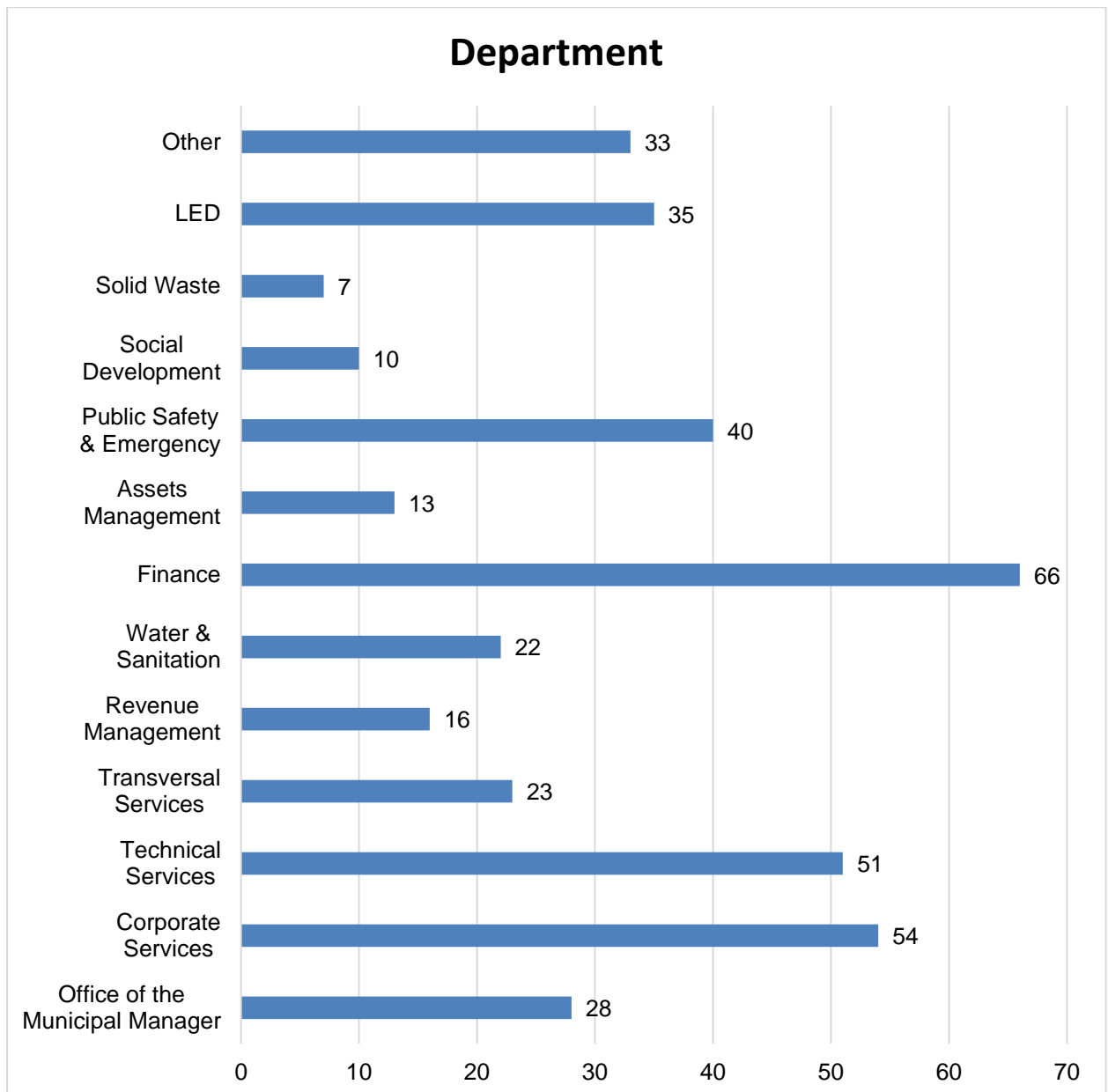
Figure 6.8 indicates that the sample predominantly consisted of 87 officers (21.7%) followed by 81 administrators (20.2%), 41 managers (10.2%), and 32 assistant managers (8.0%). Figure 6.8 further shows that 29 (7.2%) of the sample were accountants, relatively close to them were technicians; electricians and mechanics with 18 (4.5%); 17 (4.2%) and 16 (4.0%) respectively. Team leaders comprised 13 (3.2%), foreman 11 (2.7%), superintendent 10 (2.5%) and the engineers 7 (1.7%) of the sample.



**Figure 6.8: Job of respondents**

#### **6.4.9 Department in which respondents worked**

Data were drawn from various departments within the municipalities as reflected in Figure 6.9. Interestingly, the Office of the Municipal Manager recorded a larger number of respondents with 28 (7.0%) respondents, the Finance department 66 (6.5%) respondents followed by Corporate Services, Technical Services departments 54 (13.5%) and 51 (12.7%) respectively, Public Safety and Emergency department comprised 40 (10.0%) of the sample. Local Economic Development, Human Settlement, Urban and Rural Development department comprised 35 (8.7%) of the sample while Transversal services and Water and sanitation comprised 23 (5.7%) and 22 (5.5%) of the sample respectively. The least represented departments are Asserts management with 13 (3.2%) and Solid Waste with 7(1.7%) respondents.



**Figure 6.9: Department of respondents**

## 6.5 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

In the current study, the dimensions summarising employee fit dimensions (PJF, PEF and POF), JS, OCB and ITS were determined using the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) procedure. This procedure was performed using the KMO Test and the BTS to examine the appropriateness of factor analysis. These two tests are the most commonly used statistical tools and they serve as a minimum standard which should be set before factor analysis could be conducted to check the suitability of data (Chan & Idris 2017:403). Table 6.2 below provides the computation of the KMO and Bartlett's test results.



**Table 6.2: The KMO measure and the Bartlett test results**

CONSTRUCTS	KMO MEASURE	BARTLETT'S TEST		
		Approximate Chi-Square	Degrees of freedom	Significance level
PJF	0.861	1151.486	21	0.000
PEF	0.858	931.868	21	0.000
POF	0.860	914.120	15	0.000
JS	0.825	1165.533	10	0.000
OCB	0.844	4581.910	276	0.000
ITS	0.832	1116.402	10	0.000
PJF= person-job fit; PEF= person-environment fit; POF= person-organisation fit; JS= job satisfaction; OCB= organisational citizenship behaviour (ALT altruism COU= courteous; CIV= civic virtue; SPO=sportsmanship; CON= conscientiousness); ITS- intention to stay.				

In the current study, the KMO value for the PJF factor was 0.861, the KMO value for PEF was 0.858, the KMO value for the POF factor was 0.860, the KMO value for JS was 0.825, the KMO value for OCB was 0.844 while the KMO value for ITS was 0.832. These values are within the acceptable range of 0.50, thereby suggesting that it was practicable to conduct factor analysis on the captured data.

The Bartlett's test measures if the variables in the population correlation matrix are uncorrelated (Taherdoost, Sahibuddin & Jalaliyoon 2014:377). The Bartlett's test is deemed to be significant if it is not greater than 0.001. In this current study, the results of the Bartlett's test were significant (PJF,  $p=0.000$ ; PEF,  $p=0.000$ ; POF,  $p=0.000$ ; OCB,  $p=0.000$  and ITS,  $p=0.000$ ) indicating that exploratory factor analysis was suitable because they are within the acceptable range.

### 6.5.1 Exploratory factor analysis for the PJF scale

The EFA was performed for the PJF scale. The resultant factor solution illustrates the eigen value, the percentage of total variance and the cumulative variance explained. These results are reported in Table 6.3.

**Table 6.3: Uni-dimensional factor structure of the PJF scale**

Item Code	Description	Factor 1
B1	What the job offers is consistent with things which I hope to get.	.681
B2	I have the right skills and abilities for doing this job.	.566
B3	There is a good match between the requirements of this job and my skills.	.780
B4	My personality is a good match for this job.	.782
B5	I am the right type of person for this job.	.809
B6	This job provides me with the opportunity to express my skills.	.733
B7	My job fits my interest	.792
<b>Eigenvalue</b>		<b>3.822</b>
<b>Total variance explained</b>		<b>54.599</b>
<b>Cumulative variance explained</b>		<b>54.599</b>
Extraction Method: Principal component analysis; Rotational Method: Varimax with Kaiser normalisation.		

Table 6.3 shows that only one-factor representing PJF was extracted. The PEF factor contained seven items. The items all loaded above 0.5 and had an eigenvalue of 3.822 and contributed 54.6 per cent of the variance.

### 6.5.2 Exploratory factor analysis for the PEF scale

This section provides the EFA conducted for the PEF scale. The resultant factor solution from this process is presented in Table 6.4.

**Table 6.4: Uni-dimensional factor structure for the PEF construct**

Item Code	Description	Factor 1
C1	My personal values match my supervisor's values.	.734
C2	The cooperation and the relationship between myself and my co-workers are satisfactory.	.657
C3	The amount of work responsibility and efforts expected in my job is clearly defined.	.731
C4	I find similarity between my values and my occupation.	.711
C5	My line manager is supportive of my ideas and ways of getting things done.	.710
C6	There is a good fit between what the job offers me and what I am looking for in a job.	.779
C7	This organisation regards welfare of its employees as its first priority.	.698
<b>Eigenvalue</b>		<b>3.608</b>
<b>Total variance explained</b>		<b>51.539</b>
<b>Common variance explained</b>		<b>51.539</b>
Extraction Method: Principal component analysis; Rotational Method: Varimax with Kaiser normalisation.		

Table 6.4 illustrates EFA of PEF which consisted of seven items (C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, C6 and C7). The factor loading matrix indicates that all measurement items loaded above the recommended 0.5 with an eigenvalue of 3.608. The total variance explained for the PEF factor was 51.539 per cent.

### 6.5.3 Exploratory factor analysis for the POF Scale

This section provides the EFA conducted for the POF scale. The resultant factor solution from this process is presented in Table 6.5.

**Table 6.5: Uni-dimensional factor structure for the POF construct**

Item Code	Description	Factor 1
D1	My personal values are a good fit with this organisation.	.769
D2	I have affection and affinity for this organisation.	.781
D3	This organisation makes promotions based mostly on individual performance	.588
D4	I really fit this organisation	.797
D5	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	.821
D6	What this organisation stands for is very important to me	.752
<b>Eigenvalue</b>		<b>3.423</b>
<b>Total variance explained</b>		<b>57.046</b>
<b>Common variance explained</b>		<b>57.046</b>
Extraction Method: Principal component analysis; Rotational Method: Varimax with Kaiser normalisation.		

Table 6.5 shows that only one-factor representing POF was extracted. The factor POF was composed of six items, had an eigenvalue of 3.423 and contributed 57.046 per cent of the variance.

#### 6.5.4 Exploratory factor analysis for the JS scale

Table 6.6 provides the EFA results for the JS scale. The results of the factor solution from this process are presented in Table 6.6.

**Table 6.6: Uni-dimensional factor structure for the JS construct**

Item Code	Description	Factor 1
E1	I definitely like my job.	.812
E2	I like my job better than an average person.	.820
E3	Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.	.842
E4	I find real enjoyment in my job.	.878
E5	I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.	.824

Item Code	Description	Factor 1
<b>Eigenvalue</b>		<b>3.491</b>
<b>Total variance explained</b>		<b>69.814</b>
<b>Common variance explained</b>		<b>69.814</b>
Extraction Method: Principal component analysis; Rotational Method: Varimax with Kaiser normalisation.		

Table 6.7 illustrates the EFA of JS which consisted of five items (E1, E2, E3, E4 and E5). The factor loading matrix indicate that all measurement items loaded above the recommended 0.5, with an eigenvalue of 3.491.

### 6.5.5 Exploratory factor analysis for the OCB scale

This section provides the EFA performed for the OCB scale. The results of the factor solution from this process is presented in Table 6.7.

**Table 6.7: Rotated component matrix: OCB factor**

Organisational citizenship behaviour		Factor				
Item description		1	2	3	4	5
<b>Factor 1: Altruism</b>						
F1.	I willingly help fellow colleagues when they have work related problems.	-.019	.113	<b>.802</b>	.189	.144
F2.	I willingly help newcomers to get oriented towards job.	-.034	.182	<b>.784</b>	.082	.087
F3.	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	-.062	.204	<b>.779</b>	.136	.177
F4.	I help others who have been absent from work.	.025	.153	<b>.696</b>	.144	.148
F5.	I willingly help my colleagues who have heavy workloads.	-.008	.222	<b>.649</b>	.202	.142
<b>Factor 2: Courtesy</b>						
F6.	I always try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.	-.056	<b>.698</b>	.244	.135	-.006
F7.	I am mindful of how my behaviour affects other people's jobs.	-.060	<b>.700</b>	.211	.126	.081
F8.	I don't abuse the rights of others.	-.098	<b>.765</b>	.205	.077	.068

Organisational citizenship behaviour	Factor				
Item description	1	2	3	4	5
F9. I consider the impact of my actions on my colleagues.	-.137	<b>.791</b>	.100	.227	.104
F10. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other employees.	-.132	<b>.771</b>	.107	.172	.104
<b>Factor 3: Civic virtue</b>					
F11. I always keep myself abreast of changes in the organisation.	-.064	.220	.206	.164	<b>.722</b>
F12. I keep myself updated with organisational announcements and memos.	-.018	.088	.160	.184	<b>.824</b>
F13. I attend meeting that are not mandatory but important.	.207	-.015	.138	-.029	<b>.841</b>
F14. I attend functions that are not required but help the company image.	.335	.001	.170	.016	<b>.735</b>
<b>Factor 4: Sportsmanship</b>					
F15. I always require frequent doses of motivation to get the work done.	<b>.638</b>	.105	-.035	-.109	.067
F16. I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	<b>.801</b>	-.154	-.101	-.041	.043
F17. I tend to make “mountains out of molehills”.	<b>.847</b>	-.112	.001	-.112	.116
F18. I usually find faults with what my organisation is doing.	<b>.773</b>	-.100	.027	-.015	.068
F19. I usually focus on what is wrong rather than positive side of situation.	<b>.797</b>	-.245	.010	.039	.050
<b>Factor 5: Conscientiousness</b>					
F20. I obey organisational rules even when no one is watching.	-.015	.174	.207	<b>.615</b>	.152
F21. I am one of the most conscientious employees.	.007	.070	.116	<b>.756</b>	.109
F22. I don't take extra or long breaks while on duty.	.004	.188	.142	<b>.749</b>	.046
F23. My attendance at work is above the norm.	-.092	.067	.089	<b>.757</b>	-.048
F24. I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	-.209	.253	.170	<b>.620</b>	.093

Organisational citizenship behaviour	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Eigenvalue	6.398	3.789	1.784	1.680	1.505
Total variance explained	26.658	15.78	7.43	6.99	6.26
Cumulative variance explained	26.658	42.44	49.87	56.87	63.14
Extraction Method: Principal component analysis; Rotational Method: Varimax with Kaiser normalisation.					

The rotated component matrix using the principal component method obtained from the analysis of results is presented in Table 6.7. These results show that five factors are extracted. All the results show a significant loading and none of the variables are cross loaded with other factors. Hence there was no need to delete or eliminate any variable. The grouping of the factors requires that each group of factors is named that will represent the grouped factors. The five dimensional factors, namely: altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness were the identified factors through the EFA procedure.

After rotation, **factor 1** was labelled as altruism composed of five items (F1, F2, F3, F4 and F5) and accounted for 26.7 per cent of the variance; **factor 2** was labelled as courtesy and comprised five items (F6, F7, F8, F9 and F10), accounted for 15.8 per cent of the variance; **factor 3** was labelled civic virtue with four items (F11, F12, 13 and F14) accounted for 7.432 per cent of the variance; **factor 4** was labelled sportsmanship h consisted of five items (F15, F16, F17, 18 and F19) and accounted for 7 per cent of the variance; while **factor 5** labelled conscientious, consisted of five items (F20, F21, F22, 23 and F24) and accounted for 6.27 percent of the variance. The five factors accounted for 63.147 per cent of the variance. According to Tahedoost *et al.* (2014:378) there is no general agreement on what the cumulative percentage of variance (CPV) should be in the FA method. The cumulative percentage of variance is generally acceptable above 60 per cent (Mafini 2014:186). In the current study the cumulative percentage of variance is 63.147 percent, which is acceptable (Tahedoost *et al.* 2014:379; Samuel 2017:2).

#### 6.5.6 Exploratory factor analysis for the ITS scale

This section provides the EFA performed for the ITS scale. The results of the factor solution from this process are presented in Table 6.8.

**Table 6.8: Uni-dimensional factor structure for the ITS Construct**

Item Code	Description	Factor 1
G1	I will most probably stay in this company in the foreseeable future	0.833
G2	I will definitely intend to maintain my current relationship with this company	0.750
G3	I have no intention of leaving this company	0.897
G4	I want to continue working 5 years from now in my current job	0.836
G5	I am not even planning of looking for a new job	0.805
<b>Eigenvalue</b>		<b>3.408</b>
<b>Total variance explained</b>		<b>68.165</b>
<b>Common variance explained</b>		<b>68.165</b>
Extraction Method: Principal component analysis; Rotational Method: Varimax with Kaiser normalisation.		

Table 6.8 indicates that only one-factor representing ITS was extracted. The ITS factor contained five items. The items all loaded above 0.5 and had an eigenvalue of 3.408 and contributed 68.165 per cent of the variance.

In summary, with the exception of the OCB scale all other scales were unidimensional.

## 6.6 NORMALITY TESTS

In this study two forms of tests were performed to check whether data were normally distributed. The first test is the computation of the standard deviations for the 10 constructs used in the study. As shown in Table 6.9 the standard deviation values ranged from 0.65311 to 1.05471. These values show that the scores were clustered close together around the mean. This confirms that the data were normally distributed.

**Table 6.9: Skewness and Kurtosis values**

Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Kurtosis	Skewness
<b>PJF</b>	4.1895	0.73151	1.786	-1.189
<b>PEF</b>	3.7396	0.80294	0.226	-0.577



Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Kurtosis	Skewness
POF	3.6820	0.84449	0.245	-0.581
JS	3.9262	0.89058	1.094	-1.032
ALT	4.1182	0.74064	1.933	-1.116
COU	4.3516	0.65311	2.850	-1.272
CIV	3.5910	0.95466	-0.141	-0.678
SPO	2.5511	1.05471	-0.494	0.524
CON	4.1197	0.66320	-0.197	-0.492
ITS	3.7496	1.04669	-0.194	-0.727

The second test is the D'Agostino's K-squared test, which is a goodness of fit measure that seeks to determine if a sample is drawn from a normally distributed population. This test uses two indicators, which are skewness and kurtosis to check whether the data are normally distributed. Skewness describes the extent of asymmetry of a given distribution around its mean. Cisar and Cisar (2010:95) explain positive skewness reflects a distribution with an asymmetric tail leaning more to the positive values, while negative skewness shows a distribution with an asymmetric tail extending towards negative values.

Furthermore, Cisar and Cisar (2010:95) posit that kurtosis characterises the relative peakedness or flatness of a distribution compared with a normal distribution where normally distributed. The recommended skewness range for normal distribution is -2 to +2 whereas for kurtosis it is -3 to +3 (Cisar & Cisar 2010:95). As indicated in Table 6.9, all values for skewness fell within the range of -2 to +2 while all values for kurtosis fell within the -3 to +3 range. Hence it can be concluded that the data were fairly normally distributed.

The following section discusses the descriptive analyses of sections B, C, D, E, F and G.

## 6.7 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF SECTIONS B TO G

This section presents the measure of central tendency (the mean) and standard deviations in order to examine employees' perceptions of the various employee fit

dimensions (Sections B, C and D) and job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to stay (Sections E, F and G).

### 6.7.1 Section B: Person job fit

Section B provides the perceptions of respondents on person-job fit. These results are shown in Table 6.10.

**Table 6.10: Person-job fit**

Item description		Mean	Std deviation
B1.	What the job offers is consistent with things which I hope to get.	3.90	1.050
B2.	I have the right skills and abilities for doing this job.	4.40	.849
B3.	There is a good match between the requirements of this job and my skills.	4.15	.993
B4.	My personality is a good match for this job.	4.31	.956
B5.	I am the right type of person for this job.	4.29	.997
B6.	This job provides me with the opportunity to express my skills.	4.08	1.111
B7.	My job fits my interest.	4.02	1.121
Valid N= 401		Overall mean=4.16	
1=Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree			

From Table 6.10, it can be noted that all means are close to 4 or above 4. When examining the mean in this section, employees seem to be in agreement that “what the job offers is consistent with what employees hope for”, “they have the right skills and abilities to do the job”, “there is a match between the requirements of job and skills required to do the job”, “their personality matches their job” and “there is an opportunity for employees to express their skills”.

Regarding the standard deviation, Table 6.10 shows that the respondents’ responses are closer to 1 (range 0.849 - 1.121). This suggests that participants did not deviate much from the average, in their responses.

## 6.7.2 Section C: Person-environment fit

Table 6.11 indicates the mean and standard deviation of items in Section C. From the table it can be observed that the overall mean was 3.73 indicating, that employees were neutral in their responses with regards to their environment. When examining the means in this section, employees seem to be neutral in that “their personal values matches that of their supervisors”, “the amount of work responsibilities and efforts expected of them from their jobs is clearly defined”. The employees further were neutral that they “find similarities between their values and their occupations”, that “their line managers are supportive of their ideas and ways of doing things” and that “there is a good fit between what their job offers and what they are looking for in a job”. Employees’ responses were neutral on the questions of whether their organisation regards welfare of its employees’ as its priority.

**Table 6.11: Person-environment fit**

Item description		Mean	Std deviation
C1.	My personal values match my supervisor's values.	3.64	1.170
C2.	The cooperation and relationship between myself and my co-workers are satisfactory.	4.02	.945
C3.	The amount of work responsibility and efforts expected in my job is clearly defined.	3.81	1.143
C4.	I find similarity between my values and my occupation.	3.90	.972
C5.	My line manager is supportive of my ideas and ways of getting things done.	3.77	1.181
C6.	There is a good fit between what the job offers me and what I am looking for in a job.	3.74	1.094
C7.	This organisation regards welfare of its employees as its first priority.	3.29	1.316
Valid N= 401		Overall mean=3.73	
1=Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree			

Regarding the standard deviation, the table reflects them as closer to one. This suggests that respondents did not deviate much on average, in their responses.

### 6.7.3 Section D: Person-organisation fit

Section D reports on employees' perceptions of person-organisation fit. Table 6.12 reflects means and standard deviations of the six questions in Section D. Of the six questions, in five questions the means indicated that respondents were neutral in their responses. When examining the mean in this section, respondents seem to be neutral on whether "their personal values are a good fit with this organisation", "they have affection and affinity for their organisations", "they really fit in their organisations", "they organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to them" and "what their organisations stands for is very important to them". The respondents seem to disagree with the statement that "their organisation makes promotions based mostly on individual performance". This is a cause for concern that the municipalities need to address as respondents perceive that promotions are not based on merit. If left unattended it could result in job dissatisfaction and decreased levels of motivation which are key in the productivity of employees.

**Table 6.12: Person -organisation fit**

Item description		Mean	Std deviation
D1.	My personal values are a good fit with this organisation.	3.88	1.063
D2.	I have affection and affinity for this organisation.	3.88	1.005
D3.	This organisation makes promotions based mostly on individual performance.	2.88	1.408
D4.	I really fit in this organisation.	3.86	1.089
D5.	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	3.69	1.125
D6.	What this organisation stands for is very important to me.	3.91	1.091
Valid N= 401		Overall mean=3.68	
1=Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree			

Regarding the standard deviation, the table shows that the respondents' responses are closer to one, indicating that the respondents did not deviate much on average, in their responses.

### 6.7.4 Section E: Job satisfaction

Section E solicited information regarding respondents' satisfaction with their jobs in their organisation. Table 6.13 provide a report on those results.

**Table 6.13: Job satisfaction**

Item description		Mean	Std deviation
E1.	I definitely like my job.	4.10	1.076
E2.	I like my job better than an average.	3.92	1.074
E3.	Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.	3.92	.999
E4.	I find real enjoyment in my job.	3.89	1.092
E5.	I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.	3.81	1.090
Valid N= 401		Overall mean=3.92	
1=Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree			

When evaluating the means, employees seem to be leaning again towards neutral responses on whether “they definitely like their jobs”, “they like their jobs better than an average person”, that “most days they are enthusiastic about their jobs” and that “they find real enjoyment in their jobs”. The standard deviations in all statements is close to one indicating that respondents did not deviate much on the average, in their responses. The fact the mean scores for the five factors were on “neutral” positions on the Likert scale suggests that respondents perceived the municipalities’ performance with regard to these factors was neither satisfactory nor dissatisfactory. This neutral result remains a cause for concern since job satisfaction is viewed by various researchers for example; Mitonga-Monga *et al.* (2015:1080); Saraswati and Sulistiyo (2017:441) and Yumuk-Günay (2018:69) as a critical variable in improving the quality of services and increasing citizenship behaviour. These results put pressure on the district municipalities to increase job satisfaction levels of its work force in order to propel satisfactory citizenship behaviours of their employees.

## 6.7.5 Section F: Organisational citizenship behaviour

Section F gathered information about respondents' OCB within the organisation. Respondents were required to reflect on 24 statements. Their responses are reported in Tables 6.14 to 6.18.

**Table 6.14: Altruism**

Item description		Mean	Std deviation
F1.	I willingly help fellow colleagues when they have work related problems.	4.20	.894
F2.	I willingly help newcomers to get oriented towards job.	4.21	.883
F3.	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	4.25	.854
F4.	I help others who have been absent from work.	3.84	1.113
F5.	I willingly help my colleagues who have heavy workloads.	4.09	.943
Valid N= 401		Overall mean=4.11	
1=Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree			

With regard to altruism dimension (Table 6.14), employees were in consensus with the statement that they “willingly help fellow colleagues when they have work related problems”, “willingly help newcomer to get oriented towards the job”, “ready to lend a helping hand to those around them”, “help others who have been absent from work” and “willingly help their colleagues who have heavy workloads”. The means in this category were all close to 4. The standard deviations in all statements are close to 1 indicating that respondents did not deviate much on average, in their responses.

**Table 6.15: Courtesy**

Item description		Mean	Std deviation
F6.	I always try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.	4.32	.915
F7.	I am mindful of how my behaviour affects other people's jobs.	4.26	.872
F8.	I don't abuse the rights of others.	4.42	.774

Item description	Mean	Std deviation
F9. I consider the impact of my actions on my colleagues.	4.36	.781
F10. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other employees.	4.39	.792
Valid N= 401		
Overall mean=4.35		
1=Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree		

The means Table 6.15 indicate that respondents agreed with the statements that they “always try to avoid creating problems for co-workers”, they “are mindful of how their behaviours affect other peoples’ jobs”, they “don’t abuse the rights of others”, they “consider the impact of their actions on fellow colleagues”, and “that they take steps trying to prevent problems on other employees”. The standard deviation is close to 1 indicating that respondents did not deviate much on the average, in their responses.

**Table 6.16: Civic virtue**

Item description	Mean	Std deviation
F11. I always keep myself abreast of changes in the organisation.	3.97	.968
F12. I keep myself updated with organisational announcements and memos.	3.94	1.047
F13. I attend meeting that are not mandatory but important.	3.46	1.278
F14. I attend functions that are not required but help the company image.	2.99	1.370
Valid N= 401		
Overall mean=3.59		
1=Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree		

The means in Table 6.16 indicate that respondents were neutral that they “always keep themselves abreast of changes in the organisation” and that “they keep themselves updated with organisational announcements”. The standard deviations in all statements is close to 1 indicating that respondents did not deviate much from the average in their responses.

Table 6.17 provides information that was collected to evaluate the sportsmanship levels of the respondents.

**Table 6.17: Sportsmanship**

Item description		Mean	Std deviation
F15.	I always require frequent doses of motivation to get the work done.	3.23	1.335
F16.	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	2.44	1.327
F17.	I tend to make “mountains out of molehills”.	2.40	1.375
F18.	I usually find faults with what my organisation is doing.	2.57	1.336
F19.	I usually focus on what is wrong rather than positive side of situation.	2.11	1.333
Valid N= 401		Overall mean=2.55	
1=Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree			

The means in Table 6.17 reflects that respondents’ responses are closer to 2 on three of the statements. The responses show greater inclination towards disagreement with the statements that they “consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters”, “they tend to make mountains out of molehills”, and that “they usually focus on what is wrong rather than positive side of the situation”. Except in two statement where the participant’s responses are neutral (“I always require frequent doses of motivation to get the work done” and “I usually find faults with what my organisation is doing”). The standard deviations in all statements is close to 1 indicating that respondents did deviate from on average, in responses.

**Table 6.18: Conscientiousness**

Item description		Mean	Std deviation
F20.	I obey organisational rules even when no one is watching.	4.04	.965
F21.	I am one of the most conscientious employees.	4.13	.807
F22.	I don’t take extra or long breaks while on duty.	3.97	.960



Item description	Mean	Std deviation
F23. My attendance at work is above the norm.	4.18	.889
F24. I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	4.27	.862
Valid N= 401		
Overall mean=4.18		
1=Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree		

Table 6.18 shows the means and standard deviations reflecting on statements regarding the conscientiousness. Respondents agree with the statements that they “obey organisational rules even when no one is watching”, they “are the most conscientiousness employees”, they “don’t take extra or long breaks while on duty”, their “attendance at work is above the norm” and that they “believe in giving an honest day’s pay”. The standard deviations in three statements are below 1 indicating that respondents did not deviate much on average, in their responses.

#### 6.7.6 Section G: Intention to stay

Section G solicited information regarding respondents’ ITS in the organisation. Table 6.19 provides a report on those results.

**Table 6.19: Intention to stay**

Item description		Mean	Std deviation
G1.	I will most probably stay in this company in the foreseeable future.	3.88	1.208
G2.	I will definitely intend to maintain my current relationship with this company.	4.06	1.076
G3.	I have no intention of leaving this company.	3.77	1.223
G4.	I want to continue working 5 years from now in my current job.	3.61	1.373
G5.	I am not even planning of looking for a new job.	3.43	1.455
Valid N= 401		Overall mean=3.75	
1=Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree			

On assessing the means regarding ITS, respondents seem to be neutral with the statements: “I will most probably stay in this company in the foreseeable future”, “I have no intention of leaving this company”, “I will definitely intend to maintain my current relationship with this company”, “I want to continue working 5 years from now in my current job” and “I am not even planning of looking a new job”. However, respondents were in agreement with the following statements: “I will most probably stay in this company in the foreseeable future”. Overall, responses seem to be neutral by respondents on their ITS in the organisation. The standard deviations in all statements are close to 1 indicating that respondents did not deviate much from average, in their responses.

## 6.8 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Pearson’s correlations were employed to examine the interrelationship between constructs in the study. It is used to measure the strength of association between two variables, where the value  $r = 1$  means a perfect positive correlation and value  $r = -1$  means a perfect negative correlation. The correlation results presented in Table 6.20 shows that constructs in this study are positively correlated with each other.

**Table 6.20: Correlations among study constructs**

	PJF	PEF	POF	JS	ALT	COU	CIV	SPO	CON	ITS
PJF	1.000									
PEF	.516** (.000)	1.000								
POF	.484** (.000)	.652** (.000)	1.000							
JS	.509** (.000)	.569** (.000)	.560** (.000)	1.000						
ALT	.319** (.000)	.289* (.000)*	.244** (.000)	.291** (.000)	1.000					
COU	.339** (.000)	.232* (.000)*	.245** (.000)	.272** (.000)	.501** (.000)	1.000				
CIV	.234** (.000)	.306** (.000)	.253** (.000)	.200** (.000)	.400** (.000)	.250** (.000)	1.000			
SPO	-.061 (.220)	.099* (.048)	.037 (.458)	-.030 (.545)	-.145** (.004)	-.270** (.000)	.176** (.000)	1.000		

	PJF	PEF	POF	JS	ALT	COU	CIV	SPO	CON	ITS
CON	.315* (.000)*	.210** (.000)	.238** (.000)	.238** (.000)	.423** (.000)	.478** (.000)	.255** (.000)	-.184** (.000)	1.000	
ITS	.343** (.000)	.413** (.000)	.449** (.000)	.509** (.000)	.148** (.003)	.100* (.046)	.088 (.080)	.047 (.347)	.238** (.000)	1.000
PJF = Person-job fit; PEF = Person-environment fit; POF = Person-organisation fit; JS = Job satisfaction; ALT = Altruism; COU = Courtesy; CIV = Civic virtue; SPO = Sportsmanship; CON = Conscientious and ITS = Intention to stay.										
*Sig at p<0.05 **Sig at p<0.01										

There was a significant strong positive correlation ( $r=0.509$ ;  $p=0.000$ ) between PJF and JS. This result suggests that the levels of JS improves when PJF increases. These results support findings in previous studies such as Ilyas (2013:84); Chhabra (2015:646) and Issah (2021:5) where JS was observed to significantly improve when PJF increases.

The results also indicate a strong significant association ( $r=0.569$ ;  $p=0.000$ ) between PEF and JS indicating that when an employee fits into an environment their satisfaction with their job is likely to increase. These results corroborate the findings of Redelinghuys and Botha (2016:14) which suggests that an environment that does not hinder employees from expressing themselves potentially improves satisfaction levels of employees.

Table 6.20 further shows a strong significant correlation ( $r=0.560$ ;  $p=0.000$ ) between POF and JS. This result illustrates that JS increases if POF is improved. These results confirm findings from previous studies (e.g. Cable and Judge 1996, Saks and Ashforth 1997:415, Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson 2005:330, Liu, Liu and Hu 2010:620 and Issah 2021:5) where JS has been observed to increase when a person fits into an environment (Rahmadani & Sebayang 2017:48).

The association between ALT and JS was moderate yet significant ( $r=0.291$ ;  $p=0.000$ ), which implies that a moderate increase in ALT impacts positively on JS. A study undertaken by Talachi, Gorji and Boerhannoeddin (2014:438) also corroborates with the results of the current findings where it was found that ALT has a positive association with JS.

The results between COU and JS show a moderate yet significant correlation ( $r=0.272$ ;  $p=0.000$ ). The implication of these results demonstrates that increased levels of COU have a propensity to improve JS. These result supports findings made in previous studies

by Mohapatra, Satpathy and Patnaik (2019:2506) where increased levels of COU showed positive association with JS.

Furthermore, results in Table 6.20 indicate a significant moderate positive association ( $r=0.200$ ;  $p=0.000$ ) between CIV and JS. These results imply that if CIV is improved there will be a marginal increase in JS. This result corroborates findings made by Mohapatra, *et al.* (2019:2506) where JS significantly improved when JS was increased.

Negative correlations ( $r=-0.030$ ;  $p=0.545$ ) were found between SPO and JS. This result is consistent with findings from previous studies where SPO showed low or weak correlations with JS (Abdullah, & Akhar 2016:145).

In addition, a significant low positive association ( $r=0.238$ ;  $p=0.000$ ) is found between CON and JS. These results suggest an improvement on CON will marginally enhance JS. Abdullah and Akhar's (2016:145) study on OCB constructs and JS further revealed that the CON displayed weak correlations with JS.

The results between ITS and the five dimensions of OCB are presented as follows: a significant moderate positive correlation ( $r=0.148$ ;  $p=0.003$ ) between ITS and ALT was found indicating that ALT moderately influences ITS. This result is supported by findings of Pivi and Hassan (2015:118) in a study that investigated the relationship between ALT and turnover intentions where a significant correlation was reported between ALT and turnover intentions.

The results also show a significant positive moderate association ( $r=0.238$ ;  $p=0.000$ ) between ITS and CON. The results imply that improving CON will slightly enhance ITS amongst employees. These results are consistent with findings made by Pivi and Hassan (2015:118) where a significant relationship was reported between turnover intentions and CON.

Furthermore, significant lower correlation ( $r=0.100$ ;  $p=0.046$ ) is observed between ITS and COU, suggesting a marginal increase on ITS with the presence of COU. Previous studies have reported a significant and positive relationship between COU and intention to stay (Khalid, Md Nor, Ismail & Razali 2013:135).

A very weak linear association ( $r=0.088$ ;  $p=0.080$ ) between ITS and CIV is observed. This result indicates that these two factors either increase or decrease correspondingly. Both variables (ITS and CIV) are key in this study in a sense that employees who have an

interest in what is going on within the organisation are likely to take informed decisions and responsible actions that benefit the organisation. Such actions are likely to increase employees' likelihood to stay longer with the organisation. This poses a serious challenge to the district municipalities to ensure that these two variable (ITS and CIV) are improved to the benefit of the organisation. This result validates results from previous studies (Pivi & Hassan 2015:118).

Further weak correlations ( $r=0.047$ ;  $p=0.347$ ) between ITS and SPO were revealed suggesting that SPO has no relationship with ITS. This result is consistent with findings from previous studies such as Khalid, *et al.* (2013:135) where turnover intention was significantly and negatively correlated with SPO behaviour.

## 6.9 REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULTS

After establishing the strength of correlations between the variables, regression analysis was conducted since correlation analysis only measures the strength of a relationship but does not determine predictive relationships between variables. First, the correlation matrix was examined for existence of co-linearity, in other words, if the predictor variables correlate too high ( $r>0.9$ ) with each other (Pallant 2010:91). None of the correlations in Table 6.20 reached a value of  $r>0.9$  hence the data was considered suitable for linear regression analysis. Field (2009:349) suggests that if the variance inflation factor (VIF) is greater than 10 then the predictor variables are correlated among themselves hence co-linearity is a cause for concern.

In this case, the regression model was deemed appropriate for the data as the VIF values ranged between 1.000 and 2.069. Moreover, tolerance levels that fall below 0.1 indicate serious co-linearity problems, whereas those tolerance values that are below 0.2 may potentially cause co-linearity problems (Pallant 2010:91). The tolerance statistics for the predictor variables ranged from 1.000 to 0.986 indicating that there was no co-linearity within the data set.

A multi-linear regression procedure was used to run the models and three control variables (age, gender and level of education) were used to establish the effects of covariance. In **model 1**, JS was also entered as a dependent variable, while the job fit dimensions (PJF, PEF and POF) were entered as predictors.

**Table 6.21: Model 1- Control variables, job satisfaction and fit dimensions**

Dependent variable: JS		Standardised coefficients Beta	T	Sig	VIF	TOL
Constant / predictor			1.472	0.142		
Gender		-0.023	-0.637	0.525	1.014	0.986
Age		0.052	1.404	0.161	1.044	0.958
Level of education		-0.017	-0.470	0.638	1.019	0.982
Person-job fit		0.267	5.873	0.000*	1.552	0.644
Person-environment fit		0.271	5.160	0.000*	2.069	0.483
Person-organisation fit		0.269	5.260	0.000*	1.965	0.509
R= 0.688	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.474	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.466	R <sup>2</sup> change=0.474		F change=59.163	
Independent variables: Person-job fit, Person-environment fit, Person-organisation fit						
Dependent variable: Job satisfaction						
** significant at p<0.05						
VIF= Variance inflation factor						
TOL= Tolerance value						

The results in Table 6.21 regarding the regression analysis did not display any significant statistical significance with regard to the effects of gender, age group and level of education on JS ( $p=0.525$ ;  $p=0.161$ ;  $p=0.638$ ) where  $p>0.05$ . In terms of the beta weights, all three variables made insignificant contributions towards the prediction of JS ( $\beta=-0.023$ ;  $\beta=0.052$ ;  $\beta=-0.171$ ). However, JS contributed positively towards the prediction of PJF ( $\beta=0.267$ ;  $t=5.873$ ;  $p<0.05$ ), PEF ( $\beta=0.271$ ;  $t=5.160$ ;  $p<0.05$ ) and POF ( $\beta=0.269$ ;  $t=5.260$ ;  $p<0.05$ ).

Moreover, the adjusted  $R^2= 0.466$  indicates that approximately 47 percent of the variance in various job fit dimension (PJF; PEF; POF) amongst municipal employees is accounted for by job satisfaction. This implies that a higher prevalence of JS among municipal employees can be attributed with higher levels of PJF; PEF and POF.

Hypothesis H1 which states that there is a positive significant relationship between person-job fit and job satisfaction amongst municipal employees in South Africa is therefore accepted.

The results lend further credence to the assertion by Chhabra (2015:644) and Ilyas (2013:86) who state that employees whose personalities match the characteristics of the job are more likely to enjoy the jobs they are doing.

Hypothesis H2 states that there is a positive significant relationship between person-environment fit and job satisfaction amongst municipal employees in South Africa is accepted. The results in this study corroborate the findings from previous studies on this relationship whereby Mafini and Dlodlo (2014:8) reported that PEF factors appeared as statistically significant predictors of JS thus providing affirmation that municipals employees JS increases when there is a good fit of the employee with environment. Therefore, H2 is accepted.

Hypothesis H3 which states that there is a positive significant relationship between person-organisation fit and job satisfaction amongst municipal employees in South Africa, is accepted. Significant strong positive predictive relationship between PEF and JS are consistent with results from previous studies conducted by Redelinghuys (2015: 58); Su, *et al* (2015:89) and Bednarska (2017:76). The findings of these studies affirmed that when employees perceive high congruence between their personal values and organisational values, between the rewards they receive in return for the services they provide and congruence between the demands of their job and their abilities, they ought to experience increased satisfaction levels from their jobs. Farooqui and Nagendra (2014: 126) further affirm that POF has a significant positive effect on JS. This implies that if municipalities can improve the levels of POF amongst employees JS will subsequently improve.

**In model 2** (Table 6.22), JS was entered into the regression equation as the independent variable and altruism was entered in the regression equation as dependent variable.

**Table 6.22: Job satisfaction and Altruism (Model 2), Courtesy (Model 3), Civic virtue (Model 4), Sportsmanship (Model 5) and Conscientiousness (Model 6)**

<b>Model 2 Dependent variable: Altruism</b>		<b>Standardised coefficients Beta</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>Sig</b>	<b>TOL</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Constant / predictor			20.240	0.000	1.000	1.000
Job Satisfaction		0.257	5.320	0.000*		0.990
R= 0.257	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.066	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.064	R <sup>2</sup> change=0.066		F=change=28.302	
<b>Model 3 Dependent variable: Courtesy</b>		<b>Standardised coefficients Beta</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>Sig</b>	<b>TOL</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Constant / predictor			25.422	0.000		
Job Satisfaction		0.247	5.086	0.000*	1.000	1.000
R= 0.247	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.061	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.059			F change=25.868	
<b>Model 4 Dependent variable: Civic Virtue</b>		<b>Standardised coefficients Beta</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>Sig</b>	<b>TOL</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Constant / predictor			14.201	0.000		
Job Satisfaction		0.131	2.630	0.009*	1.000	1.000
R= 0.131	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.017	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.015	R <sup>2</sup> change=0.007		F change=6.917	
<b>Model 5 Dependent variable: Sportsmanship</b>		<b>Standardised coefficients Beta</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>Sig</b>	<b>TOL</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Constant / predictor			10.015	0.000		
Job Satisfaction		0.035	0.698	0.486	1.000	1.000
R= 0.135	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.001	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.001	R <sup>2</sup> change=0.007		F change=0.487	



Model 6 Dependent variable: Conscientious		Standardised coefficients Beta	T	Sig	TOL	VIF
Constant / predictor			24.371	0.000		
Job Satisfaction		0.178	3.614	0.000*	1.000	1.000
R= 0.178	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.032	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.029	R <sup>2</sup> change=0.032		F change=13.062	
Independent variables: Job satisfaction						
Dependent variable: Altruism, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship and Conscientiousness						
** significant at p<0.05						
VIF= Variance inflation factor						
TOL= Tolerance value						

A strong predictive relationship was found between JS and ALT ( $\beta=.257$ ;  $t=5.320$ ;  $p<0.05$ ) providing statistical evidence that increased levels of JS depends upon high levels of ALT among municipal employees. The adjusted  $R^2 = 0.064$  indicating that approximately 6 percent of the variable in JS can be accounted for by employees' levels of ALT. The results in this study corroborate with findings from previous studies on this relationship whereby, Yumuk-Günay (2018:69); Mushtaq, *et al.* (2014:7) established that JS is positively affected by ALT. Hypothesis H4 which states that there is a positive significant relationship between JS and ALT amongst municipal employees is therefore, accepted.

**In Model 3** (Table 6.22) JS was entered into the regression model as the independent variable and COU as the dependent variable. The results indicate significant predictive relationship between JS and COU ( $\beta=0.247$ ;  $t=5.086$ ;  $p<0.05$ ), indicating that high levels of JS depend upon high levels of employee COU. The adjusted  $R^2 = 0.059$  indicating that approximately 5.9 percent of the variance in JS can be accounted for by employees' levels of COU. Previous research undertaken by Mushtaq and Umar (2015:2569) revealed that JS of employees in organisations is partially attributed by their levels of COU shown by employees in organisations. Hypothesis H5, which states that there is a positive significant relationship between JS and COU is accepted.

**In Model 4** (Table 6.22) JS was entered into the regression equation as the independent variable and CIV as the dependent variable. Results show that JS levels of employees depend on their levels of CIV displayed in the organisation ( $\beta=.131$ ;  $t=2.630$ ;  $p<0.05$ ) implying that high JS level depends upon high levels of employee CIV. The adjusted  $R^2 = 0.015$  indicating that approximately 1 percent of the variance in JS can be attributed by

employees' levels of CIV. A study undertaken by Mushtaq, *et al.* (2014:8) states that highly satisfied employees express civic virtue by involving and committing themselves in organisational issues. The hypothesis H6 stating that there is a positive significant relationship between JS and CIV is accepted.

**In Model 5** (Table 6.22) JS was entered into the regression equation as the independent variable and SPO as the dependent variable. The results indicate an insignificant association ( $\beta=.131$ ;  $t=0.698$ ;  $p>0.05$ ) signifying that JS is not influenced by SPO behaviour. The adjusted  $R^2 = -0.001$  displaying a negative variance in JS attributed by employees' level of SPO behaviour. This result correlates with findings by Mushtaq, *et al.* (2014:8) stating that SPO is a weak predictor of JS. The hypothesis-H7 that there is significantly relationship between job satisfaction and sportsmanship behaviour amongst municipal employees in South Africa is therefore rejected.

**In Model 6** (Table 6.22) JS was entered into the regression equation as the independent variable and CON as the dependent variable. A strong significant positive relationship was found between JS and CON ( $\beta=.178$ ;  $t=3.614$ ;  $p<0.05$ ) providing statistical evidence that increased levels of JS depend upon high levels of CON among municipal employees. The adjusted  $R^2=0.029$  indicating that approximately 3 percent of the variance of JS can be accounted for by CON. The results in model 6 support findings of Organs and Ryan (1995:800); Mehboob and Bhutto (2012:1451) where CON has been found to be moderately and partially accountable for an increase in JS. The hypothesis H8 stating that there is a significant relationship between JS and CON amongst municipal in South Africa is accepted.

In Table 6.23, **Model 7**, ITS was entered into the regression equation as the dependent variable and the five dimensions of OCB (ALT, CON, SPO, COU, and CIV) were entered as predictors in order to establish their predicting abilities on the dependent variable ITS.

**Table 6.23: Model 7 - Altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue and intention to stay**

Dependent variable: Intention to stay	Standardised coefficients Beta	T	Sig	TOL	VIF
Constant / predictor		3.575	0.000		
Altruism	0.112	1.875	0.061	0.648	1.543

Courtesy		-0.002	-0.038	0.969	0.685	1.460
Civic virtue		-0.088	-1.613	0.108	0.775	1.290
Sportsmanship		0.176	3.363	0.001*	0.848	1.179
Conscientious		0.212	3.784	0.000*	0.741	1.349
R= 0.281	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.079	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.067	R <sup>2</sup> change=0.079		F change =6.771	
Independent variables: Altruism, Conscientious, Sportsmanship, Courtesy, and Civic virtue						
Dependent variable: Intention to stay						
** significant at p<0.05						
VIF= Variance inflation factor						
TOL= Tolerance value						

Table 6.23, **Model 7** indicates that altruism ( $\beta=0.112$ ;  $t=1.875$ ;  $p=0>0.50$ ) makes an insignificant contribution to employees' ITS in the organisation. The results in **Model 7** confirm findings of Khadi, *et al.* (2013:139) where ALT has been found to have an insignificant relationship with turnover intention. The hypotheses H9 that there is significant relationship between altruism and intention to stay is therefore rejected.

The results in Table 6.23 shows courtesy ( $\beta=-0.002$ ;  $t=-0.038$ ;  $p=0>0.50$ ) also makes an insignificant contribution in the prediction of ITS among municipal employees. This result indicates that any variability in courteous behaviours makes no significant contribution towards the prediction of ITS. The results in **Model 7** are consistent with findings of Khalid, *et al.* (2013:139) where COU has been found to have an insignificant relationship with turnover intention. Therefore, the hypothesis H10 stating that there is a significant relationship between courtesy and intention to stay amongst municipal employees in South Africa is rejected.

The results in **Model 7** (Table 6.23) further presents a statistically insignificant ( $\beta=-0.088$ ;  $t=-1.613$ ;  $p>0.0.50$ ) relationship between CIV and ITS. This result implies that civil virtue by municipal employees has no influence on their ITS. This result is quite contrary to a previous study undertaken by Pivi and Hasan (2015:120) whose results found significant predictive relationships between the two constructs. However, when one looks at the correlations between the two constructs earlier, the CIV also displayed an insignificant relationship with ITS.

Hypothesis H11 stating that there is a significant relationship between civic virtue and intention to stay amongst municipal employees in South Africa is rejected.

Table 6.23 indicates that SPO ( $\beta=0.176$ ;  $t=3.363$ ;  $p<0.050$ ) has a strong statistical and significant relationship with ITS. This result suggests that SPO significantly contributed towards predicting ITS amongst municipality employees. The adjusted ( $R^2$  0.067) indicate that approximately seven percent of the variance in ITS is attributable to SPO. The results corroborate finding from Shanker (2018:1363) who found that employees are ready to accept inconveniences, gratuitous demands and pressure without complaining to the betterment of the organisation. Therefore, the hypothesis H12 that there is a significant relationship between sportsmanship and intention to stay amongst municipal employees in South Africa is accepted.

A strong predictive relationship was found between CON and ITS ( $\beta=0.212$ ;  $t=3.784$ ;  $p=0<0.50$ ). This result indicates that CON statistically and significantly contributed towards predicting ITS behaviours among municipal employees. Furthermore, the adjusted  $R^2$  0.067, indicating that approximately 7 percent of the variance in ITS is attributable to CON. This result is consistent with results from Shanker (2018:1362) indicating the preparedness of employees to go beyond their call of duty when doing their work engenders ITS. The hypothesis H13, that there is a significant relationship between conscientious and intention to stay is accepted.

The results of the regression analysis indicate that out of the 13 tested hypotheses, nine (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H8, H12 and H13) of the hypotheses confirmed the existence of a significant positive association amongst the tested constructs. Four of the 13 hypotheses (H7 that JS significantly and positively relates with SPO behaviour, H9 stating that ALT positively predicts ITS, H10 stating that there is a significant relationship between courtesy and intention to stay and H11 stating that CIV has a significant and positive relationship with ITS) were rejected, indicating that there is no relationship amongst the tested constructs.

## **6.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY**

### **6.10.1 Reliability**

Before computing the summary measures of the constructs, an evaluation of the internal-consistency reliability of the scaled responses was done. In light of this, the Cronbach alpha values, were assessed. Table 6.24 presents the computed internal-consistency reliability results.

**Table 6.24: Internal-reliability**

Construct description	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Person-job fit	0.858	7
Person-environment fit	0.841	7
Person organisation fit	0.837	6
Job satisfaction	0.891	5
Altruism	0.845	5
Courtesy	0.845	5
Civic virtue	0.827	4
Sportsmanship	0.845	5
Conscientiousness	0.786	5
Intention to stay	0.880	5

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient value for each of the ten constructs ranged between 0.786 and 0.891 exceeding the threshold of 0.70 (Taherdoost 2016:33). Taherdoost (2016:33) suggested the following four-off cut points for reliability: excellent reliability (0.9 and above), high reliability (0.7-0.9), moderate reliability (0.5-0.7) and low reliability (0.5 and below). All the Cronbach alpha values reported at the main survey are above 0.70 signifying high reliabilities of the various scales.

### **6.10.2 Validity**

The results of validity analyses presented below include content validity, construct validity, convergent validity and predictive validity.

#### **6.10.2.1 Content validity**

To ascertain content validity, a thorough literature review was undertaken well before the measuring instrument (questionnaire) was developed and administered. This assessment was executed through viewing studies that investigated constructs of employee fit dimensions (PJF, PEF and POF), JS, OCB and ITS stay. The literature review presented in the three chapters of this study was aimed at establishing the theoretical framework for the subject area and was also used to develop a well-structured

questionnaire. The scales used in previous studies also reflected acceptable reliabilities ( $>0.70$ ) and were deemed acceptable for use in this study.

#### **6.10.2.2 Construct validity**

A pilot study was undertaken to ensure that the scales used in the study were reliable. Furthermore, the judgement of experts in the fields (human resource management specialist and statistician) was sought together with the promoter and co-promoter. Their feedback was obtained and the questionnaire was adjusted by removing items from POF because of low item to total correlation ( $<0.20$ ). The removed two items improved the reliability of the questionnaire that was administered.

#### **6.10.2.3 Convergent validity**

Convergent validity was established through correlation analyses amongst employee fit dimensions, JS, OCB and ITS as presented in Section 6.24 of this study. A significant strong positive correlation is reported between PJF and JS, PEF and JS and POF and JS. A moderate yet significant correlation between ALT, COU, CIV, CON and JS was established. Furthermore, a moderate yet significant correlation was established between two of the five dimensions of OCB against ITS (ALT and ITS, CON and ITS). All these positive correlations amongst the constructs assisted in establishing convergent validity in this study.

#### **6.10.2.4 Predictive validity**

Predictive validity was assessed through the various regression models. The various fit dimensions (PJF, PEF, POF) showed significant predictive relationships with JS. Significant relationships were also established between ALT and JS, COU and JS, CIV and JS, CON and JS. Finally, SP and COU showed strong predictive relationships with ITS.

### **6.11 ADDRESSING COMMON METHOD BIAS REMEDIES**

The detrimental effects and threats of common method bias have been addressed in various fields of studies ranging from sociology, marketing, business and education (Huang, Chang & Backman 2019:309). Common method bias is defined as systematic error variance that is shared among variables measured when introduced as a function of the same resource and is attributed to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest (Jakobsen & Jensen 2015:5). The term method refers to the form of

measurement at different levels of abstraction, such as the content of specific items, scale type, responses format and general context” (Dhurup 2018:2). In the case of bias in the projected relationship amongst two variables, the common method can be thought of as a confounding variable that influences both substantive variables of interest (Jakobsen & Jensen 2015:5).

Because the sample of the study was collected via a self-administered questionnaire which was distributed to possible respondents it became necessary that the hypotheses should be tested with consideration of common method bias. The following steps were taken to minimise the common method variance as recommended by Huang *et al.*, (2019:315):

- A pilot study was conducted to identify unnecessary items and the anonymity of the respondents was guaranteed during data collection process.
- Double-barrelled questions were avoided.
- Complicated syntax (grammar composition) was avoided.
- Scale endpoints were properly labelled.
- The questions were checked for conceptual overlap of items that measure different constructs (Dhurup 2018:2).

## **6.12 CONCLUSION**

This chapter provided a discussion regarding the outcomes of the pilot study and also reported on the empirical findings of the study.

Included in the discussion are the descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, normality tests, correlation analysis, regression analysis, reliability and validity. The results of the study indicate that the scales used were both reliable and valid. The demographic section of the study reflects a balanced representation and adequate diversity of the sample used in this study as reported using charts and graphs. The internal reliability was tested using Cronbach's alpha coefficient values and achieved an excellent internal consistence measurement average of 0.845 exceeding the threshold for a reliability of 0.70.

Moreover, data normality tests and multi-collinearity diagnostics were computed to verify the sufficiency of the data set for conducting stringent statistical tests. The normality test proved that the data were normally distributed. Spearman's Rho analysis was carried out to ascertain if there was a significant relationship between the constructs in the scale. Furthermore, various regression models were presented to establish predictive relationships in terms of the hypothesised relationships and the results predicted positively in most of the variables and negatively in few of the variables particularly between the dimensions of OCB. In that regard, this result demonstrate that employees' citizenship behaviour is a complex concept which should be considered contextually. Observations made in one context cannot be generalised, every situation is unique and must be treated as such.

The next chapter presents the findings of the study with a view to draw conclusions for the study.



## **CHAPTER 7**

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

#### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

Organisations have come to the realisation that employees are valuable assets and they need to fit into organisations in order to maximise performance and increase their turnover. Organisations have begun to invest millions of Rand's, time and effort in their quest to get the right people. However, all the efforts will be in vain if the best fit of persons is not chosen. Given the growing numbers of employees' who are employed to positions to which they have little or no knowledge about and employee turn-over particularly in local government, a need was identified to propose and empirically test a model of employee fit dimensions that influence JS, OCB and ITS in an effort to fill this gap and contribute to the body of knowledge. The preceding chapter empirically tested the antecedents and presented the findings of the study.

This chapter commences with an overview of the study. Thereafter the chapter examines how the objectives that were developed were achieved. Furthermore, the chapter clarifies how the findings of the study have contributed to the wider scope of research at the conceptual and methodological level. The chapter concludes with recommendations, limitations and implications for further research and the concluding remarks for the study.

#### **7.2 PRIMARY RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The primary objective of the study was to examine the influence of employee fit dimensions (PJF, PEF and POF) on JS, OCB and ITS in South African municipalities. In line with this, the study formulated a set of theoretical and empirical objectives.

#### **7.3 REVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS**

The study was divided into seven chapters, each serving a defined purpose. Chapter 1 presented the introductory statement of the study elaborating the background of the study, the problem statement, and the primary, theoretical and empirical objectives. A proposed conceptual model and research hypotheses, the delimitation of the study, research design, statistical analysis and ethical considerations were presented in this

chapter. The proposed model consisted of: PJF, PEF, POF, JS, OCB (ALT, COUR, CIV, SPO and CONS) and the intended output variable being ITS.

Chapters 2 to 4 are dedicated to deal extensively with the literature review. In the second chapter a broad literature review was conducted mainly focusing on the employee dimensions (person-job fit, person-environment fit and person-organisation fit) and their association with JS. This chapter covered a range of issues such as the conceptualisation of PJF, PEF and POF, theories and models of employee fit dimension and the perceived relationship the employee fit dimension and JS.

Chapter 3 of the study dealt with the literature review of JS. Discussions were directed at the theories and models of JS, concept clarification, approaches as well as dimensions of JS. Furthermore, analysis of JS and its impact on the organisation and individual employee were undertaken.

The fourth chapter of the study was dedicated to the analysis of the literature focusing on OCB and its association with ITS. Furthermore, the chapter discussed the intended outcome variable ITS, its conceptualisation, theories and models as well as the determinants of ITS.

In the fifth chapter, an in in-depth analysis of all methodological considerations used in the study was conducted. This chapter provide a clear guide regarding the design and methodology used in the study.

The sixth chapter provided a discussion of the data analysis as well as the interpretation of the results emanating from the study. In Chapter 7, the study was concluded with emphasis on issues such, implications of the study for the future, contributions of the study, realisation of the objectives, possible key recommendations and the limitations of the study.

#### **7.4 EVALUATION OF THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES**

A total of nine theoretical objectives were formulated for this study. To achieve these objectives, a detailed review of the literature was done. This included textbooks, articles, newspapers, research journals, Government Gazettes, internet and other relevant publications.

**The first three theoretical objectives** focused on conducting a literature review on employee fit dimensions (PJF, PEF and POF) in organisations. The grouping of these objectives under one discussion is motivated by the fact that they are clustered under employee fit dimensions. These objectives were achieved through a detailed literature review as presented in Chapter 2, PJF is presented in Section 2.3.1, PEF in Section 2.3.2, and POF in Section 2.3.3 respectively. Theories and models underpinning these constructs were explored, components of PJF were discussed, specific environmental congruency were identified as well as the correlations between the employee fit dimensions and JS were also discussed. Based on the literature review, employee fit dimensions were identified as critical on influencing certain level of employee JS.

**The fourth theoretical objective** was to conduct a literature review on JS in organisations. This objective was achieved and presented in Chapter 3 through a detailed literature review. The literature covered a range of issues on JS ranging from renowned and reputable model of JS, determinants of JS (organisational and individual factors). From the literature, it can be concluded that JS is a product and function of a combination of factors. Particularly in the fast changing world of work organisations need to be sensitised to the reality that there is no longer a one size fit all factor of motivation, people are different and are motivated by a range of different factors. Although the literature argues that there is direct association between JS and improved performance, there is no doubt that JS is at the centre of building a healthy working environment amongst employees as well as increasing employees' probabilities of remaining with the organisation for an extended period time.

**The fifth theoretical objective** was to conduct a literature review on OCB in organisations. Organisational citizenship behaviour is presented in Chapter 4 of this study and explains the extent to which employees are prepared to go beyond their call of duty. The literature covered all five (ALT, COU, SPO, CON and CIV) dimensions. Organisational citizenship behaviour leads employees to experience work meaningfulness. Studies predict a strong association between PJF, PEF, POF, JS and OCB. Employees who possess the requirements of the job (qualification, skills and abilities), with the right character and attitude, who work in a fit environment and an organisation that they share same values and ambitions are likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

**The sixth theoretical objective** was to conduct a literature review on intention to stay in organisations. Intention to stay literature is presented in Chapter 4 of this study and was conceptualised as an ultimate outcome and objective in terms of the proposed model of the study. The construct ITS mirrors the employee's level of loyalty, commitment and willingness to remain employed in the same organisation. Dealing with employee's intentions is critical because intentions are the most important determinants of turnover. The literature covered in this portion include theories, models and determinant of ITS.

**The Seventh theoretical objective** was to contextualise the literature on the relationship between the employee fit dimensions and JS. This objective was dealt with concurrently with the discussion of the employee fit dimensions in Chapter 2. The models on PJF (Figure 2.4), job characteristics model (Figure 2.6) and various conceptualisation of POF model (Figure 2.9) explicitly contextualised the relationship between employee-fit dimensions and JS.

**The Eighth theoretical objective** was to comprehend literature on the relationship between JS and OCB in organisations. This objective was realised through discussing the contextualisation of the relationship between JS and OCB in Section 3.3.4.

**The Ninth theoretical objective** was to reflect literature on the relationship between OCB and ITS in organisations. This objective was achieved in Section 4.8 where the relationship between OCB and ITS was discussed.

## **7.5 EVALUATION OF EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES**

To address the research problem, a set of empirical objectives were formulated. In order to achieve these objectives, a quantitative research method was used. Each of the empirical objectives were achieved as described in the following discussion.

- **To investigate the relationship between person-job fit and job satisfaction amongst municipal employees in South Africa.**

The first empirical objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between PJF and JS amongst municipal employees in South Africa and the colleration is confirmed (refer to Section 6.8). This result is consistent with the assertion by Chhabra (2015:644) who stated that employees whose personalities match the characteristics of the job are more likely to enjoy their jobs. Based on the findings of the correlation and regression analysis, in the present study there is a strong relationship between PJF and JS.

- **To investigate the relationship between person-environment fit and job satisfaction amongst municipal employees in South Africa.**

Based on the results of the correlation analysis that emerged in Section 6.8 a significant association between JS and PEF is affirmed. Furthermore, the results of the regression analysis corroborate the results of the correlation analysis (refer to Section 6.9). Therefore, the present study can conclude that exposing employees to a fitting working environment increases their satisfaction levels.

- **To investigate the relationship between person-organisation fit and job satisfaction amongst municipal employees in South Africa.**

The results of the correlation analysis as shown in Section 6.8 confirmed the existence of a statistically significant relationship between POF and JS. Similarly, this result is confirmed by hypothesis testing (refer to Section 6.9). This result is consistent with results from previous studies (Farooqui & Nagendra 2014: 126). It can be concluded in this study that congruency characteristics of employees and those of the organisation significantly improves JS.

- **To investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour amongst municipal employees in South Africa.**

Section 6.8 presented results on the correlation between JS and OCB where OCB was categorised into five dimensions, namely: ALT, COU, CIV, SPO and CON. Similarly, the results of the regression analysis (refer to Section 6.9) predicted significantly between JS and ALT. Based on the results in this study, it can be concluded that ALT positively influences JS behaviours of employees in a workplace.

Regarding COU, results of the correlation analysis are also presented in Section 6.8 and Section 6.9 with regard to regression analysis. Therefore, in the context of this study, it can be concluded that there is an association between JS and COU. The results of the correlation analysis between CIV and JS are reported in Section 6.8. Equally, this result is confirmed on hypothesis testing and are reported in Section 6.9. Furthermore, Section 6.8 reported insignificantly on the association between SPO and JS. This results are confirmed by the regression analysis in Section 6.9 between JS and SPO, signifying that JS does not predict SPO behaviour.

Lastly, Section 6.8 presented results of the correlation analysis between CON and JS. While the results on hypothesis testing are presented in Section 6.9 indicate that JS significantly contributed towards predicting CON. The findings of the result in this study are consistent with findings from previous studies where it was established that increasing JS leads to an improvement on CON behaviours of employees (Organ & Ryan 1995:800; Mehboob & Bhutto 2012:1451).

- **To investigate the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to stay among municipalities in South Africa.**

The relationship between OCB and ITS was established through correlation analysis in Section 6.8 and regression analysis in Section 6.9. The results of the correlation analysis indicate a weak relationship between ALT and ITS and a moderate association between CON and ITS. A linear association is indicated between ITS and CIV, while an insignificant correlation between ITS and SPO was established. Despite this significant positive correlation, the hypothesis testing results reveal that ALT, COU and CIV do not predict ITS. Based on the hypothesis results, it can be concluded that ALT, COU and CIV do not influence on employees' ITS, while also concluding that SPO behaviour and CON significantly contributes towards predicting ITS.

## **7.6 EVALUATION OF HYPOTHESES**

The hypotheses posited in Figure 1.1 were tested using regression analysis and the outcomes are presented in Section 6.7. Based on the regression analysis results, nine of the posited hypotheses were confirmed and four of the hypotheses were rejected. The findings of the study confirm that PJF, PEF and POF are positive predictors of JS. The results further confirmed that ALT, COU, CIV and CON behaviours impact positively on JS, while SPO behaviour does not impact positively on JS.

## **7.7 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY**

This study contributes to the emerging but increasingly popular subject of the influence of employee fit dimensions on JS, OCB and ITS in the field of human resource management. Most importantly, the study adds to the researchers' efforts in understanding the relationships amongst the different constructs in the municipal sector. Accordingly, this study has contributed to the field of human resource management and the literature in the following manner:

Firstly, this study feeds into the gap and call for more research on the need to identify and investigate the influence of employee fit dimensions on JS, OCB and ITS in underdeveloped and developing countries, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa within a public sector. The constructs under investigation have been studied separately in the past, very little research has been carried out that addresses the effect of employee fit dimension (combined) on JS, OCB and ITS (Takawira *et al.*, 2014:2). Thus, this study addressed this challenge by confirming that when employee fit dimensions are enhanced JS increases.

Furthermore, the study established that when JS is increased ALT, CIV, CON and COU are improved. The study also confirmed that when SPO and CON are enhanced ITS increases.

Although there has been profuse research involving fit between jobholders and their environments, this study adds to the existing body of knowledge in the field of human resource management, more so in a municipality sector in South Africa. Regardless of the rapid development of information and communication technologies, interpersonal interactions remain key in the day-to-day operations in organisations. There is mounting evidence supporting the view that fit between individuals, their jobs, work environments and organisations affects both the pre-entry and post-entry attitudes, behaviours and intentions in the workplace (Bednarska 2017:66). Organisations might be interested in knowing which attributes are elementary in enhancing JS and which will ultimately trigger a person's citizenship behaviour and increase ITS. Achieving this is crucial in any organisation costs that are associated with recruitment and training and development are reduced.

## **7.8 PRACTICAL CONTRIBUTION**

Traditional recruitment and selection methods focused on the assessment of the match between job requirements and qualification of candidates as explained in the literature (Deghanpour, Ali & Mehdi 2014:673). The results of this study display an appreciation of the effect the employee fit dimension has on JS that contributes to acceptable behaviours displayed by employees within the municipalities and ultimately on their intentions to remain with the municipalities. This result suggests that organisations need to review their recruitment and selection, processes, practices and policies and consider introducing recruitment processes that integrate other attributes and aspects such as a person's compatibility with the job and their compatibility with the organisation. On the

practical aspect, human resource departments in municipalities will have to adjust their hiring processes and begin to look into a holistic approach that considers factors like PJF, PEF and POF (employee fit dimensions) in their recruitment, interview and placement process. These factors have been found in this study to have contributed positively in improving job satisfaction levels of employees. In addition, certain positive behaviours displayed by employees are attributable to the influence of employee fit dimension.

## **7.9 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The recommendations that are discussed here are to a larger extent influenced by the literature review that was conducted in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 and the discussion of the findings as explained in Chapter 6. These recommendations are brief in that they highlight focus areas that organisations and their personnel need to give special attention to during the recruitment process.

### **7.9.1 Recommendations based on the relationship between employee fit dimensions and job satisfaction.**

In their quest to bring the best talent, organisations should recognise the impact of personnel decisions on a business's bottom-line and the recruitment guide and process is central in ensuring that fitting candidates are employed. Over the years fitting candidates were referred to as individuals with the right qualifications, skills, abilities and experience; while the personal attributes of a person's fitness to the job, environment and organisations were overlooked. The situation is compounded by the fact that employment in municipalities is plagued with controversies where the "spoils recruitment system" is practiced. *This calls for a radical shift from the old recruitment system that only employed people based of their political connectivity, qualification and experience to a system that has a holistic approach (PJF, PEF and POF) in the recruitment processes as discussed below.*

Person-job fit assists an organisation to determine how well a potential candidate may be suitable for a post. A candidate is considered a good fit for a job if his/her background, character and experience are aligned with the job description and if he/she will be able to carry out the responsibilities of the role. This is the first and obvious aspect of a job that organisations must consider. However, meeting only these requirements does not guarantee that employees will be effective, competitive and stay longer with an organisation. Table 6.10 in Chapter 6 reported that person-job fit plays an important role



in predicting job satisfaction. *Therefore, placement assessments that test the personality and character of a person should be developed aimed at establishing whether the academically qualified candidate fits well with the job to be undertaken.*

Organisations and their human resource departments need to dedicate efforts in establishing whether the candidate who makes a good fit with the job is also a person whose inner state is going to be compatible with the external environment. Environmental compatibility is broad and perceptual in nature, making it difficult to address during the recruitment and test processes. *But understanding the nature of business and divisions into which recruitment is intended to will help organisations a great deal. Any disregard of this aspect during the interview and assessment process will result in higher frustration rates and increased dissatisfaction. Furthermore, a working environment that places the health and safety and other individual needs within and outside the organisation as priorities need to be created and sustained by these municipalities.*

Recruitment is done for organisations and equally people join organisations not a department or a supervisor. Therefore, it is crucial that any person brought into the organisation is compatible with beliefs, norms, values and the direction taken by the organisation. Differences about how goals should be achieved, organisational policies, support structure, for example, destroy the motivation of any employee irrespective of their qualifications, vast experience and ability to perform. *This study recommends that sound policies coupled with a clear and acceptable organisational culture should be put in place to guide the selection process. Consequently, this study further recommends that the recruitment process should dedicate a considerable amount of time and resources in establishing the existence of compatibility between a candidate and an organisation.* Higher compatibility between employees and an organisation increases JS levels and ultimately increases a person's ITS, as reported in Table 6.23.

For example, a company hiring for a role that is very team-oriented that includes a lot of collaboration for which the hired candidate can complete all the responsibilities required of the role, he or she would fall under the category of a good job fit. However, if this person is not fond of work that requires heavy communication and collaboration with other team members, he or she may not be a good environmental fit. On the other hand, if the candidate can excel at all the responsibilities of the role and strive to work with others in a collaborative environment, they would be a good fit for the job and the organisation. So, employers need to understand that candidates with great abilities and skills have the

freedom to choose to a large extent, where they want to work and their choice is often based on organisational values and norms. Consequently, they tend to self-select into those organisations that they perceive as sharing the same beliefs, values and norms.

### **7.9.2 Recommendations based on relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour dimensions.**

The results of the study indicate that four of the five dimensions of OCB (ALT, COU, CIV and CON) are positively associated with JS. *This study recommends that municipalities should dedicate time and resources in establishing and improving JS factors that are instrumental in enhancing OCB. In this study, JS appears to be the contributing factor of employees' ALT, COU, CIV and CON behaviours.* In other words, organisations can stimulate employees' willingness to go beyond their call of duty by ensuring that the work environments to become an environment that seeks to meet the needs of employees by increasing JS levels.

As complex as JS can be it must be noted that JS is a key variable in decisions taken by employees about their future engagements with any organisations. A decision to commit and quit an organisation by highly skilled, experienced and educated people is centred on JS. Granted, as the literature puts it, JS is a complex variable that comprises a number of determinants affecting it, making it difficult for employers to address it to the satisfaction of all. These factors are generally classified as extrinsic (organisational) and intrinsic (personal) causes. The challenge presented by literature is that people are different and are motivated by different things, addressing the needs and expectations of one employee does not automatically translate to addressing the needs of all. *However, by addressing the common extrinsic factors (company policies, administration and procedures, remunerations, working conditions, job security and supervision) of JS, municipalities would have unknowingly enhanced employees' prospect of behaving in a manner that promotes good citizenship behaviour.* Having employees who are willing to commit beyond their call of duty and execute tasks that ordinarily employees would expect to be compensated for is beneficiary to any organisation in a sense that it is an indication of having a highly motivated workforce, that meets deadlines and remain competitive in the global market.

### **7.9.3 Recommendations based on the relationship between sportsmanship behaviour and intention to stay**

It was concluded in **Model 7** that there is a significant and predictable relationship between SPO and ITS. This suggests that ITS may be enhanced by merely intensifying SPO, which will subsequently have a positive influence on employees ITS behaviour. The importance of enhancing JS cannot be over-emphasised, because only a highly satisfied individual will engage in SPO. However, having employees with a positive attitude, who accept organisational inconveniences as part of operational challenges reaffirm to the organisation that it can depend on its workforce even in times of difficulties. Improving employees' ITS opportunities is the ultimate goal of any organisation because it put the organisation at ease knowing that a long-term commitment exists between itself and its workforce. Having employees who are willing to stay longer with an organisation reduces costs associated with recruitment and training and development. Committing to an organisation affords employers an opportunity to get the experienced employees to transfer their skills and knowledge to the younger inexperienced generation, creating more development opportunities within the organisation. Therefore, if SPO is associated with ITS as per the findings of this study, *it is recommended that municipalities should encourage employees' SPO behaviour to improve ITS.*

### **7.9.4 Recommendations based on the relationship between conscientiousness and intention to stay**

The study concluded that there is a statistical and significant association between CON and ITS amongst municipal employees. This implies that ITS can be increased by enhancing the CON dimension of OCB. Conscientiousness appeals to employees' conscious to refrain from easy-going and disorderly behaviours and adopt a diligent and careful attitude towards their work. Conscientious employees exhibit tendencies of self-discipline, act dutifully, plan and aim for achievements and are generally dependable. Conscientious employees tend to obey organisational rules without being closely monitored, their work ethics are above average and they believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest pay. These characteristics blend well with the shift in employers' expectations on the calibre of potential employees they would prefer to employ employees who are self-directed and work without close-supervision.

*To augment ITS, this study recommends that employers should hire conscientious people and create enabling environments where these people can express themselves without*

*any fear. Restrictive environments instil fear and uncertainty in employees. Employees who enjoy freedom of expression are not only prone to exhibit conscientious behaviours but are also likely remain in the employment of their immediate employers.*

## **7.10            LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

In spite of the fact that this study presented a significant insight relating to the influence of employee fit dimensions on JS, OCB and ITS in selected South African municipalities, it is inclined or bound to limitations that offer avenues for future research. First, in this study only two district municipalities (MDM and SDM) from two provinces (Gauteng and Mpumalanga) formed part of the study and thus the findings may not adequately represent the pattern of influence of the employee fit dimensions on JS, OCB and ITS in the rest of the South African municipalities.

Therefore, it would be interesting to investigate the influence of employee fit dimension on JS, OCB and ITS on a broader sample frame that will include metros, districts and regional municipalities from various provinces to enhance the generalisation of the findings across a wider population. Furthermore, the study did not investigate the extent to which the employee fit dimensions' influence each other. Understanding that pattern could assist organisations anticipate behavioural changes or adaptations challenges resulting from moving employees between roles within an organisation. Broadening the scope may assist to a larger extent in influencing recruitment decisions and practices that hinder managers and human resource personnel from executing their duties without interference.

Secondly, in this study a non-probability sampling technique convenient sampling method to select respondents was used. The data collection instrument preferred in this study is the questionnaire. This increases chances of misunderstanding, misinterpretation, venting of hidden agenda and also does not allow respondents to express their feelings and emotions. Therefore, caution need to be exercised when interpreting the findings of this study. Future studies may use mixed methods to enhance the external validity of the findings.

Lastly, the unsupported hypothesised relationships between JS and SPO, ALT and ITS, COU and ITS and CIV and ITS provide another platform for future research. This is important particularly in understanding and broadening the scope of determinants of

employee's ITS. A well-coordinated effort in identifying and dealing with antecedents that enhance the possibilities of employees staying longer is crucial in curbing costs related to high turnover. In addition, this study did not investigate the impact PJF, PEF and POF fit will have on performance or productivity. Future studies should consider further investigations to that effect.

## **7.11 CONCLUDING REMARKS**

The primary objective of the present study was to examine the influence employee fit dimensions (person-job fit, person-environment fit and person-organisation fit) have on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to stay in selected South African municipalities. Based on the findings of this study, nine of the 13 posited hypotheses were considered significant. This result contributes to the existing literature as it demonstrated that employees whose fit is not questionable turn out to be satisfied, go beyond the call of their job requirements and eventually decide to remain with the organisation. The correlation and regression analyses of this study further confirmed that when employee fit dimensions are met JS develops.

This study further gives insight about what drives employees of these municipalities to want to go beyond their formal job requirements resulting in them wishing to extend their stay for a longer period. Given the importance of JS and the influence it has on OCB; organisations should strive to improve JS levels of employees in order to benefit from behaviours employees exhibit after experiencing JS.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

ABDALLA, A., ELSETOUHI, A., NEGM, A. & ABDOU, H. 2018. Perceived person organisation fit and turnover intention in medical centres: The mediating roles of person-group fit and person-job fit perceptions; *Personnel Review*, 47(4):863-881.

ABDUL-HAMID, S.N. & YAHYA, K.K. 2011. Relationship between person-job fit and person-organization fit on employees' work engagement: a study among engineers in semiconductor companies in Malaysia. Proceeding of the Annual Conference on Innovations in Business and Management, London. Pp.1-30.

ABDEL-KHALEK, A.M. 2016. *Introduction to the psychology of self-esteem*. New York. Nova Science Publishers.

ABDULLAH, N.A. & AKHAR, M.M.S. 2016. Job satisfaction through organizational citizenship behaviour: A case of university teachers in Pakistan. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 62(2):134-149.

ABDULLA, J.M. 2009. Determinants of job satisfaction amongst Dubai police employees. Thesis. UK. Glamorgan University.

ADAMS, W. & MOILA, B. 2004. Nelspruit, Mbombela ten-year review. Southern African regional poverty network. [online] [www.sarpn.org.za](http://www.sarpn.org.za). [Accessed: 13/10/2017].

ADOM, D., HUSSEIN, E.K. & AGYEM, J.A. 2018. Theoretical and conceptual framework: Mandatory ingredients of a quality research. *International Journal of Scientific Research*, 7(1):438-441.

AFSAR, B. & BADIR, Y.F. 2016. Person-organisation fit, perceived organisational support, and organisational citizenship behaviour: the role of job embeddedness. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 15(3):252-278.

AGARWAL, P. 2015. Study of dimensions and consequences of organisational citizenship behaviour. 2<sup>nd</sup> International Conference on Recent Innovations in Science, Engineering and Management, New Delhi. Jawaharlal Nehru University.

AHMAD, A. & SAUD, S. 2016. The effect of role-overload on employee anxiety and organization citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Managerial Sciences*, 10(1):45-54.

ALHENDI, O. 2019. Personality traits and their validity in predicting job performance at recruitment: A review. *International Journal of Engineering and Management Sciences*, 4(3):222-231.

AHMAD, K.Z. & VEERAPANDIAN, K. 2012. The mediating effect of person-environment fit on the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 4(1):91-102.

AHMAD, R., ING, H.E. & BUJANG, S. 2014. Relationship between selected factors of job satisfaction and job performance among workers at Palm oil industries. *International Review of Management and Business Research*, 3(3):1751-1766.

AJZEN, I. 2012. *The theory of planned behaviour. Handbook of theories of social psychology*, London, UK.

AKAFO, V. & BOATENG, P.A. 2015. Impact of reward and recognition on job satisfaction and motivation. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 7(24):112-124.

AKHTAR, I. 2016. *Research design. Research in social science: Interdisciplinary perspective*. New Delhi. Pp.68-84.

ALDERFER, C.P. 1967. Convergent and discriminant validation of satisfaction and desire measures with and without preceding interviews. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 51:509-520.

ALIPOUR, O., AZIZI, B. & MEHNI, M.A.K. 2014. Impact of organisational citizenship behaviour on customers and client's satisfaction. *Indian Journal of Fundamental and Applied Sciences*, 4(3):1097-1104.

ALIYU, A.A., BELLO, M.U., KASIMO, R. & MARTIN, D. 2014. Positivist and non-positivist paradigm in social science research: Conflicting paradigms or perfect partners. *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, 4(3):79-95.

ALIZADEH, Z., DARVISHI, S., NAZARI, K. & EMAMI, M. 2012. Antecedents and consequences of organisational citizenship behaviour. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 3(9):494-505.

ALMAMUM, C.A. & HASAN, N. 2017. Factors affecting employee turnover and sound retention strategies in business organisation: A conceptual view. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 15(1):63-71.

ALMOHTASIB, T., BERGSTRÖM, N. & NGUYEN, V. 2020. Decentralized environment's impact on employee performance: A study on how a decentralized environment in the operating & service department impacts employee performance within an organization. Thesis. Sweden. Malardalen University.

AL-OMARI, K. & OKASHER, H. 2017. The influence of work environment on job performance: A case study of engineering company in Jordan. *International Journal of Applied Engineering Research* 12(24):15544-15550. <http://www.publication.com>. [accessed 04/06/2018].

ALROWWAD, A., ALMAJALI, D.A., MASA'DEH, R., OBEIDAT, B. & AQQAD, N. 2020. The role of organizational commitment in enhancing organizational effectiveness, *Education Excellence and Innovation Management through Vision 2020*. Pp. 9133-9154. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/332697163>. [accessed 30/11/2020]

ALSEMER, H.A. 2016. Factors affecting job satisfaction: An empirical study in the public sector of Saudi Arabia. Thesis. Melbourne. Victoria University.

AL-SWIDI, A., HUQUE, S.M.R., HAFEEZ, M.H. & SHARIFF, M.N. 2013. The role of subjective norms in theory of planned behaviour in the context of organic food consumption. *British Food Journal*, 116(10):1561-1580.

ALVI, M.H. 2016. A manual for selecting sampling techniques in research. Karachi. Iqra University. Online at <https://mpira.ub.uni-muenchen.de/70218/>. [accessed 27/10/2019].

AMARASENA, T.S.M., AJWARD, A.R. & HAQUE, A.K.M. 2015. The impact of work autonomy on job satisfaction of academic staff. An empirical examination of government universities in Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Recent Advances in Organisational Behaviour and Decision Sciences. An Online International Research Journal*, 1(4):575-586.

AMOATEMAA, A.S. & KYEREMEH, D.D. 2016. Making employee recognition a tool for achieving improved performance: Implications for Ghanaian Universities. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(34):46-52.



- ANDELA, M. & VAN DER DOEF, M. 2019. A comprehensive assessment of the person–environment fit dimensions and their relationships with work related outcomes. *Journal of Career Development*, 46(5):567-582.
- ARGYROPOULOU, K. & KALIRIS, A. 2018. From career decision-making to career decision-management: New trends and prospects for career counselling. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal*, 5(10):483-502.
- ARIELI, S., SAGIY, L. & ROCCAS, S. 2019. Values at work: The impact of personal values in organisations. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, Pp1-46.
- ARSHAD, A. & IMRAN, A. 2016. Impact of organisational morality on employee creativity: Mediating role of organisational pride. *International Review of Management and Business Research*, 5(3):961-971.
- ARTZ, B. M., GOODALL, A.H. & OSWALD, A.J 2017. Boss competence and worker well-being. *Industrial Relations and Labour Review*, 70(2):419-450.
- ASARE, M. 2015. Using the theory of planned behaviour to determine the condom use behaviour amongst college students. *Am Journal of Health Studies*, 30(1):43-50.
- ASHRAF, M., AHMAD, N., SHAIKH, O., BHATTI, S. & SOOMRO, A. 2013. The determinants of job satisfaction in public service organisations. *European Scientific Journal*, 9(35):362-377.
- ASIAMAH, N., MENSAH, H.K. & OTENG-ABAYIE, E. 2017. General, target and accessible population. Demystifying the concept for effective sampling. *The Qualitative Report*, 22(6):1607-1622.
- ATITSOGBE, K. A., MOUMOULA, I. A., ROCHAT, S., ANTONIETTI, J.P., & ROSSIER, J. 2018. Vocational interests and career indecision in Switzerland and Burkina Faso: Cross-cultural similarities and differences. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 107:126–140.
- AXELROD, H.R. 2017. In *Leadership today: Practices for personal and professional performance: Leadership and self-confidence*. Concord. Marques and Dhiman, (ed). Granite State College: Springer.

- AZIM, M.T., HAQUE, M.M., & CHOWDHURY, R.A. 2013. Gender, marital status and job satisfaction: An empirical study. *International Review of Business and Management Research*, 2(2):488-498.
- AZIRI, B. 2011. Job satisfaction: A literature review. *Management Research and Practice*, 3(4):77-86.
- BABBIE, E. & MOUTON, J. 2010. *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- BAGRAIN, J, CUNNINGHAM, P, POTGIETER, T. & VIEDGE, C. 2016. *Organisational behaviour: A contemporary South African perspective*, 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Pretoria. Van Schaik.
- BAHRAMI, M.A., MONTAZERALFARAJ, R., GAZAR, H. & TAFTI, A.D. 2014. Relationship between organisation perceived justice and organisational citizenship behaviour among an Iranian hospital's employees. *Electronic Physicia*, 6(2):838-844.
- BAJPAI, S. & BAJPAI, R. 2014. Goodness of measurement: Reliability and validity. *International Journal of Medical Science and Public Health*, 3(1):173-176.
- BAKOTIC, D. & BABIC, T. 2013. Relationship between working conditions and job satisfaction: The case of Croatian Shipbuilding Company. *International Journal of Business and Social Science* 4(2):206-213.
- BARLING, J. 1977. A critical review of the application of Maslow's motivation theory in industry. *Perspectives in Industrial Psychology*, 3(1):1-21.
- BARNARD, C.I. 1966. *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- BASSETT-JONES, N. & LLOYD, G.C. 2005. Does Herzberg's motivation theory have staying power? *Journal of Management Development*, 24(10):929-943.
- BATEMAN, T.S. & ORGAN, D.W. 1983. Job satisfaction and the good soldier: the relationship between affect and employee 'citizenship'. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26:587-595.
- BAYL-SMITH, P.H. & GRIFFIN, B. 2015. Measuring work style. Towards an understanding of the dynamic components of the theory of work adjustment. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 90:132-144.

BAYONA, J.A., CABALLER, A. & PEIRO, J.M. 2020. The relationship between knowledge characteristics' fit and job satisfaction and job performance: The mediating role of work engagement. *Sustainability*, 12(2336):1-20. doi:10.3390/su12062336.

BECK, R.C. 2000. *Motivation: Theory and practice*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

BEDNARSKA, M.A. 2017. Does the effect of person-environment fit on work attitudes vary with generations? Insights from the tourism industry. *International Journal of Management and Economics*, 53(1):65-83.

BEL, G. & FAGEDA, X. 2008. Local privatisation, inter-municipal cooperation, transactions costs and political interest: Evidence from Spain. *Research Institute of Applied Economics*, 4:1-23.

BELOTTO, M.J. 2018. Data analysis methods for qualitative research: Managing challenges of coding, interrater, reliability and thematic analysis. *The Qualitative Report*, 23(11):2622-2633.

BENDER, M., WOIKE, B. A., BURKE, CH. T. & DOW, E. A. A. 2012. The relationship between implicit and explicit motives, goal pursuit, and autobiographical memory content during a diary study. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 46(4):374-383.

BERBER, A. & ROFCANIN, Y. 2012. Investigation of organisation citizenship behaviour construct: A framework for antecedents and consequences. *International Journal of Business and Social Research*, 2(4):195-210.

BERTA, W., LOPORTE, A., PERREIRA, T., GINSBURG, L., DASS, A.R., DEBER, R., BAUMANN, A., CRANLEY, L., BOURGEAULT, LUM, J., GAMBLE, B., PILKINGTON, K., HAROUN, V. & NEVES, P. 2018. The relationships between work outcomes, work attitudes and work environments of health support workers in Ontario long-term care and home and community care settings. *Human Resources for Health*, 16(1)15-26.

BHARDWAJ, A., MISHRA, S. & JAIN, T.K. 2020. An analysis to understanding the job satisfaction of employees in banking industry. *Materials Today: Proceedings*, Pp.1-5. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matpr.2020.04.783>. [Accessed 08/11/2020].

BHASKAR, Y. 2008. *A realistic theory of science with a new introduction*. Routledge. Canada.

BHAT, Z.H. 2014. Job matching: The key to performance. *International Journal of Research in Organizational Behaviour and Human Resource Management*, 2(4):257-269.

BILLSBERRY, J. 2004. *ASA Theory: An empirical study of attraction proposition*. In academy of management annual meeting, New Orleans, LA.

BLUMBERG, B., COOPER, D.R. & SCHINDLER, P.S. 2014. *Business research methods*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Bershire, London: McGraw-Hill Education.

BOHLE, S.R.L. & ALONSO, A.R.M. 2014. The effect of procedural fairness and supervisor support in the relationship between job security and organisational citizenship behaviour. *Review of Business Management*, 19(65):337-357.

BOHNDICK, C., ROSMAN, T., KOHLMAYER, S. & BUHL, H.M. 2017. The interplay between subjective abilities and subjective demands and its relationship with academic success. An application of the person-environment fit theory. *Springer Science and Business Media B.V.* <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-017-0173-6>. [Accessed 19/07/2019].

BOIRAL, O., TALBOT, D. & PAILLE, P. 2015. Leading by example: A model of organisational citizenship behaviour for the environment. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 54: 532-550.

BOLARINWA, O.A. 2015. Principle and methods of validity and reliability testing of questionnaires used in social and health science researches. *Nigeria Postgraduate Medical Journal*. 22:195-201.

BONTE, S. & KRABEL, S. 2014. You can't always get what you want: Gender differences in job satisfaction of university graduates. Schumpeter discussion paper. *Schumpeter School of Business and Economics*, Germany. University of Wuppertal. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00036846.2014.899677>.

BOON, C. & BIRON, M. 2016. Temporal issues in person-organisation fit, person-job fit and turnover: The role of leader-member exchange. *Human Relations*, 69 (12):2177-2200.

BOON, C., DEN HARTOG, N.D., BOSELIE, P. & PAAUWE, P. 2011. The relationship between perceptions of hr practices and employee outcomes: examining the role of

person–organisation and person–job fit. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22 (1):138-162.

BOTWE, P.B., KENNETH, A. & MASIH, E. 2016. Concept of trust and its effect on performance in an organisation. *The International Journal of Business & Management*, 4(2):123-128.

BRAATHEN, E., CHALIGHA, A. & FJELDSTAD, O.H. 2005. Local governance, finances and service delivery in Tanzania. A summary of findings from six councils. <https://www.cmi.no/publications/file/1977-local-governance>. [Accessed 22/07/2019].

BROWN, J.L. 2011. Measuring the impact of person-environment fit and its affective outcomes: A case study of international cooperation and development fund. Published thesis. Tapeni. National Taiwan Normal University.

BRUNO, L.F.C. & LAY, E.G.E. 2006. Personal values and leadership effectiveness. *E-Leader, Slovakia*, 61(1)1-10.

BRUNSTEIN, J.C. & MAIER, G.W. 2005. Implicit and self-attributed motives to achieve: Two separate but interacting needs. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 89: 205-222.

BURNES, B. & COOKES, B. 2013. Kurt Lewin's Field theory: A review and re-evaluation. *International Journal of Management Review*, 15: 408-425.

BUTLER, B.S., BATEMAN, P.J., GRAY, P.H. & DIAMANT, E.L. 2015. An attraction-selection-attribution theory of online community size and resilience. *MIS Quarterly*, 10(10):1-30.

BRYMAN, A. & BELL, E. 2013. *Business research methods*. 3<sup>rd</sup> (ed). New York. Oxford.

CABLE, D.M. & DeRUE, D.S. 2002. The convergent and discriminant validity of subjective fit perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(5):875–884.

CABLE, D.M. & JUDGE, T.A. 1995. The role of person-organization fit in organizational selection decisions. *CAHRS Working Paper Series. Paper 197*:1-30. <http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/cahrswp/197>. [Accessed 17/05/2015].

CABLE, D.M. & JUDGE, T.A. 1996. Person-organisation fit, job choice decision, and organisational entry. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 67(3) 294-311.

CAMPBELL, M. 2018. Postmodernism and educational research. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 6:67-73.

CHAHAL, H. & MEHTA, S. 2010. Antecedents and consequences of organisational citizenship behaviour: A conceptual framework in reference to healthcare sector. *Journal of Service Research*, 10(2):25-44.

CHAN, L.L. & IDRIS, N. 2017. Validity and reliability of the instrument using exploratory factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 7(10):400-410.

CHATMAN, J. 1989. Improving interactional organizational research: A model of person-organisation fit. *Academic of Management Review*, 14:333-349.

CHAUDHRY, M. S., SABIR, H. M., RAFI, N. & KALYAR, M. N. 2011. Exploring the relationship between salary satisfaction and job satisfaction: a comparison of public and private sector organizations. *The Journal of Commerce*, 3(4):1-14.

CHETENI, P. & SHINDIKA, E.S. 2017. Ethical leadership in South Africa and Botswana. *Bar, Rio de Janeiro*, 14(2):1-13.

CHHABRA, B. 2015. Person-job fit: Mediating role of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *Indian Journal of industrial Relations*, 50(4):638-651.

CHIMANIKIRE, P., MUTANDWA, E., GADZIRAYI, C.T., MUZONDO., N. & MUTANDWA, B. 2007. Factors affecting job satisfaction among academic professionals in tertiary institutions in Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Business Management*, 1(6):166-175.

CHINOMONA, E. 2015. Effects of organisational citizenship behaviour, employee perception of equity and organisational commitment on intention to stay in Zimbabwe. Thesis. Vanderbijlpark. Vaal University of Technology.

CHINOMONA, R., DHURUP, M. & CHINOMONA, E. 2013. Do employee perceptions of fit to job, fit to organization and fit to community influence job performance? The case of

Zimbabwe's manufacturing sector. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(1):1-10. <http://www.sajhrm.co.za>, doi:10.4102/sajhrm.v11:1.475.

CISAR, P. & CISAR, S.M. 2010. Skewness and kurtosis in function of selection of network traffic distribution. *Acta Polytechnica Hungarica*, 7(2):95-106.

CLARK, A. E., OSWALD, A. J. & WARRS. P. 1996. Is Job Satisfaction U-Shaped in Age? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 69, 57-81.

CLOW, K.E. & JAMES, K.E. 2014. *Essentials of Marketing Research: Putting research into practice*. California: Sage.

COOPER, D.R. & EMORY, C.W. 1995. *Business research methods*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Florida: Irwin.

COWDEN, T.L. & CUMMINGS, G.G. 2012. Nursing theory and concept development: a theoretical model of clinical nurses' intentions to stay in their current position. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, Pp.1646-1657.

CRESWELL, J. W. 2007. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

CRESWELL, R. 2014. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. USA: Sage Publications.

CROPANZANO, R. & MITCHELL, M.S. 2005. Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6):874-900.

DAHESIHSARI, R.R. 2017. The organizational attraction at company owned University. *International Research Journal of Business Studies*, 9(3):185-195.

DAHLING, J.J. & LIBRIZZI, U.A. 2015. Integrating the Theory of Work adjustment and attachment theory to predict job turnover intention. *Journal of Career Development*, 42(3):215-228.

DAILY, B.F., BISHOP, J.W., & GOVINDARAJULU, N. 2009. A conceptual model for organisational citizenship behaviour directed towards the environment. *Business and Society*, 48(2) 243-256.

DALY, P.S., DUBOSE, P.B., OWYAR-HOSSEINI, M.M, BAIK, K. & STARK, E., 2014. Antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviour in a sample of Korean manufacturing employees. *International Journal of Cross Culture Management*, 15(1): 27-50.

DANISH, R.Q. & USMAN, A. 2010. Impact of reward and recognition on job satisfaction and motivation: An empirical study from Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(2):159-167.

DASH, S. & PRADHAN, R.K. 2014. Determinants and consequences of organisational citizenship behaviour: A theoretical framework for Indian manufacturing organisations. *International Journal of Business Management Intervention*, 3(1):17-27.

DAVIDESCU, A.A., APOSTU, S.A., PAUL, A. & CASUNEANU, I. 2020. Work flexibility, job satisfaction, and job performance among Romanian employees— implications for sustainable human resource management. *Sustainability*, (12)1-53.

DAWIS, R.V., & LOFQUIST, L.H. 1984. *A psychological theory of work adjustment*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

DAWIS, R.V., ENGLAND, G.W. & LOFQUIST, L.H. 1964. A theory of work adjustment. In Minnesota studies in vocational rehabilitation (15). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Industrial Relations Center. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED018590.pdf>. Accessed [12/04/2016].

De COOMAN, R., De GIETER, S. & HOFMANS, D. 2010. The impact of perceived and actual PO fit on employees' work-related attitudes and behaviours. In proceeding of the 4<sup>th</sup> global e-conference on fit. Thesis. UK. Milton Keynes. The Open University.

DEHGHANPOUR, F.J., ALI, F. & MEHDI, K. 2014. The impact of person-job fit and person organisation fit on OCB. *Personnel Review*, 43(5):672 – 691.

DENIZ, N., NOYAN, A. & ERTOSUN, O.G. 2015. Linking person-job fit stress: The mediating effect of perceived person-organisation fit. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 207:369-376.

De SMITH, M.J. 2018. *Statistical analysis handbook. A comprehensive handbook of statistical concepts, techniques and software tools*. Edinburgh. The Winchelsea Press, Drumlin Ltd.



DEAN, K., JOSEPH, J., ROBERTS, J.M. & WIGHT, C. 2006. *Realism, philosophy and social science*. Basingstoke, New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

DEVASAGAYAM, H.C. 2013. Organisational citizenship behaviour of distributed teams: A study on the mediating effects of organisational justice in software organisations. *International Journal of Science and Engineering Resources*, 4(1):1-54.

DHURUP, M. 2018. Common Method Biases in quantitative research. *Postgraduate and Staff Development Support*. Pp.1-10. Vanderbijlpark. VUT.

DLODLO, N. 2017. Determining the values that influence consumers' behavioural intentions towards fashion e-stores. Thesis. Vanderbijlpark. North-West University.

DOYLE, L., BYRNE, A. & BRADY, G. 2009. An overview of mixed methods research. *Journal of Research in Nursing*, 14(2):175-185.

DUCH, W. 2017. *Kurt Lewin, psychological constructs and sources of brain cognitive activity*. Poland. Nicolaus Copernicus University.

DUDOVSKIY, J. 2018. Ultimate guide to writing a dissertation in business studies: A step by step assistance. *E Book of Mixed Methods Research*, Pp. 240-255.

DUGGUH, S. I. & DENNIS A. 2014. Job satisfaction theories: Traceability to employee performance in organizations. *Journal of Business and Management*, 16(5):11-18.

DYWILI, M. 2015. The relationship between occupational stress and intentions to quit among employees at Nkonkobe Municipality in South Africa. *Business and Economics Journal*, 6(2):1-11.

EATON, P. & WILLOUGHBY, S.D. 2018. Confirmatory factor analysis applied to the force concept inventory. *Physical Review Physics Education Research*, 14:1-10. DOI:<https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevPhysEducRes.14.010124>.

EDWARDS J.R. 1991. Person-job fit: A conceptual integration, literature review, and methodological critique. *International Review of Industrial and Organisational Psychology*, 6:283-356.

EDWARDS, I. & SHIPP, A.I 2007. The relationship between person-organisation fit and outcomes: An integrative theoretical framework. In C. Ostroff and T.A Judge, *Perspectives on organisational fit*. Pp. 209-258.

- EDWARDS, J. 2008. 4 Person-environment fit in organisations: an assessment of theoretical progress. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1):167-230.
- EGGERTH, D. & FLYNN, M.A. 2015. Applying the theory of work adjustment to Latino immigrant workers: An exploratory study. *Journal of Career Development*, 39(1):76-98.
- EGGERTH, D.E. 2008. From Theory of Work Adjustment to person–environment correspondence counselling: Vocational psychology as positive psychology. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 16(1):60-74.
- EHLERS, T. & LAZENBY, K. 2011. *Strategic management: Southern African concepts and cases*. 3<sup>rd</sup> (ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- EIDE, B. 2013. Consumer behaviour theory-purchasing organic food. Thesis. Aarhus. Aarhus University.
- EKETU, C.A. & OGBU, E.F. 2015. Social intelligence and employee intention to stay. *International Journal of Novel Research in Marketing Management and Economics*, 2(1):27-34.
- EL DIN MOHAMED W.S. 2016. Investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviour among Beni Suef Cement company employees. *Arabian Journal of Business Management*, 6(5)1-7.
- EMERSON, R.M. 1976. Social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 2:335-362.
- ERDOGAN, S.L., ŠAPARAUSKAS, J. & TURSKIS, Z. 2019. A Multi-criteria decision-making model to choose the best option for sustainable construction management. *Sustainability*, 11(2239):1-19.
- ERTOSUN, O.G. & ADIGUZEL, Z. 2018. Leadership, personal values and organizational culture. *Strategic Design and Innovation*, Pp.51-73.
- EZEAMAMA, I.G. 2019. Job statisfaction and employee productivity in Anambra State Nigeria. *European Journal of Research in Social Sciences*, 7(2)1-17.
- FALL, J.A. 2013. Organisational citizenship behaviour at Catholic institutions of higher education: effects of organisational commitment, interpersonal and system-level trust. Thesis. Iowa. University of Iowa.

FARD, P.G. & KARIMI, F. 2015. The relationship between organisational trust and organisational silence with job satisfaction and organisational commitment of the employees of university. *International Education Studies*, 8(11):219-227.

FAROOQUI, M. S. & NAGENDRA, A. 2014. The impact of person organization fit on job satisfaction and performance of the employees. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 11:122-129.

FATUROCHMAN, D.R. 1997. The job characteristics theory: A review. *Bulletin Psikologi*, 5(2):1-13.

FIELD, A. 2009. *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. 3<sup>rd</sup> (ed). London. Sage publication.

FIESER, J. & POJMAN, L.P. 2012. *Ethics. Discovering right and wrong*. 7<sup>th</sup>(ed). New York: Wardsworth. Cengage Learning.

FLEETWOOD, S. 2014. *Bhaskar and critical realism. Oxford handbook of sociology, social theory and organisation studies: Contemporary currents*. Oxford. Oxford University Press.

FOLLMER, E. 2016. What we do to fit in personality, coping and person-environment fit. Thesis. Iowa. University of Iowa.

FORWARD, S.E. 2009. The theory of planned behaviour: The role of descriptive norms and past behaviour in the prediction of drivers' intention to violate. *Transport Research Part*, 12:198-207.

FRIED, Y. & FERRIS, G. 1987. The validity of the job characteristics model: A review and meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology* 40:287-322.

GABRIEL, J.M.O. 2015. Organisational citizenship behaviour and corporate resilience in the domestic aviation sector in Nigeria. Thesis. Nigeria. Rivers State university of Science and Technology.

GAMAGE, P.N. & HERATH, H.M.A.D.K. 2013. Job related factors and intention to stay of IT professionals in Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Social Science & Interdisciplinary Research*, 2(7):136-145.

GANDER, HOFMANN & RUCH 2020. Character strengths: Person–environment fit and relationships with job and life satisfaction. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11(1582):1-11. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01582.

GASPAR D.B.& BROWN, A.K.G. 2015. leadership and personnel planning hiring in an academic library: Fit is essential. *College & Undergraduate Libraries*, 22:374-386. DOI: 10.1080/10691316.2015.1072074

GAUTAM, C.M. & PHIL, M. 2016. Employee's job satisfaction and switching intention associated with mergers and acquisition of Nepalese banks and financial institutions. *International Journal of Research in Business Studies and Management*, 3(2):36-48.

GAUTAM, P. K. 2016. Determinants of job satisfaction and their Effect on organizational performance: An evidence from Nepalese banking sector. *THE BATUK: Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 2(2):43-54.

GHANI, N.M.A., YUNUS, N.S.N.M. & BAHRY, N.S. 2015. Leader's personality traits and employees job performance in Public Sector, Putrajaya. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 37:46 – 51.

GHAZALI, N. H. C. M., RABI, N. M., HASSAN, N. M., & WAHAB, N. A. 2018. A Confirmatory factor analysis of classroom assessment practices scale in a Malaysian context. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 7(3):516-529.

GIBSON, J.L., IVANCEVICH, J.M, & DONNELLY, J.H. 1979. Organisations; behaviour, structure and process, *Business Publication*. Dallas, Texas.

GILL, J. & JOHNSON, P. 2010. *Research methods for managers*. 4<sup>th</sup> (ed). India: Sage.

GILLES, I., BERNARD, B. & PEYTREMANN-BRIDEVAUX, I. 2014. Factors associated with healthcare professionals' intent to stay in hospital: a comparison across five occupational categories. *International Journal for Quality in Health Care*, 26(2):158-166.

GLIGORIJEVIC, B. 2013. Consumer created reviews and ratings: The importance of word of mouth in information search. Thesis. Queensland. Queensland University of Technology.

- GIZAW, A.B., LEMA, T.M., DEBANCHO, W.W. & GERMOSSA, G.N. 2018. Intention to stay in nursing profession and its predictors among nurses working in Jimma zone public hospitals, South West Ethiopia. *Journal of Nursing and Care*, 7(1):1-8.
- GOGTAY, N.J. & THATTE, U.N. 2017. Principles of correlation analysis. *Journal of the Association of Physicians of India*, 65: 78-81.
- GONZÁLEZ, F., SÁNCHEZ, S.M. & LÓPEZ-GUZMÁN, T. 2016. The effect of educational level on job satisfaction and organizational commitment: A case study in hospitality. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 17(3):243-259.
- GONZALEZ-MULE, E. 2015. Contextual job features and occupational values as moderators of personality trait validities: a test and extension of the theory of purposeful work behaviour." Thesis. Iowa. University of Iowa.
- GOSSER, K. 2011. Predictors of intent to stay for hourly employees in the fast food industry. Thesis. Louisville. University of Louisville.
- GOSTAUTAITE, B. & BUCIUNIENE, I. 2010. Integrating job characteristics model into the person-environment fit model. *Economic and Management Journal*, 15: 505-511.
- GOVENDER, D.M. 2013. An investigation into job satisfaction and employee performance at Stodels retail nurseries. Thesis. Durban. Durban University of Technology.
- GOVENDER, V. 2009. Valuing and retaining employees in South African public sector organisations. *Journal of the Association of Southern African Schools and Departments of Public Administration and Management*, 17(2):104-166.
- GRAHAM, J. W. 1991. An essay on organizational citizenship behaviour. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 4:249–270.
- GREEN, P. I., FINKEL, E. J., FITZSIMONS, G. M. & GINO, F. 2017. The energizing nature of work engagement: Toward a new need-based theory of work motivation. *Research in Organisational Behaviour*, 37:1-18.
- GREGURAS, G.J. & DIEFENDOFF, J.M. 2009. Different fits satisfy different needs: linking person-environment fit to employee commitment and performance using self-determination theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94:465-477.

- GRIFFIN, C.R. 2018. Adopting a strategic approach to matching people to jobs. *International Journal of Business and Management*; 13(4):1-10.
- GUNBAYI, I. & SORM, S. 2018. Social paradigms in guiding social research design. The functional, interpretive, radical humanist and radical structural paradigms. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications*, 9(2):57-76.
- GUPTA, S.L. 2011. *Marketing research*. New Delhi: Excel Books.
- GUPTA, R. & FALK, T.H. 2017. Latent factor analysis for synthesized speech quality-of-experience assessment. *Quality and User Experience*, 2(2):1-16.
- GÜRBÜZ, A. 2007. An assessment of the effect of education level on the job satisfaction from the tourism sector point of view. *Doğuş Üniversitesi Dergisi*, 8(1):36-46
- HABIB, M.N., KAMRAN, M. & JAMAL, W. 2015. Impact of job overload on on-the job behaviour and the mediating role of person-organisation fit. *City University Research Journal*, 5(1):28-38.
- HADI, N.U., ABDULLAH, N. & SENTOSA, I. 2016. An easy approach to exploratory factor analysis: Marketing perspective. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 6(1):215-223.
- HAIR, J. F., BLACK, W. C. & BABIN, B. J. 2010. *RE Anderson multivariate data analysis: A global perspective*. New Jersey, Pearson Prentice Hall.
- HAJDUKOVA, A., KLEMENTOVA, J. & KLEMENTOVA, J. 2015. The job satisfaction as a regulator of the working behaviour. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 190: 471 – 476. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro. Accessed [20/02/2021].
- HAMED, A.A. 2016. Factors affecting job satisfaction: An empirical study in the public sector of Saudi Arabia. Thesis. Melbourne, Australia. Victoria University.
- HAMMAN-FISHER, D.A. 2008. The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational justice amongst academic employees in Agricultural colleges in South Africa. Thesis, Cape Town. University of Western Cape.
- HAN, T., CHIANG, I.H., McConville & CHIANG, C. 2015. A longitudinal investigation of person–organization fit, person–job fit, and contextual performance: *The Mediating Role*

of *Psychological Ownership, Human Performance*, 28(5):425-439, DOI: 10.1080/08959285.2015.1021048.

HANAFI, A., ADAM, M. & APRIDENI, I. 2018. The effect of person-organisation fit and job satisfaction on employee performance with organisational commitment as intervening variables at Bukit Asam Medika hospital, Tanjung Enim. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 6(11):103-115. Available at <http://www.ijern.com/journal/2018/November-2018/09>.

HANAFI, H.M. & IBRAHIM. S.B. 2018. Impact of employee skills on service performance. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 7(12):587-598.

HARPER, P.J. & COLLEGE, M. 2015. Exploring forms of organisational citizenship behaviours antecedents and outcomes. *Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 18:1-16.

HARTUNG, P. J. & BLUISTEIN, D. L. 2002. Reason, intuition, and social justice: Elaborating on Parson's career decision-making model. *Journal of Counselling & Development*, 80:41-47.

HASSAN, N.A. 2016. *Research methodology-research design*. Malaysia. Malaysian University of Technology. <http://engineering.utm.my/civil/postgraduate-office/wp-content/uploads/sites/41/2014/03/research-design-mac-2014.pdf>.

HASSAN, M., AKRAM, A. and NAZ, S. 2012. The relationship between person organization fit, person-job fit and turnover intention in banking sector of Pakistan: The mediating role of psychological climate. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, 2(3):172-188.

HE, Q., AN, Q. & LI, M. 2013. How vocational delay of gratification affects employees' job performance: Organisational climate as a moderator. *Journal of Service Science and Management*, 8:766-772.

HEALE, R. & TWYXCROSS, A. 2015. Validity and reliability in quantitative studies. *Evidence Based Nursing Journal*, 18(3):66- 67.

HENDRICKS, O.M. 2014. An evaluation of the job characteristics of an international engineering company. Thesis. Potchefstroom. North West University.

- HETLAND, J., HETLAND, H., BAKKER, A. B., DEMEROUTI, E., ANDREASSEN, C. S. & PALLESEN, S. 2015. Psychological need fulfilment as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and positive job attitudes. *Career Development International*, 20(5):464-481.
- HETTIARACHCHI, H.A.H. 2014. Impact of job satisfaction on job performance of IT professionals: With special references to Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Research in Information Technology*, 2(4):906-916.
- HIDAYAT, R., ZAMRI, S.N.A.S. & ZULNAIDI, H. 2018. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of achievement goals for Indonesian students in mathematics education programmes. *EURASIA Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, 14(12):1-12.
- HIGUCHI, A., DAVALOS, J. & HERNANI-MERINO, M. 2017. Theory of planned behaviour applied to fish consumption in modern Metropolitan Lima. *Food Science and Technology Campinas*, 37(2):202-208.
- HLAGALA, R.B. 2012. Emergence and future status of youth work: perspectives of Social Service professionals in South Africa. Thesis. Pretoria University. Pretoria.
- HOPKINS, K. M. 2002. Organizational citizenship in social service agencies. *Administration in Social Work*, 26(2), 1-15.
- HOPPOCK, R. 1935. *Job satisfaction*: New York: Harper and Brothers.
- HOSSEINI, A. 2013. Organisational citizenship behaviour directed towards individual: determining the influence of personal factors among the employees of Iranian Islamic Azad university. *Journal of Research in Management and Technology*, 2:24-35.
- HUANG, W., YUAN, C. & LI, M. 2019. Person-job fit and innovation behavior: Roles of job involvement and career commitment. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10(1134):1-10. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01134>.
- HUANG, Y., CHANG, L.L. & BACKMAN, K.F. 2019. Detecting common methods bias in predicting creative tourists behavioural intention with an illustration of theory of planned behaviour. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22(3):307-329.



HUITT, W. 2007. Maslow's hierarchy of needs. *Educational Psychology Interactive*. Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University. <http://www.edpsycinteractive.org/topics/regsys/maslow.html>. Retrieved [17/19/2016].

IBUKUNOLUWA, O.E., ANUOLUWAPO, A.G. & AGBUDE, G.A. 2015. Benefits of organisational citizenship behaviours for individual employees. *Covenant International Journal of Psychology*, 1(1):50-69.

IBRAHIM, M. 2015. The Art of data analysis. *Journal of Allied Health Sciences Pakistan*, 1(1), 98-104.

IYYAS, S. 2013. Combined effects of person job fit and organisation commitment on attitudinal outcomes such as job satisfaction and intention to quit. *WEL International Academic Conference Proceedings*, Pp.81-87. Retrieved from <http://www.westeastinstitute.com/wpcontent/uploads>. Accessed 11/02/2016.

ILIES, R., SPITZMULLER, M., FULMER, I.S. & JOHNSON, M.D. 2009. Personality and citizenship behaviour: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(4):945-959.

IQBAL M.T; LATIF W. & NASEER, W. 2012. The impact of person job fit on job satisfaction and its subsequent impact on employees' performance. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(2):523-530.

ISMAEL, N., KINCHIN, G. & EDWARD, J. 2018. Pilot study, does it really matter? Learning lessons from conducting a pilot study for a qualitative. *International Journal of Social Science Research*, 6(1):1-17.

ISMAIL, H. 2014. Organizational justice and citizenship behaviour, the mediating role of trust, *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, 5(1) 86-96.

ISSAH, M. 2013. The relationship between perceptions of fit and job satisfaction amongst administrative staff in a Midwestern University. Thesis, Graduate College of Bowling Green State University.

ISSAH, M. 2021. Perception of fit and job satisfaction amongst administMid-Western university in the United States of America. *Original Research*, 1-10. DOI: 10.1177/21582440211027564.

ITIOLA, K.O., ODEBIYI, I.I. & ALABI, A. 2014. Empirical study of impact of organisational citizenship behaviour dimensions on job satisfaction among administrative staff of Osun state owned tertiary institutions, Nigeria. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Science*, 4(8):264-274.

JACOBS, C.J. 2014. Once more: Testing the job characteristics model. Thesis. Stellenbosch. Stellenbosch University.

JAHANGIR, N., AKBAR, M.M. & HAG, M. 2004. Organisational citizenship behaviour: its nature and antecedents. *BRAC University Journal*, 1(2):75-85.

JAKOBSEN, M. & JENSEN, R. 2015. Common method bias in public management studies. *International Public Management Journal*, 18(1):3-30.

JAMALUDDI, M.S.A., ASMONY, T. & HERMANTO, H. 2019. The effect of work-family conflict to organisational behaviour using job stress as mediation: Study of non-civil servant female nurse at the regional general hospital city of Mataram, West Nusa Tenggara Indonesia. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 7(12):230-243.

JIN, M.H., McDONALD, B. & PARK, J. 2018. Person-organisation fit and turnover intention: Exploring the mediating role of employee followership and job satisfaction through conservation of resources theory. *Review of Public Personnel Administration Journal*, 38(2):167-192.

JOHARI, J., YEAN, T.F., ADNAN, Z., YAHYA, K.K. & AHMAD, M.N. 2012. Promoting employee intention to stay: Do human resource management practices matters? *International Journal of Economics and Management*, 6(2):396-416.

JOHNSON, D.D. 2004. Job satisfaction and intent to remain in teaching of Georgia business education teachers. Thesis. Georgia. University of Georgia.

JONES, G. & JOHNSON, W. R. 2000. Perceived over qualification and dimensions of job satisfaction: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Psychology*, 34(5):537-556.

JONES, C. W. 1972. Adaptation of the theory of work adjustment to the graduates of the engineering cooperative education program at Iowa State University. *Retrospective Theses and Thesis*. 4745. <https://lib.dr.iastate.edu/rtd/4745>. Accessed [21/03/2016].

JONES, J. & HIDIROGLOU, 2013. *Capturing, coding, and cleaning survey data*. In book: *Designing and Conducting Business survey*. John Wiley and Sons, Inc. DOI: 10.1002/9781118447895.ch11. [Accessed 19/07/2019].

JORDAN, P.C. 2014. Team innovation and citizenship performance: The effect of collective regulatory focus and perceived organisational support. Thesis. Oklahoma. Oklahoma State University.

KAIHATU, T.F. & DJATI, S.P. 2016. Organisational citizenship behaviour, service quality, and patient satisfaction: A case study of the nurses in private hospital of Surabaya. *MIX:Journal of Limiah Management*,6(2):213-227.

KAISER, S. & SCHULZE, G. 2018. Person-environment analysis: A framework for participatory holistic research. *Gestalt Theory*, 40(1):59-74.

KAISER, H. 1970. A second generation little jiffy. *Psychometrika*, 35:401-415.

KARACHI, A., ASRAR, Z., ILYAS, T. & BHUTTO, S.A.2017. Work-family conflict and organisational citizenship behaviour in bank employees. *Industrial Engineering Letter*, 7(2):54-58.

KASSIM, K.A.A., AROKIASAMY, L. & ISA, M.H. 2016. Application of the theory of planned behaviour to predict consumer intention to purchase safer car. *Proceedings of Academics Word 28<sup>th</sup> International Conference, Tokyo, Japan*, Pp.83-86.

KATZ, D. & KAHN, R.L. 1966. *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: Wiley.

KAUR, P., MALHOTRA.K. & SHARMA, S.K. 2020. Employer branding and organisational citizenship behaviour: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Management Research and Innovation* 16(2):122-131. DOI: 10.1177/2319510X20931716.

KAZUYUKI, M. & KUO-LIN, W. 2006. Illusion of career development theories for the departure of developing a demonstrative career development theory. *The Economic Journal of Takasaki City University of Economics*, 49(2):17-30.

KE, W. & WEI, K.K. 2008. Trust and power influences in supply chain collaboration. In Tang, C.S. Teo, C.P. & Wei K.K., eds. *Supply Chain Analysis: A Handbook on the Interaction of Information System and Optimization*. New York: Springer. pp. 223-239.

KELEMEN, M. & RUMENS, N. 2008. *An introduction to critical management research*. London: Sage.

KEMUNTO, M. E., RABURU, P. A. & JOSEPH, B. 2018. Does age matter? Job satisfaction of public secondary school teachers. *International Journal of Scientific Research*, 7(9):1-6.

KHALID, H.M. 2016. An empirical analysis of Herzberg's two-factor theory. *Niger Journal of Management and Technology Development*, 4(1):1-15.

KHALID, K., HILMAN, H. & KUMAR, D. 2012. Get along with quantitative research process. *International Journal of Research in Management*, 2(2):15-29.

KHALID, S.A., MD NOR, M.N., ISMAIL, M. & RAZALI, M.F.M. 2013. Organizational citizenship and generation Y turnover intention. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(7)132-141, DOI: 10.6007/IJARBSS/v3-i7/104. <http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v3-i7/104>.

KHAN, H., YASIR, M., YUSOF, H.M., SALEEM., M.M. & KHAN, N.U. 2017. A review of the conceptualisation of organisational citizenship behaviour. *City University Research Journal*, Malaysia. Pp.81-87.

KIAN, T.S., YUSOFF, W.F.W. & RAJAH, S. 2014. Job satisfaction and motivation: What are the differences among these two? *European Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(2):94-102.

KIM, B. 2005. Adolescents in remarried families. A pastoral-narrative approach. Thesis. Pretoria. Pretoria University.

KIM, K. & JOGARATNAM, G. 2010. Effects of individual and organisational factors on job satisfaction and intention to in the hotel and restaurant industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism*, 9:318-339.

KIMBERLIN, C.L. & WINTERSTEIN, A.G. 2008. Validity and reliability of measures instruments used in research. *American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy*, 65(23). 2276-2284.

KINNUNEN, U., FELDT, T., GEURTS, S. & PULKKINEN, L. 2006. Types of work-family interface: Well-being correlates of negative and positive spill-over between work and family. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 47(2):149-162.

- KISH, L. 1979. Samples and censuses. *International Statistical Review*, 47(2):99-109.
- KOKETSO, L.P.J & RUST, A.A. 2012. Perceived challenges to talent management in the South African public service: An exploratory study of the City of Cape Town municipality. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(6):2221-2233.
- KOLADE, O.J., OLUSEYE, O.O., A, O.O. 2014. Organisational citizenship behaviour, hospital corporate image and performance. *Journal for Competitiveness*, 6(1) 36-49.
- KOLLMANN, T., STOCKMANN, C., KENSBOCK, J.M. & PESCHL, A. 2020. What satisfies younger versus older employees, and why? An aging perspective on equity theory to explain interactive effects of employee age, monetary rewards, and task contributions on job satisfaction. *Human Resource Management*, 59(1):101-115.
- KOMA, S.B. 2012. Developmental local government issues, trends and options in South Africa. *School of Management and Public Administration, University of Pretoria*, 5(2):105-116.
- KOTHARI, C.R. 2004. *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Delhi. New Age International (P) Limited Publishers.
- KRISTOF-BROWN, A.L. 1996. Person-organisation fit: An integrative review of its conceptualisation, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, 49:1-49.
- KRISTOF-BROWN, J.L. 2011. Measuring the impact of person-environment fit and its affective outcomes: A case study of international cooperation and development fund. Thesis. Tapani. National Taiwan Normal University.
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., & Guay, R. P. 2011. Person–environment fit. In *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 3: Maintaining, expanding, and contracting the organization. Washington, DC: *American Psychological Association*, pp. 3-50. oi:10.1037/12171-001.
- KUCUKBAYRAK, R. 2010. An integrative model of transformational leadership, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. Thesis. Ankara. Middle.

KUMAR, B. 2012. Theory of planned behavioural approach to understand the purchasing behaviour for environmentally sustainable products. Thesis. Ahmedabad. Indian Institute of Management.

KUMAR, R. 2011. *Research methodology. A step-by step guide for beginners*. 3<sup>rd</sup> (ed). London: Sage.

KUMAR, K., BAKSHI, A. & RANI, E. 2009. Linking the 'big five' personality domains to organizational citizenship behaviour. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(1):73-81.

KVITNE, M.B. 2017. Development of organisational citizenship behaviour and the effect of psychological contract fulfillment. A multilevel longitudinal study. Thesis. University of Osloensis. Oslo.

KYRIAZOS, T.A. 2018. Applied psychometrics: Sample size and sample power considerations in factor analysis (EFA, CFA) and SEM in General. *Psychology*, 9:2207-2230.

LAM, K.W., HASSAN, A., SULAIMAN, T. & KAMARUDIN, N. 2018. Evaluating the face and content validity of an instructional technology competency instrument for university lecturers in Malaysia. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 8(5):367-385.

LAMBERT, E., PAOLINE, E. & HOGAN, N. 2006. The impact of centralisation and formalization on correctional staff job satisfaction and organisational commitment, *Criminal Justice Studies: A Critical Journal of Crime, Law, and Society*, 19:23-44.

LAMBERT, E.G., HOGAN, N.L., & KEENA, L.D. 2015. The impact of job attitudes on private correctional staff's continuance and affective organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Security Research*, 10(1):1-22.

LANGER, J., FEENEY, M.K. & LEE, S.E. 2019. Employee fit and job satisfaction in bureaucratic and entrepreneurial work environments. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 39(1):135-155.

LAPIERRE, L. M. & ALLEN, T. D. 2006. Work-supportive family, family-supportive supervision, use of organizational benefits, and problem-focused coping: implications for

work-family conflict and employee well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 11(2):169-186.

LATIF, A. & BASHIR, U. 2013. Person-organisation fit, job satisfaction and turnover intention: An empirical study in the context of Pakistan. *Global Advanced Research Journal of Management and Business Studies*, 2(7):384-388.

LAUVER, K.J. & KRISTOF-BROWN, A. 2001. Distinguishing between employees' perceptions of Person-job and Person-organization fit. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 59:454-470.

LAWLER, E.E. & SUTTLE, J.L. 1972. A causal correlational test of the need hierarchy concept. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 7:265-287.

LEEDY, P.D. & ORMOROD, J.E. 2014. *Practical research planning and design*. 10<sup>th</sup> (ed). New Jersey: Pearson.

LEE, X., YANG, B. & LI, W. 2017. The influence factors of job satisfaction and its relationship with turnover intention: Taking early-career employees as an example. *Anales De Psicología*, 33(3):697-707.

LEHMAN, J. 2014. Facets of job satisfaction. Applied research project. Thesis. San Marcos, Texas State University.

LIU, B., LIU, J. & HU, J. 2010. Person-organisation fit, job satisfaction, and turnover intention: An empirical study in the Chinese public sector. *Social Behaviour and Personality*, 38(5) 615-625.

LIU, J. & LIU, Y. 2016. Perceived organisational support and intention to remain: The mediating roles of career success and self-esteem. *International Journal of Nursing Practice*, 22: 205-214.

The Local Government Budgets and Expenditure Review 2011. National Treasury. South Africa. Pretoria. available on [www.treasury.gov.za](http://www.treasury.gov.za). Accessed on 13/07/2014.

LOCKE, E. A. 1969. What is job satisfaction? *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 4:309-336.

LOEB, S., MORRIS, P., DYNARSKI, S., REARDON, S., MCFARLAND, D. & REBER, S. 2017. Descriptive analysis in education: a guide for researchers. Washington, DC.

Institute of Education Science. Available at <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/>, [accessed 05/12/2020].

LU, C. 2012. The relationship between helping behaviour in workplace and work to family enrichment: A multi-foci and dual-cultural study. Thesis. Tilburg. Tilburg University.

LU, C., WANG, H., LU, J., DU, D. & BAKKER, A. B. 2014. Does work engagement increase person-job fit? The role of job crafting and job insecurity. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 84:142-152.

LUDDY, N. 2005. Job satisfaction amongst health employees at a public health institution in the Western Cape. Thesis. Cape Town. University of the Western Cape.

MAAT, S. M., ZAKARIA, E., NORDIN, N. M. & MEERAH, T. S. M. 2011. Confirmatory factor analysis of the mathematics teachers' teaching practices instrument. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 12(11):2092-2096.

MacCALLUM, R. C., WIDAMAN, K. F., ZHANG, S. & HONG, S. 1999. Sample size in factor analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 4(1):84-102.

MAFINI, C. 2014. The relationship between organisational resources and organisational performance in a national government. Thesis. Vanderbijlpark. Vaal University of Technology.

MAFINI, C., & DLODLO, N. 2014. The linkage between work-related factors, employee satisfaction and organisational commitment: Insights from public health professionals. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(1):1-12.

MAFUWANE, B.M. 2011. The contribution of instructional leadership to learner performance. Thesis. Pretoria. University of Pretoria.

MAHADI, N., WOO, N. M. F., BASKARAN, S., & YAAKOP, A. Y. 2020. Determinant factors for employee retention: Should I stay? *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 10(4):201-213.

MAHARAJ, N. 2011. The impact of motivation and job satisfaction on productivity within the insurance industry. Thesis. Durban. University of Zululand.



- MAHEMBE, B., ENGELBRECHT, A.S., CHINYAMURINDI, W. & KANDEKANDI, L.R. 2015. A study to confirm the reliability and organisational citizenship behaviour measure on a South African sample. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 41(1):1-13.
- MAHWOOD, R., HEE, O. C., YIN, O. S., & HAMLI, M. S. H. 2018. The mediating effects of employee competency on the relationship between training functions and employee performance. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 8(7):664-676.
- MALHOTRA, N.K. 2010. *Marketing research: An applied orientation*. 6<sup>th</sup> (ed). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- MAN, M., MODRAK, V., DIMA, I.C. & PACHURA, P. 2011. A theoretical approach to job satisfaction. *Polish Journal of Management Studies*, 4: 7-15.
- MARASINGHE, M.P.L.R. & WIJAYARANTE, A. 2018. The impact of gender differences on job satisfaction of university library professionals. *Journal of the University Librarians Association of Sri Lanka*, 21(2):1-20.
- MARCIA-GARCIA, J.A., BONAVIA, T. & LOSILLA, J.M. 2011. Exploring working conditions as determinants of job satisfaction: an empirical test among Catalonia service workers. *The Service Industries Journal*. 31(12):2051-2066.
- MARKEY, R., RAVENSWOOD, K. & WEBBER, D.J. 2013. The impact of the quality of the work environment on employees' intention to quit. Thesis. Bristol. University of the West of England. <http://www2.uwe.ac.uk/faculties/BBS/BUS/Research/economics> [Accessed 02/08/2015].
- MARKOWITZ, G.A. 2012. Faculty intent to stay and the perceived relationship with supervisor at a career-focused university. Thesis. Miami. University of Miami.
- MARTIN, J. & FELLESEN, M. 2010. *Organisational behaviour and management*. 4<sup>th</sup> (ed). South-Western: Cengage Learning.
- MARTIN, P. & BARNARD, A. 2013. The experience of women in male-dominated occupations: A constructivist grounded theory inquiry. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(2):1-16.

MASEKO, T.I. 2013. A comparative study of challenges faced by women in leadership: A case of Foskop and the department of Labour in Mhlathuze municipality. Thesis. Richards Bay. University of Zululand.

MASHEGO, T.A.B. & PELTZER, K. 2005. Community perception of quality of (primary) health care services in a rural area of Limpopo Province, South Africa: A qualitative study. *Curationis*, 28(2):13-21.

MASSOUDI, A., JAMEEL, A., & AHMAD, A. R. 2020. Stimulating organizational citizenship behaviour by applying organizational commitment and satisfaction. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Economic Review*, 2(2):20-27.

MATHIEU, C., FABI, B., LACOURSIÈRE, R., & RAYMOND, L. 2016. The role of supervisory behavior, job satisfaction and organizational commitment on employee turnover. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 22:113-129.

MATILU, C.M. & K'OBONYO, P 2018. The Relationship between job characteristics and employee performance: A review. *International Journal of Business & Law Research* 6(3):44-59.

MAURITZ, A.V.R.P. 2012. Employee age and organisational citizenship behaviour: An empirical study on the influence of occupational future time perspective. Thesis. Tilburg. Tilburg University.

MBAMBO, D.E. 2009. Factors contributing to adolescent mother's non-utilization of contraceptives in the Piet Retief area. Thesis. Pretoria. University of South Africa.

MBOMBELA LOCAL MUNICIPALITY 2016. *Final integrated Development Plan Review*. [online] [www.mbombela.gov.za/final](http://www.mbombela.gov.za/final). [Accessed 10/04/2017].

MBOWENI, P.C. 2013. Implementation of "batho pele principles" in the Great Tzaneen local municipality. Thesis. Polokwane. University of Limpopo.

McGREGOR, D. M. 1967. *The Professional Manager*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

McKENNA, T. & GRAY, A. 2018. The importance of ethics in research publication. *Collegian*, 25:147-148.

McSWEENEY, F. K. & SWINDELL, S. 1999. General-process theories of motivation revisited: The role of habituation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(4):437-457.

MDLONGWA, E.T. 2014. Makana municipal budget analysis. Advancing your right to social accountability. *Public Service Accountability Monitor*. Pp.1-17. Available at <http://www.makana.gov.za/statutory-documents/budget/2014-15-ec104-makana-final-budget>. Accessed [21/10/2020].

MEHBOOB, F. & BHUTTO, N. 2013. Job satisfaction as a predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour. A study of faculty members at business institute. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 3(9):1447-1455.

METLE, M.K. 2001. Education, job satisfaction and gender in Kuwait. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(2):311-332.

MHLONGO, X. 2014. Factors affecting job satisfaction of workers at Ulwandle municipal Health department. Thesis. Ngoye. University of Kwazulu-Natal.

MISHRA, P.K. 2013. Job satisfaction. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 14(5):45-54.

MISHRA, A.A. 2014. Shopping value, satisfaction and behavioural intention: A socio-demographic and inter-product category study on private label brands. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 27(1):226-246.

MITCHELL, L.K. & KRUMBOLTZ, J.D. 1996. Krumboltz's learning theory of career choice and counselling', in Brown, D., Brooks, L. & Associates (Eds) *Career Choice and Development 3<sup>rd</sup>* (ed), San Francisco, California, Jossey Bass, Pp.223-280.

MITONGA- MONGA, J., FLOTMAN, A.P. & CILLIERS, F. 2015. The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour: A Democratic Republic of Congo organisational perspective. *Journal of Contemporary Management*, 13:1064-1084.

MITONGA-MONGA, J., FLOTMAN, A. & CILLIERS, F.V.N. 2017. Organisational citizenship behaviour among railway employees in a developing country: Effects of age, education and tenure. *Southern African Business Review*, 27:385-406.

MOHAJANE, M.J. 2017. Job satisfaction and employee retention in the South African police service. Thesis. Pretoria. University of South Africa.

MOHALE, D.M. 2013. Placement of municipalities under administration. A comparative case study of Masilonyana and Nala local municipalities in the Free State province in South Africa. Thesis. Johannesburg. University of Witwatersrand.

MOHAMAD, M.M., SULAIMAN, N.L., SERN, L.C. & SALLEH, K.M. 2015. Measuring the validity and reliability of research instruments. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 204:164-171.

MOHAMMAD, J., HABIB, F.Q. & ALIAS, M.A. 2011. Job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour: an empirical study at higher learning institutions. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 16(2):149-165.

MOHAJAN, H. 2017. Two criteria for good measurements in research: Validity and reliability. *Annals of Spiru Haret University*, 17(3)58-82.

MOHANTY, S. 2019. Becoming an employer of choice in the infrastructure and construction sector. *International Journal of Innovative and Exploring Engineering*, Pp. 576-592.

MOHAPATRA, M.D., SATPATHY, I. & PATNAIK, B.C.M. 2019. Impact of dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour on job satisfaction in information technology sector. *International Journal of Innovative Technology and Exploring Engineering*, 8(12):2503-2508.

MOLOANTOA, M.E. 2015. Factors affecting job satisfaction of academic employees: A case study of the National University of Lesotho. Thesis. Durban. Durban University of Technology.

MOON, H., VAN DYNE, L. & WROBEL, K. 2005. The circumflex model and the future of organisational citizenship behaviour research. In: handbook of organisational citizenship behaviour, Pp.1-22. New York: Nova Science Publishers.

MOORE, V. 2018. Values, employee perceptions and organisational change: A case analysis. Auckland. Auckland University of Technology.

MOORMAN, R.H. & BLAKELY, G.L. 1995. Individualism-collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 16(2):127-142.

MOTOWIDLO, S.J., DOWEL, B.E., HOPP, M.A., BORMAN, W.C., JOHNSON, P.D. & DUNNETTEE, M.D. 1976. Motivation, satisfaction and morale in army career: A review of theory and measurement. *U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioural and Social Sciences*. <https://apps.dtic.mil/dtic/tr/fulltext/u2/a078444pdf>. Accessed [28/05/2017].

MOUTON, J. 1996. *Understanding social research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

MURADI, S., PODDER, A. & SEEMA, A. 2019. Employee loyalty, organisational performance and performance evaluation. A critical survey. *Journal of Business and Management*, 19(8):62-74.

MUSHTAQ, K., AHMED, M.A. & WARRAICH, S.U. 2014. A study on job satisfaction, motivation and organisational citizenship behaviour. *International Journal of Management Sciences and Business Research*, 3(11):1-13.

MUSHTAQ, K. & UMAR, M. 2015. Association between job satisfaction, motivation and five factors of organizational citizenship behaviour. *International Journal of Social, Behavioural, Educational, Economic and Management Engineering*, 9(8): 2564-2570.

MUSTAPHA, N., AHMAD, A., ULI, J. & IDRIS, K. 2010. Job characteristics as antecedents on intention to stay and family satisfaction among single mothers in Malaysia. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 1(3):59-74.

MUSTAPHA, N. & ZAKARIA, Z.C. 2013. The effect of promotion opportunity in influencing job satisfaction among academics in higher public institutions in Malaysia. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(3):20-26.

MUZANENHAMO, G.N. 2016. The relationship between change implementation, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction in the business process outsourcing industry in the Western Cape, South Africa. Thesis. Cape Town. Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

NADHIR, N.H.M. & PUTEH, F. 2017. Impact assessment of job characteristics model on employee engagement. *Academic Journal*, 6(1):28-37.

NADIRI, H. & TANOVA, C. 2010. An investigation of the justice in turnover intentions, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour in hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29: 33-41.

NARAYANAN, N.E. 2015. *Statistics*, 2<sup>nd</sup> (ed). New Delhi. PHI Learning.

National Gazette No. 34445, Vol 553:137-292. Municipal demarcation board 2011.

NAVEED, A., USMAN, A. & BUSHRA, F. 2011. Promotion: A predictor of job satisfaction. A study of glass industry of Lahore, Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(16):301-305.

NESTOR, P. I., & LEADY, P. (2000). The relationship between tenure and non-tenure track status of extension faculty. Impact of socio-demographic factors on job satisfaction among academic staff of universities in Ghana. *Journal of Agricultural Extension*, 38(4):8-13.

NETSWERA, F.G. & KGALANE, S. 2014. The underlying factors behind violent municipal service delivery protests in South Africa. *Journal of Public Administration*, 49(1):261-273.

Ng, T.W.H. & FELDMAN, D.C. 2011. The relationship of age to 10 dimensions of job performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 63:677-718.

NGODO, O.E. 2008. Procedural justice and trust: the link in the transformational leadership-organisational outcomes relations, *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 4(1):82-100.

NGUYEN, N. & BORTEYROU, X. 2016. Core self-evaluations as a mediator of the relationship between person–environment fit and job satisfaction among laboratory technicians. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 99:89-93.

NTISA, A.A. 2015. Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, absenteeism and performance amongst academics within South African Universities of Technology. Thesis. Vanderbijlpark. Vaal University of Technology.

NORUŠIS, M. J. 2012. *IBM SPSS statistics 19 guide to data analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

NWANZU, C.L. & BABALOLA, S.S. 2019. Predictive relationship between sustainable organisational practice and organisational effectiveness: The mediating role of organisational identification and organisation-based self-esteem. *Sustainability*, 11(3440):1-12.

- NYALUNGA, D. 2006. An enabling environment for public participation in local government. *International NGO Journal*, 1(1):1-6.
- ODEMBO, S. A. 2013. Job satisfaction and employee performance within the telecommunication industry in Kenya: A Case of Airtel Kenya Limited. Thesis. Kenya. School of Business. University of Nairobi.
- ODINIOHA, G.J.M. 2015. Organisational citizenship behaviour and corporate resilience in the domestic aviation sector in Nigeria. Thesis. Nkpolu-Oroworukwo. River State University of Science and Technology.
- ONYEBOUNYI, K.C. 2016. Factors affecting job satisfaction in Nigerian international oil companies. Thesis. Minneapolis, Minnesota. Walden University.
- ORGAN, D. W. 1990. The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behaviour. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behaviour* 12:43-72.
- ORGAN, D.W. & RYAN, K. 1995. A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organisational citizenship behaviour. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(4):775-802.
- OVIASUYI, P.O., IDADA, W. & ISIRAONJE, L. 2010. Constraints of local government administration in Nigeria. *Journal of Social Science*, 24(2):81-86.
- OYIBO, K. & VASSILEVA, J. 2019. The relationship between personality traits and susceptibility to social influence. *Computers in Human Behaviour* 98 (2019):174-188.
- OZSOY, E. 2019. An empirical test of Herzberg's two-factor motivation Theory. *Marketing and Management of Innovations*, 1:11-20.
- OZTURK, F. 2010. Determinants of organizational citizenship behaviour among Knowledge workers: the role of job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Thesis. Middle East. Middle East Technical University.
- PALLANT, J. 2010. SPSS. Survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis SPSS for windows. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- PALMER, L.L. 2015. Examining quality of hire as a function of person-organisation and person-job fit "PharmCo". *Masters Theses & Specialist Projects*. <https://digitalcommons.wku.edu/theses/1456>. Accessed [06/03/2018].

PALOMINO, M.N. & FREZATTI, F. 2016. Role conflict, role ambiguity and job satisfaction: perceptions of the Brazilian controllers. *Revista de Administracao Sao Paulo*, 51(2):165-181.

PARDEE, R.L. 1990. Motivation theory of Maslow, Herzberg, McGregor & McClelland. A literature review of selected theories dealing with job satisfaction and motivation. *Education Resources Information Centre*, Pp.1-24. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED316767.pdf>

PARK, S. 2017. The unificatory power of scientific realism. Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology. *BIBLID*, 44:59-73.

PARK, M.; CHO, H.; JOHNSON, K. K. P.; YURCHISIN, J. 2017. Use of Behavioural Reasoning Theory to examine the role of social responsibility in attitudes toward apparel donation: *International Journal for Consumer Studies*, 41 (3):333–339.

PARSONS, F. 1909. *Choosing a vocation*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

PARVIN, M.M. & KABIR, M.M.N. 2013. Factors affecting employee job satisfaction of Pharmaceutical sector. *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research* 1(9):113-123.

PASTOR, L.V. 2012. The relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and perceptions of organisational justice at a selected automotive component in the Western Cape. Thesis. Cape Town. Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

PAUL, H., BAMEL, U.K. & GARGE, P. 2016. Employee resilience and ocb: Mediating effects of organisational commitment. *The Journal for Decision Makers*, 41(4):308-324.

PECHLIVANDIS, P. & KATSIMPRA, A. 2004. Supervisory leadership and implementation phase. *The Leadership & Organisation*, 25(2):201-215.

PEE, L.G. 2012. The effects of person-environment fit on employees' knowledge contribution. *Thirty International Conference on Information Systems*, Orlando. *Knowledge Management and Business Intelligent*, Pp:1-19. [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/286070673\\_The\\_effects\\_of\\_person-environment\\_fit\\_on\\_employees%27\\_knowledge\\_contribution](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/286070673_The_effects_of_person-environment_fit_on_employees%27_knowledge_contribution). [Accessed 19/07/2019].



- PENG, Y. & MAO, C. 2015. The impact of person-job fit on job satisfaction: The mediator role of self-efficacy. *Social Indicator Research*, 121(3):805-813.
- PEREZ, E.M., WALTON, A.L.J., COOPER, D.M & PACHECO, M.R. 2014. Unpacking organizational attraction: A process model. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(10):108-120.
- PERUMALSAMI, J. 2015. The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour in a Western Cape government office. Thesis. Cape Town Cape Peninsula University of Technology.
- PHUONG, N.N.D. & TRANG, L.T.H. 2017. Factors affecting employee's intention to stay through organisational commitment: evidence from big-four auditing firms in Vietnam. *International Conference on Multiple Academic Disciplines & SME Conference*: Hai Phong, Vietnam. Pp:1-12.
- PICCOLO, R.F. & COLQUITT, J.A. 2006. Transformational leadership and job behaviours: the mediating role of core job characteristics, *Academic Management Journal*, 49(2):227-240.
- PIETERSEN, C. & ONI, O.A. 2014. Employee turnover in local government department. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Science*, 5(2):141-153.
- PIVI, F.G. & HASSAN, Z. 2015. The impact of organizational citizenship behaviour on employee's job satisfaction, commitment and turnover intention in dining restaurants Malaysia. *International Journal of Accounting & Business Management*, 3(1):108-125.
- PODSAKOFF, P.M, MACKENZIE, S., PAINE, J. & BACHRACH, D. 2000. Organizational citizenship behaviours: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26(3):513-563.
- POLAT, S. 2009. Organisational citizenship behaviour display levels of the teachers at secondary schools according to the perceptions of the administrators, *Procedia Social and Behavioural Science*, 1:1591-1596.
- PRETORIUS, S.D. & SCHURINK, W. 2007. Enhancing service delivery in local government: The case of a district municipality. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5(3):19-29.

PROCTOR, C. 2014. Effective organisational communication affects employee attitude, happiness, and job satisfaction. Thesis. Utah. Southern Utah University.

PROFILI, S., SAMMARRA, A. & INNOCENTI, L. 2016. Can age make a difference? A moderated model of altruistic organisational citizenship behaviour antecedents. *International Journal of Business Science and Applied Management*, 11(1):18-31.

QAMAR, N. 2012. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment as antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4(7):103-122.

QUICK, J.M. & NELSON, D.L. 2011. *Principles of organisational behaviour. Realities and Challenges*. 7<sup>th</sup> (ed). South-Western: Cengage Learning.

QURESHI, H. 2015. A study of organisational citizenship behaviour and its antecedents in an Indian police agency. Thesis. Cincinnati. University of Cincinnati.

RABBANEE, F.K., YASMIN, S. & MAMUN, A.A. 2012. Determinants of job satisfaction: A study on Bangladesh perspective. *Research Journal of Commerce and Behavioural Science*, 1(8):28-35.

RADFORD, K. 2013. Two sides of the same coin? An investigation into factors influencing employees' intention to stay and leave. Thesis. Griffith. Griffith University.

RAHI S. 2017. Research design and methods: A systematic review of research paradigms, sampling issues and instruments development. *International Journal of Economics and Management Sciences*, 6(2):1-5.

RAHMADANI, V.G. & SEBAYANG, I.R. 2017. The influence of person-organisation fit and person-job fit on work engagement among policemen in Sumatera Utara. *International Journal of Management Science and Business Administration*, 4(1):45-51.

RASHEED, A., JEHAZEB, K. & RASHEED, M.F. 2013. An investigation of the antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour: Case of Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 5(1):128-138.

RAUL, H.A. & KUMAR, S. 2019. Seeing the forest, beyond the trees: dimensionality of context specific organizational citizenship behaviour in a Sri Lankan context. *Sri Lanka Journal of Social Sciences*, 42 (1):65-76.

REDELINGHUYS, K. 2015. Person-environment fit, job satisfaction and intentions to leave: the moderating effect of leader empowering behaviour. Thesis. Vanderbijlpark. North-West University.

REDELINGHUYS, K. & BOTHA, E. 2016. Person-environment fit, job satisfaction and intention to leave.: The moderating effect of leader empowering behaviour. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 26(1):11-21.

REDMOND, P. 2019. Explaining the gender gap in job satisfaction. *Economic and Social Research Institute*, Pp.1-7.

REDELINGHUYS, K., ROTHMANN, S., & BOTHA, E. 2019. Workplace flourishing: measurement, antecedents and outcomes. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 45:15-49.

REHBINDER, E. 2011. Do personal networks affect the success of foreign venture performance? An empirical analysis of Nordic firms in Poland. Thesis. Copenhagen. Copenhagen Business School.

REITER, B. 2017. Theory and methodology of exploratory social science research. Government and international affairs faculty publication. *International Journal of Science and Research Methodology*, 5(4):129-150.

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA. 1997. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act, No75 of 1997. Pretoria: Government Printer.

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA. 1993. Occupational Health and Safety Act, No 85 of 1993. Pretoria: Government Printer.

RISMAN, K. 2014. Individual empathy, person-organisation fit, and patient care quality: The moderating effect of cohesion. Thesis. Akron. University of Akron.

RISMAN, K.L., ERICKSON, R.J. & DIEFENDORFF, J.M. 2016. The impact of person-organisation fit on nurse job satisfaction and patient care quality. *Applied Nursing Research*, 31:121-125.

ROBBINS, S.P. 2001. Organizational behaviour 9<sup>th</sup> (ed). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

ROBBINS, S.P., JUDGE, T.A., MILLET, B. & WATER-MARSH, T. 2008. Organisational behaviour. 5<sup>th</sup> (ed). Australia. Docklands: Pearson Education.

ROBBINS, S.P., ODENDAAL, A. & ROODT, G. 2003. *Organisational behaviour 9<sup>th</sup>* (ed). Cape Town: Prentice-Hall International.

ROBBINS, S.P. JUDGE, T.A., ODENDAAL, A. & ROODT, G. 2009. *Organisational behaviour. Global and Southern Africa Perspectives*. Pretoria: Pearson Education South Africa (Pty) Ltd.

ROBBINS, S.P. & JUDGE, T.A. 2011. *Organisational behaviour*. 14<sup>th</sup> (ed). New Jersey: Prentice Hall. East Technical University.

ROBBINS, B.G. 2016. What is trust? A multidisciplinary review, critique and synthesis. *Sociology Compass*, 10(10):972-986.

ROYLE, M.T. & HALL, A.T. 2012. The relationship between McClelland's theory of needs, feeling individually accountable and informal accountability for others. *International Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 5(1):21-42.

RUDOLPH, C. W., LAVIGNE, K. N., KATZ, I. M., & ZACHER, H. 2017. Linking dimensions of career adaptability to adaptation results: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 102:151-173.

RUTHANKOON, R. & OGUNLANA, S.O. 2003. Testing Herzberg's two-factor theory in the Thai construction industry. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Journal*, 10(5):333-341.

RYNES, S.L. & GERHART, B. 1990. Interviewer assessments of applicant fit: An exploratory investigation. *Personnel Psychology*, 43(1):13-35.

SADEGHI, G., AHMADI, M. & YAZDI, M.T. 2016. The relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational performance: A case study, agricultural Jihadi organisation Mazandaran province. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 14(3):317-324.

SAGIV, L., ROCCAS, S., CIECIUCH, J. & SCHWARTZ, S.H. 2017. Personal values in human life. *Nature Human Behaviour*, 1(9):1-41.

SALEEM, F. 2014. Impact of corporate ethical values on employees' behaviour: Mediating role of organisational commitment. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 29 (1):245-263.

- SAMUEL, P. 2017. *Advise on exploratory factor analysis*. Centre for academic success. Birmingham City University, Pp.1-7.
- SANJEEV, M.A. & SURYA, A.V. 2016. Two factor theory of motivation and satisfaction: An empirical verification. *Annals of Data. Science*, 2(3):1-22.
- SAKS, A.M. & ASHFORTH, B.E. 2007. A longitudinal relationship between job information sources, applicant perceptions of fit, and work outcomes. *Personal Psychology*, 50, 395-426.
- SARASWATI, V.A. & SULISTIYO, S.D. 2017. The influence of job satisfaction and organisational commitment to the organisational citizenship behaviour in PT. Haier sales Indonesia Bandung branch. *Journal of Engineering and Applied Sciences*, 12(2):439-446.
- SARWAR, 2014. Gendered differences in job satisfaction: how men and women cope with work and family. Thesis. Ohoi. Kent State University.
- SAUNDERS, M. 2016. Understanding research philosophies and approaches. 7<sup>th</sup> (ed). UK. Harlow. Pearson Education.
- SAURE, J. 2015. Promoting organisation citizenship behaviour. Effects of online self-disclosure in the context of employee selection and virtual leadership. Thesis. Regensburg. University of Regensburg.
- SAVICKAS, M.L. 1997. Career adaptability: An integrative construct for life-span, life space theory. *Journal of Theoretical Social Psychology*, 45 (3):247-259.
- SCARPI, D. 2012. Work and fun on the internet: The effects of utilitarianism and hedonism online. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*. 26:53-67.
- SCHNEIDER, B. 1987. The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, 40:437-453.
- SEDIBENG DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY 2015. *Integrated Development Plan*. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11082239>. Accessed [14/09/2017]
- SEGUIN, M.J. 1997. Motivation, job satisfaction, needs, and vocational preferences of urban secondary teachers and administrators. Thesis. Canada. University of Windsor.
- SEKIGUCHI, T. 2004. Person-organization fit and person-job fit in employee selection: A review of the literature. *Osaka Keidai Ronshu*, 54(6):179-196.

SENE, Y. & NKOMO, S. 2015. The influence of labour brokering practices on employment equity in South Africa: A case of two universities. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*: 39(1):58-71.

SEYREK, I.H. & TURAN, A. 2017. Effects of individual characteristics and work-related factors on the turnover intention of accounting professionals. *International Journal of Academic Research in Accounting, Finance and Management Sciences*, 7(1):236-244.

SHAH, C.H. & BROWN, J.D. 2020. Reliability and validity of the short-form 12 item of health-related quality of life survey and disutilities associated with relevant conditions in the U.S. older adult population. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, Pp:2-13.

SHAHID, A. 2018. Employee intention to stay: An environment based on trust and motivation. *Journal of Management and Research*, 10(4):58-70.

SHAIKH, S.H., SHAIKH, H. & SHAIKH, S. 2019. The impact of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction on Herzberg Theory: A case study of Meezan Bank Limited and National Bank Limited. *International Journal of Business and Social Science* 10(6):143-147.

SHANKER, M. 2018. Organisational citizenship behaviour in relation to employees' intention to stay in India organisations. *Business Process Management Journal*, 24(6):1355-1366.

SHARMA, B. 2016. A focus on reliability in developmental research through Cronbach's Alpha among medical, dental and paramedical professional. *Asian Pacific Journal of Health Science*, 3(4):271-278.

SHAROM, N.Q. 2017. The relationship between person-organization fit and employee outcomes: the mediating role of psychological need satisfaction and employee attitudes. Thesis. Salford. University of Salford.

SHONUBI, O.A., ABDULLAH, N., HASHIM, R., & HAMID, N.B. 2016. The psychological impact of recognition and appreciation on job satisfaction and job performance among IT employees: Review. *The Social Science*, 11(21):5222-5227.

SHRESTHA, M. 2019. Influence of age group on job satisfaction in academia. *Journal of Management*, 2(3):30-41.

- SIAS, P.M. & CAHILL, D.J. 1998. From co-workers to friends: the development of peer friendships in the workplace. *Western Journal of Communication*, 62(3):273-300.
- SIMO, P., SALLAN, J.M., FERNANDEZ, V. & ENACHE, M. 2016. Change-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour: analysis of antecedent's center on regulatory theory focus at the workplace. *International Journal of Organisational Analysis*, 24:261-273.
- SINGH, A.K. & SINGH, A.P. 2010. Career stage and organizational citizenship among Indian managers. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 36:268-275.
- SINGH, U. & SRIVASTAVA, K.B.L. 2009. Interpersonal trust and organisational citizenship behaviour, *National Academy of Psychology*, 54:65-76.
- SITHIPHAND, C. 1983. Testing employee motivation based on Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory in selected Thai commercial banks. Thesis. Oklahoma. Oklahoma State University.
- SIYAL, S., XIN, C., PENG, X., SIYAL, A.W. & AHMED, W. 2020. Why do high-performance human resource practices matter for employee outcomes in Public Sector Universities? The mediating role of person– organization fit mechanism. Sage. Pp.1-12. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11082239>. Accessed [08/12/2020]
- SJAHRUDDIN, H. & SUDIRO, A.A. 2013. Organisational justice, organisational commitment and trust in manager as predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Resources, Business*, 4(12):133-141.
- SMITH, C.A., ORGAN, D.W. & NEAR, J.P. 1983. Organisational citizenship behaviour: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68(4):653-663.
- SOBOCAN, A.M., BERTOTTI, T. & STROM-GOTTFRIE, K. 2018. Ethical considerations in social work research. *European Journal of Social Work*, Pp.1-14.
- SORLIE, H.O., HETLAND, J., DEYVIK, A., FOSSE, T.H. & MARTINSEN, O.L. 2020. Person-organization fit in a military selection context. *Military Psychology*, 32(3):237-246.
- SPECTOR, P.E. 1985. Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the job satisfaction survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 13(6):693-713.

SPRANGER, E. 1928. *Types of Men*. The psychology and ethics of personality. Halle: Germany: Max Niemeyer Verlag. <https://www.worldcat.org/title/types-of-men-the-psychology-and-ethics-of-personality>. Accessed [21/03/2016]

STRAUS, D. 2015. Between postmodernism, positivism and new atheism. *Koers-Bulletin for Christian Scholarship*, 80(1):1-10.

SU, R., MURDOCK, C. & ROUNDS, J. 2015. Person-environment fit. APA Handbook of career intervention. *American Psychology Association*, 1(5):81-98.

SUBRAMANIAN, K.R. 2018. Social and cultural expectations and changing role of women. *International Journal of Engineering and Management Research*, 8(2):110-117.

SUBRT, J. & SUBRT, J. 2020. *Introduction: Dream or Myth?*, The systemic approach in sociology and niklas luhmann: Expectations, discussions, doubts. Emerald Publishing Limited, Pp.1-3.

SUHERMIN, S. 2015. Effect of work stress, job satisfaction, empowerment of psychology of intention to stay. *International Journal of Management Science*, 5(3):206-212.

SWAMINATHAN, S. & JAWAHAR, P.D. 2013. Job satisfaction as a predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour: An empirical study. *Global Journal of Business Research*, 7(1):71-80.

SYLVA, H., MOL, S.T., HARTOG, D.N.D. & DORENBOSCH, L. 2019. Person-job fit and proactive career behaviour: A dynamic approach. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 28(5):631-645.

TABACHNICK, B. G. & FIDELL, L. S. 2007. *Using Multivariate Statistics*. 5<sup>th</sup> (ed). Boston, MA: Pearson Education. Inc.

TAHA, A. V., SIRKOVA, M. & FERENCOVA, M. 2016. The impact of organisational culture on creativity and innovation. *Polish Journal of Management Studies*, 14(1):7-17.

TAHERDOOST, H., SAHIBUDDIN, S. & JALALIYOON, N. 2014. Exploratory factor analysis; concepts and theory. *Advances in Applied and Pure Mathematics*, 27: 375-382.

TAHERDOOST, H. 2016. Validity and reliability of the research instrument, how to test the validation of a questionnaire/survey in a research. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management*, 5(3):28-36.



TAKAWIRA, N., COETZEE, M. & SCHREUDER, D. 2014. Job embeddedness, work engagement and turnover intention of staff in a higher education institution: An exploratory study. Original research. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(1):1-10.

TALACHI, R.K., GORJI, M.B. & BOERHANNOEEDDIN. 2014. An investigation of the role of job satisfaction in employees' organisational citizenship behaviour. *Collegium Antropolologicum*, 38(2):429-436.

TALBOT, D.L. & BILLSBERRY, J. 2010. Comparing and contrasting person-environment fit and misfit, in Exploring organisational fit and misfit: *Proceedings of the 4th Global e-Conference on Fit*, pp.1-6. <http://hdl.handle.net/10536/DRO/DU:30034948>. [accessed 07/10/2018].

TALEBLOO, B., BASRI, R.B., HASSAN, A. & ASIMIRAN, S. 2015. A survey on the dimensionality of organisational citizenship behaviour in primary schools: Teacher's perception. *International Journal of Education*, 7(3):12-30.

TASKIRAN, E. 2017. The moderating role of organisational identification on the relationship between perceived organisational career management and intention to leave. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 12(11):73-86.

TAVARES, A.F. & CAMOES, P.J. 2007. Local service delivery choices in Portugal: A political transaction costs framework. *Local Government Studies*, 33(4):335-553.

TEDDLIE, C. & TASHAKKORI, A. 2009. *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioural sciences*. Thousands Oak. CA: Sage.

TECH-HONG, T. & WAHEED, A. 2011. Herzberg motivation-hygiene theory and job satisfaction in the Malaysian retail sector: The mediating effect of love of money. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 16, (1):73-94.

TESSEMA, M.T., READY, K.J. & EMBAYE, A.B. 2013. The effect of employee recognition, pay, and benefits on job satisfaction: Cross country evidence. *Journal of Business and Economics*, 4(1):1-12.

THIRUVENKADAM, T. & DURAIRAJ, I.Y.B. 2017. Organizational citizenship behaviour: its definitions and dimensions. *GE-International Journal of Management Research*, 5(5):46-56.

THOMAS, P. 2010. Towards developing a web-based blended learning environment at the University of Botswana. Thesis. Pretoria. University of South Africa.

THOMAS, S.L. & SCROGGINS, W.A. 2006. Psychological testing in personnel selection: Contemporary issues in cognitive ability and personality testing. *Journal of Business Inquiry*, Pp. 28-38.

THOMAS, T.P. 2013. The effect of personal values, organizational values, and person-organisation fit on ethical behaviours and organisational commitment outcomes among substance abuse counsellors: A preliminary investigation. Thesis. Iowa City, Iowa. The University of Iowa.

TING, Y. 1997. Determinants of job satisfaction of federal government employees. *Public Personnel Management*, 26(3):313-335.

TRAFIMOW, D., SHEERAN, P., LOMBARDO, B. & FINLAY, K.A. 2004. Affective and cognitive control of person and behaviours. *British Journal of Social Psychology* 43:207-224.

TURCAN, M. 2010. Expectancy as a predictor of faculty motivation to use a course management system. Thesis. Clemson University, Clemson, SC.

TWALA, C. 2014. The African National Congress (ANC) and the cadre deployment policy in the post-apartheid South Africa: A product of democratic centralization or a recipe for a constitutional crisis? *Journal for Social Science*, 41(2)159-165.

UDAYAR, S., LEVIN, N., LIPSHITS-BRAZILER, Y., ROCHAT, S., DI FABIO, A., GATI, I., SOVET, L., & ROSSIER, J. 2020. Difficulties in career decision making and self-evaluations: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Career Assessment*. 28(4):608-635.

UNUTMAZ, S. 2014. Factors affecting job satisfaction of employees in a public institution. Thesis. Middle East Technical University. Middle East.

UZONWANNE, F.C. 2014. Organisational citizenship behaviour and demographic factors among oil workers in Nigeria. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 19(8):87-95.

- VAN ECK, P.B.S. 2010. Temporary employment services (labour brokers) in South Africa and Namibia. *P.E.R.*, 2(13):107-126.
- VAN SAANE, N., SLUITER, J. K., VERBEEK, J. H. A. M. & FRINGE-DRESEN, M. H. W. 2003. Reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction—a systematic review. *Occupational medicine*, 53(3):191-200.
- VAN TEIJLINGEN E, R. & HUNDLEY, V. 2002. The importance of pilot studies. *Nursing Standard*, 16(40):33-36.
- Van VIANEN, A. E. M. 2018. Person–environment fit: a review of its basic tenets. *Annual Review of Organisational Psychology and Organisational Behaviour*. 5:75-101.
- VELICKOVSKA, I. 2017. Organisational citizenship behaviour-definition, determinants and effects. *Engineering Management*, 3(1):40-51.
- VENTER, R. & LEVY, A. 2011. *Labour relations in South Africa*. 4<sup>th</sup> (ed). Cape Town: Oxford.
- VIJAYAKUMAR, V.T.R. & SUBHA, B. 2013. Impact of rewards and recognition on employees' job satisfaction and motivation in private banks of Tirunelveli. *International Research Journal of Business and Management*, 5:64-73.
- VOGEL, R.M. & FELDMAN, D.C. 2009, Integrating the levels of person-environment fit: The roles of vocational fit and group fit. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 75(1):68-81.
- VOSLOO, J.J. 2014. A sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. Thesis. Potchefstroom. North West University.
- WANG, T., HE, Q., LU, Y. & YANG, D. 2018. How does organisational citizenship affect the performance of megaprojects? Insight from a system dynamic simulation. *International Journal of Molecule Science*, Pp.1-8.
- WARNICH S., CARRELL, M., ELBERT N.F. & HATFIELD D.R. 2018. *Human resource management in South Africa* 6<sup>th</sup> (ed). United Kingdom. Cengage Learning.
- WESTABY, J. D., PROBST, T.M. & LEE, B.C. 2010. Leadership decision-making: a behavioural reasoning theory analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21:481-495.

WESTABY, J.D. 2005. Behavioural reasoning theory: identifying new linkage underlying intentions and behaviour. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Process*, 98: 97-120.

WHEELER L. 2008. Kurt Lewin. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 2:1638-1650.

WILKINSON, D. & BIRMINGHAM, P. 2003. *Using research instruments: A Guide for Researchers*. New York: Routledge.

WILLEM, A., BUELENS, M. & DE JONGHE, I. 2006. Impact of organisational structure on nurses' job satisfaction: A questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 44:1011-1020.

WILLIAMS, A., FRANCHE, R. L., IBRAHIM, S., MUSTARD, C. A. & LAYTON, F. R. 2006. Examining the relationship between work-family spill over and sleep quality. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 11(1):27-45.

WILLIAMS, B., ONSMAN, A. & BROWN, T. 2010. Exploratory factor analysis: a five – step guide for novices. *Journal of Emergency Primary Health Care*, 8(3):1-13.

WILSON, C. 2016. Who wants to be a manager? Applying the attraction-selection-attrition framework to public relations education, *Journal of Public Relations Education* 2(1):47-55.

WRIGHT, B.E. & DAVIS, B.S. 2003. Job satisfaction in the public sector – the role of the work environment. *American Review of Public Administration*, 33(1):70-90.

YAPA, P.M.S.P., RATHNAYAKE, R.M. SENANAYAKE, G. & PREMAKUMARA, P. 2014. Effect of demographic factors on job satisfaction of non-academic staff in universities. *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Management and Economics*, Pp.303-310.

<https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.704.1235&rep=rep1&type=pdf>. Accessed [10/02/2018].

YILDIZ, Y. & AMIN, H.H.H. 2020. Impact of organizational citizenship behaviour on customer satisfaction. *Eurasian Journal of Management & Social Sciences*, Pp.17-34. Doi: 10.23918/ejmss.v1i1p17.

- YOO, W.S., LEE, Y. & PARK, J. 2010. The role of interactivity in e-tailing: creating value and increasing satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 17(1):89-96.
- YOUCEF, S., AHMED, S.S. & AHMED, B. 2016. The impact of job satisfaction on turnover intention by the existence of organisational commitment, and intent to stay as intermediates variables using approach PLS in sample worker Department of Transport Saida. *Management*, 6(6):198-202.
- YOUNG, L., MILNER, M., EDMUNDS, D., PENTSIL, G. & BROMAN, M. 2014. The tenuous relationship between salary and satisfaction. *Journal of Behavioural Studies in Business*, 7(1):1-9.
- YU, K.Y.T. 2012. Person-environment fit in non-standard work: Insights from workers with limited expectations of continued employment. *Journal of Organizational Psychology*, 12(3/4):111-118.
- YU, T., & YANG, K. 2014. Person-organization fit effects on organizational attraction: A test of an expectations-based model. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 124(1):75-94.
- YUEN, K.F., LOH, H.S., ZHOU, Q & WONG, Y.D. 2018. Determinants of job satisfaction and performance of seafarers. *Transportation research A: Policy and Practice*, 110:1-12.
- YUMUK-GUNAY, G. 2018. Relationship between job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and employee performance: sample of Edirne financial employees in Turkey. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 8(1):64-74.
- ZAID, M.A. 2015. *Correlation and regression analysis textbook. Statistical economic and social research and training center for Islamic countries*. SESRIC. Ankara. Turkey. Statistics department.
- ZAINUDIN, A., JUNAIDAH, H. A. & NAZMI, M. Z. 2010. Modelling job satisfaction and work commitment among lecturers: a case of UITM Kelantan. *Journal of Statistical Modelling and Analytics*, 1:45-59.
- ZAINUL, M. & ZAMRUDI, Z. 2019. Organisational citizenship and employee performance: the role of spirituality. *Pakistan Administrative Review*, 3(1):16-26.

ZEB, A. & JAMAL, W. 2016. Reward and recognition and its impact on teachers' satisfaction and motivation at university level. *Global Advanced Research Journal of Education Research and Review*, 5(4):63-70.

ZEINABADI, H. 2010. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment as antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour of teachers. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 5:998-1003.

ZHANG, D. 2011. Organisational citizenship behaviour. *Psychology, White Paper*, Pp.1-14. <https://cdn.auckland.ac.nz/assets/psych/about/our-people/documents>. Accessed [30/03/2017].

ZHANG, S., ZHANG, C. & YANG, Q. 2003. Data preparation for data mining. *Applied Artificial Intelligence*, 17:375-381.

ZHANG, X, J., JINPENG, X. & KHAN, F. 2020. The influence of social media on employee's Knowledge sharing motivation: A two-factor theory pe

rspective. *Original Research*, Pp.1-17. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F2158244020942495>. Accessed [10/12/2020]

ZHU, Y. 2013. A review of job satisfaction. *Asian Social Science*, 9(1):293-298.

ZOU, P.X.W., SUNINDIJO, R.Y. & DAINITY, A.R.J. 2014. A mixed methods research design for bridging the gap between research and practice in construction safety. *Safety Science*, 70:316–326.

ZULKEPLI, M., SIPAN, I. & JIBRIL, J.D. 2017. An exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis for green affordable housing criteria instrument. *International Journal of Real Estate Studies*, 11(4):9-21.

## ANNEXURE A: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION LETTER

Department of Human resource management

Tel: +27(0)16 950 6882

Fax: +27(0)16 950 9898

13 July 2016

### Subject: Request for Permission to conduct a research study

I am writing to request a permission to conduct a research study at your municipality. I am currently studying towards my PhD: Business Administration in the Human resource department at the Vaal university of Technology. My topic is titled: **The influence of employee fit dimension on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to stay in selected South African municipalities.**

The study is purely for qualification purposes. The results and findings of the study will be made available to participating municipalities on request. Participation will remain private and confidential; no person will be expected to reveal their identity.

Your positive response will be highly appreciated. For more information and clarity on the study I can be contacted at:

016 950 7521 or 084 288 3050 and 083 310 8354

Kind regard's

Josiah Coba Masoka

Faculty of Management Sciences

Lecturer (Human resource management Department)

josiah@vut.ac.za



## ANNEXURE B1: FEEDBACK FROM SDM



### HUMAN RESOURCES DEPARTMENT

Sedibeng District Municipality  
P.O. Box 471  
Vereeniging  
1930  
Republic of South Africa  
Tel: +27 (0)16 450-3200  
Fax: +27 (0)16 422-2311

Our Ref.: PL Modimoeng  
Manager: Human Capital Development

15 December 2015

Mr. JC Masoka  
Vaal University of Technology  
Private Bag X021  
**VANDERBIJLPARK**  
1900

Dear Sir

#### **REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY AT SEDIBENG DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY**

This serves to acknowledge your application/request to conduct a research dated 23 July 2015 at the Sedibeng District Municipality.

Subsequent to our discussions held on the 07 December 2015, we herewith confirm the commencement of your research study with Sedibeng District Municipality on the 18 January 2016.

You are further reminded to report at the office of the Manager: Human Capital Development, Mr. PL "Rover" Modimoeng, Human Resources Department first floor, Main Building Vereeniging, on 18 January 2016.

PL Modimoeng  
Manager: Human Capital Development

## ANNEXURE B2: PERMISSION FROM MDM

### MBOMBELA LOCAL MUNICIPALITY

City Centre  
1 Nel Street  
Mbombela  
1201  
South Africa



P.O. Box 45  
Mbombela  
1200  
South Africa  
Tel +27 (0) 13 799-0111  
Fax +27 (0) 13 769-2070

OUR REF: SH Sibuyi (013-799 2593)

08/06/2015

Vaal University of Technology  
Faculty of Management Sciences  
Vanderbijlpark Campus  
1900

Attention: Mr JC Masoka

#### REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH STUDY,

In pursuance of your request to conduct research study in our Municipality regarding the study titled "The influence of employee fit dimension on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, and intention to stay in selected South African municipalities", permission is hereby granted to you to embark on the said research study.

Kindly be advised that Mr SH Sibuyi, Human Resources will act as facilitator in assisting you to coordinate all necessary information you may require from time to time.

It is further noted that the information provided to you must solely be used for the purpose of the research study only.

We wish you the best in all endeavours to complete your studies in due time.

Yours faithfully

ME NKOSI  
General Manager Corporate Services  
The 2015 letter request is research permission to conduct study

City of Embodiment

## ANNEXURE B3: PERMISSION FROM EMFULENI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY



Office of the Deputy Municipal Manager:  
Corporate Services  
Training and Development

Tel: +27 16 440 7702/3  
Fax: +27 16 481 6743  
E-mail: [mail@emfuleni.gov.za](mailto:mail@emfuleni.gov.za)

P.O. Box 3

Vanderbijlpark, 1900

Web: [www.emfuleni.gov.za](http://www.emfuleni.gov.za)

Date: 01 August 2016

Ref: J.S. Koets

File: 10111

To whom it may concern

**RE: Confirmation of Research Approval viz. Mr. Masoka**

This serves to confirm that Mr. Masoka sought and was granted permission by Emfuleni Local Municipality (ELM) to conduct an academic pilot research as set out.

ELM is granting research access to its premises and relevant Department(s) to Mr. Masoka and his associates for that purpose only. This research access will terminate immediately upon the completion of the research period as stipulated.

Mr. Masoka will also abide by the rules and regulations that govern all ELM employees whilst on the premises. This includes any confidentiality obligations that may be required to be observed in publication of the mini dissertation.

Breach of any such prescripts will result in immediate termination of the research access and any concomitant mitigating steps may be taken where necessary.

ELM would also welcome a copy of the completed dissertation as a *quid pro quo* if possible.

ELM wishes Mr. Masoka well in his research endeavor.

~~Approved/Not Approved~~

Sol Roets (Manager – Training)

09/09/2016  
Date

## ANNEXURE C: COVER LETTER OF QUESTIONNAIRE

14 Ayrton Street

CW3

Vanderbijlpark

1911

30 May 2015

Dear respondent,

My name is Josiah Coba Masoka, I am a PhD student in Business Administration at the Vaal University of Technology in the Human Resource Management Department. The topic of my study is titled: **The influence of employee fit dimension on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to stay in selected South African municipalities.** I was granted permission by your municipality to conduct my research. It will be greatly appreciated if you kindly complete the attached **questionnaire** as honestly as possible, which will assist in generating information that will be used to help organisations create an environment that will not only increase the level of satisfaction, but which will also promote the engagement of employees beyond the call of duty while extending their stay with their employers.

I wish to clarify the following before you complete the questionnaire:

- Your anonymity will be maintained and no comments will be ascribed to you by name in any written document or verbal presentation. Nor will any data be used from the questionnaire that might identify you to a third party. Please do not write your name anywhere on the questionnaire.
- On completion of the research a copy of completed research report will be made available to the organisation upon request.
- Completion of the questionnaire will take approximately 10 minutes.
- Participation is entirely voluntary.

Should you have any queries concerning the nature of this research or are unclear about any questions please contact me at [josiah@vut.ac.za](mailto:josiah@vut.ac.za) or 0842883050.

Your participation and time is highly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Mr. JC Masoka

## ANNEXURE D: QUESTIONNAIRE

**Employee fit dimension, job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behavior and intention to stay questionnaire.**

### SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

This section seeks to gather information about respondents. Please mark (x) the box that mostly represents you.

A1	Gender	Male	Female
----	--------	------	--------

A2.	Marital status	Single	Married
-----	----------------	--------	---------

A3	Age category	Under 25 years	25-35 years	36-45 years	46-55 years	Over 55 years
----	--------------	----------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	---------------

A4	Education level	Matric Cert	Degree/ Dip	Honors/ B-tech	Masters/ M-Tech	PhD	Other (specify)
----	-----------------	-------------	-------------	----------------	-----------------	-----	-----------------

A5	Length of time in the position	Less than 2 years	Between 2 -5 years	Between 6-9 years	Between 10-15 years	More than 15 years
----	--------------------------------	-------------------	--------------------	-------------------	---------------------	--------------------

A4.	How many years of experience do you have with your current employer?					
	Less than 1year		1-5 years		6-10 years	
	11-15 years		16-20 years		20 years and more	

A5.	What is your current job position in the municipality?					
	Manager		Officer		Administrator	
	Assistant Manager		Accountant		Foreman	
	Mechanic		Team Leader		Electrician	
	Engineer		Superintendent		technician	
Other (Specify)						

A5.	Which department or division do you work in?						
	Office of the municipal manager		Transversal service		Finance		
	Corporate service		Revenue management		Assets management		
	Technical services		Water and sanitation		Public safety and emergency		
	Social Development		Solid waste		Local economic development, human settlement, Urban and Rural development		
Other (Specify)							

## SECTION B: PERSON - JOB FIT

This section of the questionnaire is aimed at measuring the degree of your fit into the job you are doing. The scale is anchored along: 1=strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= neither agree nor disagree; 4=Agree and 5=strongly agree Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by marking (X) in the corresponding number.

B1	What the job offers is consistent with things which I hope to get	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B2	I have the right skills and abilities for doing this job.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B3	There is a good match between the requirements of this job and my skills.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B4	My personality is a good match for this job.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B5	I am the right type of person for this job.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B6	This job provides me with the opportunity to express my skills.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B7	My job fits my interest	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

## SECTION C: PERSON – ENVIRONMENT FIT

This section of the questionnaire is aimed at measuring the degree of your fitness into the environment you work in. The scale is anchored along: 1=strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= neither agree nor disagree; 4=Agree and 5=strongly agree Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by marking (X) in the corresponding number.

C1	My personal values match my supervisor's values.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C2	The cooperation and the relationship between myself and my co-workers are satisfactory.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

C3	The amount of work responsibility and efforts expected in my job is clearly defined.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C4	I find similarity between my values and my occupation.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C5	My line manager is supportive of my ideas and ways of getting things done.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C6	There is a good fit between what the job offers me and what I am looking for in a job.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C7	This organisation regards welfare of its employees as its first priority.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

## SECTION D: PERSON - ORGANISATION FIT

This section of the questionnaire is aimed at measuring the degree of your fit into the organization you work for. The scale is anchored along: 1=strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= neither agree nor disagree; 4=Agree and 5=strongly agree Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by marking (X) in the corresponding number.

D1	My personal values are a good fit with this organisation.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
D2	I have affection and affinity for this organisation.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
D3	This organisation makes promotions based mostly on individual performance	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
D4	I really fit this organization	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
D5	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
D6	What this organisation stands for is very important to me	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

## SECTION E: JOB SATISFACTION

This section of the questionnaire is aimed at measuring the degree on how satisfied are you with your job in the organisation. The scale is anchored along: 1=strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= neither agree nor disagree; 4=Agree and 5=strongly agree Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by marking (X) in the corresponding number.

E1	I definitely like my job	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
E2	I like my job better than an average person.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
E3	Most days I am enthusiastic about my job	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
E4	I find real enjoyment in my job	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

E5	I feel fairly well satisfied with my job	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
----	--	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

## SECTION F: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

This section of the questionnaire is aimed at measuring the degree of your organizational citizenship behaviour with your co-workers and the organisation. The section is divided into five dimensions. The scale is anchored along: 1=strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= neither agree nor disagree; 4=Agree and 5=strongly agree Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by marking (X) in the corresponding number.

### Altruism

F1	I willingly help fellow colleagues when they have work related problems	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F2	I willingly help new comers to get oriented towards job.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F3	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F4	I help others who have been absent from work.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F5	I willingly help my colleagues who have heavy workloads.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

### Courtesy

F6	I always try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F7	I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F8	I don't abuse the rights of others.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F9	I consider the impact of my actions on my colleagues.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F10	I take steps to try to prevent problems with other employees.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

### Civic Virtue

F11	I always keep myself abreast of changes in the organisation.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F12	I keep myself updated with organisational announcements and memos.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F13	I attend meeting that are not mandatory but important.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F14	I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree



## Sportsmanship

F15	I always require frequent doses of motivation to get the work done.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F16	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F17	I tend to make “mountains out of molehills”.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F18	I usually find faults with what my organisation is doing.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F19	I usually focus on what is wrong rather than positive side of situation.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

## Conscientiousness

F20	I obey organisational rules even when no one is watching.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F21	I am one of the most conscientious employees.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F22	I don't take extra or long breaks while on duty.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F23	My attendance at work is above the norm.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
F24	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

## SECTION G: INTENTION TO STAY

This section of the questionnaire is aimed at measuring the degree your intentions with regard to remaining with the organisation or plans to turnover. The scale is anchored along: 1=strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= neither agree nor disagree; 4=Agree and 5=strongly agree Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by marking (X) in the corresponding number.

G1	I will most probably stay in this company in the foreseeable future	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
G2	I will definitely intend to maintain my current relationship with this company	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
G3	I have no intention of leaving this company	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
G4	I want to continue working 5 years from now in my current job	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
G5	I am not even planning of looking for a new job	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

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