



**VAAL UNIVERSITY
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**INFLUENCE OF JOB EMBEDDEDNESS ON JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB
PERFORMANCE AMONG EMPLOYEES WITHIN SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE
SERVICE ACADEMIES**

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

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VAAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

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May 2022

DECLARATION

I, **RATSELA JOHANNES TALA**, declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented to any other university or institution for a similar or any other degree award.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'RATSELA JOHANNES TALA', enclosed within a thin black rectangular border.

Signed

Date: 2022-05-30

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Name	Affiliation
God	My Creator
Ntombesizwe Mtembu-Tala	Wife
Kabelo-Luhle & Rethabile	Children
Tyrus Jenneke & Chris Simons	Fieldworkers
23 x Academy Commanders	Colleagues
Lt-General (Dr) Zulu	Divisional Commissioner: Division: Human Resource Development
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Major General S Thema	Component Head: Basic Police Development
Professor Bennie Grobler	Promoter
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Ms Linda Scott	Editor

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my wife, Sponkie, children, Kabelo-Luhle and Rethabile, and my mother, Johanna Dorica Tala, who constantly supported and encouraged me to persevere under trying circumstances. When I did not have the energy to continue, they were my energy source. Their unconditional love and support will forever be cherished and applauded.

ABSTRACT

Background

The South African Police Service (SAPS) faces various challenges relating to service delivery, which is viewed as stressful, demanding, and dangerous. Members work long, stressful hours under adverse and challenging working conditions. These demanding working conditions correlate with experienced job embeddedness, job satisfaction and job performance.

Moreover, in addition to these challenges police employees suffer from physical ailments, such as heart condition, hypertension and sugar diabetes, mellitus, and psychological problems, such as cynicism: feelings of hopelessness, suicidal thoughts and suicide. These challenges may lead to absenteeism, resignations and ineffective organisational performance.

Many SAPS personnel at various academies have been employed in the Human Resource Development (HRD) for a prolonged time, and employee turnover is low. This suggests that they are committed to their job and experience job embeddedness. Research has shown that job embeddedness might predict job satisfaction and performance. The study aimed to investigate this relationship in the context of SAPS academy employees to inform SAPS management in assisting police officers in performing their role despite the challenges they face.

Training is a high priority in the SAPS, the academies of which are expected to prepare future police officers to fill their roles effectively. However, the SAPS academies, which are expected to provide training and development, have limited human, financial and logistical resources owing to current political and socio-economic circumstances. Therefore, although employees in these academies may face challenges to their job embeddedness, job satisfaction and job performance, they remain in their jobs, which is a situation that the study aimed to explore.

Aim

The study described in this thesis aimed to investigate the influence of job embeddedness on job satisfaction and job performance amongst employees within South African Police Service academies, viewing it as a holistic construct.

Methodology

The research methodology followed to conduct the study was a combination of a literature review and an empirical study. Existing scholarship informed a theoretical understanding of the topic. An

empirical investigation was conducted to achieve the aim mentioned above. In addition, a quantitative descriptive research design was adopted to investigate a sample of 400 employees working in the 23 academies nationally. Data were collected using a structured questionnaire as the collection instrument which was piloted with 25 respondents and then hand-delivered to the respondents of the main study. Simple random sampling accurately reflected the larger population (N=956).

Results and Discussion

The research results indicated that job performance and job satisfaction are causally related via job embeddedness acting as a mediator. Moreover, the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction was found to be non-recursive. The total effect of job performance on job satisfaction is larger (.5956) than the total reciprocal effect between job satisfaction as a predictor and job performance as an outcome (0.4061). The research supported the view that job satisfaction and job performance have a reciprocal relationship moderated by other variables such as job embeddedness. This finding does not support the initial hypothesis that job satisfaction acts as a mediator between job embeddedness as a predictor and job performance as an outcome.

General

As little research has been conducted on the relationship between job embeddedness, job satisfaction and job performance in the SAPS and the public sector in South Africa, relevant literature was not readily available for the study. In addition, the study had other limitations, which are highlighted in this thesis to inform similar future studies. However, the results provided insights that researchers in South Africa might find helpful, although the effect of job embeddedness as a holistic construct on various variables needs to further investigated in the context of the SAPS.

Conclusions

The study revealed that job performance, directly and indirectly, affects job satisfaction with job embeddedness acting as a mediating variable. The association between job satisfaction, job performance and job embeddedness as dependent variables and gender as an independent variable found no significant relationship. However, the relationship between race and first language as independent variables and job performance and job satisfaction as dependent variables differed significantly.

In the questionnaire, white respondents agreed significantly less strongly with the job satisfaction and job performance constructs than the black African and coloured respondents. This difference was present in the task and contextual performance sub-dimensions of job performance. The Nguni first language group agreed significantly more strongly with the job performance and job satisfaction constructs than the Afrikaans first language group. This result was also true for the two sub-dimensions of job performance, namely task and contextual performance, with task performance being perceived as slightly more important than the contextual performance by the Nguni group. No significant associations could be found between age, educational level, marital status and the number of years employed as a government employee as independent variables and the three dependent variables of job embeddedness, job satisfaction and job performance.

Recommendations

The study led to recommendations for management practice, which might be helpful to the management of the human resource development division of the SAPS. The study provided essential information about the importance of job embeddedness in the working environment and its effect on employees' job performance and job satisfaction who are expected to provide quality training in the SAPS. In addition, the study led to recommendations for future research by enhancing the knowledge base related to job embeddedness in the context of the South African public service sector. In conclusion, job embeddedness as a holistic construct and its relationship with other variables, needs to be explored further, especially in the context of the SAPS and its academies.

THESIS STRUCTURE

Chapter 1: Introduction and Overview of the Study

Chapter 2: The South African Police Service: A brief literature review

Chapter 3: The constructs of JE, JS and JP: A literature review

Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology

Chapter 5: Results and Discussion

Chapter 6: Conclusions, Recommendations and Limitations

PUBLICATIONS AND CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

NONE AT THE DATE OF THIS SUBMISSION

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

APP	ANNUAL PERFORMANCE PLAN
BPD	BASIC POLICE DEVELOPMENT
CFA	CORRELATION FACTOR ANALYSIS
CF	COMMUNITY FIT
CP	CONTEXUAL PERFORMANCE
CRC	CRIMINAL RECORD CENTRE
CSC	COMMUNITY SERVICE CENTRE
DC	DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER
DIVISION: HRD	DIVISION HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
DNC	DEPUTY NATIONAL COMMISSIONER
DPC	DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER
DPCI	DIRECTORATE FOR PRIORITY CRIME INVESTIGATIONS
EEA	EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACT
EEP	EMPLOYMENT EQUITY PLAN
EFA	EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS
ETD CD	EDUCATION & TRAINING DEVELOPMENT & CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
HRM	HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
ISPD	IN-SERVICE POLICE DEVELOPMENT

JE	JOB EMBEDDEDNESS
JS	JOB SATISFACTION
JP	JOB PERFORMANCE
KMO	KAISER-MEYER-OLKIN MEASURE
MEC	MEMBER OF EXECUTIVE COUNCIL
MISP	MANAGEMENT, INFORMATION & STRATEGIC PLANNING
NC	NATIONAL COMMISSIONER
NCPS	NATIONAL CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGY
NDP	NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN
NIU	NATIONAL INTERVENTION UNIT
OC	ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT
OCB	ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOURS
OF	ORGANISATIONAL FIT
PC	PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER
PCA	PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS
PEP	PERFORMANCE ENHANCEMENT PROCESS
PFMA	PUBLIC FINANCE MANAGEMENT ACT
P-O	PERSON-ORGANISATION
POP	PUBLIC ORDER POLICING
RSA	REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

SA	SOUTH AFRICA
SARPCCO	SOUTHERN AFRICAN REGIONAL POLICE CHIEFS CONFERENCE
SAP	SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE
SAPS	SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
SMS	SENIOR MANAGEMENT SERVICES
SPS-6	STANFORD PRESENTEEISM SCALE-6
SPSS	STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR SOCIAL SCIENCES
TP	TASK PERFORMANCE
WPSS	WHITE PAPER ON SAFETY AND SECURITY

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Section 205 of chapter 11 of the Constitution (RSA 108/1996) acts as the legal guiding instrument for the South African Police Service (SAPS) (RSA 68/1995). The SAPS is authorised in terms of section 205(3) of the Constitution (RSA 108/1996) to:

- Deter, contest and examine the sources of crime,
- Reservation of harmonious equilibrium,
- Lookout and shelter the populace of the Republic of South Africa (RSA) and their assets,
- Endure and carry out the law.

The SAPS is facing several challenges, and the work has become one that is perceived as stressful, demanding and highly dangerous. Members are expected to work long hours, often under dangerous working conditions, and traumatic circumstances. Those factors have an adverse effect on the demanding requirements of work, which are related to their job embeddedness (JE), job satisfaction (JS) and job performance (JP). Police work has adverse consequences for the members, such as heart ailment, suicide, cynicism, disinterestedness, and hopelessness. These can result in a decline in the level of JP of police officers in the organisation. Because of the high demand for excellent service, training has become a high priority within the police, which has placed a high demand on all the SAPS academies to provide high-quality training under the prevailing circumstances.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Public institutions depend entirely on employees to optimally perform their work to deliver excellent service. In return, South African (SA) employees within public service demand that government as an employer respond positively to their employees needs to enable them to pay allegiance to the government and provide excellent service to the society (Mohajane 2017:1). Mohajane (ibid.) further states that supervisors, managers, and administrators must update themselves with employees' ever-evolving developmental and changing desires. In addition, they need to develop a developmental plan to ensure that employees' needs are satisfied and expose them to current programmes that are developmental, as those will assist in keeping employees committed and productive. This chapter will briefly clarify the three study constructs, namely, JE,

JS and JP. For government departments and institutions to deliver service effectively within the public administration theory and practice, they mainly focus on JE, JS and JP (Mohajane 2017:1).

The concept of “embeddedness” details how social relations influence and limit economic activities in the sociological literature environment (Uzzi 1997:35). According to Nafei (2015:9), embeddedness denotes that various features and components attach or link an employee and their family in a social, psychological and financial network that includes work colleagues, friends, social groups, work, and the physical environment in which they live. Embeddedness indicates that individuals can find it challenging to remove and isolate themselves from their immediate environment as they are trapped and accustomed to those surroundings (Ng & Feldman 2009:89). Various factors such as age, gender and other variables contribute to people becoming embedded in their jobs in innumerable ways (van Dyk, Coetzee & Takawira 2013:62).

Recently, a new construct was introduced to help define why people stay in their jobs, called JE (Mitchell & Lee 2001:189). JE is relatively new within the human resource management (HRM) literature sphere (Chinomona, Dhurup & Chinomona 2013:1). JE indicates employees’ decisions to significantly and fundamentally participate in the process, impacting and influencing scholarly focus beyond dissatisfaction-induced leaving (Nafei 2015:8). Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton and Sablynski (2004:153) describe JE as “the combined forces that keep a person from leaving their job”. JE embodies significant and invaluable relationships the employee has within their society, organisation and personal contribution, which became the basis for the employee to extend and develop skills and create social interactions (Holtom, Mitchell & Lee 2006:316).

Nafei (2015:197) indicates that JE comprises of “on-the-job (organisational) embeddedness” and “off-the-job (community) embeddedness”. Figure 1.1 illustrates how each dimension is divided into three sub-dimensions: fit, links, and sacrifice (Allen 2006:237).

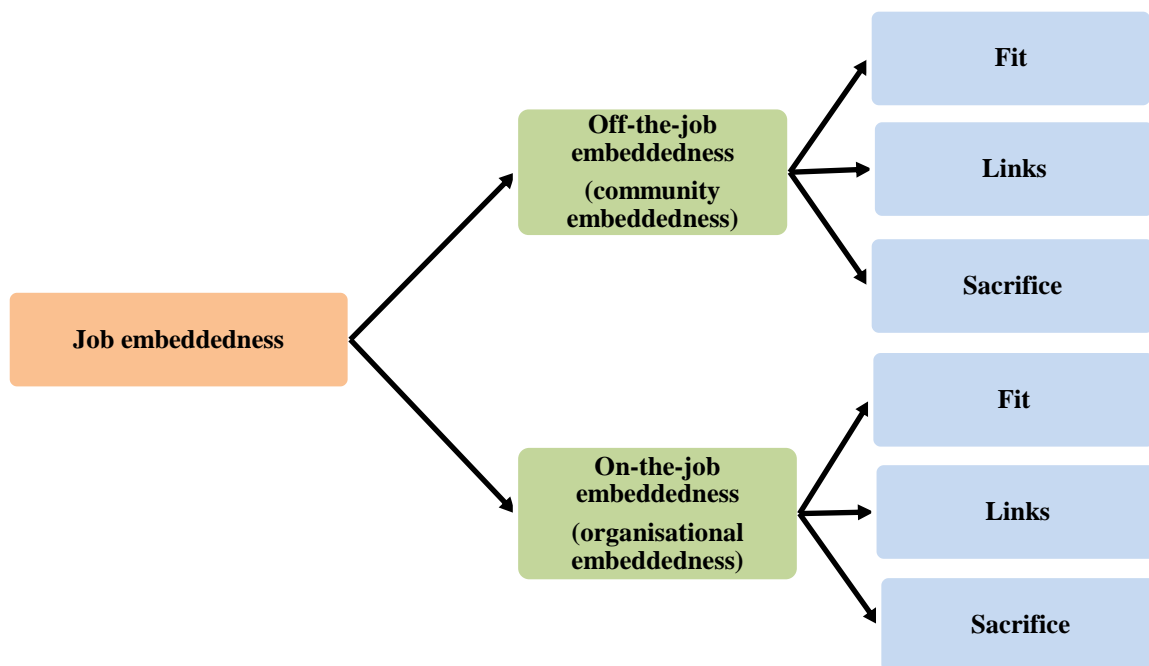


Figure 1.1: The various sub-dimensions and facets of the JE construct

Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski and Erez (2001:1102) characterise perceived JE as the employee’s observation of the three sub-dimension of the JE constructs as indicated in Figure 1.1 above. The three sub-dimensions illustrated above further encompass the two dimensions of JE. Organisation (on-the-job) and community (off-the-job) constitute six sub-dimensions of the JE. These sub-dimensional constructs include “fit-organisation, fit-community, links-organisation, links-community, sacrifice-organisation and sacrifice-community” (van Dyk *et al.* 2013:62). On-the-JE indicates how individuals are engaged and involved in their jobs, departments or organisations. In contrast, off-the-JE symbolises how individuals are involved in their communities (Nafei 2015:9).

According to Grogan and Youngs (2011:1), a significant amount of time was devoted to researching and studying organisations and management by scholars. Their focus was on how well individuals “fit” with their work environment. Their findings suggested that there were strong relationships between increased “fit” and “positive employment outcomes”, including increased performance and retention (Deniz, Noyan & Ertosun 2015:370). Person-job “fit”, job pressure and person-organisation “fit” are crucial aspects of individuals’ “corporate, economic and occupational lives”. Individuals will be embedded in their job or organisation when there is a greater extent of fit, a high number of links and sacrifice (Sekiguchi, Burton & Sablinski 2008:761). When the person better “fit” with their job, minor adjustment and performance problems are experienced (Roberts & Robins 2004:89; Farooqui & Nagendra 2014:123).

Numerous reasons, which influence people to take jobs for other “fit” reasons, include distance to extended family and friends, weather conditions and culture (Valle, Leupold & Leupold 2006:3).

There is an essential element of fit between the employee and organisation at a superficial level and in conscious and unconscious psychological processes (Sutarjo 2011:226). Robbins and Judge (2009:337) write that organisations face an ever-changing and dynamic working environment that requires employees who can adjust and infuse within working teams and be flexible between groups. It is paramount that the employee characteristics are congruent or fit with the organisational culture instead of features associated with a specific job (Robbins & Judge 2009:337).

Person-organisation fit is an essential and imperative element to retaining committed employees in the competitive professional, corporate, economic and occupational environment and a constricted labour market (Tugal & Kilic 2015:196). According to Meyer, Hecht, Gill and Toplonysky (2010:458), person-organisation fit refers to employees’ needs, which must be congruent and consistent with their preferred culture and an organisation’s capability to create conducive favourable conditions through its policies and practices that satisfy these needs. For the individual and organisation to be effective, it will require that both the individual and organisation’s values be congruent (Shin & Holland 2004:133). Community fit denotes the degree of numerous factors such as solidarity, commonality, or homogeneity between the individual and their community (Ng & Feldman 2009:839). A link thus constitutes a composite of person-organisation fit (Chatman 1989:333) and person-job fit (Careless 2005:411).

According to Candan (2016:70), the link-dimension is divided into “formal or non-formal links” among persons, organisations, institutions, etc. Significant links between the employee and the organisation lead to extended JP and commitment towards the employee instead of the possibility of labour turnover (Allen 2006:240). An employee can become embedded in an organisational web and complexities, as much as they can become highly involved in family and social links (Nafei 2015:11).

According to Nafei (ibid.), sacrifices describe the ease of destroying links. One example might be when an employee decides to resign and move to an alternative community. More importantly, such decisions influence the perceived financial or psychological implications experienced when an employee leaves an organisation or community (Candan 2016:71). For example, to leave an organisation may mean a personal financial loss in the form of fringe benefits and other losses such as emotional and spiritual support from colleagues and other exciting projects. When

employees' leave their job, the more they give up or lose, the more difficult it will be to decide to quit their job (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1102).

Furthermore, sacrifice means losing income or revenue, which is the apparent cost of "physical or psychological convenience" dispensed with when opting for alternative employment (Nafei 2015:11). Community sacrifices, in turn, becomes admissible should the employee decide to relocate to an alternative place (Felbs, Hekman, Mitchell, Lee, Harman & Holtom 2009:545). Scholars, however, claim that job attitude is not the deciding factor when employees' contemplate their future employment status (Nafei *ibid.*).

On-the-JE is a preferable predictor of an employee's JP than off-the-JE (Özçelik & Cenkci 2014:872). Furthermore, on-the-JE provides a good indication of an employee's retention than off-the-JE (Nafei 2015:9). JE implies that employees mostly remain in a specific organisation as a result of (a) the scope of interpersonal relations and interactions, (b) the nature and interrelatedness of congruency between their social or work environments and their life choices, and finally, (c) the manageability of diminished links and possible cost incurred should the employee leave their current context (Chinomona *et al.* 2013:1).

Based on the literature reviewed, the researcher could not find any recent research related to JE as a construct or the three dimensions relative to the SAPS and hence wishes to disclose this gap concerning research relative to the employees of the SAPS.

A high level of JE symbolises that employees experience an alignment between their career goals and values associated with a specific job or organisation (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1102). Consequently, they share linkages between themselves and others, which inflate the costs of leaving their current employment context (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1102). JE indicates why employees stay in an organisation influenced by numerous factors than solely on positive job attitude (Nafei 2015:9). In addition, Charlier, Guay and Zimmerman (2016:109) submit that JE explains why "employees fit into their job, organisation and community" as they separate their fits whilst relocating to an alternative job or place of employment.

Regarding the relationship between JE and JS studies using JE as an explanatory variable, JE consistently explains the variance in turnover above and beyond JS and other control variables (Wilson 2010:2). The study of JS emanated from Herzberg (1959) (Malik, Nawab, Naeem & Danish 2010:19). Herzberg argued that JS consists of various motivators, which affect JS and hygiene factors, possibly leading to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959:157). Ali (2016:100) denotes that the employees are an indispensable asset of any

organisation, department or corporate business because they deliver a service or determine the level of productivity of any organisation. Hence, their motivation levels are critical.

JS is a vital predictor of negative attitudes and behaviours in the work environment and its adverse results may lead to low levels of JS (Moura, Orgambidez-Ramos & Goncalves 2014:294). Due to evolving global competitiveness, employers have acknowledged the significance of the employee's JS to compete in this global labour marketplace. Therefore, as the employee's performance increases, it affects organisational performance and service delivery (Susanty & Miradipta 2013:13). According to Skelton (2017:22), JS remains a complex and evolving area of focus due to "international, national and cultural" variations and the numerous elements it relates to and affects.

A cumulative interest in JS has increased research on this variance in different academic disciplines (Pagan 2013:862). Various 21st-century managers of government departments face the challenge of retaining their employees due to their abundant opportunities (Dhanapal, Alwie, Subramaniam & Vashu 2013:48). According to Sharma, Goel, Singh, Sharma and Gupta (2014:409), the health, performance, development and elevation of professionals is imperative as it is affected by their satisfaction or dissatisfaction, which may affect them serving their employer or organisation.

The employees' JP and JS will suffer, when management fails to properly match them, leading the organisation to lose its competitive advantage (Robbins & Judge 2011:23). Therefore, managers should invest in increasing employee JS to enhance the efficacy and JP of employees, due to the increased importance of JS (Skelton 2017:22). Lack of JS among organisational employees can reduce production or lead to substandard performance (Munisamy 2013:1). Therefore, every organisation places a significant dependence on their individual JP to increase productivity in their organisations (Pushpakumari 2008:89). Employees of the SAPS are also prone to these pressures, and further research among the SAPS employees could provide vital information on perceptions of JS and JP within the SAPS.

Poor JP is very prevalent in all public service sectors, as is evident in the continual broadcast on television, print media and social media. In addition, such general unhappiness can lead to protests by the communities. Presently the failure to perform by numerous government departments is alarming. Performance is a crucial aspect of any organisation's success, regardless of whether it is in the private or public sector. According to Dizgah, Chegini and Bisokhan (2012:1735), the most vital challenge in a company or organisation is its JP. Whilst there has been increased

research conducted and several studies that examined JP most of these studies concentrated on “employee training, job redesigning and organisational support”, amongst others, as precursors of JP (Chinomona *et al.* 2013:2). JP is perhaps the most central construct in work psychology. Consequently, most organisations have prioritised appraising individual performance as part of their everyday management activities (Nafei 2015:200).

JP of employees has a critical role in determining an organisation’s overall performance (June & Mahmood 2011:95). High performers can assist their organisations and departments achieve their strategic objectives, thus keeping their competitive edge (Dessler 2011:446). The SAPS as an organisation has the policy to regulate JP to ensure proper management of any incident in this regard. The performance enhancement process (PEP) used by the SAPS as a performance instrument is not adequately implemented by managers when evaluating the JP of employees. Managers avoid convening performance meetings and use the tool as a punitive measure instead of using it as a guide for individual JP.

According to Viswesvaran and Ones (2000:224), when explaining the content domain as industrial and organisational psychologists, JP is a critical component. Pushpakumari (2008:89) further views the overall performance of an organisation as dependent upon employee productiveness. An organisation that intends to enhance its overall output needs to explore improving employee performance (Tabassum, Khan, Sherani & Khan 2016:2).

JP thus amounts to the desired outcome as sought by an employer (Nafei 2015:200). JE also entails a beneficial relationship for employees due to their improved performance (Kanten, Kanten, & Gurlek 2015:1358). The performance measurement tool utilised by the SAPS (PEP) does not adequately measure performance as intended by the relevant policy document. The SAPS as a public service organisation strives to keep a high standard of JP among all its employees. This study aims to assist the organisation in improving employees’ current performance at various academies, which will uphold professionalism in the organisation as part of delivering high-quality training programmes. Such improved performance could improve the public image of the SAPS as a public service organisation.

To summarise, this study will attempt to determine the influence of JE on JS and JP amongst government employees within the SAPS academies. The study will also investigate possible relationships between JE and JS, JE and JP and JS and JP.

1.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Previous human behaviour studies guide the study's theoretical frameworks (van Tonder 2016:10). The various theories underlying the research will be discussed. Researchers have identified several variables associated with JE, JS and JP. In addition, scholars have studied "the effects of fit, links and sacrifice dimensions" of JE on several organisational outcomes (Mitchell & Lee 2001:189). The JE variant embodies various elements that act as an interwoven network of attachments that counteract employees' turnover (Holtom *et al.* 2014:31).

Broadening the scope of JE, research now also includes diverse organisational outcomes and voluntary turnover (Ringl 2013:8). Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel and Hill (2004:711) argue that an embedded workforce significantly relates to higher organisational commitment behaviour and JP. Additionally, after controlling for JS and organisational commitment, off-the-JE (but not on-the-JE) significantly predicted absences and subsequent turnover. Vasquez (2014:17) notes that employee turnover can have devastating consequences, leading to "high unemployment, poor organisational performance and service delivery", thus slowing down economic growth.

Kurt Lewin's "force-field theory" (Lewin 1951) and the "embedded figures test" (Witkin, Dyk, Faterson, Goodenough & Karp 1976:675) are seminal scholarships on JE. Lewin (1951) argues that human beings view themselves as entangled in a web of forces and acquaintances. Lewin's (*ibid.*) vision of field theory is that "people have a perceptual life span in which their lives are represented and connected". For example, employees may find fundamental meaning in their employment lives when they bond with others within their work context, aspects of their job profile, and the organisation's culture (Chinomona *et al.* 2013:2).

Based upon Lewin's (1951) field theory, it is argued that employees in the SAPS academies are likely to work towards elevated levels of JS and JP. The motivational level will come about if they identify themselves as appropriate and befitting well in their jobs as well as the employing organisation (on-the-JE) and communities they live in (off-the-JE) (Gregory & Albritton 2010:639).

The following are the factors influencing JE as identified from previous research;

- JE predict "the intent to leave and voluntary turnover" once the effects of "gender, satisfaction, commitment, job search and perceived alternatives" have been controlled (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1102; Holtom & O'Neil 2004:216). Thus, JE became the preferred prewise of turnover instead of satisfaction or other variables.

- Employees' JS with "training and development opportunities significantly and positively predicted their whole sense of JE" (Van Dyk *et al.* 2013:68). Van Dyk *et al.* (ibid.) also considered the value alignment between employees and their organisation. In addition, the employees will also consider the association with their withdrawal from their employment context. Therefore, satisfaction with retention factors positively predicted JE.
- João (2010:45) determined that various factors such as career progression and growth, developmental opportunities and stimulating work were critical in retaining professionally qualified employees.
- Should employees experience a lack of growth, developmental opportunities, and upward mobility, they might decide to leave their workplace (Allen, Shoe & Griffeth 2003:99).
- Döckel (2003:89) indicates that progressive job characteristics such as "independence, freedom, diversity, application and use of multifaceted high-level skills on the job" significantly affect the employees' perceived JE and sense of organisational fit and sacrifice.
- Van Dyk *et al.* (2013:71) found that employee satisfaction corresponds with organisational retention factors. These factors include 'training and development, career development, positive characteristics and management support', which positively affect employees' sense of JE.
- Lastly, no significant correlation exists between on-the-JE and employee performance, according to Candan (2016:72). In addition, Candan (ibids.) determined the existence of a "positive correlation between off-the-JE and performance".

The study of the role of JE is unambiguous in non-profit organisations. Non-profit organisations are seriously dependent on self-motivated staff members. These organisations' existence depends on employee inputs as they pursue organisational objectives. Pillay, Dennis and Harris (2014:132) admit that employee inputs often outweigh the organisations' financial means to reciprocate employee commitment. In this context, JE exists to achieve a greater goal.

Lacy and Sheehan's (1997:305) JS research efforts have expanded the scope and depth of what constitutes JS. In addition, Ahmad, Osman and Amri (2002:60) indicate that studies conducted reveal that JS is "the attitude that employees perceive about their jobs". These perceptions are linked to "pay, the job itself, promotion opportunities, support from supervisors, training and development, and relationship with co-workers and can impact employee job satisfaction or dissatisfaction if the employees consider these factors favourably or otherwise". A primary cause

of JS is the “perception of the job itself” (Judge & Bono 2001:80). Judge, Heller and Mount (2002:533) claim personality qualities, such as boldness and diligence, can also affect JS.

JS depicts the degree and amount to which employees are pleased with their job (Ali 2016:100). JS, therefore, constitutes a satisfying emotional state originating from the employee’s assessment of their career and individualised attitude towards that job (Chimanikire, Mutandwa, Gadzirayi, Muzondo & Mutandwa 2007:167). Luthans (1989:176) distinguished three dimensions and foundations of JS. First, JS is an emotional response to a job condition. Secondly, JS is established primarily by what degree outcomes meet or exceed employees’ expectations, and thirdly, JS epitomises numerous related attitudes. According to Luthans (1989:187), attitude is a “persistent tendency to feel and behave in a particular way toward some object”.

The majority of the SAPS personnel attached to academies do not apply for promotions at other divisions within the police, as they want to be promoted at the academies to which they are attached. Due to the employment equity policy to which the SAPS must adhere, members from other divisions, provinces or academies are appointed, which causes displeasure to members who consider themselves worthy of being promoted, due to their long meritorious service and experience. Officials promoted to other provinces but who do not accept the promotion are mostly affected because they are too attached to their families, communities, and surroundings. Unfortunately, the Employment Equity Act (RSA 55/1998) with its component of “fair discrimination”, has become a political play ball with the result that one is appointed to a post because of bureaucratic policies and not via merit of the particular candidate. We are all familiar with state enterprises such as ESKOM and SA Airways. Such a policy of “equal employment opportunities” is a typical example of bureaucratic dysfunction where the initial good intentions have resulted in a service delivery fiasco (Rapport 22 December 2019).

Personal, interpersonal and organisational factors are associated with JS (Jayasuriya, Whittaker, Halim & Matineau 2012:2). Traditionally, JS was considered an invaluable predictor of labour market behaviours of workers that relate to their intention of leaving the organisation or being absent (Kristensen & Westergard-Nielson 2004:360; Obasan 2011:28). Parvin and Kabir (2011:113) assert that JS is a vital attribute in the organisation’s perspective; the happier and more committed employees are, the more prospects of the organisation succeeding and thriving. Satisfied workers tend to extend more effort into their jobs than dissatisfied employees (Saari & Judge 2004:395). Thus, organisations benefit from creating a satisfied workforce.

Hertzberg, Mauser and Snyderman's (1959) "two-factor theory of work motivation" forms the foundation for this study. This theory postulates how various factors affect employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Yusof 2016:64). Within the SAPS, promotion is one of the critical factors influencing JS. Those fairly promoted experience high levels of JS, whilst those not fairly promoted generally experience low levels of JS. When persons who decide on promotion only attempt to satisfy "the masters who appointed them in the first place" merit goes out the door as does making the best decision in the organisation's interest (Sengé 1990:182).

On the other hand, research conducted on JS (Munisamy 2013:17) concluded that "employees who are satisfied with their jobs are usually good performers". Conversely, Galinsky, Bond, Kim, Brownfield and Sakai (2005:2) indicate that employees are inclined to make mistakes when overworked. Furthermore, they are also prone to express a feeling of total discontentment with their employer and management, requiring them to perform beyond their level of proficiency. As a contextual example, members of the SAPS working at academies are mainly required to work overtime without payment or remuneration, even though there is an agreement on overtime. This requirement includes working on Sundays to receive learners, presenting classes without rest, conducting shooting exercises at night, marking scripts, conducting remedial classes after hours, etc.

JP is "the quality and quantity expected in a particular job from an employee to perform their job well, which is most of the time determined, by motivation and the will and ability of the individual employee to do the job" (Munisamy 2013:12). Employees are invaluable resources of every department or organisation; their perceived feeling towards their work and subsequent results from the particular organisation directly influence the organisation's bottom-line and long term survival (Munisamy 2013:12).

JP constitutes a crucial consideration within the social science domain (Kahya 2009:94). Organisational behaviour literature regards JP as a two-dimensional construct; comprising "task performance and "contextual performance (Van Scotter, Motowidlo & Cross 2000:526; Werner 2000:3).

Within this study, JP invokes comprehensive behavioural outcomes related to the employees' jobs. These behavioural outcomes could include the employees' performance and productivity, their level of service delivery and contribution to reaching organisational goals through their efforts (Chinomona *et al.* 2013:5). Hard workers and committed employees have higher JP and job involvement (Brett & Stroh 2003:67). However, work and family commitments could become

conflicting internal forces and create an emotional disconnect due to psychological and physiological fatigue (Munisamy 2013:25).

Munisamy (2013:25) suggests that fatigue can result in poor mental health concerns and other stress-related ailments. In addition, the adverse effects of workload challenges increase stress levels, a sense of irritability, and an inability to remain focused or maintain job performance levels (Kaufman, Christensen & Newton 2015:2). The majority of the SAPS personnel at various academies have been within the Division: Human Resource Development (HRD) for a prolonged time. Despite this, employee turnover is low. These difficulties bring aspects involved in JP to the forefront, and there is a need to investigate the motives for them staying within the division. Hence, the perceived influence of JE, JS and JP becomes important, as it appears as if these three constructs are interlinked with one another.

Working under such stressful circumstances necessitates that one considers some exceptional performances that make such a difference to the organisation that they even receive attention from senior management. One may ask, “what prompted that employee to go above and beyond to produce such exceptional performance”? Excellent performance constructively influences the organisation and a conducive work environment (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1102). Therefore, it is imperative and crucial that organisations understand the relationship between enabling an innovative work environment and exceptional performance.

This research is significant to understand what top management in the SAPS can do to cause its employees to attach themselves to the various academies, stay and remain gratified with their working conditions, and consistently produce exceptional and excellent performance. To this end, it is vital to ascertain what types of motivating incentives, benefits and practices other educational service providers use and their effectiveness in retaining productive employees outside of the SAPS.

This research is also concerned with determining the perceptions of the attitudes of police officials working in the SAPS academies, given the interrelatedness of JS, JP and JE. For this research, the perception of attitudes that influence JE, JS and JP relate to an interrelation of opinion, emotions and rationality (Lee 2010:652). As attitudes consist of evaluative, cognitive, and behavioural components, they are complex to measure. In addition, individual personalities, the methods of learning, the use of languages, expressing feelings, how to create relationships and the various identities embarked upon through participation in diverse cultural communities can further affect this multidimensional system.

Having sketched the background of the three constructs involved in the title of this research it seems pertinent to encapsulate the problem that this research will investigate.

1.4 CONTEXTUALISING THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

With an inability to hold onto talented and committed employees, the SAPS will incur direct and indirect expenses affecting their utilisation of resources, recruitment, selection, placement, training and development of employees (Alper & Wolfson 2006:22). Managers in the SAPS are possibly still captured in the old “Police Force” scenario. They have not undergone any formal development opportunities that explore the characteristics of JE and teach them various ways through which they can enhance employee retention except via threats of disciplinary procedures. Based on their limited responsiveness in understanding their role in retaining members, managers in the SAPS will have difficulty devising progressive and developmental interventions intended to minimise adverse consequences to committed and talented employees. Furthermore, applying legislation without subjecting it to an internal enquiry mechanism results in doing what the “boss” wants you to do, thereby reinforcing the existing bureaucratic dysfunctionality of the sector.

The primary source of gaining a competitive advantage is its ability to retain an adequate number of high-quality employees. The repertoire of employee skills is a crucial aspect of an organisation’s human capital (Grogan & Youngs 2011:1). Labour turnover has cost implications for the organisation (Holmes, Baghurst & Chapman 2013:802). Attrition of talented employees results in the loss of invaluable human capital. This loss negatively affects organisational outcomes (Skelton 2017:2). Although several studies have explored “why people leave”, limited research exists that addresses “why people stay” (Zhao & Liu 2010:63). Questioning why people remain in the employment of the South African public sector, and even more so, the SAPS, despite challenging working circumstances, needs further exploration.

Holtom, Mitchell and Lee (2006:316) state that JE is an essential predictor of organisational outcomes such as employee retention and performance compared with some of the best well-established and developed psychological explanations such as organisational commitment and JS. JE subsists when employees’ desires, admirations, and well-being, encompassing links, fit, and sacrifices, are satisfied (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:189). The research of Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton and Holtom (2004:711) examines how the main components of JE (on-the-job and off-the-JE) predicted the decision to perform (in terms of organisational citizen behaviour (OCB) and JP).

JE can improve by developing innovative organisational initiatives like coaching and mentorship programmes, clear career pathing or enhancing team cohesion for all employees (Mitchell,

Holtom, Lee, Sablinski & Erez 2001:1102). Nafei (2015:197) argued that JE affects work-related behaviours such as “turnover, performance, absenteeism and organisational citizenship” since the emergence of the theory of JE, the predictive validity of JE on voluntary turnover has dominated research (Ringl 2013:8).

The researcher believes that additional theoretical variations are needed to lay a foundation for expanding construct space related to JE (Kiazad, Holtom, Hom & Newman 2015:641). For this reason the conceptualisations and measurement of fit perceptions will explore the predictions of people’s attitudes and behaviours (Cable & DeRue 2002:875). The assumption made here is that as attitudes are composed of cognitive, affective and behavioural components, a profound understanding of the attitudes of the SAPS officials could assist with the emotional and behavioural aspects of attitudes they harbour towards service to the community.

A study by Cook (2008:2) with many potential causal models describes this connection or link by highlighting that the “satisfaction-performance relationship is false”, suggesting that the correlation result from shared causes of both constructs. The previous research suggests various dimensions and features of the theory of JE have remained unexplored, which warrants further empirical investigation. According to Chinomona *et al.* (2013:2), there are preliminary studies about JE on the African continent, especially in Southern Africa. This gap also exists since the influence of JE, JS, and JP is still unknown in the SAPS context.

Feeling overworked is a psychological state that is likely to affect other variables such as attitudes, behaviour, social relations and health both on and off the job (Galinsky *et al.* 2005:2). Feeling overworked is associated with numerous aspects of employees’ jobs and workplaces (Galinsky *et al.* 2005:2). A substantive amount of personal and professional time is influenced by employees’ job or work satisfaction compared to any other activity. One would assume that employees are satisfied when the organisation has met their expectations, desires or requirements. In the context of the SAPS, JS is a crucial construct that needs serious attention by top management because this matter is related to various other significant issues of the organisation. It is a critical management and leadership issue when organisations are experiencing multiple types of employee-related complications and difficulties, affecting overall service delivery (Ali 2016:100).

Human resources constitute energy sources that enable organisational production and performance (Ali: 2016:100). Cognisance needs to be taken of the various challenges organisations experience, which is especially true within the context of the SAPS. Therefore, this study will examine the

influence of JE on JS and JP, and their interdependence, among government employees within the SAPS academies.

The rationale and motivation that further justifies the need for this research are that the SAPS is operating in a competitive environment that competes for employees with scarce skills with organisations such as private security companies, non-governmental organisations, and other public institutions operating within the security cluster.

1.5 PROBLEM STATEMENT

After attempting to contextualise the three constructs of JE, JS and JP within the SAPS this researcher will now state the research problems namely:

- According to the literature what are the various components that form the structure underlying the constructs of JE, JS and JP?
- As determined via a structured questionnaire, what are the perceptions of officials serving in the various police academies regarding JE, JS and JP?
- Is there a correlation between JE, JS and JP as measured by the data collected via the questionnaire?
- According to the data analysis, what is the relationship between JE, JS and JP, within the SAPS academies?

This study seeks to impart a holistic assessment of JE, JS and JP within the demarcated organisation. The researcher hopes that the results or outcomes of this study will be instrumental in addressing the retention of all the Police Act (RSA 68/1995) appointed members within the Division: HRD. Understanding the influence of JE on JS and JP will assist Division: HRD in reviewing policies and standards operating procedures aimed at employee retention. The effect of JE on JS and JP within the Division: HRD will be further explored in this study. Is this relationship possibly reciprocal, and are the influences direct or indirect, or does one of the constructs act as a mediator or moderator?

1.6 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Two conceptual models are presented in Figures 1.2 and 1.3 below. The first, Figure 1.2 was based on the assumption that JE is the predictor variable, with JS acting as mediator and JP the outcome variable. Thus, the assumption is that JE directly influences JP and indirectly influences JS, which indirectly affects JP. The second Figure 1.3 is based on the assumption that JS moderates the magnitude of the effect of JE on JP, as shown in Figure 1.3 below.

Figure 1.2 below illustrates the first assumption:

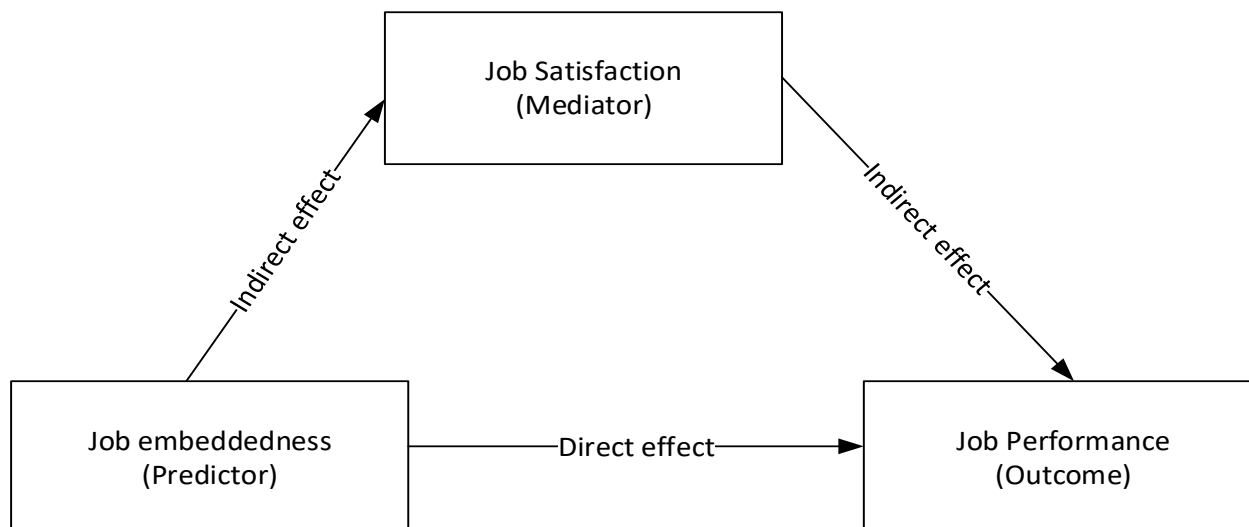


Figure 1.2: The postulated model of JE, JS and JP

Figure 1.3 below illustrates the second assumption:

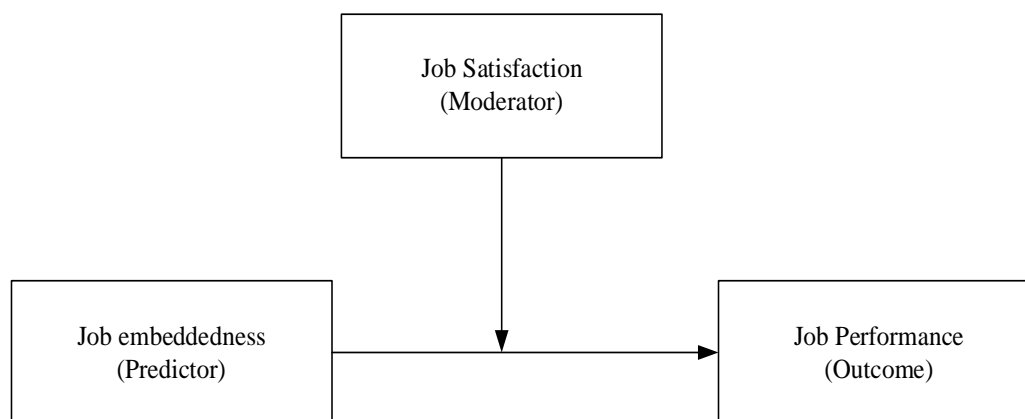


Figure 1.3: The postulated moderating effect of JS on the constructs of JE and JP

It needs to be emphasised that the above causal arrangements were just a preliminary hypotheses as there were other causal arrangements that could be just as or more likely.

The researcher utilised Hayes's (2018) process model to test for mediation or moderation and then confirmed causal direction using AMOS 26. Having provided the postulated model, this researcher will now attempt to embed the three constructs given in the title of this research into a conceptual framework, which can be utilised as a lens through which one can view the constructs. First, drawing a measurement model using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CPA) to ascertain the relations between the observed variables (items measuring the latent constructs). Secondly, the direct and indirect influences of the three constructs on one another will be investigated using

SEM (Byrne 2001:12). However, SEM will only be used to determine the structural part of the model as this shows the casual direction of the latent constructs.

Field theory offers a holistic perspective on the person's social, organisational and cultural environment (Parlett 1991:70). Applying field theory to the SAPS context would enable assessing employees' work, community, organisation and broader environment embeddedness. In this research, this correlates with the construct of JE.

Field theory implies a discernible grounding in social and other scientific disciplines (Mey 1972:79). Field theory emanated from the physical sciences and evolved with time. Newtonian gravitation and Einstein's general relativity theories highlighted that important characteristics could be identified in similar systems (Hesse 1970:226). The hallmark of field theory, in Lewin's words, is "looking at the total situation" rather than "fragmented", "item by item", or "variable by variable" analysis (Lewin 1952:288).

Human behaviour is not dependent on the presence or absence of facts. Rather it depends upon the compilation (the structure of forces) of the specific field as a unit, and the degree and level of the particular fact "rest upon its position in the field" (Lewin 1952:150). Different factors affect human behaviour. These factors include genetic design, dynamic approach; psychological approach, internal and external factors, analytical ability, expression, links, understanding, and lastly, behaviour as a function of the entire field, including all the elements varying in time, as explained in "topological spaces" separated into some regions (Lewin 1951).

Here one thinks of the "butterfly effect" (Morgan 1997:271), where a slight change in one place in the system leads to unknown future states. Therefore, if the chairperson in the appointments commission makes a statement like "Not White, female yes but just not White", this automatically disqualifies a well-qualified, experienced person based on skin colour, which has nothing to do with meritorious performance. Such a small effect can have paradoxical far-reaching consequences such as resistance from the well-qualified and experienced candidate and all other employees. They may find themselves in a similar position (Rapport, December 22, 2019:2). This incident can have far-reaching and abysmal consequences for the organisation in the long run.

Schneider (2001:141) states, "researchers and practitioners are interested in fit and environment, among all matters in psychology". The basis and foundation for the study is the current understanding of the person-organisation fit variant was the previous co-operation and link between humans and their diverse environments (Mercurio 2016:9). The central theoretical hypothesis of interactional psychology presupposes that person-environment-fit eventually

produces behaviour, primarily postulated by Lewin as early as 1938. The alignment between humans and their environment gave rise to the contextualisation of the person-organisation fit as an instrument of employee JS, retention and commitment and subsequent study (Mercurio 2016:9). Individuals are attracted to favourable situations aligned to their interests instead of conditions arbitrarily assigned to them (Schneider 1987:437). An employee's career life span implies an organisational attachment, linkage and embeddedness dependent upon the beneficial nature (Mercurio 2016:11). The evolution of fit as a research construct unfolded contemporary, distinctive conceptualisations of fit (Kristof 1996:49).

The perceived fit explored in past studies, namely values alignment and ability to absorb work pressures, is conceptually distinct from the fit between an employee's needs and the rewards from a job (Cable & DeRue 2002:876). According to the "person-environment fit theory", attitudes and behaviours stem from the alignment between the characteristics and features of the employee and the environment (Cable & DeRue 2004:822).

Human behaviour and attitudes are admittedly impacted by organisational and employee characteristics, which indicates the person-organisation fit while assessing person-situation interfaces (Icheme, Ojochide, Ezenwakwelu, Charity & Owuzwe 2017:7363). The manifestation of such factors could influence employee JS or give rise to feelings of dissatisfaction (Yusof 2016:64).

Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1102) introduced the JE theory as an alternative to more traditional theories. In founding the theory of JE, they recognised that there are two dimensions, namely on-the-job and off-the-job link-, fit and sacrifice factors linked with employee retention (Skelton 2017:6). These workplace factors influence employee JS and dissatisfaction whilst performing their functions (Herzberg *et al.* 1959; Skelton 2017:5). According to Herzberg *et al.* (1959), JS predict "employee turnover intentions". Similarly, according to Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1102), JE should predict employee turnover intentions. From this, it appears that JS and JE are somehow related.

Occupational stress can cause physical and psychological conditions that affect JP and satisfaction and hold financial cost implications for the affected (Kammeyer-Muller & Judge 2009:177). Core self-evaluation, as described by Judge, Locke and Durham (1997:151), intends to provide a feature that would be a valuable predictor of JS, similarly used as an applied criterion. Judge, Erez, Bono and Thoresen (2003:303) also postulate that core self-evaluation as a personality trait is a significant predictor of JS and JP.

Employees with positive core self-evaluations tend to continually and consistently view themselves positively in all circumstances (Judge, Van Vianen & De Pater 2004:326). These individuals also perceive themselves as indispensable and invaluable. Individuals measuring higher in main self-evaluations are more motivated to perform their work with efficacy and are more satisfied with their work and lives (Judge & Bono 2001:80). Judge *et al.* (2003:304) regard these constructs as noteworthy in the psychology of core evaluations of qualities of the self, namely self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, neuroticism and locus of control.

In this study, the concept of core evaluations stems from various scientific disciplines, as presented by Judge *et al.* (1997:151). JS, organisational commitment, discretionary effort, intent to stay and job engagement are all theoretical models utilised by HRD scholars to describe and predict retention. They constitute “antecedents of JE theory” (Young 2012:26).

According to Skibba (2002:70), numerous researchers examined the impact of JS on employee JP. Their previous study concluded that JS affect employee JP, and there is an impact of employee JP on JS (Skibba 2002:70). This conclusion suggests a non-recursive relationship between JS and JP (JS depends on JP and vice-versa) (Arbuckle 2007:133). Furthermore, Skibba (*ibid.*) states that the relationship between JP and JS is a development of social exchange theory. The JP is regarded as a return by the employee to the organisation from which they enjoyed JS (Shaju & Subhashini 2017:121). According to Munisamy (2013:2), a dissatisfied employee is prone to exhibit poor performance at work, which can have an impact that indirectly affects the organisation’s performance. It is deduced that JS acts as a mediator or moderator on JP and not as a predictor.

In research by Woodruffe (2006:28) and Lockwood (2006:214), engaged and satisfied employees tend to be the best performers as they continually display organisational commitment, which alludes to a link between JS and organisational commitment.

Person-organisation fit is central to organisational behaviour and personnel management. Person-organisation fit affects employees’ “turnover intention, working attitude, organisational citizen behaviour, ethical behaviour, pressures” (Liu, Liu & Hu 2010:615) and JP. Psychosocial factors of concern at all managerial levels can potentially influence employee JP (Shaju & Subhashini 2017:117) and are therefore of interest in diverse scientific disciplines (Liu, Liu & Hu 2010:615).

Drawing from Lewin’s (1951) field theory, this research will investigate the influence of JE (as predictor variable) on the perceptions of employees within the SAPS academies regarding JS (mediator or moderator) and JP (as outcome variable) (Gregory & Albritton 2010:639). This

research assumes that JE will directly influence JP or indirectly via JS or interact with JS but is open to other possibilities of causal flow where JE also comes into the equation.

Placing the constructs in a suitable theoretical framework is followed by the research hypotheses.

1.7 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Researchers concluded that person-organisation fit and person-job fit (sub-dimensions of JE – see Figure 1.1) should co-relate to evaluate JS (Farooqui & Nagendra 2014:126). According to Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969:186), JS is strongly prone to employees' evaluation of their job and the task they perform, which are the crucial components of JE. Hence, the community and organisational embeddedness constructs form part of the JE construct.

Various studies illustrate a positive relationship between JE and JP (Karatepe & Karadas 2012:614; Halbesleben & Wheelerb 2008:242; Karatepe & Ngeche 2012:440). According to previous research findings, there was no significant correlation between JE and performance (Candan 2016:72). However, Greene (2012:110) has indicated that the effects of JE could be disadvantageous to employee performance, which is in contrast with previous research. Utilising the models postulated in Figures 1.2 and 1.3 above, the researcher tested the following hypotheses in this study:

Hypothesis 1: JE directly influences the JS of government employees in SAPS academies.

Hypothesis 2: JE indirectly influences on JP via JS as a mediating variable in the context of employees in SAPS academies.

Hypothesis 3: JE interacts with JS in its influence on the JP of government employees in SAPS academies.

To test these hypotheses, the researcher used Hayes's (2018) process model to determine whether JS acted as a mediating or moderating variable between JE as a predictor and JP as an outcome variable in the case of the respondents. However, it was likely that JE would moderate the influence of JS on JP or the influence of JP on JS. The research would only be able to confirm the causal pathway after analysing the data using the process model of Hayes (2018). Furthermore, as the research context was new, the construct validity and reliability of the three latent constructs needed to be confirmed.

1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Objectives are divided into two main categories, namely primary and secondary objectives. The secondary objectives constitute both theoretical and empirical objectives.

1.8.1 Primary objective

The research question of the study is: “What is the influence of JE on JS and JP among employees within SAPS academies?” Emanating from this overall guiding research question the primary purpose of this study is to investigate the influence of JE on JS and JP among employees within the SAPS academies.

1.8.2 Theoretical objectives

To achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives are formulated for the study:

- To conduct a literature review on JE, JS and JP in the workplace;
- To execute a literature review on the relationship between JE and JS and JP in the workplace;
- To utilise existing literature to design an appropriately structured questionnaire to measure employees’ perceptions within the SAPS academies.

1.8.3 Empirical objectives

The following empirical objectives are formulated for the study:

- To determine the underlying structures of JE, JS and JP of employees within the SAPS academies using data obtained from the structured questionnaire;
- To determine the construct validity and reliability of JE, JS and JP by utilising the data collected;
- To determine the association between JE, JS and JP by using appropriate statistical techniques such as mediation, moderation, conditional process analysis, and multiple regression to determine the direct and indirect effects of the three constructs on one another.

1.9 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A research design is an organised framework for conducting a research study and solving the stated research problem (Babbie & Mouton 2012:647). In addition, it determines the research

methodology, which is the strategy for answering the research questions and testing the hypotheses through gathering and analysing data. The study's research design and methodology will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

1.9.1 Literature review

To achieve the second research objective and thus contribute to achieving the aim of the study, an in-depth and comprehensive literature review of both national and international literature sources was conducted. These sources included scholarly articles, books, internet sources, media publications and published legislation.

The literature review aimed to provide insight into how the stated constructs of JE, JS and JP influence each other. Therefore, the researcher explored vital concepts, findings, theories, models and approaches that underlie research in the study area. Comparing other researchers' perspectives and arguments in similar studies provided a theoretical foundation and framework for the empirical study. In addition, according to Babbie and Mouton (2012:565), a researcher must examine relevant literature to validate and strengthen the research procedure, guide the data collection and enhance the value and legitimacy of the study outcomes. The study will utilise an elaborate range of sources.

1.9.2 The empirical design process

According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2011:66), quantitative research involves measuring quantities and collecting numeric data thoroughly and scientifically. Following a quantitative research design, an empirical (first-hand) investigation was conducted based on the theoretical framework to answer the research questions and achieve most of the research objectives (Welman & Kruger 2002:178). The empirical study will include the below discussions.

1.9.3 Target population

Vogt (2007:59) describes the concept of a "target population" as a congregation of people that constitutes a large group of potential participants from which the researcher then draws a sample (Bryman & Bell 2011:176). The target population in the study was all government employees within the SAPS academies who were appointed in terms of the Police Act (RSA 68/1995) and excluding those who were employees appointed according to the designated Public Service Act (RSA 103/1994) as amended. All police officials attached to 23 SAPS national academies within Division: HRD (SAPS persap/persal system function 5.5.5.5) were requested to participate in this

research. However, only a sample of this target population of 956 Police Act (RSA 68/1995) appointed employees (N = 956) would be selected for the actual study.

1.9.4 Sample frame

A sampling frame constitutes an accurate list of units from which the sample will be drawn (Babbie & Mouton 2012:174; 647). It ensures that the selected sample, which is a sub-set of the target population, will represent the target population (Welman & Kruger 2002:57; Bohrnstedt & Knoke 1994:16). In the study the sample frame was the database of all HR offices (SAPS persap function 5.5.5.5) of the 23 academies within the Division: HRD.

1.9.5 Sample technique

Probability sampling guided the sampling decisions of the study. This technique involves random selection, which provides all members of the target population an equal opportunity for inclusion in the sample (Bernard 2013:130; Wretman 2009:30; Bryman & Bell 2011:176). Probability sampling follows “non-systematic and random rules” to ensure a sample representative of the population (Salkind 2012:96).

The current research project used simple random sampling to establish an evenly representative sub-set of the target population. Care was taken to ensure that the sample was evenly representative regarding the demographic characteristics of the target population. The units of which had the same chance of inclusion in the selection (Berg & Lune 2012:51).

1.9.6 Sample size

The study’s selected sample size was informed by the scholarship of various authors. Özçelik and Cenkci (2014:875), as well as Boon and Biron (2016:2185), suggest a sample size of between 224 (n = 224) and 160 (n = 160). Clinton, Knight and Guest (2012:13) advocate a sample size of 1673 (N = 1673). In a study, Judge, Locke and Kluger (1998:22) used a sample of 1 300 physicians (650 general practitioners and 650 psychiatrists). Leedy and Ormrod (2010:214) recommend that if a population constitutes about 1 500 members, at least 20 % should make up the sample. The current study aimed to sample 300 to 400 participants based on the aforementioned.

1.9.7 Data collection

Quantitative research entails “a systematic and objective process of utilising numerical data from only a selected unit of a population to generalise the findings to the universe that is being studied”

(Maree 2013:145). Quantitative research limits personal biases that inhibit exploring “cause-and-effect” relationships. Quantitative data collection instruments included the structured “questionnaire, standardised measuring instruments, rating scales and observation schedules” (Punch 2006:52).

The data collection instrument in the study was a structured questionnaire, which was distributed to the 23 SAPS academies within Division: HRD. The data was expected to be reliable as the responses were limited to the options indicated. Fixed and pre-coded responses reduce variability in the results, and computer technology to analyse the data sets is available (Denscombe 2010:171). The data collection method used in the study saved time and cost and enabled access to a large volume of information (Harris & Brown 2010:10).

1.9.8 Data collection instrument

A hand-delivered structured questionnaire was used to collect data. This approach enabled the timely handout of questionnaires by the researcher and senior officers at various academies. In addition, respondents could then provide their answers at their convenience.

The questionnaire consisted of four sections.

Section A sought respondents’ demographic details. This included gender, age, race, marital status, first language, educational level and years employed at the academies. It consisted of dichotomous and multiple-choice items. An item dealing with the Employment Equity Act (RSA 55/1998) was added to this section.

Section B comprised questions on JE. The JE questionnaire (Clinton, Knight & Guest 2012:112) was used for this study. A five-point Likert-scale measured JE. The questions were anchored with “1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree”. The twelve-item scale questionnaire included statements such as *“The organisation provides me with a way of life that suits me”*.

Section C comprised questions on JS. The brief JS measure II (Judge, Locke, Durham & Kluger 1998:17) was used. The answers to the questions on JS were measured according to a five-point Likert-scale whereby respondents had to choose from options ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The seven-item questionnaire included statements such as *“I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in my job”*.

Section D comprised questions on JP. The JP measure (Koopman, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, de Vet & van der Beek 2014:331) was used. The answers to the questions on JP were measured according

to a five-point Likert-type scale whereby respondents had to choose from options ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The fourteen-item questionnaire included statements such as “*I willingly take on extra responsibilities*”.

The researcher requested relevant permission to administer and use the questionnaires to comply with the ethical requirements of the study. The questionnaire was piloted with 25 individuals, who did not form part of the final investigation, to ascertain its reliability and validity.

1.9.9 Statistical analysis

The accumulated responses were populated in a computer programme as numbers, referred to as raw data. A unique identifier was assigned to each variable, and the data were entered on the computer using the following programmes; Excel (spreadsheet), Microsoft Access (database management) and the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26.0 for Windows. The data were then statistically analysed to produce descriptive statistics, which summarised the data set representing the sample (Maree 2013:183).

The relationships were initially statistically analysed by calculating correlations between the variables. Regression analysis examined the casual and predictive relationships amongst the variables. Patterns and reliabilities amongst the variations in the value of several variables were calculated using “exploratory factor analysis” (EFA) (Babbie & Mouton 2012:472). The direct and indirect causal effects were calculated using moderation conditional process analysis, mediation and structural equation modelling (SEM) (Hayes 2018; Byrne 2001:7).

1.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

1.10.1 Reliability

According to Salkind (2012:119), reliability is a concept and conversely, a pragmatic tool for determining whether a measuring instrument can be consistently used. In addition, reliability implies the probability that a measuring instrument will provide similar outcomes across multiple occurrences of its utilisation (Denscombe 2007:296). Reliable instruments produce the same measures at different times and under other conditions. The Cronbach’s Alpha technique, which is the normal of all possible “split-half coefficients”, was utilised (De Vos *et al.* 2011:177). The SPSS reliability procedure assisted in identifying and eliminating likely items that did not contribute to the internal consistency of a particular scale or sub-scale (Bohrnstedt & Knoke 1994:443). The purpose was to make sure that the study was credible, faultless and consistent,

which would mean the results would be acceptable. Furthermore, the composite reliability of each of the constructs was ascertained via the following formula:

$$CR = \frac{(\sum \lambda)^2}{(\sum \lambda)^2 + \sum \varepsilon}$$

Where λ is the factor loading of the items in the particular factor and ε

is the measurement error.

1.10.2 Validity

Validity is the dependability and utility of a measuring instrument (Leedy 1989:26). The study identified and explored construct content, convergent and discriminant validity (Field 2018:15). Construct and content validity was determined through the survey questionnaire pilot testing 25 individuals who were not part of the final investigation. Convergent and discriminant validity were established using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and exploratory factor analysis (EFA), which verified the level and degree to which the perceived variables (questionnaire items) were produced by their underlying constructs. Hence, the regression paths from the factors to the perceived variables (factor loadings) were critical (Byrne 2001:6). Mediation and moderation analysis (Hayes 2018) determined the regression structure and the direct/indirect casual effects of the three latent constructs.

1.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations are guiding parameters for planning and conducting research responsibly (Oates, Kwiatkowski & Coulthard 2010:04). Ethical researcher behaviour requires knowledge, meticulousness, honesty and integrity. To observe the ethical requirements, the researcher conducted the study professionally in the following ways:

- Participation in the survey was voluntary, which meant that respondents were not coerced or unduly influenced to participate in the study.
- Permission was requested and obtained to conduct the study from the SAPS Divisional Commissioner: HRD.
- Confidentiality was ensured at all times.
- The personal data of the respondents were treated fairly and lawfully and with great circumspection and were utilised only for the study.
- Personal responses from all respondents were not ascribed to any individual.
- All data were captured and computed in aggregate and not attributed to any respondent.

- The questionnaire did not contain or require respondents' names, and the anonymity of respondents was maintained throughout the study.
- Professional demeanour, capability and competence in the data collection and analysis were ensured throughout the study.
- The values and principles of independence and objectivity were upheld in the interpretation of the survey findings.

1.12 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

This study contains the following chapters;

Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study

This chapter has provided the introduction and background to the study conducted in the context of the SAPS on JE, JS and JP. It also explained the problem statement, objectives and hypotheses: the research design and methodology: and the ethical considerations. In addition, it will present an outline of the chapters of this thesis.

Chapter 2: The study area

This chapter presents the SAPS as the appropriate study area and the reasons for the SAPS being one of the essential departments in the South African public sector.

Chapter 3: JE, JS and JP

A review of the literature on JE, JS and JP is conducted in this chapter to provide theoretical perspective and indicate the study's relevance.

Chapter 4: Research design and methodology

This chapter explains the research design and methodology of the study. It gives details of the sampling data collection and data analysis methods used. The reliability and validity of the measuring instruments and ethical considerations were explained.

Chapter 5: Data analysis and interpretation

The results of the data analysis are presented and interpreted in this chapter. In addition, they are compared with the outcomes of previous studies particularly those that substantiate the current study's findings.

Chapter 6: Conclusions, recommendations and limitations

This chapter concludes the study and provides recommendations based on the results, based on the main objectives and findings of the study. The limitations of the research and their implications for further research are indicated.

1.13 SUMMARY

This chapter served as a road map for the study, which was conducted in the context of the SAPS. In particular, this chapter introduced the constructs of JE, JS and JP and the conceptual framework indicating possible relationships between these constructs (variables). It also explained the problem statement, objectives and hypotheses: the research design and methodology: the ethical considerations: and the chapters of this thesis.

Given the theoretical objectives introduced in this chapter, the next chapter presents the first step in the literature review by defining and discussing the constructs of JE, JS and JP as constructs in depth.

CHAPTER 2

THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE: A BRIEF LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 introduced and provided a background to the study, which was conducted in the context of the SAPS. It also explained the problem statement; objectives and hypotheses; the research design and methodology; the ethical considerations; and the chapters of this thesis. In particular, the chapter introduced the constructs of JE, JS and JP and conceptual framework indicating possible relationships between these constructs.

The current chapter discusses the SAPS literature review as the study area and explains its unique features which differentiate it from other government departments within the public sector in SA.

This chapter provides an in-depth explanation of the different phases of the SAPS in different political eras in South Africa (SA). Moreover, it explains how the SAPS interacts and interrelates with other law enforcement agencies, public institutions and government departments. This chapter will also discuss the legislative, governance and regulatory frameworks that guide the SAPS and services categorised as programmes covered in the organisation's strategic blueprint and annual performance review.

2.2 DEVELOPMENT OF THE SAPS

The literature on safety and security agrees that since it was established in 1913 until the new political dispensation, which began in April 1994, the South African Police (SAP), which the service was then called, had a paramilitary command and control structure (Gqada 2004:57). Before the establishment of the South African Police Service (SAPS) in 1994 "fire-force policing" models conferred military-like ranks to police officers (Van Rooyen 1995:10). The SAPS structure was aligned with paramilitary organisations and displayed paramilitary features (Auten 1985:325).

Gqada (2004:59) characterised policing in SA before the 1994 reforms as authoritarian, rigid, dictatorial instead of creative, flexible, innovative and consultative. An authoritarian leadership style became the norm, subordinates were not allowed to question their superiors, and a "comply, and complaint later" principle used (Gqada 2004:57). The top-down semi-military structure meant that the top echelon made decisions and all subordinates awaited further instructions to execute them (Ayres 1994:11).

Based on the definition of semi-military as put forward in the work of Auten (1985:325), Ryenecke (1995:27) maintains that the SAP was formed to replicate paramilitary formations, thereby exhibiting military culture with the following features:

- A consolidated command chain characterised by authoritarianism.
- A rank structure defines a rigid superior-subordinate relationship.
- The control is exercised by dispensing standing orders, command and control directives, national instructions, and police force generals' orders.
- Defined lines of communication and protocols.
- Vertical top to bottom communication.
- Organisational structural designs followed primarily through intimidation, suppression and coercion.
- Subordinates were not included in decision-making which was demoralising.
- Protection and safeguarding of the status quo.
- A strict disciplinary code to discipline those who did not comply with set rules, norms and standards.
- Regularly control operations of high importance in a highly centralised system.
- The inflexibility of commanders who could not deal with challenges other than complying with regular directives and guidelines as expected, comply.
- The emotional connection between members of the organisation.
- Subordinates felt alienation due to disempowerment.
- Senior management was biased.
- A growing level of distrust amongst junior members towards senior management.

2.2.1 The transformational trajectory from the SAP to the SAPS

Pre-1994, SA was divided into eleven (11) different homelands¹ and self-governing territory police agencies² before the ground-breaking democratic elections, which was inclined to the ethnic majority in that constituencies should practice self-determination (Abrahams 2016:16). According to Brewer (1994:250), policing in the former SA was demarcated according to political segregation, with homelands police forces dissimilar in how they performed their police powers. In 1991, the SAP started an internal transformation process. The political dispensation was changing. Consequently, all political prisoners were unconditionally discharged, and liberation

¹ Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda & Ciskei

² Gazankulu, Kangwane, Kwandebele, Kwazulu, Lebowa, QwaQwa

movements were unbanned in 1990 (Gqada 2004:61). Rauch (2000:3) highlighted that the 1991 SAP strategic plan aimed to effect change in the following areas:

- Emphasis and introduction of pro-active policing;
- Initiation and fostering of relations between the community and the SAP (community policing);
- De-politicisation of the force;
- Increased community participation and accountability;
- Omnipresent police members;
- Adoption of new management and practices;
- A total restructuring of the organisational training and development system;
- Holistic renewal and reorganisation of the SAP structure of the police organisation, holistically.

Even though the SAP had a plan to transform from an old to a new order, significant stakeholders interested in assisting the organisation in effecting a seamless change were excluded (Cawthra 1993:164). However, Gqada (2004:62) explained negotiations concerning the restructured, amalgamated, and reconfigured police organisation commenced in 1993 at the Convention for a Democratic South Africa (Codesa).

The transformation of the SAP was a challenging process, which included reconfiguration, a merger and modification (Lue 1995:3). Furthermore, it had the total overhaul of original policing models, philosophy, approaches, tactics, policies, cultures, behaviour and attitudes for the new SAPS to become a community-focused in providing a service associated with “transparency, accountability, impartiality and professionalism” (Lue 1995:3).

The transformation of the police service entailed an overlapping of three phases, according to Malan (1997):

- Phase 1: reconfiguration, which guaranteed an effective administration system at all levels of governance as stipulated by the interim Constitution.
- Phase 2: merger, which was the amalgamation of all previous law enforcement agencies, including both existing statutory and non-statutory policing agencies, into a national police service;
- Phase 3: modification, which was a metamorphosis of the new SAPS, which embodies the values of professionalism, representativeness, efficacy, neutrality, openness and

accountable service, thereby safeguarding and protecting the fundamental rights of all inhabitants as well as carrying out its mission through consultation and co-operation with the needs of the community.

The name change for the SAP to the SAPS was a suitable and appropriate tool for improving the image of the new police service. The name change also elevated the new-found objective of community policing. Actions were taken to overhaul the various police agencies and adopt new regulations, policies, and standard operating procedures to establish a new SAPS, which was profoundly distinguishable from the old SAP in that it was - a genuinely democratic and transformed organisation (Hornberger 2007) in partnership with the citizenry (Gqada 2004:63). Pruit (2010:116) opines that the police needed to be acceptable to the broad South African society, which implied the following:

- Reorganisation of the staff components of all eleven police agencies above that policed SA before democratisation,
- Unification and merger of the eleven police agencies into a single SAPS.

Conspicuous signs of change were adopting new symbols, such as badges, flags, vehicle colours, and station names, after the 1994 election and removing those connected with apartheid policing (Argus 1995). The Argus (1995) highlighted the transformation consequences for the ranking structure of the SAPS:

- The State President has the prerogative to appoint the National Commissioner (NC).
- The new rank system is more inclined toward a civilian system. For example, a warrant officer becomes an inspector.
- Uniforms were redesigned. The uniform for the new SAPS is slightly less military in appearance.
- A new emblem portraying a unified police agency was created for the SAPS, encompassing all previous police agencies.
- All state-owned vehicles were painted white as the new official colour, replacing all old colours.
- Numerous police stations were renamed in line with the new political dispensation.

There was almost no resistance when the new police organisation was named the SAPS and adopted a new badge (Shaw 2001:32). All the changes, including new vehicle colours, uniforms and organisational structure, were envisioned to replace the former military culture with a civilian

one (Gqada 2004:65). However, it can be contended that changing symbols and other distinct features of the old SAP was insufficient to change the culture embedded over generations. Pruitt (2010:116) asserts that this demonstrated that democratic change, although a tangible reality, is a slow process.

2.3 THE CULTURE OF THE SAPS

The literature on “police culture” or “cop culture” has impacted transformational efforts in the sector such as that in SA (Stenner 2009:916). These efforts involve police service aligning itself to new design methodologies representing a new culture that replaces a previous one (Abrahams 2016:12). A unique “set informs police culture of norms, beliefs and values which direct employee behaviour, both amongst themselves and operationally out on the streets” (Loftus 2009:3)

The concept of “police culture” is complex (Petrus 2014:75) and comprises occupational and corporate cultures (Paoline 2003:199). In a police organisation, an occupational culture emphasises frontline employees’ role (Van Maanen & Barley 1984), whilst in contrast, corporate culture is top-down (Schein 1992:204).

Reuss-Ianni (1993:121) differentiates between “street cop culture” and “management cop culture” as follows:

- A “street cop culture is composed of those members who perform frontline or operational duties and see themselves as career police officers”,
- A “management cop culture entails more middle-class employees, whose education and mobility have made them eligible for an alternate career outside of policing, making them less dependent on and less loyal to street cop culture”.

Mofomme and Barnes (2004:74) view cop culture as involving “group socialisation, the work environment and the institutional routine of police work”. Coombe (2013:229) identifies a police culture as “the perception the police members have on their external environment and their role within that environment - ‘cop culture’- its importance to examining what they do”. Faull (2011:9) describes the following characteristics of the culture of the SAPS;

- In-depth knowledge and understanding of the regulatory framework, which directs the police in performing their duties whilst eliminating crime in society.
- Sub-culture is created by members of the SAPS, which informs their relationship with colleagues from other divisions, components, or units.

- Some of these characteristics may not be seen as consistent with a particular department. However, they are perceived as acceptable by those considering them as enablers in performing their duties.

2.3.1 Characteristics of police culture

Skolnick's (1994:57) study identified various characteristics of police or cop culture, which are explained in the following sections:

2.3.1.1 Suspiciousness

The literature on "cop culture" suggests that police officers become suspicious of actions inconsistent with their perceptions of how members of society should behave (Cockcroft 2016:56). This distrust, described by Skolnick (1994:57) as part of the police "working personality", is a characteristic of police culture (Crank 2004:225). In addition, police officials ironically view one another with suspicion, as there is a superficial distinction between the police and members of society (Crank 2004:225). The suspicion is based on a desire to change "the street", where the essential police work is performed, into a perceived safe environment (Maweni 2016:40).

The suspicion of the police is triggered by inconsistent, inappropriate, disorderly or strange public behaviour (Cockcroft 2016:56). Police suspicion follows a continuum from those involved in committing an offence to those not involved in criminal activities (Skolnick & Fyfe 1993).

Skolnick (1994:58) maintains that uncertainties associated with an element of danger enhance police officers' sense of suspiciousness. Admittedly various professions face a distinctive threat in their work contexts. Policing is unique in that the source of risk they face while doing their job is the same public they are endowed by law to serve. This phenomenon obscures the distinction between the 'public' and the 'enemy', according to Cockcroft (2016:57).

Police culture, which includes promotions, rank, commendations and respect amongst colleagues, is extensively influenced by the concept of "threat-danger-hero" embedded in the police organisation's life span (Manning 1977:302). Moreover, the perception of being constantly in danger is greatly influenced by police organisational customs, habits, rituals and exposure to operational risks, which becomes implanted in the collective consciousness (Cockcroft 2016:57).

2.3.1.2 Isolation

The literature suggests that the police are inclined to become secluded from society or other law enforcement agencies owing to organisational traditions (Maweni 2016:41). This self-imposed social isolation by police officials acts “as a means of protection against real and perceived dangers, loss of personal and professional autonomy and social rejection” (Skolnick 1966:18). According to Drummond (1976:102), the type of work performed by the police has an arbitrary impact on their societal status, as they become secluded from their families, social network, other formations and the legal system.

Police officials are expected to implement the country’s laws, which gives them power and authority. Those laws, such as those prohibiting drunkenness, might require a rigorous moral attitude towards self-indulgence (Maweni 2016:42). The tendency to spend time amongst themselves or alone is used to protect themselves, which leads to further social isolation (Kingshott & Prinsloo 2004:16).

Police officials might rigidly believe that those who are not part of their organisational formation do not have an informed opinion about the police working environment based on the distinctiveness of the profession (Kappeler, Sluder & Alpert 1994:48). Subsequently, the notion of an ‘us-them’ outlook can escalate police segregation and exclusion from society (Maweni 2016:43).

Public resentment, occupational stress, political interference and shift work further characterise the police culture (Reiner 2010:122). According to Maweni (2016:43), most police officials believe that other law enforcement agencies do not show a sense of solidarity or patriotism with them. Therefore, some police officials are willing to violate certain legal restrictions as they consider them restrictive. However, many obey and act within the bounds of the law as prescribed, without feeling any need to violate them or perceiving them as restrictive (Brown 1981).

2.3.1.3 Solidarity

Police officers share a strong sense of camaraderie, oneness and cohesion, which is evident in their support while working and socialising with one another (Cockcroft 2016:57). Police officers often find it difficult and awkward to have relationships with members working in various departments except for their department (Skolnick 1994). In addition, police officers usually turn to each other when they face a threat from different sectors of society, which increases levels of comradeship and companionship and seclusion from the outside world (Crockcroft 2016:58).

The police culture is characteristically intra-organisational. In addition, it is enhanced by its members' need for intelligence (Fielding 1988:185), and the ability to maintain their comradeship and solidarity (Cain 1973:190) while on duty. According to Crank (2004:325), police officials are unified and have a great sense of cohesion, vital in sustaining the police culture, which becomes instilled in their practices. Solidarity assists in making sure that police officers are safeguarded and secured from outside interventions, therefore maintaining their uniqueness. In addition, strict restrictions and limitations ensure that their culture cannot be infiltrated (Chan, Devery & Doran 2003).

Punch (1983:224) asserts the unique features of secrecy and camaraderie of the police culture, which are engraved in the officers' minds and central to their environment, determine how they relate to each other between themselves and other members of society. Moreover, if the police service is not supported by society or encounters distrust, its members display a strong sense of unanimity and defensiveness to maintain their image (Wilson 1968:48). The divide between the police and the public is strengthened and solidified by negative public attitudes towards policing and those associated with it, which fortify the friendship, unity interrelatedness and dependency amongst the police officers (Cockcroft 2016:58).

High levels of discipline are fundamental (Maweni 2016:39) to police culture because society perceives members of the police service as committed to enforcing the law, thereby preventing criminal behaviour and social disorder (Fussell 1989:164). The significance of police culture and customs is based on the police's moral compass, which permits them to safeguard their identity and further warrants how they mishandle and exploit those who are rebels or are suspected as lawbreakers (Caldero 1995:90).

2.3.1.4 Cynicism

Police cynicism entails a strong feeling hate, resentment, impotent antagonism, and a sense of bitterness epitomised as a state of mind in the particular police official (Niederhoffer 1967:98). In addition, a sense of estrangement, job dissatisfaction, low morale, dishonesty and a loss of faith in police work accompany cynicism (Maweni 2016:43). Furthermore, Niederhoffer (ibid.) claims that police cynicism relates to external context: life, the world, society, and the police system itself.

Wilt and Bannon (1976:38) contend that police cynicism is often directed at administrators, supervisors, police workers, the system and the organisation. The cynical attitude of experienced police officers and those who give basic training might rub off on which newly appointed recruits emulate their behaviour to be assimilated into the organisation (Maweni 2016:44). In addition,

recruits might quickly learn to cover their tracks as do experienced police officials on occasion (Crank 2004:325).

2.4 LEGISLATION GOVERNING THE SAPS

2.4.1 The Constitution

The Constitution informs and guides how all SAPS members function and perform their constitutional obligations within various divisions, components, and units. Section 205 of the Constitution (RSA 108/1996) refers to the SAPS Act as amended (RSA 68/1995) (hereafter referred to as the Act), which enumerates the duties and functions of members of the SAPS. Section 206 of the Constitution (RSA 108/1996) authorises the Minister of Police to determine national policing policy and the comprehensive implementation of the relevant sectoral legislation (SAPS Strategic Plan 2014-2019).

2.4.2.1 Constitution of the RSA

Section 205(1) of Chapter 11 of the Constitution (RSA 108/1996) stipulates the SAPS's responsibilities, which are to do as follows:

- Avert, fight and examine the commission of a crime;
- Make sure that there is harmonious equilibrium in society.
- Guard and protect the inhabitants of SA as well as their possessions and assets;
- Sustain, maintain and enforce the law.

The vision of the SAPS is the following:

- Build a safe and secure environment for all people living in South Africa.

The mission is to do as follows:

- Inhibit and combat all forms of crimes that may intimidate the welfare or safekeeping of the public;
- Investigate all crimes that threaten the well-being of the society;
- Ensure the appearance of lawbreakers before the court of law;
- Engage in measures that eliminate the root causes of crime.

2.4.1.2 Strategic framework

As prescribed by section 38 of the Public Finance Management Act (RSA 1/1999), all governmental divisions/departments must compile a strategic plan, performance plan, and annual report. Those of the SAPS departments are explained below (SAPS Intranet):

- The SAPS Strategic Plan 2020-2025, systematised with five-year intervals, focuses on policy clarity, key focus areas, critical success factors, priorities and project plans, as approved by the Minister of Police, based on appropriate resources. This plan mainly gives attention to strategic outcome-orientated goals for the organisation and objectives for each of its main service delivery areas, based on its available budget.
- The Annual Performance Plan (APP) is aligned to the strategic plan and compiled yearly. The APP indicates the performance indicators and targets for various programmes to enable the department to achieve its goals and objectives, as shown in the strategic plan. It spells out the actual procedure the SAPS intends to implement to achieve the strategic plan's set objectives.
- The Annual Report gives a comprehensive report on the department's performance in the preceding year of oversight. The annual report indicates the department's financial status, controls, and procedures to ensure sound financial governance. This annual report reflects initial APP set targets and their audited annual financial statements.

Even though reference has been made to the relevant legislative frameworks that mandate and guide the various SAPS programmes, it needs to be acknowledged that government funding should be utilised to serve society as a constitutional obligation. In addition, although this legislation is not critical to the core functions and duties executed by the SAPS, it controls and guides how it performs its functions (SAPS Strategic Plan 2014-2019).

Based on the distinctive type of functions it has to perform and deliver as mandated by the Constitution, the SAPS draws its legislative mandate, power and authority from the following key pieces of legislation:

- Chapter 2 of the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (RSA 1995) stipulates the transformational outcomes that leaders within the public service and the government sector, including the SAPS, should attempt to achieve (Department of Public Service & Administration 1995).
- Section 3 of the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (the Batho Pele White Paper) (1997) stipulates the fundamentals that public sector organisations and

government departments, including the SAPS, should implement in the execution of their tasks (Department of Public Service & Administration 1997).

- Chapter 3 of the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (RSA 1997) offers diversity and equivalence within government departments (Department of Public Service & Administration 1997).
- Chapters 5 and 6 of the Public Finance Management Act (RSA 1/1999) dictate the efficacy with which public resources should be utilised (Department of Finance 1999).

For the SAPS to carry out its constitutional obligations, certain services and programmes must be embarked upon as discussed below.

2.4.2 SAPS programmes and services associated with legislation

In complying with legislation through its programmes and services, the SAPS has experienced various administration challenges due to the constant change of top management and political leadership within the governing party (Cele 2019:3). Nevertheless, it was required to create and execute an altered policing methodology to address its primary function of combatting crime (SAPS Annual Report 2018/2019).

Chapter 12 of the National Development Plan (NDP) (2011:349) stipulates that all the country's inhabitants must work in unison to create a safe and secure environment for all people living within the boundaries of SA. While achieving this vision, the NDP explicitly emphasises "building safer communities", "building a capable state", and "promoting accountability and fighting corruption", which are seen as critical and imperative functions of the SAPS (Sitole 2019:5).

Paragraph 4 of the SAPS APP (2019) for the reporting period 2019/2020 provides an essential overview of the SAPS services, which are explained below:

2.4.4.1 Administration

The administration of the SAPS provides the support needed by other programmes to succeed. Its primary function is to give "strategic leadership, management and support services and provide for the duties of the Civilian Secretariat for Police Service". The service's strategic objective is to ensure that the department has adequate and appropriate resources (human, financial, logistical and information) to strengthen and capacitate all police stations to curb crime (SAPS Annual Performance Plan 2019/2020). The fundamental responsibility of the service is to maintain corporate support functions, namely human resources, supply chain management and technology services, to sustain the implementation of operational duties (Mohajane 2017:56).

2.4.4.2 Visible policing

Visible policing aims to make sure that policing at the ground level is executed professionally so that communities will feel safe and secure and that the country's borders are safeguarded using highly specialised techniques. This service aims to ensure that all forms of crime are eliminated and that the SAPS is expeditious in responding to the community's needs in its fight against crime (SAPS Annual Performance Plan 2019/2020). It follows a statutory directive to implement strategic objectives through the following two programmes:

- Crime prevention
- Border security and specialised interventions, including the "Air Wing, the Special Task Force, the National Intervention Unit (NIU) and Public Order Policing" (POP).

2.4.4.3 Detective service

The primary aim of the detective service is to ensure that investigators can conduct their work professionally and have access to all relevant specialised technical support, such as "forensic evidence" and the "Criminal Record Centre" (CRC) (SAPS Annual Performance Plan 2019/2020). Furthermore, its foundational strategic goal is to ensure that all cases are appropriately investigated and that admissible evidence is adequately collected and analysed to prosecute all criminals successfully. The service is composed of the following three programmes:

- Crime investigations,
- Specialised investigations,
- The CRC and forensic science laboratories

Forensic science laboratories play a central role in ensuring that all offenders are adequately prosecuted. Furthermore, they maintain an accurate database for all convicted criminals, utilise available financial resources, and "provide specialised technical analysis and support during criminal investigations" (Mohajane 2017:58).

2.4.4.4 Crime intelligence

The crime intelligence service must provide and manage accurate intelligence information for crime prevention and investigation. In addition, it gathers crime intelligence to deter criminal activities, which involves the collection, measurement, analysis, management and distribution of intelligence for tactical, operational and strategic purposes (SAPS Annual Performance Plan 2019/2020). The strategic focus is to gather intelligence information to fight, analyse and

investigate crime. Furthermore, crime intelligence can contribute to eradicating international or transnational crime and collaborate with other law enforcement agencies globally. The crime intelligence section of the SAPS requires staff that performs rigorous and demanding work and operates within the budgetary constraints of the Intelligence and Information Management Sub-Programme (Mohajane 2017:58).

2.4.4.5 Security and protection services

The security and protection services safeguard and shield VIPs in the government sector. Furthermore, their strategic aim is to ensure fewer security breaches by protecting all prominent foreign and domestic dignitaries (SAPS Annual Performance Plan 2019/2020). This service consists of two programmes:

- Protection and security services,
- Presidential protection service.

2.5 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE SAPS

Abrahams (2016:16) points out that the SAPS was incepted and established after a rigorous process of political negotiations, which saw the birth of the democratic dispensation. Subsequently, the old SAP and “all homeland and self-governing police agencies” were merged into one national police service. The district SAPS police stations are divided according to provincial borders, and each of the nine provincial commissioners’ reports to the national commissioner (NC). However, command and control are continually challenged (Schärf 2001:50).

SAPS is a large organisation structured with the NC at the head with the support of the National Head: Directorate of Priority Crime Investigation (DPCI), the Head: Executive Support, the Head: Internal Audit and the National Head: Management and Strategy (MAS).

Five deputy national commissioners” (DNC) oversee divisions (Young 2004:12). Each division has specific responsibilities, duties, and staff profiles composed of various sections and sub-sections. In addition, there are nine provincial commissioners (PCs), each overseeing a particular province in SA. The nine South African provinces are further divided into sections and sub-sections which are like those of the national office. These individual provinces are again divided into districts headed by district commissioners (DCs), with each police station reporting to the DC. Figure 2.1 below illustrates the SAPS organisational structure.

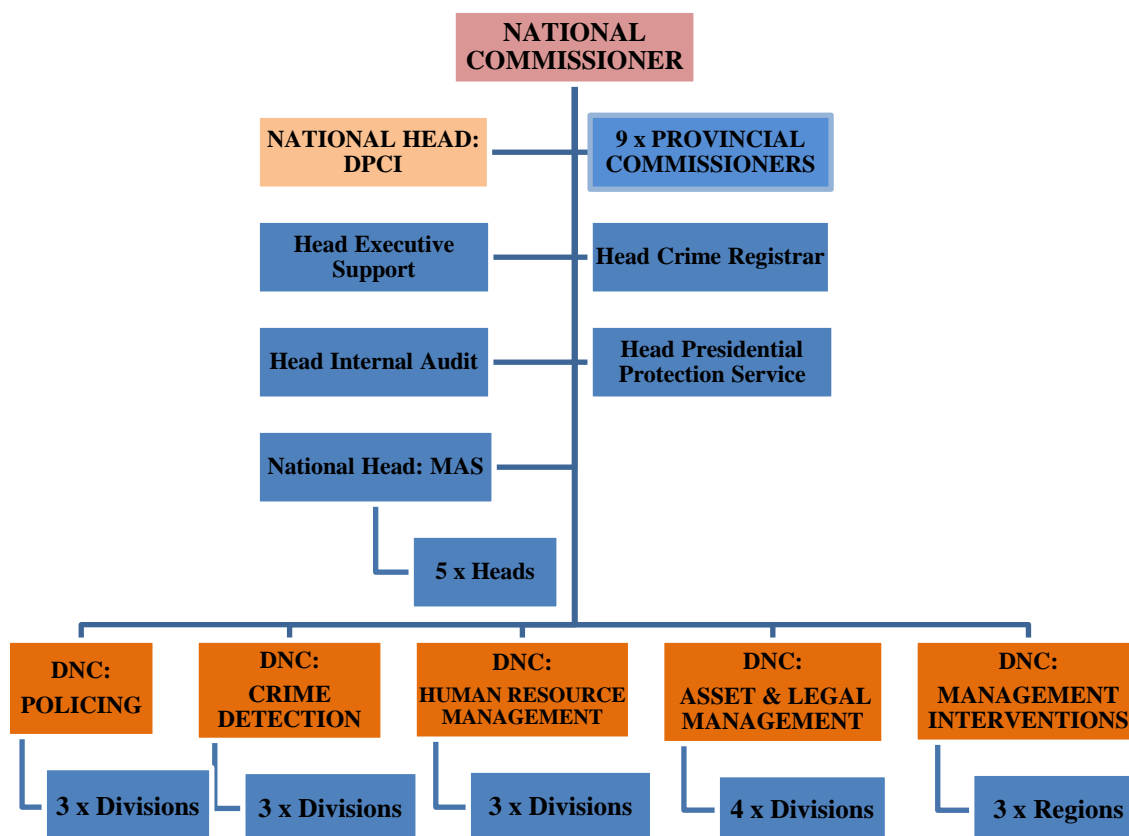


Figure 2.1: SAPS organisational structure

Source: SAPS (Strategic plan 2014-2019)

As explained earlier in this chapter, the new democratic SA top echelon of government departments was mandated to represent all members of society as part of the national transformation process, which required certain features of the former homelands and liberation movements infused to create new directives and policies³.

As the pre-1994 top management structure of the SAP was composed significantly of white males, the transformation agenda was focussed on having equitable representation based on race and gender in all managerial positions (from the police station to the national level) (Young 2004:12). The police management appointed several black males and females to positions of authority. Without an adequate or progressive policy of lateral enrolment from other sectors of society, there was a little talent with which to work (Young 2004:12).

³ Community & Sector Policing, White Paper on Reconstruction and Development Programme

2.6 SAPS RANK STRUCTURE

The SAPS uses a military ranking structure that indicates the communication protocol within the organisation and the position at which employees interrelate within the organisation (Mohajane 2017:62).

The current ranking system, adopted in April 2010, specifies that ranks, such as those of a warrant officer and colonel, are the same as those of the military structure of the past, thereby duplicating the pre-1994 SAP system. In 2009, former Deputy Minister of Police Fikile Mbalula said, “We intend to make the police a paramilitary force by changing the SAPS ranking system to closely mirror the military ranking system” (SAPS Intranet). However, safety and security industry experts questioned this statement by asking if this implied that the police must revert to paramilitary practices. Moreover, similarities of the current ranking system to those of the past have led to much debate in the safety and security environment.

In 2016, the ranking formation of the SAPS was reviewed and modified. A new position of regional police commissioner with a rank equal to the level of a lieutenant general was established. The major and lieutenant ranks were abolished, and both lieutenants and majors were elevated to captains and lieutenant colonels, respectively (Basic police development learning programme learning area 1 of 2019:47). Figure 2.2 below indicates the hierarchical SAPS rank levels.

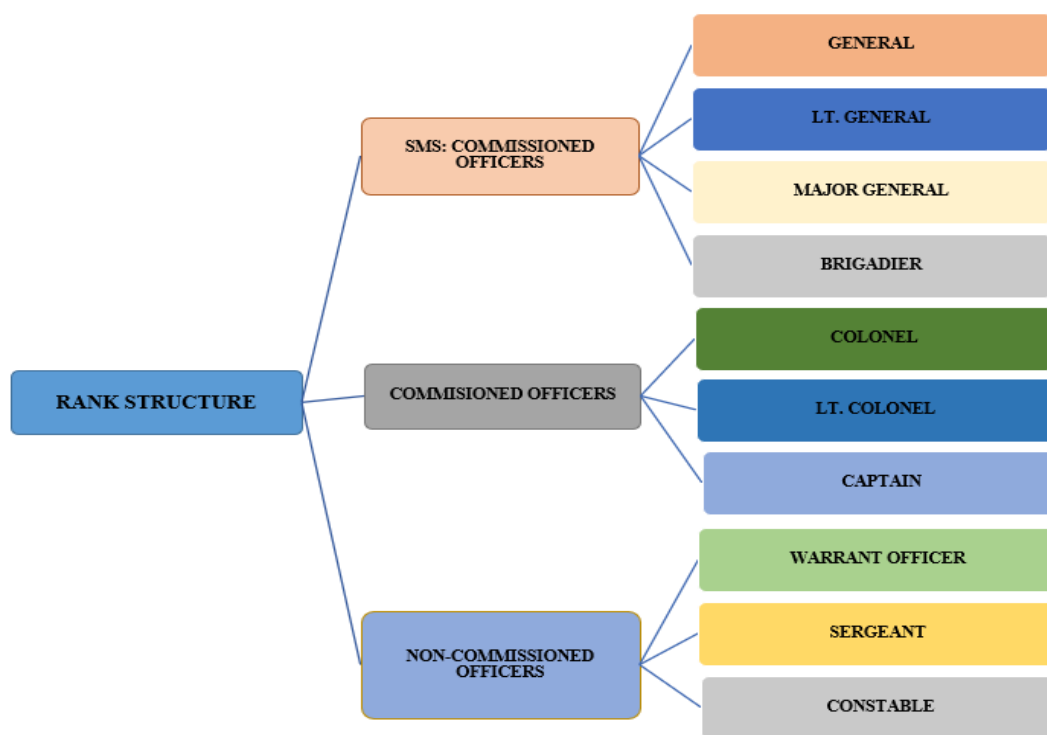


Figure 2.2: SAPS rank structure

Source: Basic police development learning programme learning area (1 of 2019:47)

As illustrated in Figure 2.2 above, the rank hierarchy has three categories: “senior management – commissioned officers, commissioned officers and non-commissioned officers”, each discussed below (Basic police development learning programme learning area 1 of 2019:47).

“Senior management – commissioned officers” are regarded as the top echelon of the SAPS police hierarchy. This level constitutes four separate sub-categories:

The General, who holds the top rank in the police structure, is designated by the state president of the RSA as the NC of the SAPS responsible and accountable for all police actions reporting to parliament via the Minister of Police.

The lieutenant-general holds the second-highest rank in the management structure of the SAPS. Lieutenant generals are appointed as DNCs, PCs and divisional commissioners (DCs). Those designated as DNC’s must oversee provinces and divisions allocated to them. Nine PCs hold the highest ranks in their respective provinces. They are responsible and accountable for all police actions under their control in their specific province. They also report to the provincial government through the provincial member of the executive council (MEC), accountable for policing in the province. There are twelve DCs who perform the administrative functions in the SAPS and are responsible to the NC.

Major-generals and brigadiers are appointed to various portfolios in the SAPS. Major generals are appointed as deputy provincial commissioners (DPCs), component heads at the national head office and divisions, and district commissioners. They are accountable to respective PCs and DCs. Brigadiers are also appointed as district commissioners or deputy district commissioners, section heads at head office and various divisions, and station commanders.

Colonels are answerable to senior management depending on the position of responsibility. Colonels, lieutenant colonels and captains hold officer ranks at the hierarchy mid-level. Officers appointed at this level can perform duties as station/academy commanders, detective commanders, commanders of specialised units, subsection heads at national head office and divisions, community service centre (CSC) and decentralised training centres commanders.

Non-commissioned officers are lower in the hierarchy of ranks and include warrant officers, sergeants, and constables. These officers mainly perform operational duties; however, some are appointed as station commanders, detective commanders, relief commanders and team leaders.

2.7 DIVISION: HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Training and development were viewed as paramount in the former SAP, the training depot established in Pretoria-West, where white recruits were trained (Basic police development learning programme learning area 1 of 2019:47). As indicated before, the police were initially viewed as a semi-military force. Therefore, the police training was directed at engaging in a war against liberation movements and supporting the military pre-1994, especially in the Second World War, which ended in 1948 (SAPS Training Prospectus 1997). Many policemen and women were initially recruited into policing in SA in 1972. Owing to the apartheid system, various training and development colleges were established along racial lines. Black recruits attended Hammanskraal, and coloured trainees had to go to Bishop Lavis, while Indian recruits had to report to Wentworth initially and later on to Chatsworth. These colleges, which became the SAPS academies, are currently utilised as centres of sectoral excellence. They are categorised as training providers of the SAPS, focussing on developing human capital for the SAPS and the African continent. Furthermore, they fostered relations with other academic institutions with a common goal of developing and creating opportunities for all interested in policing in SA, emphasising policing in a democratic dispensation⁴.

⁴ There are nine (9) Basic Police Development Academies and fourteen (14) In-Service Police Development Academies nationally. Each province has a Human Resource Development Centre which directly reports under the Provincial Head of Human Resource Development

Former NC George Fivaz, in 1995, designated lieutenant-general Ferreira to be head of Basic Training, In-Service Training and Management Development within the human resources management environment. In 1999 the NC approved the new organisational structure by overhauling the HRM Division, which led to the Training Division becoming the independent Division: HRD. Figure 2.3 below presents the current structure.

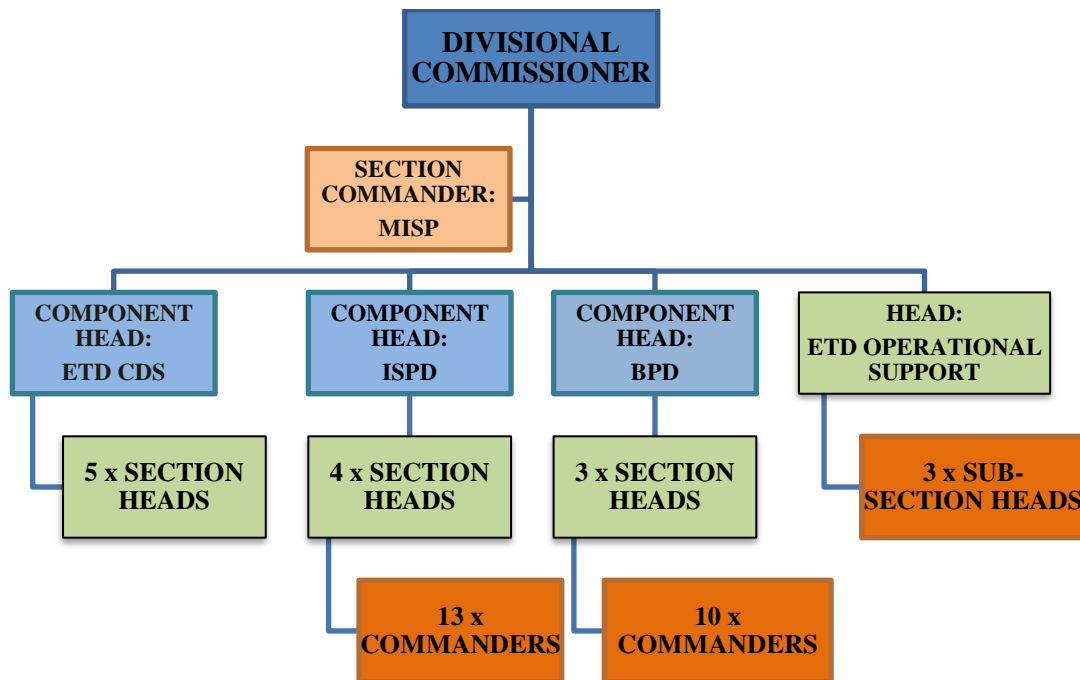


Figure 2.3: Division: HRD management structure

Source: SAPS organisational structure, Division: Human Resource Development (2016)

The division plays a pivotal training role in the region and the continent of Africa through the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Conference (SARPPCO). The training and development and the responsibilities at various divisions are consolidated and performed by the Division: HRD. Interaction with the different divisions and provinces and divisions is coordinated and managed through various forums such as the quarterly training forum and guardian and training committees” (Basic police development learning programme learning area 1 of 2019:47).

2.8 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a review of the literature on the SAPS, the history of which reveals that post-democracy the organisation grew from a police agency that satisfied the needs of a certain privileged fraction of society before 1994 to a multi-dimensional and sector-specific government department with the onset of national transformation mechanisms, which began in 1994. According to constitutionalised stipulations, the SAPS can be distinguished from other

governmental functions owing to its distinctive characteristics, which include the power to limit individuals' movement, unique organisational culture and a semi-military rank structure.

Presently, the SAPS has no discussion document on developing a retention strategy to retain employees in scarce-skills occupational categories, such as forensic investigation, dog handling and bomb disposal. Currently, SAPS adheres to and acts upon the legislation that governs employee retention, as directed by the Department of Public Service and Administration. In addition, SAPS managers attempt to retain employees through rewards, promotions, career advancement, opportunities, training, development and the allocation of bursaries. These measures have supported managers in retaining employees. However, the concept of JE to understand how to retain employees and enhance their JS and JP should be investigated. Chapter 3 will present the literature review on JE, JS and JP.

CHAPTER 3

THE CONSTRUCTS OF JE, JS AND JP: A LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the SAPS which was the study area, and explained its unique features which differentiate it from other government departments in the public sector in SA. In addition, the chapter explained the transformation of the former SAP into the current SAPS. The chapter also explained the legislative framework that guides the SAPS and presented details about its services.

This chapter concentrates on conceptualising the three constructs of JE, JS and JP by comprehensively explaining their definitions, various theories and approaches, and previous research.

Professionals are the “intellectual capital” and are indispensable in advancing the economy. Previous research has indicated that professionals tend to leave their organisations and country of birth to pursue their dreams (Korunka, Hoonakker & Carayon 2008:409; Bezuidenhout, Joubert, Hiemstra & Struwig 2009:211; Hill 2011:211). Consequently, they need to be adequately managed as their turnover has essential results for the competitive edge and performance of the organisation (van Dyk, Coetzee & Takawira 2013:58). Van Dyk (ibid.) indicates that the capability of organisations to create a favourable and inspiring working environment to retain talented employees has gained impetus. Based on the growing concern about retaining SAPS members with scarce skills within academies, exploring how their JE influences employees’ JS is imperative.

Organisations have a fundamental obligation to offer employees jobs that are stimulating, gratifying and satisfying (Robbins 2005:2). For an organisation to prosper, it is crucial to create a favourable and inspiring working atmosphere and consider the employee’s satisfaction (Mgiba 2015:8). In this study, the researcher endeavoured to establish the impact of JS as mediating or moderating variable, determining the JP of employees within academies in the SAPS. Based on the extensive literature review, this chapter defines, describes and discusses the unique factors associated with JS. The researcher utilised various theories to expound on the concept clarification. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Herzberg’s two-factor theory and McGregor’s Theory X and Y were noted.

Employee's JP implies magnitude and excellence anticipated from all employees (Khan, Khan, Kundi, Khan, Nawaz, Khan & Yar 2014:114). Organisations have acknowledged the significance of employees' JP due to an increase in universal competition, which enables their ability to compete in the global environment and assists them in developing and attaining desired outcomes. Numerous factors can affect employees in an organisational context – aspects such as environment, elevation, salary, satisfaction, and benefits, to mention a few. In addition, organisations experience mounting challenges in managing employees who exude an attitude and conduct that is not satisfactory to their job. Such behaviour or attitude has adverse consequences as it becomes the foundation for poor work performance, which has undesired results on organisational performance. The researcher presents an exploration of literature related to the definition and dimensions of JP below.

3.2 JOB EMBEDDEDNESS

Takawira (2012:18) symbolises a comprehension collection of factors that affect an employee's "decision to remain or leave" an organisation. JE is a reasonably recent construct described by Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski and Erez (2001:1104). JE is composed of the connections between employees, the organisation and their community (Wilson 2010:37). Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1103) hypothesise JE as containing an employee's connections to other job characteristics (e.g. people or group), the view of person-job fit and the sacrifices involved in leaving the job. As opposed to JS, JE hypothesises less of an attitudinal dimension and more of a measurement of the level of attachment (Wilson 2010:37).

Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1101) show that the JE theory was enthused by Lewin (1951) whose study on figures and field theory displayed embeddedness as a net in a two-dimensional framework. In addition, field theory suggests that employees have a "perceptual life-space", which encompasses characteristics of their lives that are presented and linked so that the totality informs the aggregate of the behaviour of their situation (Lewin 1951). Based on this theory, from the perspective of JE, figures depict psychological images embedded in the background of employees. Consequently, they become devoted to the organisation and attempting to detach them would be a challenge (Holmes, Baghurst & Chapman 2013:803).

JE determines voluntary turnover and intentions to quit above and beyond JS and organisational commitment (Ringl 2013:1). According to Ringl (2013:2), with positive consequences of JE for organisations, it is significant for organisations to increase their efforts to enhance JE in their workforce. Furthermore, research on JE has been prolonged to examine associations with other

variables such as organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB), JP and innovation-related behaviours (Ng & Feldman 2010:1220).

Previous research suggests that employees stay in their organisation due to the links, workplace activities and community-orientated activities to which the employee is attached (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1101; Friedman & Holtom 2002:405). The consequences of employees leaving their employment are sacrificing benefits that are accumulated over time and social relationships they have invested in for a long time (Takawira 2012:18). Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1103) suggest that embedded employees are less likely to leave their jobs than those not embedded, as they can readily leave the organisation. Consequently, it shows that on-the-job-embeddedness is negatively related to turnover (Allen 2006:237; Holtom & O’Neill 2004:216).

Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1103) claim that JE varies from “traditional turnover models”, revealing a multistage model of processes and intermediate connections. Furthermore, Mitchell *et al.* (*ibid.*) contend that dissatisfaction is associated with voluntary turnover, focusing on employee retention rather than employee turnover. Mitchell and Lee (2001:189) support this view by establishing that JE determines turnover beyond job attitudes and core variables from traditional turnover models. Organisations and employers must invest in retaining their workforce instead of establishing methods of retaining them and moving to competitors (Takawira 2012:19). According to Mitchell and Lee (2001:189), highly embedded and fulfilled employees are less likely to pursue alternate employment than unembedded employees. Crossley, Bennett, Jex and Burnfield (2007:1031) emphasise the probable negative consequence of JE. Employees lacking gratification within their work context might become demotivated, irritated, and exude signs of unproductiveness or destructiveness.

3.2.1 Job embeddedness defined

JE was developed to explain how different factors contribute to why people select to stay in their jobs (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1102). Furthermore, it expounds on why people stay in their jobs (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1103) and illustrates decisions to engage openly; however, concentration is beyond dissatisfaction-related leaving (Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton & Holtom 2004:711). JE means “a broad set of influences on an employee’s decision to stay” (Holtom, Mitchell & Lee 2006:319). These influences are not limited to on-the-job elements such as ties with co-workers and the suitability between abilities and job difficulties but also include off-the-job factors (Özçelik & Cenkci 2014:874). Off-the-job factors relate to personal and community obligations

(Holtom *et al.* 2006:319). On-the-job and off-the-job aspects connected with employee links, fit and sacrifice constitute JE as a construct, according to Mitchell *et al.* (2001:9).

JE is a net of restraining forces that cause an employee to be “stuck in different aspects of their life”, such as a job or kinfolk (Ringl 2013:5). Holtom *et al.* (2006:319) state that an employee who is highly embedded would be prone to challenges if they are disconnected from the core of the net of associates. Conversely, an employee with a relatively isolated job is unlikely to be exposed to challenges in their “net of associates” if they resolve to depart (Takawira 2012:19).

Therefore, JE can be described as a “broad cluster of ideas” (Holtom & Inderrieden 2006:438), constituting an aggregate of ideas about how a web of connections secures individuals to their communities and work organisations. It may be more appropriate to say that the term touches on aspects of job, organisation, occupation and community embeddedness (Wilson 2010:38).

3.2.2 Job embeddedness model

The theoretical foundation for JE emanated from Lewin’s (1951) embedded figures and field theory (Takawira 2012:19). Embeddedness in field theory conduct is the life-space of the individual, encompassing the person and the mental environment as it exists for that individual (Allen 2006:237). Hence, some characteristics are entrenched and interrelated in this field, and the results of a stimulus rely on this field’s nature (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1102).

Unlike traditional models of turnover, JE embodies attention to the accrued, non-emotional reasons why employees choose to stay with their organisation (Ringl 2013:5). Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1104) indicated that this construct covers three distinct situational dimensions, both on and off-the-job: (1) the degree an employee has links to colleagues or community, (2) the degree they fit with their job and community, (3) the easiness they would sacrifice possessions if they decide to leave their job. Young, Stone, Aliaga and Shuck (2013:2) posit that JE refers to a comparatively new construct that studies an individual’s:

- Employees fit with the job, organisation and community.
- Employees links with colleagues, teams at work and community groups.
- Employees sacrifice benefits associated with changing jobs.

The three factors that make employees embedded both on- and off-the-job constitute a 3x2 matrix of “forces” that affect employees to be embedded within their jobs (Ringl 2013:5). According to Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1104), these three dimensions form a 3x2 matrix associated with an

individual's organisation and community, further suggesting six sub-dimensions: fit-organisation, fit-community, links-organisation, links-community, sacrifice-organisation and sacrifice-community (illustrated in Figure 3.1). According to Allen (2006:237), when job transfer is not an issue, organisational dimensions better determine employee retention than do the community dimensions.

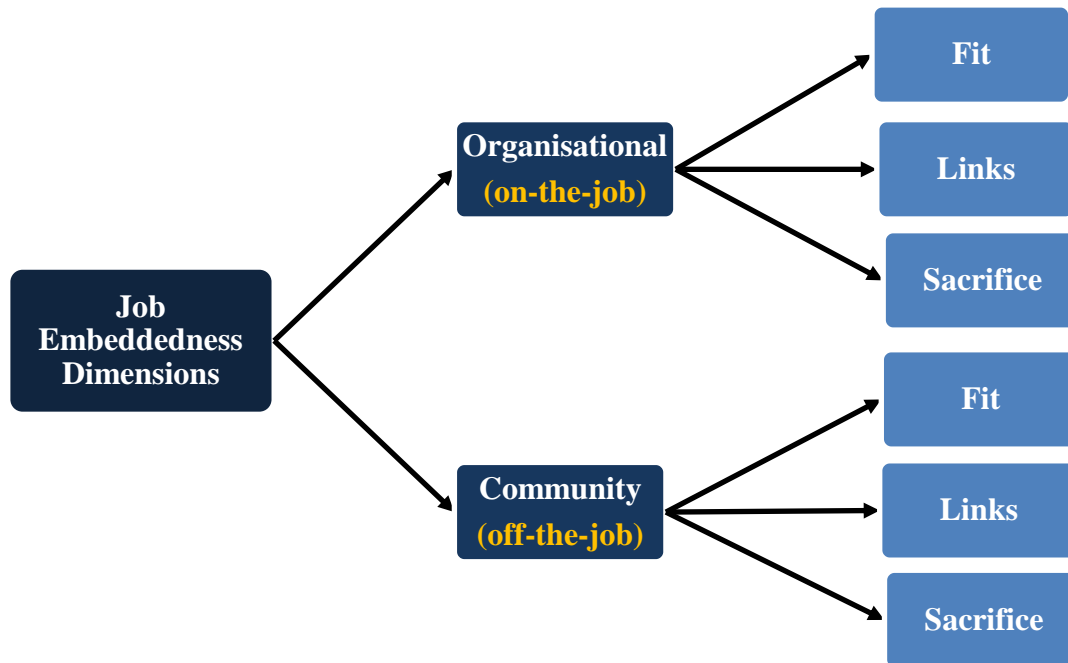


Figure 3.1: Dimensions of JE
Source: Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1104)

3.2.2.1 Links

Links are interrelations between an employee and the organisation or fellow employees and are divided into “organisation links and community links” (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1104). JE indicates that various elements connect employees and their families, mental and financial network associates comprising of work and non-work friends, groups, community and the physical environment where they live (Takawira 2012:21). Links include various factors such as collective, mental, monetary, marital status, family size, years of employment, relaxation, spiritual connections, and affiliation in community or professional bodies (Young *et al.* 2013:2). When there are many links to the workplace or community, in theory, the individual becomes exceedingly entrenched (Young *et al.* 2013:2). Holtom *et al.* (2006:316) state that as the number of these links upsurges, embeddedness is greater. Increased links between the persons and the network enhance the likelihood of an employee staying in the organisation.

3.2.2.2 *Fit*

Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1104) expound on fit as “an employee’s perception of alignment of comfort with an organisation and their environment, divided into fit organisation and fit community”. When the employee’s opinions, values and goals are congruent with the organisation and community values, principles and beliefs, the employee will exude professional behaviour and be embedded (Young *et al.* 2013:3). Therefore, when an employee experiences high levels of embeddedness, which might show that, the employee’s profession has evolved well (Ng & Feldman 2007:350). However, embeddedness can also indicate that an employee has not shown interest in other opportunities from other sectors.

3.2.2.3 *Sacrifice*

Sacrifice encapsulates the imaginative costs being material or mental benefits that the employee may lose by leaving the job (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1105). Although sacrifice is comparable to the preceding fields of embeddedness, sacrifice also constitutes two distinct factors: sacrifice organisation and sacrifice community (Young *et al.* 2013:3). The higher the levels of sacrifice, the more challenging the decision to leave (Shaw, Delery, Jenkins & Gupta 1998:511).

The three dimensions (fit, links & sacrifice) of embeddedness have organisational and community components, as described in Table 3.1:

Table 3.1: JE definitions

Construct	Description
Job embeddedness	JE depends on several factors affecting employee retention, which include (1) the level of employees' links with colleagues or community, (2) the scope of their fit with their job or community, (3) the easiness they would sacrifice material or intangible benefits if they were to leave their job.
Fit-organisation	Organisational fit indicates that employees align with an organisation's values principles and goals.
Fit-community	Fitting into a community shows that employees have a lot in common with their members regarding culture, for example, and feel that they belong. Moreover, they would make sure that they fit in with the physical environment, such as the climate and various facilities.
Links-organisation	Links to an organisation indicate a sense of connectedness with individual work colleagues and groups.
Links-community	Links to a community would involve connecting with family friends, those who work in or see to the community's needs and professional bodies.
Sacrifice-organisation	An organisational sacrifice would involve employees envisaging the loss of material or intangible benefits should they leave their job. The greater the perceived loss, the less likely are employees to resign.
Sacrifice-community	Sacrifice in the context of a community would involve employees resettling and leaving a community that is accommodative, welcoming and protective. Furthermore, benefits, such as an easy commute or flexitime may be lost by changing jobs. However, employees could change jobs but stay in the same area.

Source: Holtom & Inderrieden (2006:435)

Research conducted by Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1105) established that employees who are embedded in their jobs are unlikely to leave their jobs compared to those less embedded in their jobs.

3.2.3 Previous research on job embeddedness

Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1102) and Holtom and O'Neil (2004:216) established that JE determines the purpose of leaving and voluntary turnover, and after the effect of gender, satisfaction, commitment, job search and perceived options. A universal item measure was established by Cunningham, Fink and Sagas (2005:319), contrary to the multi-item measure utilised by Krosnick (1999:537). Ramesh and Gelfand (2010:807) investigated the cross-cultural customisation of the JE model by searching turnover in a unique country (US) and a collectivistic country (India) and extended the concept of JE by adding family embeddedness.

Family embeddedness determined a turnover above and beyond JE and established preliminary support for its usefulness in both the US and India (Ghosh & Gurnathan 2015:3). Crossley *et al.*

(2007:1031) studied that incorporated JE into a traditional model (Mobley 1977:237) of turnover and established a global measure of JE. A subsequent study by Lee *et al.* (2004) found that off-the-JE determined turnover and absenteeism. JE variant determined organisational citizenship and JP and moderated the positive result of voluntary absences on turnover, the negative outcome of JP on turnover and the negative result of citizenship on absences; the moderation was such that these outcomes were stronger for those scoring higher than for those scoring lower on the JE construct (Ghosh & Gurunathan 2015:3).

Holtom and Inderrieden (2006:435) incorporated “shocks” between the factors linked with JE. According to Burton, Holtom, Sablynski, Mitchell and Lee (2010:42), “shocks” are the “push power on the quitting idea of an individual from their organisation”. However, JE is a “pull power” that inspires employees to stay (Candan 2016:71). According to Boyd and Fisher (2012:7), undesirable “shocks” encompass adverse outcomes such as unforeseen dismissal of invaluable employees, the substantial lessening of policies, and reallocation of resources.

The study of Zhao, Sun, Cao, Duan, Fan and Liu (2012:780) found a positive work-life quality influence on JE. Moreover, Candan (2016:72), Halbesleben and Wheelerb (2008:242), Liu, Liu and Hu (2010:615) and Karatepe and Karadas (2012:614) found links between JE and the following variables:

- Workload
- Work-family conflict
- Support of colleagues
- Organisational socialisation tactics
- Employee empowerment
- Leader-member exchange
- Organisational trust
- Employee trust in a manager
- Organisational justice
- Innovative behaviour
- Organisational cynicism

Despite all the variables associated with JE as indicated by the literature, the researcher decided to focus on JS and JP to gain insight into the variables affecting service delivery, organisational performance, and societal contribution in the SAPS.

3.3 JOB SATISFACTION

3.3.1 Background on job satisfaction

The current challenge faced by management is how to retain talented employees within their organisations due to the abundance of job opportunities available to employees globally (Dhanapal *et al.* 2013:48). Today's talented employees pursue their demands which makes them move from one company, organisation or department to the other, which poses a threat to organisational stability and escalating concern between managers of various organisations, as these trends have reached unparalleled levels (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane & Ferreira 2011:100). Organisations and departments must seek committed, loyal and engaged employees with their work and organisation (Bakker, van Veldhoven & Xanthopoulou 2010:3).

Although JS is deemed a vital variant for JP (Agnihotri 2013:1), the management of JS has posed a challenge in how organisations and departments are managed in recent times. Organisations are competitive by nature. They, therefore, need to identify all factors that impact or have an effect on employees' JS and performance to outpace their competitors (Al-Zu'bi 2010:102). Previous studies concentrated on organisational behaviour, consequently exploring JS as antecedents of enhanced leadership and management competencies and human resource management (Franek, Mohelska, Zubr, Bachmann & Sokolova 2014:1). JS conceals an emotional response to a job that emanates from assessing and evaluating various psychological, physiological and environmental job practices and an employee's weighing between desired and actual results (Locke 1976:297).

JS is impacted by various organisational features such as leadership qualities, management, co-workers qualities, P-O fit, communication quality, growth, development and performance appraisal mechanisms (Bozeman & Gaughan 2011:163). Organisations operating in numerous environments, especially in security and customer care, must utilise creativity and innovation as a competitive instrument. However, they concede that satisfied, talented and energised employees are vital for the organisation to succeed and outperform its competitors (Abolalaei 2005:68).

The majority of organisations have realised that employees are the very essence of the existence and success of their organisations. Consequently, they constantly invest resources to make their organisations appealing and desirable to their employees and potential employees within the vigorous competitive space (Glen 2006:37). For an organisation to succeed and retain talented employees within the competitive environment, it must create an attractive, motivating, engaging atmosphere, which requires quality and profitability (Dugguh, Ayaga & Dennis 2014:11).

JS emanates from an employee's assessment and judgement of their job environment and circumstances informed by their desires, beliefs and job opportunities which are crucial to them (Sempane, Rieger & Roodt 2002:23). Aziri (2011:77) states that when the negative results or outcomes of job dissatisfaction arise within the employee, the importance of JS predominantly transpires. Aziri (ibid.) identifies the outcomes of such discontent as untrustworthiness, high turnover, poor performance, poor service delivery, and increased mistakes within the workspace. Even though there is an acceptance that the employee's worth is paramount for organisational prosperity and progress, Saari and Judge (2004:395) affirm that there is a misunderstanding, discussion, and deliberations between scholars on employee attitudes and JS.

To combat the degeneration in JS resulting from an upsurge in role insecurity and to prevent this, JS was viewed as a reaction by an employee toward the present work conditions (Moura, Orgambidez-Ramos & Goncalves 2014:293). JS is affected by various organisational and personal factors, which become pointers among employees of organisational efficacy (Rothmann & Coetzer 2002:29). Additionally, work-related variables, such as interpersonal behaviour, type of work, working environments, colleagues, management appraisals, growth and development, are affirmatively linked to employee satisfaction (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt 2003:77; Ladebo 2005:481). According to Heller, Judge and Watson (2002:815), research has indicated and concluded that dissatisfied employees' vital signs and indicators are anguish, antagonistic behaviour, aggression, and apprehension. When employees are serving an organisation over a period, they become emotionally attached to it, and JS becomes conspicuous among these attitudinal attachments (Allen & Meyer 1990:1).

The interchange between organisational and personal factors results in JS within the working environment (Muhammad & Mohammad 2010:123). The outcomes of JS lead to improved work performance, low turnover, and improved levels of absenteeism and presenteeism (Morrison 2008:330). Since JS involves employees' feelings and sentiments, it has a more significant impact on the organisational success concerning JP, employee turnover, absenteeism and life satisfaction (Spector 2008).

When the levels of JS are high within an organisation, they can have a favourable monetary spinoff, as the employees have strong connections and attachments to the organisation, which results in employees being committed to the work (Droussiotis & Austin 2007:208). To achieve this, Oshagbemi (2000:213) advocates that organisations manage turnover and absenteeism effectively, thus suggesting the requirement to initiate the process of exploring factors that impact employee satisfaction. Consequently, the opportunities presented by the organisation for

employees to study further, develop and become exposed to new trends is particularly imperative for JS (Lautizi, Laschinger & Ravazzolo 2009:446). Orgambidez-Ramos and Borrego-Ales (2014:30) also affirm that an employee can be satisfied with the elementary content of the job. However, the lack of stimulation, elevation to a senior position within the organisation and clear career path may lead to the employee feeling disappointed and exasperated.

The immediate working conditions of the employee, such as colleagues, comradeship and organisational culture, have the propensity to affect levels of JS (Ghazzawi 2008:1). Aspects concerning the work or job situation recognised as elements of JS are job or task obscurity and skill diversity or intricacies of work (Oshagbemi 1996:389; Bozeman & Gaughan 2011:162). Employees' motivation and organisational culture are affected by the congruency between the employees and the organisation's goals and objectives, mission statement, strategic objectives, work-life steadiness practices, and physical work environment, according to Martins and Coetzee (2007:20). Aspects such as management style, organisational policies, organisational setup, work circumstance and relationships amongst colleagues need to be deliberated upon, as JS can be attained from such situations that an employee experiences at work (Weiss 2002:173).

High employee JS is vital to those managers and supervisors who believe that "an organisation has a responsibility to provide employees with challenging and inherently rewarding jobs" (Robbins 2001:82). Gill (2008:98) indicates that employees exude high levels of JS with developed amounts of trust in various organisations. Consequently, multiple organisational policies are also aspects that influence the level of JS (Droussiotis & Austin 2007:211). Saltzstein, Ting and Saltzstein (2001:452) also established that JS and satisfaction with work-family balance are ascertained by job-related factors, such as pay, work conditions, elevation, fringe benefits and performance bonuses. Smith, Kendal and Hullin (1969:194) identified five aspects that can be used to determine JS, as shown in Figure 3.2. Most of these factors are extensively discussed in paragraph 3.3.4.



Figure 3.2: Aspects of JS

Source: Smith *et al.* (1969:194)

It is paramount that factors that affect JS are examined when there is a concession that there are probable outcomes linked to low levels of JS, as that will require the establishment of programmes that will enhance JS and evade adverse working behaviour (Orgambidez-Ramos *et al.* 2014:34). When employees' needs are not satisfied within the workplace, the elements of job dissatisfaction surface, which ultimately affect organisational performance levels of organisational commitment and elevate the chances of the employee considering quitting their job (Adenike 2011:153). Leaders, managers and supervisors who are inclined to develop their employees can improve person-job fit and foster JS (Wong & Laschinger 2013:947). JS will be the ultimate output of the employee's job when they are sincere with their job, and on the other side, there will be an opposite situation if they are not comfortable with their placement (Anjum, Fan, Javed & Rao 2014:242).

Research shows that other employees are inclined not to be satisfied irrespective of their managers' conducive conditions created in their work environment due to their disposition, character, and related factors (Aamodt 2004:48). Rayton and Yalabik (2014:2386) state that JS is a mixture of the employee's affectionate perspective of their job and their intellectual view of numerous work environment factors. Definitions of JS will be discussed below.

3.3.2 Job satisfaction defined

JS is a significant variant in research relevant to all organisations and departments and has various and parallel definitions (Saba 2011:1; Anari 2012:258). However, it is a multifaceted concept with numerous explanations provided by prior scholars. Oshagbemi (1996:388) views JS as the total well-being of all the employees within the organisation. The construct JS can be examined on two marginally diverse approaches as indicated in the literature. Firstly, JS can be dealt with as a single variant, coping with the affectionate perspective of the employee towards their job. Secondly, it can be dealt with as a multifaceted variant, as researchers emphasise various factors that affect the job (Thabane 2016:12). JS implies consequences for “job-related behaviours such as output, absenteeism, income and performance” (Oshagbemi 1996:389).

Luthans (2005:212) views JS as a multifaceted variant with three accepted approaches. First, it is an affectionate side to the job circumstances. Secondly, it is established by whether the employee’s needs are satisfied. Thirdly, it signifies various related attitudes. Initially, Locke (1976:1297) defined JS as “a function of the perceived relationship between what one desires from one’s job and what one perceives that it offers”. JS’s view also evolved to imply a “gratifying or positive emotional state, emanating from assessing one’s job or job experience” (Locke 1976:1297). As founded on the review conducted on the applicability of JS, Locke (1969) established that the following seven work issues as indicated in Figure 3.3 are typically associated with JS.



Figure 3.3: Seven work issues of JS
Source: Locke (1976:1300)

In addition, Okpara (2002:65) states that the following aspects salary, conditions of work, management, interactions with colleagues and prospects for growth are identified to affect JS, which leads to an emotional response caused by the congruency between employee's values towards their job and benefit received from their job. Although definitions can entail comprehensive explanations of what JS involves, it remains a multifaceted concept indicated by the numerous variables that have been studied in relation to it (Ravari, Mirzaei, Kazemi & Jamalizadeh 2012:98).

Vecchio (2003:266) clusters the foundations of JS into two classifications, namely, intrinsic and extrinsic. Vecchio (ibid.) describes that intrinsic foundations emanate from the internal features of the employee and have mental value. In contrast, extrinsic foundations derive from external features of the employee, for example, the employee's background. JS has been embraced as the manifestation of an individual's emotions, principles, values and engagements (Luthans 2011:144). Wagner III and Hollenbeck (2010:105) define JS as satisfactory emotions that reflect that the job satisfies the employee's needs. Furthermore, JS can be explained as a sentimental response to a job founded on assessing definite and preferred results (Mosadeghrad 2003:85). By observing JS as a signal of employee welfare, it can be said that the positive effect an employee has on specific factors of the job influences their JS (Ladebo, Abubaker & Adamu 2011:1).

In line with these definitions, JS can be defined as "an individual's feelings holistically regarding their job and the attitudes they have towards numerous characteristics or facets of their job, as well as an attitude and perception that could subsequently influence the degree of fit between the individual and the organisation" (Ivancevish & Matteson 2002:396). After explaining different definitions of JS, it is imperative to explore JS theories utilised by researchers in several previous studies.

3.3.3 Job satisfaction theories

Several competing motivation theories are utilised to describe the nature of JS (Thabane 2016:13). Theories recognise significant variables and connect them to formulate "tentative propositions" (or hypotheses) that can be measured through research (Newstrom 2007:6). Booyesen (2008:12) contend that these theories describe people's behaviour, emotions, and cognitive aspects. For a theory to be a foundation for significant development in various fields of study, it must be scholarly, confirmed in pragmatic terms (Swanson 2001:2), and enhance the creation of new knowledge. Even though there is no evident guide for choosing the appropriate or relevant approach to be utilised when examining and attempting to resolve a challenge through research

efforts (Miner 2005:6), the researcher will select those approaches that befit the challenge instead of fitting the challenge to a model.

According to Saif, Nawaz, Jan and Khan (2012:1382), a collection of theories exist and are obtainable to describe the motivational contents and cognitive procedures that establish the substance of JS in any organisation. The various cognitive theories of motivation are categorised into two opposing approaches: content and process theories (Venugopalan 2007:38). Kini and Hobson (2002:605) accede and concur that there are dissimilarities between content and process theories. Content theories focus on recognising significant intrinsic features and how the employee might prioritise them. In contrast, the process theories are concerned with specific psychological procedures underlying action and accentuate relating the functioning of the employee's cognitive aspects as they translate to behaviour, as prescribed below.

3.3.3.1 Content theories

Content theories are concerned with how the employee arranges the following factors, such as ascertaining the needs, motivators and incentives to achieve satisfaction (Luthans 2005:240), which has a reciprocal effect on motivating the individual at work (Venugopalan 2007:38). For the employee to be motivated and satisfied, some needs need to be gratified, such as biological, psychological, social and higher-level needs, classified into primary, secondary and high-level employee necessities (Saif, Nawaz, Jan & Khan 2012:1385).

The following are the well-known content theories that are widely used:

- **Alderfer's ERG theory (1969)**

Alderfer's (1972) theory (also known as ERG theory) is related to Maslow's theory in that needs are designed in a hierarchy. However, Alderfer redesigned Maslow's need hierarchy into three levels of core needs: (1) existence needs, (2) relatedness needs and (3) growth needs, hence the label ERG theory. Contrasting to Maslow and Herzberg's theories, Alderfer does not suggest that an inferior need must be satisfied before a superior need becomes inspiring or that dispossession is the only method of activating the need (Luthans 2005:244). Alderfer proposed a range of needs alternative to hierarchical levels or two factors of needs (Saif *et al.* 2012:1388). In all facets, this theory is parallel to Maslow's theory.

However, there are two distinct areas whereby the theory of Alderfer varies from Maslow's theory. First, in terms of substance or the number of need levels in the hierarchy, Alderfer identified only

three-level needs, unconventional to five-level needs of Maslow (Srivastava 2005:72). Secondly, the ERG theory's process of moving from one level to the next contains a distinctive frustration-regression element. Maslow's theory indicates that an individual fulfils an inferior need before elevating to the next higher level (Tyilana 2005:28). Conversely, in Alderfer's theory, if an individual is constantly exasperated in their efforts to gratify a superior need, then relatedness needs may re-emerge as primary ones (Thabane 2016:23).

Herzberg, Maslow and Alderfer's theories are centred on the same underpinning assumption that individuals have inborn needs that must be gratified (van der Zee 2009:33). However, these theories vary in that Maslow focused on five needs, which Alderfer reduced to three and further condensed by Herzberg to two basic sets of needs, as illustrated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Linking Maslow, Alderfer and Herzberg's theories of motivation

Maslow's hierarchy of needs	Alderfer's ERG theory	Herzberg's two-factor theory
Physical	Existence	Hygiene factors
Security		
Affection	Affiliation	Stimuli (motivators)
Admiration		
Self-accomplishment	Development	

Source: Mullins (2010:266)

- **Maslow's theory of motivation (1943)**

Maslow introduced the foundation of JS theory with a five-stage hierarchy of human needs, recognised as the deprivation/gratification proposition (Mertler 1992:86). Maslow's hierarchy of needs is conceivably the well-recognised and acknowledged motivation theory. It brings forth the consideration of human needs as the impetus of behaviour. Ifedili and Ifedili (2012:79) assert that Maslow's hierarchy of needs in 1943 was initiated based on the deficit and evolution of needs. He organised those needs in an upward order of physical needs, which are paramount for the foundation phase of life, for example, nutrition, water and so forth, security needs which is the need for safekeeping; the need for affection and fitting, which are the needs for a sense of belonging and camaraderie; the need for admiration which is the need for appreciation and reverence; and finally the need for self-accomplishment which is the need for achievement and attainment and to effectively utilising the most distinctive capabilities. Needs are facets of people's

lives that need accomplishment and reciprocate initiate, direct and tolerate behaviour towards satisfaction (Amos, Ristow, Ristow & Pearse 2008:176).

Maslow organised the five needs in a grading method and assumed human needs must emerge in an anticipated progressive manner (Steers & Porter 1975:31; Kroon 1996:332). The employee will be enthused should any need be accomplished, leading to JS. Each need has an important contributing factor in advancing JS, and an unaccomplished need has an adverse effect on the performance and advancement of the employee at work (Waskiewicz 1999:26; Everingham 2003:246). This denotes that the greater the level of need, the greater the amount of stimulus required to the cognisance of the employee's JS. This is indicated in Figure 3.4.



Figure 3.4: Maslow hierarchy of needs
Source: Van Niekerk (1987:151)

According to the effects of Maslow's theory, an organisation's objective must be directed toward fulfilling the physiological needs of the employee first, as this need is fundamental in the majority of cases. Consequently, Maher (2002:70) affirms that the theory suggests that the inferior needs must be fulfilled before the superior needs are stimulated. Therefore, organisations and departments must guarantee that their employees' physical, security, fitting and admiration needs are gratified. Applying Maslow's theory, organisations must inspire employees by ascertaining factors that affect their performance and behaviour, recognise which needs have been satisfied and which still need to be fulfilled and develop a roadmap of fulfilling them in due course, simultaneously acknowledging the distinctiveness and dynamic nature of an employee's needs

(Amos *et al.* 2008:179). As shown in Table 3.3, it is expedient to look at Maslow's hierarchy as if it were a stairway ascended one step at a time until the top is reached (Aamodt 2004:294).

Table 3.3: An illustration of Maslow's hierarchy of human needs

NEEDS	EXPLANATION
Physical Need	These are the most fundamental level of Maslow's hierarchy and comprise the needs for nutrition, water, sleep, oxygen, warmth and freedom from discomfort. When these needs are not gratified, the employee will endeavour to satisfy them (Vecchio 2003:73).
Safety & Security Need	These include freedom from danger, protection against physical emotional and mental abuse or violence, and shielding from menace or dispossession and orderliness (Mullins 2010:261). An employer must create a circle of safety and security for all employees and simultaneously, employees must take responsibility for their safety outside the work environment (Luddy 2005:24).
Affection needs	These are the employees' needs for family, friends and camaraderie (Mullins 2010:261).
Self-appreciation Need	Employees need to believe in their work and trust their judgement. Moreover, they need their work to be valued and respected by others (Maslow 1970:35).
Self-accomplishment need	This level includes the need for employees to realise their potential and continue to grow professionally (Vecchio 2003:73; Robbins 2001:156).

Source: Thabane (2016:22)

Maslow's needs theory is the foundation for the growth and expansion of models of JS (Saif *et al.* 2012:1386). This theory serves as an underpinning factor from which researchers conceptualise the challenges of JS. Hygiene factors, also known as external factors, are positive job prospects associated with Maslow's substandard order of needs (Ramasodi 2010:244), linked with dissatisfaction. Luthans (2005:244) relates Herzberg's theory with Maslow's and suggests that the hygiene factors are comparable but distinguishable to Maslow's low-level needs. Even though Maslow's theory is acknowledged within the broader scope of human resource practitioners, conversely, research conducted by Mawere, Mubaya, van Reisen and van Stam (2016:68) concluded that this theory does not epitomise a universal motivational theory, as it is not applicable and relevant to various African backgrounds based on the enormous differences in ideology. Numerous theories have been established. However, they practically all commence with a brief on Maslow's ideas.

- **McClelland's learned needs theory (1961)**

Robbins, Judge, Millett and Walters-Marsh (2008:186) acknowledge the theories of Maslow and Alderfer by stating impetus in terms of needs. However, unlike Maslow and Alderfer, they did not identify the need for a hierarchy where employees ascend and descend. McClelland's needs theory, also called Achievement motivation theory, is aimed at how employees' needs and environmental factors integrate to establish the three basic human drivers (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell 1953:124). This theory focuses on the accomplishment motive, thus called 'achievement theory' but is founded on accomplishment, influence, and relationship stimuli (Venugopalan 2007:42), shown in Figure 3.5.

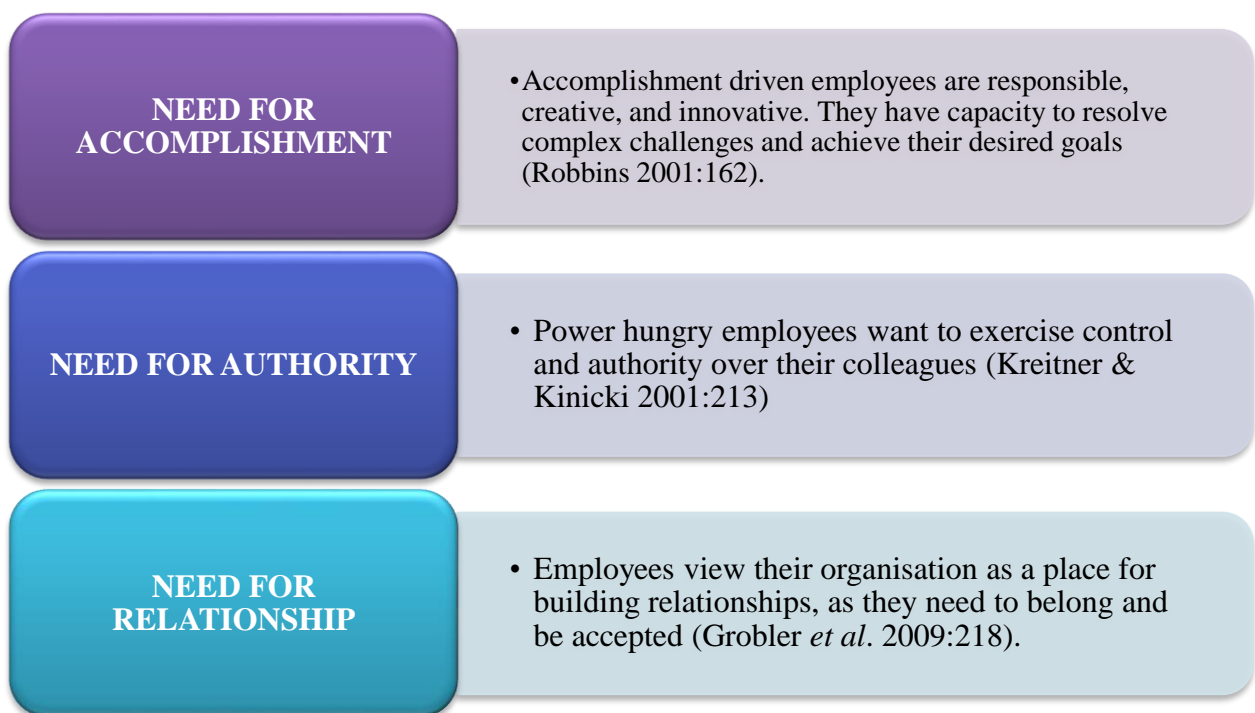


Figure 3.5: McClelland's theory of needs

Source: Venugopalan (2007:42)

Based on McClelland's theory, the above-listed needs form the entirety of needs. Swanepoel, Erasmus and Schenk (2008:329) argue that it is paramount that employers identify the employee's overriding needs and provide space where there will be congruency between employee and organisational needs.

- **Herzberg's two-factor theory (1959)**

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, also known as the two-factor theory, has received extensive acknowledgement as having a pragmatic method for inspiring employees (Tech-Hong

& Waheed 2013:73). Mimon and Oplatka (2008:137) state that Herzberg's two-factor theory is considered the basic theory of inspiration and impetus within the main theories in JS. Mbundu (2011:32) affirms that this theory is usually offered as a motivation theory; when it has become another illustrious and prominent theory that describes JS.

Herzberg's two-factor theory proposes that there is job- satisfiers (stimuli) that are associated with the job contents (accomplishment, acknowledgement, conditions of work, accountability and progression) and job- dissatisfiers (hygiene factors) that are connected with the job context (Mabila 2014:47). Herzberg has established two unique sets of factors: a set endowed with inspiring or fulfilling employees and another that discourages or generates dissatisfaction (Evans & Olumide-Aluko 2010:73). Company policy, management excellence, associations, personal life, salary, job guarantee and working circumstances are hygiene factors. Motivational factors, in turn, include accomplishment, career progression, personal development, job interest, acknowledgement and accountability. This is shown in Figure 3.6.

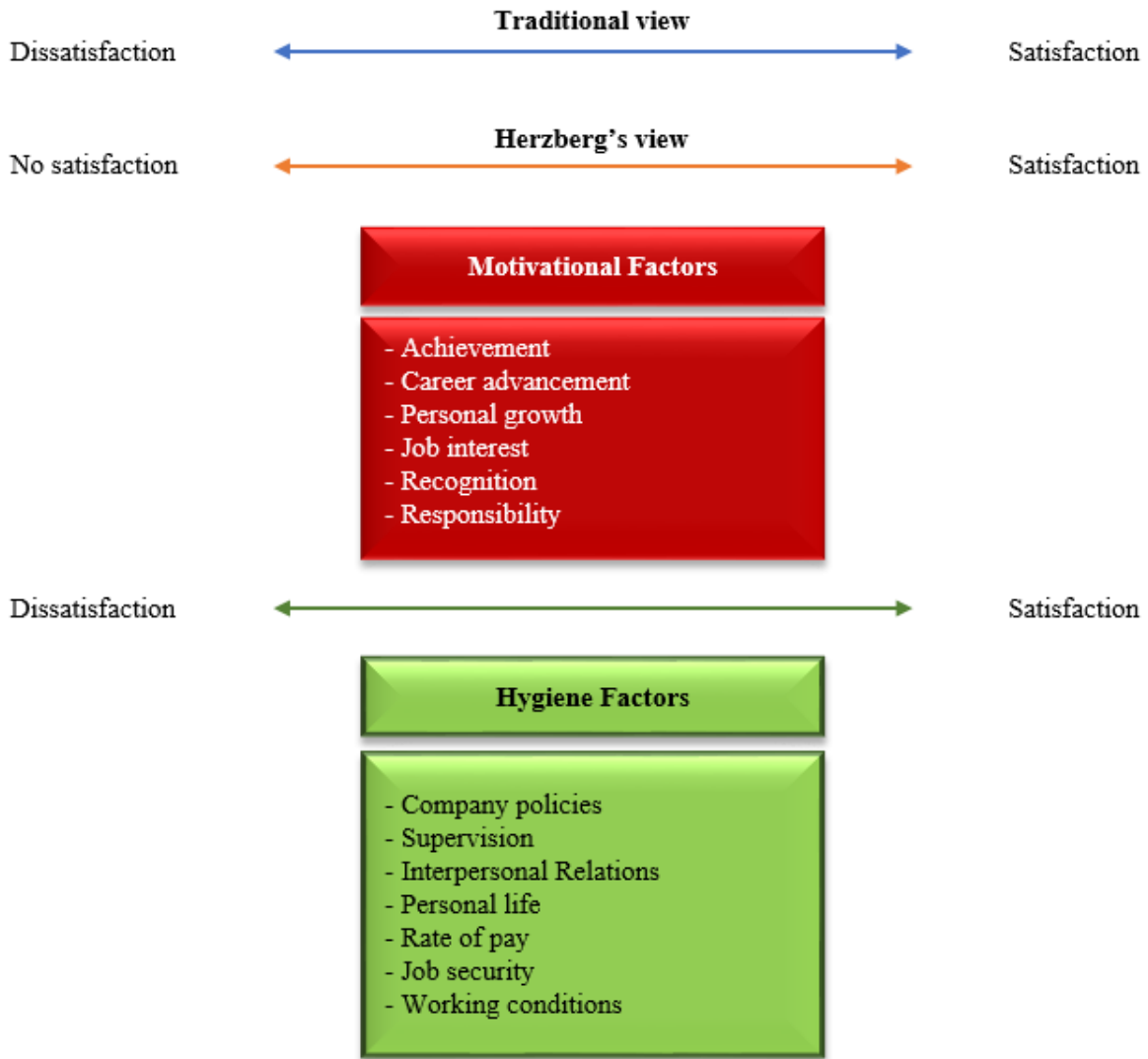


Figure 3.6: Two-factor theory

Source: Amos *et al.* (2008:187)

Hygiene factors are autonomous from motivators. Luthans (2002:695) postulates that the hygiene factors have a greater impact on motivation as they can collapse to the lowest levels. However, they are crucial grounds to avert dissatisfaction because they serve as a departure point for motivation. If ignored, Mgiba (2015:170) argues that hygiene factors can lead an employee to be dissatisfied; however, if addressed through good salary, conducive working conditions, better benefits, clear career pathing, and so forth, they do not have significant effects on JS and performance. Similarly, if motivator factors exist, they will be the foundation for satisfaction. However, their nonexistence will not be the basis for dissatisfaction. Herzberg, in his theory, suggested that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are exclusively diverse matters (Islam & Nazim 2013:87). Additionally, it is emphasised that satisfaction in the presence of a factor will not cause dissatisfaction in its absence, and these are said to be inspiration factors, stimuli or drivers.

Conversely, Herzberg's two-factor theory has been disparaged concerning its rationality in diverse work settings (Mgiba 2015:18). Mullins (2010:265) identified the following shared wide-ranging criticisms of Herzberg's theory:

- The theory is only relevant to environments that require hard labour.
- The theory follows a specific approach.
- The theory is less applicable to unqualified employees whose working environment is boring, repetitive and restricted in scope
- Important events and the expansion of events that arouse positive or negative emotions affect the outcomes.

Notwithstanding the current criticism, the Herzberg two-factor theory is a critical theory of JS, as it is prevalent among employers who constantly escalate JS by utilising Herzberg's identified motivators. It has created a massive amount of further research (Herzberg 1993) and is an essential foundation for the likelihood of workplace motivation and JS. Bexheti and Bexheti (2016:385) assert that Herzberg's theory claims that satisfied employees with hygiene and motivational factors are likely to be the highest performers, unlike those who show resentment between these two factors.

Even though various studies have analysed and probed whether different features of workers such as age, gender, rank and length of service have any significance to their level of JS, very little research has focused on JE and its relevance to JS.

- **Theory X and Theory Y (1960)**

McGregor (1960:30) suggested two diverse opinions of human beings: essentially negative theory X and fundamentally positive theory Y. After studying how employers deal with their employees, McGregor (1960) suggested that employers develop a particular perspective to understand the basis for determining human behaviour and change their behaviour based on the created perception towards different employees within the working environment (Robbins & Stephens 1998:170). This is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: McGregor’s Theory X & theory Y

<p style="text-align: center;">Theory X</p> <p style="text-align: center;">This is a traditional approach to management, founded on the perception that people are innately unmotivated and dislike work and have to be coerced</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Theory Y</p> <p style="text-align: center;">(This theory is based on an optimistic perception of people as intrinsically motivated in the workplace and can be trusted to be responsible and solve problems)</p>
<p>Managers assume that employees have an inborn distaste to work and will circumvent it if possible</p>	<p>Managers encourage employees to work without direct supervision, assuming that their physical and mental effort is as natural as play and rest</p>
<p>Based on their lack of motivation employees must be micro-managed, forced, pressured and intimidated to work or threatened with disciplinary actions and reprimanded if they do not perform</p>	<p>In a more democratic work environment, external factors do not impede employees from maximally performing, as they are self-driven and have a high level of commitment to attaining their goals</p>
<p>Many employees prefer to be managed this way to evade accountability, as they lack motivational drive and work for financial security</p>	<p>Commitment to objectives is not based on extrinsic rewards or the extent of approval shown by management and is due to employees’ internal motivation</p>
	<p>Employees grow and blossom when the working environment enables them to perform their duties with excellence</p>

Source: Saif *et al.* (2012:1387)

McGregor’s Theory X management style has been regarded as an undesirable method of handling employees as it causes substandard outcomes and hence job dissatisfaction (Msibi 2017:21). Theory Y management style, in contrast, yields improved performance results and provided employees with the opportunities to improve, mature and develop, which leads to JS (Msibi 2017:21).

Previous research did not practically approve McGregor’s theory X and Y concerning JS and JP, based on two highly plausible reasons (Lawter, Kopelman & Prottas 2015:85). Firstly, there has been an inability to differentiate between theory X and Y attitudes and theory X and Y behaviours. The earlier studies that made these dissimilarities were undertaken exclusively to establish construct-valid measures of theory X and Y attitudes and theory X and Y behaviours (Kopelman, Prottas & Davis 2008:255; Kopelman, Prottas & Falk 2010:120; Kopelman, Prottas & Kalf 2012:450). Secondly, the procedural method utilised in previous fundamental studies tested incorrect investigation units; instead of using an across-individual correlation design, a multi-level, multi-source individual/workgroup analysis was desirable (Lawter *et al.* 2015:85).

3.3.3.2 *Process theories*

Process theories elucidate how needs and goals are satisfied and acknowledged mentally (Perry, Mesch & Paarlberg 2006:505). Venugopalan (2007:38) shows that process theories are more inclined to determine how behaviour is introduced, directed and continued and stresses the importance of the actual process of motivation.

The renowned theoretical models for process theories are as follows;

- **Adams equity theory (1963)**

Adams and Rosenbaum's (1962:161) equity theory indicates that a significant contribution to JP and JS is the amount or extent of parity or disproportionality that employees observe in their work situations. The theory suggests that proportionality transpires when the ratio of an employee's results to their contributions parallels the ratio of another employee's production to inputs (Venugopalan 2007:55). If there is proportionality to his ratio compared to another employee, a parity state is said to be in place (Saif *et al.* 2012:1388).

Adams' equity theory suggests that employees are not working in seclusion. However, they work with colleagues and equate their performance against the appraisal system utilised and the contribution of others (Humphry, Nahrgang & Morgeson 2007:1337). Additionally, the theory proposes that employees equate rewards received for their assistance in performing their duties to rewards received by co-workers (Msibi 2017:24).

Adam's equity theory requires a reasonable equilibrium created by an employee's contribution and efforts, such as of commitment, competency level, patience, passion and so forth and an employee's productivity such as income, welfares, acknowledgement, progression and so forth. Based on this theory, establishing or creating a reasonable equilibrium guarantees strong and formidable working relations, whereby employees' needs will be gratified and perform duties to their full potential (Amos *et al.* 2008:184).

- **Job characteristics theory**

The cutting-edge work in the job characteristics model was performed by Turner and Lawrence (1965:10), Herzberg (1966), Blood and Hulin (1967:284) and Hulin and Blood (1968:41). They observed the association between certain objective qualities of jobs and employees' reactions to their work (Anjum *et al.* 2014:247). The job enrichment model is based on the belief that jobs are focused not on assisting employees in getting optimal pleasure from performing their jobs.

However, supporting employees feel that their contributions are appreciated and recognised (Hackman & Oldham 1980:330).

Mukul, Rayhan, Hoque and Islam (2013:190) identified five job elements giving rise to three psychological conditions that amount to valuable personal and work outcomes (see Figure 3.7).

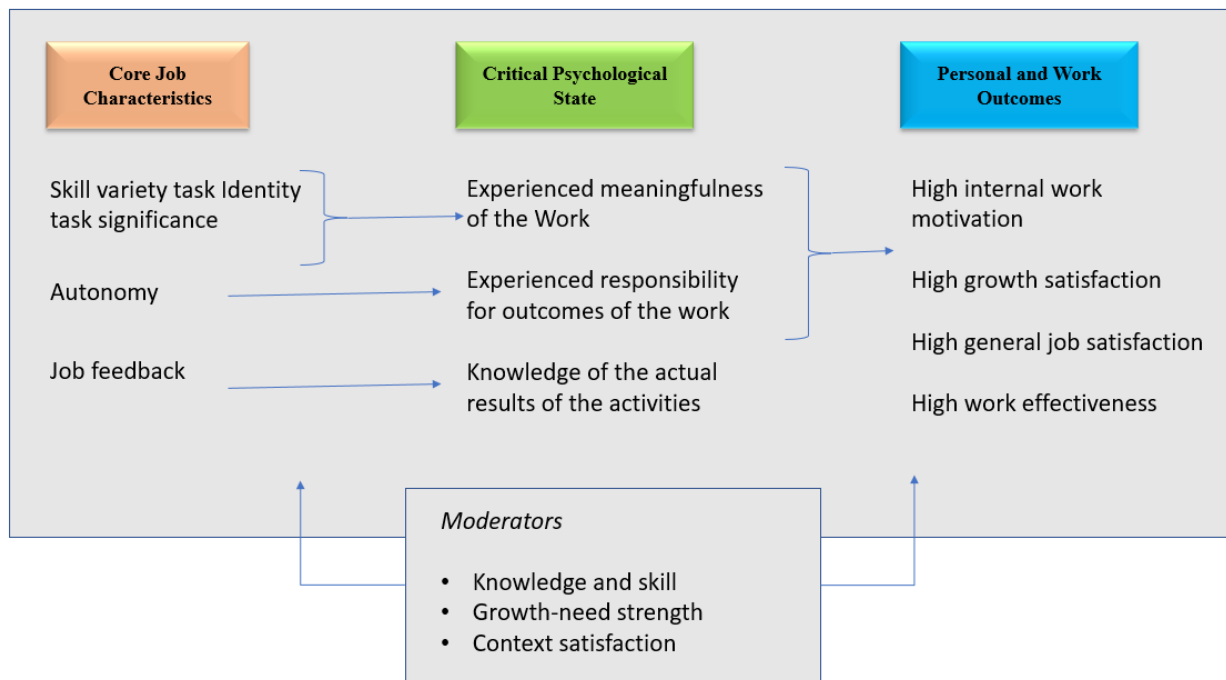


Figure 3.7: Job enrichment model

Source: Lunenburg (2011:2)

Lunenburg (2011:2) ascertains and describes the five core job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback (see Table 3.5).

Research conducted by Chiu and Chen (2005:523) investigated the role of JS in mediating job characteristics and OCB. The research findings indicated job variety and job significance had a substantial positive association with OCB, while job identity, job autonomy, and job feedback and independence were not substantially associated with OCB. Furthermore, inherent satisfaction was a mediating mechanism of the association between job variety, job significance and OCB (Rahman, Wan Sulaiman, Nasir & Omar 2014:257). Rahman *et al.* (ibid.) extrinsic satisfaction did not mediate the association between job characteristics and OCB.

Table 3.5: Five core job characteristics

Core job characteristic	Explanation
Skill variety	The amount and extent of diverse skills required for a job, which in turn requires various competencies.
Task identity	Indicates that the job is identified and has a clear outcome, which involves completing it from start to finish.
Task significance	The extent to which employees perceive that a job has a significant effect on people within or outside an organization.
Autonomy	Indicates that employees are given freedom, independence and control in doing their work.
Job feedback	Refers to performance appraisals given to employees and a reward system.

Source: Anjum *et al.* (2014:248)

- **Locke’s goal-setting theory (1968)**

Locke (1968:309) affirms that employees’ desires have played a critical role in establishing their behavioural patterns. The underlying aim of goal-setting is that employee behaviour is inspired by desires, objectives and goals (Mgiba 2015:34). Goals can be specific or general, challenging or uncomplicated (Spector 2000:189). Certain specific goals result in enhanced performance, and complicated or challenging goals result in improved performance and satisfaction than uncomplicated goals (Shajahan & Shajahan 2004:95). The goal-setting theory is an exhibit that thought-provoking goals serve as an impetus (Robbins 2005:54).

Goal-setting theory suggests that complicated goals require attention to challenges, enhance a sense of goal significance and inspire tenacity to attain the goals (Saif *et al.* 2012:1390). Moynihan and Pandey (2007:40) affirm that the goal-setting theory can be integrated with mental philosophies to improve understanding of the experience. For example, higher self-efficacy is positively associated with employees’ view that they effectively impact the important working environment and improve work inspiration.

It is a challenge for a particular goal to influence an employee’s behaviour, provided these goals were crafted in cooperation and agreed upon with each employee (Amos *et al.* 2008:186). Furthermore, appropriate feedback is provided (Spector 2000:190). Employees appreciate it when they are constantly provided with proper feedback concerning the attainment of their goals, as it allows for or identifies shortcomings between the desired and actual outcomes, according to Robbins (2005:54).

- **Porter/Lawler expectancy theory (1968)**

Porter and Lawler (1968) invented a detailed theory of motivation and expanded Vroom’s theory, a considerable multifaceted theory of work inspiration founded on expectancy theory. The Porter-Lawler model proposes that motivation is influenced by numerous interconnected mental elements, such as inspiration emanating from the “perceived effort-reward probability” (Saif *et al.* 2012:1389). Notwithstanding its intricacies, the “efforts - performance - reward - satisfaction system” affords a valuable instrument for having a better perspective on human behaviour in organisations (Venugopalan 2007:53).

- **Vroom’s Expectancy theory (1964)**

Vroom’s expectancy theory is a methodology that motivation is founded on the base that employees appreciate that their physical and psychological drive will generate their positive performance (expectancy) compensated in terms of their level of performance (Vroom 1964:331). Vroom’s theory is founded on three significant variables. These variables include valance (amount of compensation needed), expectancy (one’s assessment of the likelihood that determination will produce effective performance) and instrumentality (one’s assessment that performance will produce outcomes in getting the reward). Figure 3.8 provides a visual presentation of the three variables below.

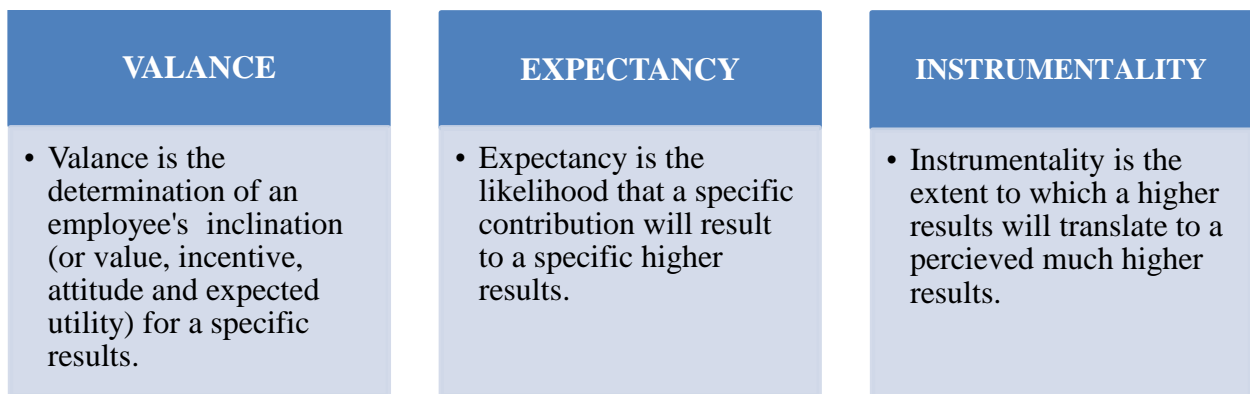


Figure 3.8: Vroom’s expectancy theory
Source: Saif *et al.* (2012:1389)

3.3.3.3 Affective event theory

According to Weiss and Cropanzano (1996:11), the affective event theory concentrates on the organisation, causes and effects of affective familiarities at work. The theory describes the connections between employees’ inner effects, thoughts, feelings, psychological conditions, and responses to occurrences in their work environment that effect their performance, organisational

commitment and JS (Dugguh & Dennis 2014:13). These affective encounters directly impact demeanours and attitudes, and the fundamentals of these effects have not been extensively investigated (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996:11).

The affective events theory is based on the conclusions of research conducted by Rolland and De Fruyt's (2003:5101), which focused on personality in support of affective events theory, indicated various factors that impact the theory, namely awareness, amicability, neuroticism, exploratory and gregariousness. The affective events theory contemplates the configuration of affective responses as paramount as the alignment of environments. Figure 3.9 presents a tentative macro structure to the position of the affective event as formulated by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996:12). The dimensional structure of JS concentrates on the proportions of the attitude object (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996:11).

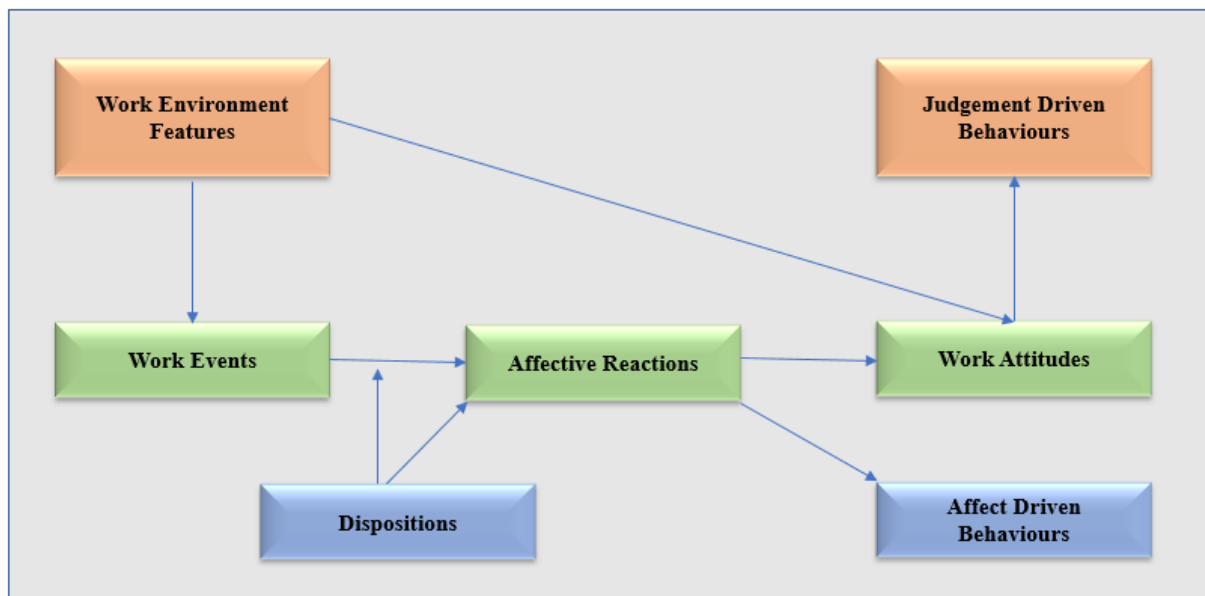


Figure 3.9: Affective events theory: Macro structure

Source: Weiss & Cropanzano (1996:12)

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996:12) affirm that the theory is the idea that affects levels intermittently. The base is determined according to distinctive mechanisms such as peculiar sequences, affective dispositions, and emotionally appropriate incidence that create shocks to patterns (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996:12). The theory further suggests that affective work behaviours are described by employee temper and feelings, while mental-based behaviours are the best predictors of JS (Dugguh & Dennis 2014:13).

3.3.4 Factors that influence job satisfaction

JS is regularly studied as a construct in organisational behaviour research and a dominant variable in both research and theory of organisational phenomena (Martin & Roodt 2008:23). Saari and Judge (2004:396) indicate that JS as a job attitude has been researched extensively in industrial or organisational psychology. Bernstein and Nash (2008) found that JS has been extensively researched. It comprises various important emotional, cognitive and behavioural components, as indicated in Figure 3.10.

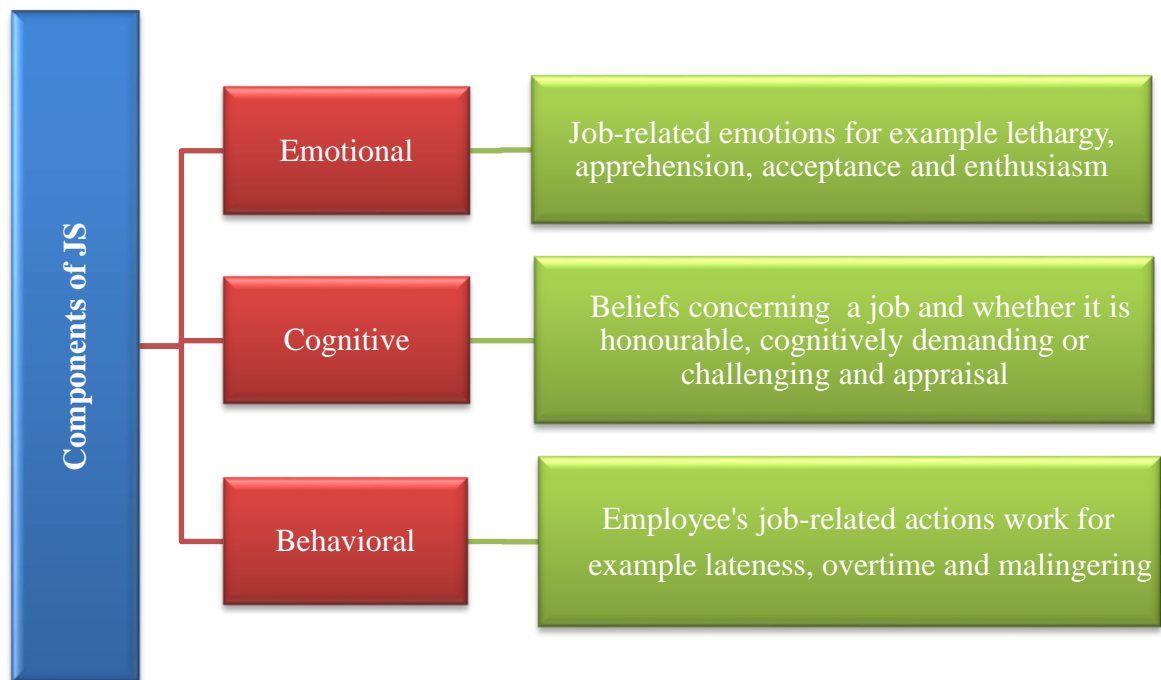


Figure 3.10: Components of JS

Source: Bernstein & Nash (2008)

Gerber, Nel, van Dyke, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Warner (2003:58) contend that psychological working environments ascertain employee satisfaction. Gerber (ibid.) postulates that a psychological working environment denotes the mental consequence of work demands on employees and their teams. For example, the type of work performed extensively affects the employees. However, jobs are designed not to lead to tardiness, fatigue and inefficiency but to require a high level of intelligence, accomplishment or responsiveness (Malo 2015:45). Organisations must ensure that jobs are designed to minimise the psychological impact of employees by promoting delegation, decreasing workload, advancing job enrichment, and encouraging job rotation.

As per Heller *et al.* (2002:815), organisational factors could comprise work settings, salary, supervision, opportunities for progression, working conditions and colleagues, and personal factors, including race, gender, age, educational level, work experience, tenure and marital status. In addition, additional factors relate to organisational justice (Usmani & Jamal 2013:352), organisational citizenship (Motowidlo 2000:115), gender (Clark 1997:341), communication (Chien 2004:289), cultural influences (Saari & Judge 2004:396).

Spector (1997:2) identified other factors of JS as shown in Table 3.6:

Table 3.6: Factors of JS

FACTOR	DESCRIPTION
Pay	Income and salary increments might enhance JS. However individuals who receive higher salaries are not necessarily as satisfied with their jobs as are other employees.
Promotion	Promotion prospects could lead to JS. Being elevated to higher positions indicates personal development, a higher level of accountability, and enhances employees' social status.
Supervision	Adequate supervision might enhance JS, which escalates when there a good working relationship between employees and supervisors who constantly provides support, guidance, and advice.
Fringe benefits	Financial and non-financial fringe benefits may ensure JS. Benefits offered to employees enhance JS, JP and organisational commitment.
Contingent rewards	Giving and promising appropriate rewards dependent on good performance would motivate employees to perform well and experience JS. This is in line with various motivation theories.
Operating procedures	Satisfaction with standard operating procedures would ensure JS. Employee motivation and organisational culture are affected when there is congruency between employee's needs and organisational objectives, work-life balance practices and a pleasant physical work environment
Co-workers	Good relationships with work colleagues and teams play a crucial role in ensuring an employee's JS.
Nature of work	If the type of work suits employees' competencies, preferences, goals and inclinations, they will experience JS.
Communication	Effective channels of communication in an organization would lead to JS.
Participation in decision making	Employees feel more appreciated when they are part and parcel of the process of decision making. Employees must be allowed to contribute to management decisions, which would promote participative management
Empowerment	Employees must be empowered by providing knowledge, skills and competency development. This will enhance their JS and JP and ensure organizational success. Empowerment also means providing employees with a certain amount of autonomy in undertaking their tasks.
Work place environment	The working environment contributes to JS. Satisfactory ventilation, lighting, tools, space and other environmental features are essential in determining employee satisfaction

Source: Spector (1997:2)

Some of these factors will be discussed below:

3.3.4.1 Organisational factors

The appreciation of the relationship between organisational factors and JS indicates a total understanding of JS (Javed, Balouch & Hassan 2014:121). Based on the theory of organisational factors, it comprises numerous jobs and the workplace (Abdulla, Djebarni & Mellahi 2011:128). The following organisational factors will be discussed pay, work itself, promotion and career development, supervision, co-workers, working conditions and organisational justice.

- **Pay**

Yang, Miao, Zhu, Sun, Liu and Wu (2008:1333) conducted a study to evaluate the influence of pay increases on JS in the Chinese military. Their findings indicated that salary is a significant factor affecting overall JS. Singh and Loncar (2010:470) state that satisfaction with pay is fundamental for both employers and employees. However, income is paramount in satisfying their economic needs (Malo 2015:42). According to Schulze (2006:322), employees emphasise JS and expect employers to create a conducive environment where employees enjoy maximum satisfaction and flourish emotionally and professionally.

Further studies concerning the relationship between pay administration and JS indicated that the involvement of employees in deciding on salary increments had amplified employees' appreciation of interactional justice and could lead to an increased JS in the organisation (Ismail & Zakaria 2009:190). When employees are dissatisfied with their salary, it can decrease commitment to the job and increase acts of dishonesty (Currall, Towler, Judge & Kohn 2005:614). Research conducted within the SAPS by Dachapalli (2016:65) revealed low levels of JS, except for salary, where there were high levels of dissatisfaction.

Groot and van den Brink (2000:111) provided contrasting findings on the association between pay and JS, as there was no evidence for a relationship between pay and JS. Arnolds and Boshoff (2004:10) denote that financial incentives and appreciation are significant for advanced and developed employees in their work environment, as salary encapsulates their worth. However, Herzberg's two-factor theory contend that pay does not motivate, but it is essential to prevent dissatisfaction (Thabane 2016:18).

- **Work itself**

Sulaiman and Khan (2012:7) assert that work itself refers to how the employee is emotionally connected to the job, whether the employee enjoys their work. Work itself relates to the "degree to which the job affords the employee thought-provoking tasks, further development and growth

opportunities, and the opportunity to assume a position of accountability” (Rehman, Akhtar, Zafer & Riaz 2012:274). Rufai (2011:34) describes that employees’ are inclined to apply for jobs that allow them to display their competency, perform various tasks, and have the liberty to express themselves and receive constant feedback on their performance. The employee’s level of satisfaction with job mechanisms, such as work itself, impacts JS (Luddy 2005:44). The research by Ruthankoon and Ogunlana (2003:338) established a statistically significant association between JS and its work. Other studies suggest that an element such as work itself can lead to either JS or dissatisfaction (Onukwube 2012:44).

- **Promotion and career advancement**

Most employees have high satisfaction levels when they have good opportunities for elevation or progression, according to Bull (2005:89). Mgiba (2015:22) states that JS may lead to prospects for advancement and development in their present job or improve their chance of finding alternate employment. Onukwube (2012:44) contemplates that JS is strongly associated with prospects for elevation or progression. This opinion is reinforced by Ellickson and Logsdon (2001:173) in their research conducted on municipal government workers. They found that there was a statistically substantial association between promotion and JS. Conversely, Onukwube (2012:45) assert that the positive relationship between promotion and JS relies on employees’ perceived fairness.

Opportunity for promotion into senior rank and career progression is the SAPS employees’ most desired goals, based on the rank structure of the organisation. Mohajane (2017:29) maintains that this labour mobility is associated with JS due to a substantial wage increase, increased accountability and higher status. Abdulla *et al.* (2011:139) indicate significant research conducted that concludes a significant relationship between prospects for promotion and career advancement and JS.

- **Supervision**

Supervision suggests a relationship between the employees and their supervisor (Sulaiman & Khan 2012:7). Shan, Rehman, Akhkar, Zafar and Riaz (2012:274) assert that supervision plays a significant role concerning JS as it is based on the capability of the supervisor to afford the necessary emotional and technical support to provide leadership to the subordinates. The value of the supervisor-subordinate relationship will have an important, positive influence on the employee’s overall level of JS (Bull 2005:37). Supervisors capable of developing formal and informal relationships with their subordinates, such as assisting them with work challenges or

providing guidance for personal challenges, are likely to enhance employees' JS, according to Ozdemir (2009:103).

Alavi and Askaripur (2003:591) stipulate that managers must focus on the JS of their employees because:

- Unhappy employees leave their organisations;
- Satisfied employees have less stress, are healthier and have longer life expectancy; and
- JS in the workplace also has the propensity to affect employees' personal life, which affects their performance, level of absenteeism, and other significant important work-related attitudes and behaviour.

Luthans (2005:213) postulates that there are two types of supervisory styles that affect JS: employee centeredness, which is measured by the amount of interest the supervisor is having on the personal interest and well-being of the employee. The other dimension is the inclusion of employees in decision-making in circumstances that affect their work environment. A participative management style established by the employer or supervisor significantly affects employee satisfaction. In most cases, this method leads to higher levels of JS.

- **Co-workers**

Several employees' societal needs are met or gratified through the good relationship created with colleagues and supervisors at work (Rufai 2011:35). The relationship between colleagues significantly affects employee organisational commitment, which emanates from employee JS (Raabe & Beehr 2003:283). Alas (2006:87) supports the view that when colleagues are considered close associates and support systems, that relationship increases JS. Ozdemir (2009:103) asserts that employee motivation and morale are affected when they do not feel welcomed or isolated by their colleagues, and their performance and satisfaction decrease. Onukwube (2012:45) maintains that having responsive and compassionate colleagues enhances JS. Conversely, van der Zee (2009:57) postulates that when an employee works with recalcitrant colleagues, JS may be impacted negatively.

Similarly to evidence of the association between work experience and JS, there is inadequate literature on the relationship between co-workers and JS (Mohajane 2017:30). Mohajane (ibid.) asserts that more studies need to be conducted regarding the association between work experience and JS. Employees spend a significant amount of time interacting with their colleagues than with their immediate families, making getting to know co-workers an essential part of the job itself.

A sense of belonging is encouraged amongst the different ranks in the SAPS, and it is clearly defined as an “us” versus “them” scenario. Police officers are united by attitudes and behaviour that promote camaraderie and unanimity as they endure gruelling relief changes as distinct units (Nayager 2016:50). Nayager (ibid.) deals with the challenges of distinguishing their professional and private life’s and having to depend highly on the support of their colleagues. Reuss-Ianni (1983:258) reflects that “relationships among officers are structured so that they are mutually supportive and their common interests bind them into a cohesive brotherhood that personalises task performance and social relationships”. When the relationships between employees and their colleagues face the challenges of good communication, and no attempts are made to improve the interaction amongst the colleagues, the working environment is affected. It may lead to situations where employees reconsider their position (Mohajane 2017:31). On occasions of this nature, JS may be affected significantly.

- **Working conditions**

Paul (2004:20) states that working conditions refer to the degree to which there are sufficient resources in the organisation, such as physical resources, amount of work, work hours, breaks and independence, which are all determinants of an employee’s JS. When such resources are absent, that can negatively impact the employee’s cognitive and physical well-being (Baron & Greenberg 2003:177). Grobler *et al.* (2009:219) suggest that poor working conditions lead to job dissatisfaction: however, the desired working conditions do not necessarily lead to JS. Sonia (2010:11) affirms that working conditions determine JS and work in two ways. Firstly, these afford means for JP. Secondly, providing a conducive working environment affects the employee’s view of the organisation. If these aspects are conducive and acceptable, employees experience higher levels of JS.

The basic conditions of employment for the public service employees in SA are administered according to chapter two of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (RSA 75/1997). It affords employees benefits such as minimum leave provisions, paid public holidays, unemployment insurance benefits and compensation for injuries or diseases contracted in the workplace. The Public Service Co-ordinating Bargaining Council (PSCBC) administers, regulates and coordinates collective bargaining in the public service. In the SAPS, it is regulated by the Safety and Security Sectoral Bargaining Council (SSSBC). The working conditions of police officers expose them to continuous danger, as they are faced with high levels of apprehension, trauma, hopelessness, feelings of inadequacy and no appropriate coping mechanisms (Nayager 2016:20).

- **Organisational justice**

Another factor that affects JS of employees is called organisational justice, which deals with the perceived fair treatment of employees (Usmani & Jamal 2013:352). Various studies have indicated that JS is significantly impacted by perceived higher levels of organisational justice (Dundar & Tabancali 2012:5777; Lambert 2003:115). However, the absence of justice in an organisation has adverse effects on the psycho-social well-being of employees (Robin 2012:1). Consequently, perception of organisational justice encourages positive attitudes of JS, assurance and conviction, which produces healthy and constructive professional and inter-personal behaviour (Ajala & Bolarinwa 2015:57). The three dimensions of organisational justice include distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, which impact JS and OCB (McDowall & Fletcher 2004:8; Taheri & Soltani 2013:64). The findings by Al-Zu'bi (2010:106) revealed a significant impact between organisational justice and JS.

3.3.4.2 Personal factors

Personal, intrinsic or demographic factors are founded on a supposition that employees are not demographically homogeneous (Abdulla *et al.* 2011:128). According to the theory of personal factors, JS is identified as a cause or result of behaviour (Javed *et al.* 2014:121). The personal factors that are discussed in this chapter include gender, age, years of experience and education level.

- **Gender**

Green (2000:12) and Sloane and Williams (2000:496) conducted a study determining the relationship between gender and JS and identified three possibilities. First, females are more content than males (Wharton, Rotolo & Bird 2000:65). Secondly, males are more fulfilled than females (Forgionne & Peeters 1982:101), and thirdly, no difference exists between males and females concerning JS (Eskildsen, Kristensen & Westlund 2003:122). The level of the association between gender variances and JS is among other factors dependent on certain features, namely personality qualities, title or social standing (Bellingan 2004:29), working conditions, differentiation between public and private sectors and non-governmental institutions (Vinokur-Kaplan, Jayaratne & Chess 1994:93; Danish & Usman 2010:159).

Contrary to the findings of Bellingan (*ibid.*), a study by Azim, Haque and Chowdhury (2013:491) indicated that female employees concentrate more on the significance of the social factors of a job as compared to males. In contrast, male employees focus more on the importance of the prospect

of self-expression in their jobs as compared to females. Martin and Hanson (1985:91) indicated that any variations in JS for men and women are influenced by whether one is the breadwinner in the family. In addition, the finding of the study conducted by Fraser and Hodge (2000:172), Bender, Donohue and Heywood (2005:479) indicated that men are inclined to have higher satisfaction with compensation than females. However, females are prone to have higher satisfaction with colleagues than males. Bardolet, Velazco and Girona (2013:3) reveal that even though female employees earn less salary than males, they are inclined to be equally or highly gratified with their jobs. The rationale is that they accord lesser value to pay and greater value of trust in management.

- **Age**

An ageing workforce changes how the workforce is composed (Oshagbemi 2003:1211). Several scholars have researched the connection between age difference and JS, which is measured as a significant cause of JS (Lee & Wilbur 1985:781; Jathanna, Melisha, Mary & Latha 2011:1). Lee and Wilbur (1985:781) propose three observations that are the foundations of this relationship. First, JS upsurges with age. Secondly, JS rises steadily as sequential age increases, and the association between age and JS is positive and linear until an unredeemable period in which there is a substantial decline in JS. The reason for these findings could be that an ageing workforce changes its composition, which would be more appropriate for older employees.

Oshagbemi (2003:213) postulates that matured and experienced workers retain more seniority and work capability, permitting them to be elevated easier into more rewarding and satisfying jobs. They are inclined not to focus on independence or progression and are less demanding in their jobs, making them more fulfilled than their younger counterparts. Older employees are more inclined to balance their personal lives and careers than younger employees, according to Onukwube (2012:46). More senior employees are prone to validate non-exiting their work due to the limited prospect of being employed and having much more to lose than younger employees. Consequently, they are likely to establish a more positive attitude toward their jobs.

Contrary to the previous view, Kalleberg and Loscocco (1993:78) found that younger employees tend to be fairly satisfied with their jobs compared to older employees because they have higher energy levels. An assumption on which these findings are founded is that as employees grow older, their levels of motivation increase. If they cannot achieve their desires, they become dissatisfied (Mohajane 2017:21). In the SAPS, workforce profiles have altered considerably because the

government has dedicated resources to creating youth employment. However, research conducted in this area may conclude to the contrary.

- **Years of experience**

Years of experience within an organisation indicates that the total number of years that an employee has been employed. Oshagbemi (2003:1217) attests to a substantial association between experience and JS. The study conducted by Onukwube (2012:46) concluded that experienced employees have a greater appreciation of their work. Their experience is translated into the actual implementation of their task, and they are fulfilled and gratified. Little research determined the relationship between work experience and JS; subsequently, there is limited available literature (Kardam & Rangnekar 2012:18). In the SAPS, work experience plays a pivotal role in allocating members' responsibilities and when applying for promotion. Those with years of experience may become dissatisfied with their job when overlooked for promotion.

- **Education level**

Educational accomplishment is recognised as an organisational feature as it affords employees the prospect to develop their characters, expand their insight, competency levels and understanding and how they analyse the state of affairs within the organisation (Mohajane 2017:22). Various studies examining the relationship between JS and educational level have indicated mixed outcomes (Vorster 1992:133; Clark & Oswald 1996:359; Ting 1997:313). The study by Masemola (2011:42) asserts that certain scholars showed that those employees with higher educational achievements have lower levels of satisfaction. On the contrary, other studies have attested that the employees with no educational attainment have a higher level of JS. Educational accomplishment is a vital construct in determining the relationship between job prospects and JS and which might lead to either JS satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Martin & Shehan 1989:185)

Mohajane (2017:23) indicated that employees with a high level of education can turn out to be obstinate, determined, sensible and have intellectual muscle. The effect of being educated is that those employees have the opportunity for progression and further development compared to those who are not educated. Ganzach (2013:97) provides that educational attainment has a constructive indirect effect on JS, as those with high qualifications are inclined to find more gratifying jobs, which becomes a basis of JS. Furthermore, a study by Martin (2007:55) confirms that highly educated employees are more fulfilled than those with no qualifications. Vorster (1992:133) upholds that the relationship between education and JS is positive.

On the contrary, a study by Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001:234) established that education accomplishment has an insignificant effect on JS. Lambert *et al.* (ibid.) supported the findings by Scott, Swartzel and Taylor (2005:109), who showed a negligible association between education levels and JS. Both studies found little relationship between education and satisfaction with pay. Franěk and Vecera (2008:64) denote that educational accomplishment does not translate to extrinsic rewards. However, unfulfilled expectations and ambitions can lead to dissatisfaction. In the SAPS, educational achievement does not affect promotion, job rewards, JP and pay progression. For example, the requirements for advertised posts as set out in Agreement 3 of 2011 of the SSSBC will indicate:

(a) NQF 6 plus 2 years continuous service in the level of lieutenant colonel (combined)

OR

(b) NQF 4 plus 4 years continuous service in the level of lieutenant colonel (combined).

Oshagbemi (1996:358) identified job features that lead to dissatisfaction: poor communication, unavailable job description, dictatorial management system, lack of participation, government policy, working hours, lack of promotional opportunities - poor retirement benefits and indifferent and in-efficient management. Given the role that JS can play in worker performance, absenteeism and turnover and hence the performance of the organisations, understanding the determinants of job satisfaction has important economic implications (Hauret & Williams 2014:2). According to Al-Zu'bi (2010:103), JS is considered a multidimensional variant that comprises employee emotions concerning a multiplicity of intrinsic and extrinsic job components. Subsequently, job dissatisfaction has been considered a single variant was leading to employees leaving their jobs (Bertelli 2007:236). Therefore, JS should be considered an important variable to improve individual well-being, positively affecting labour market participation and performance (Gambacorta & Iannario 2013:198). Hence, the various consequences of JS are important.

- **Consequences of job satisfaction**

Employers should be concerned with the results of JS as whether or not employees are fulfilled by their jobs affects the way they performs (Mgiba 2015:24). Robbins, Ivanoff and Linehan (2001:78) submit that job dissatisfaction leads to high turnover, absenteeism, complaints, lack of motivation and impetus, high turnover intention, and turnover behaviour. Tepper (2000:186) provides that dissatisfied employees are very quick to display behaviour of being counter-productive and wanting to leave their jobs. However, those who remain in their jobs, enduring poor management, have low levels of JS, and organisational commitment.

Mohammad, Habib and Alias (2011:153) found that JS is a causal factor in the physical and mental well-being of the employees. Consequently, it is predicted to influence job-related behaviours such as performance, absenteeism, turnover rates, and employee relations. According to Chen, Hui and Sego (1998:928), JS is an essential element influencing employees' attitudes and total performance as it positively affects the OCB. Bertelli (2007:244) indicates that factors such as adverse characteristics of a job, disturbing organisational politics and poor leadership are some of the factors that contribute to low JS.

Middle managers in the SAPS' organised crime unit exhibited substantial variances in their levels of JS, according to Bellingan (2004:29). In addition, Bellingan (ibid.) assessed progression, work activities, organisational regulations, policies and procedures, salary, freedom, ethical standards, social service, societal status and supervision. Concerning total JS, Rothmann and van Rensburg (2002:44) established that SAPS personnel in the Marico area of the North West province demonstrated a significantly lower JS than police members undergoing training. Furthermore, members in the Mooi River area of the North West province exhibited a considerably lower JS than police members currently in training. When employees are gratified, that becomes a prerequisite for enhancing JP, efficiency, responsiveness, excellence and increased client service of an organisation (Perera & Weerakkody 2016:6).

Research previously conducted by Betz (1971:123) on JS, focussed on JS as a predictor variable (van der Westhuizen 2015:29). Betz (ibid) indicated that the research investigated the relationship between JS as a predictor of work engagement. However, the main focus of this study is different in that its focus is to examine whether JS had a mediating or moderating effect on the association between mental agreement violation and work assignment. The main focus of this study is to examine whether JS has a mediating or moderating effect on the relationship between JE and JP. Wulandari, Mangundjaya and Utoyo (2015:104) studied whether JS is a moderator or a mediator in the relationship between change leadership and commitment to change. Van der Westhuizen (2015:29) affirmed the need for continuous discussion to comprehend JS better and its role in multifaceted relationships. From the many effects that JS has in the workplace it is imperative that the role of JS relative to JP and JE in the SAPS is also clarified. The relationship between JS and JP is also an important effect as JP in the SAPS is presently a public discourse.

3.4 JOB PERFORMANCE

Some international governments have focused more on systems of organisational JP integrating with the utilisation of performance indicators and the implementation of systems of performance assessment (Bruce 2011:1). Transforming internal cultures within public institutions thus begs

questions on the philosophies that underpin the public service ethos on performance and service delivery (Mbombela 2014:3). Marks and Fleming (2004:784) argue that the previously mentioned reforms of the 1980s were intended to improve staff performance and the overall level and quality of service rendered by government departments and other public institutions. For the SAPS, implementing the performance enhancement process (PEP) thus formed part of the reforms critical to improving service delivery (Mbombela 2014:3). Whether such implementation translated to perceptions of improved performance and service delivery is an issue that will require further investigation.

3.4.1 Performance

Performance is the key factor in organisational management literature. However, it is not the only prerequisite for future career development and success in the labour environment (Sonnetag & Frese 2001:4). High performers are inclined to be promoted expeditiously within an organisation and primarily have better opportunities than low performers, even though there are exceptions (Van Scotter, Motowidlo & Cross 2000:526). Regardless of the relevance of individual performance and the extensive utilisation of JP as an outcome measure in empirical research, relatively little research has been done on clarifying the performance concept (Sonnetag & Frese 2001:5). Campbell (1990:704) argues that the literature on the structure and content of the performance is a “virtual desert”. Conversely, lately, there has been an increasing effort to compile a definition of performance and specify the performance concept (Sonnetag & Frese 2001:5).

According to Sonnetag, Volmer and Spsychala (2010:427), researchers agree that performance must be labelled a multi-dimensional concept. However, one can differentiate between a process aspect (i.e. behavioural) and an outcome aspect of performance (Borman & Motowidlo 1993:71). The behavioural aspect refers to “what people do while at work”. Whilst performance that incorporates specific behaviours, these actions, namely, taking complaint’s statement, teaching crime statistics to basic training learners, programming computer software, assembling parts of the firearm, and effecting arrest, are instrumental (Campbell 1990; Sonnetag *et al.* 2008:427). Outcome aspects of performance rely on several factors, such as poor remuneration, nature of work, poor working condition and legal framework, except the individual’s behaviour (Sonnetag & Frese 2001:5). Several performance indicators concentrate on outputs compared to outcomes, which results in the police officers giving attention to reporting what they do instead of what they achieve (Bruce 2011:1). No doubt it is easier to report on that which one did rather than that which was achieved because the measurement of outcomes is time consuming and often depends on the perceptions of those doing the observation. Examples of outputs versus outcomes are, within

Division: HRD, much emphasis is on the learners' results (output) rather than the quality (outcome) of training provided on the specific learning programme. In the operational environment (detectives), the number of dockets submitted to the courts (outcome) is considered instead of the number of convictions (outcome). Furthermore, Bruce (*ibid.*) states that they become pre-occupied with observing norms of activity instead of aligning their activity to achieve desired results, which discourages innovation and reduces operational flexibility.

Campbell, McCloy, Oppler and Sager (1993:35) claim that performance must be differentiated from effectiveness, productivity, and efficiency. According to Sonnentag *et al.* (2008:428), effectiveness is the assessment of performance outcomes. Consequently, productivity is the proportion of effectiveness to the cost of achieving the results. Performance is what the employee is expected to be in the organisation and in which he/she excel (Campbell *et al.* 1993:40). Performance assessment in the SAPS is not an easy exercise because its role is complex. Police performance is measured using crime statistics recorded on the crime database or at academies based on learners declared competent (knowledge, skills and attributes) or having complied with all the requirements of the particular learning programme. Susan, Gakure, Kiraithe and Waititu (2012:196) argue that the performance of the police is an area that attracts global concern. Hence, their performance is judged by the country's citizens on methods of service delivery. Performance in public organisations, such as the SAPS, have many varied audiences who often have little knowledge of what is involved in accurately measuring work performance.

3.4.2 Performance defined

Performance is "the act or process of performing a task, an action, while the verb performs means to work or function well or badly" (Ghalem, Okar, Chroqui & Alami 2016:2). According to the Oxford English dictionary, performance is "how well or badly you do something or how well or badly something works". Samsonowa (2012:223) contends that various definitions studied in the performance measurement literature indicate one characteristic, which comprises two terms: "effectiveness and efficiency; effectiveness as an indicator of the extent of a universal accomplishment, and efficiency as an indicator of the resources that were utilised to achieve the level of achievement" on time.

Hambuda (2017:72) writes that performance refers to individual and team activities that result in organisational success. Similarly, Kerns (2008) propounds that performance depends on activities that enhance the attainment of actions that drive the achievement of essential outcomes. Furthermore, the author refers to happiness as "the experience of frequent, mildly pleasant

emotions, the relative absence of unpleasant feelings and a general sense of satisfaction with one's life". Vanden Berghe (2011:24) states that performance consists of a complicated series of interacting variables about aspects of the job, the employee and the environment". Oberoi and Rajgarhia (2013) put it as "performance is [a] true test for survival in the marketplace".

Samsonowa (2012:223) utilises "performance" as the degree of achieving organisation goals compared to the individual goals. However, this definition of Samsonowa (ibid.) does not involve the duration it takes a team or individual to attain the goal. Venkatraman and Ramanujam (1986:801) allow the concept of time by stating that "performance is the time test of any strategy". In so doing, these researchers seem to suggest that performance is somehow related to time. In addition, Lebas (1995:23) contains the concept of time by stating that performance is about deploying and managing the causal model's mechanisms that lead to the fulfilment of enumerated objectives within the limitations specific to the organisation and to the situation. Rolstadas (1998:989) denotes that performance is a multifaceted concept consisting of seven performance criteria: effectiveness, efficiency, quality, productivity, quality of work-life, innovation, and budget-ability. Hoffman's (1999:275) performance means an assessed contribution to the realisation of organisations' goals. Andersen and Fagerhaug (2002) write that performance includes various aspects of an organisation, such as subjecting the "old performance" to the latest concept of innovation, enticing the best employees, upholding an environmentally sound outfit, or conducting business ethically.

Furthermore, Hauber (2002:24) indicates that "performance" is the impact of specific systems (organisational units of differing sizes, employees and processes) to achieve and validate the goals of the organisation. Performance is an organisation's ability to meet public management expectations and is influenced by the outcomes, however, by the parallel goal setting (Grüning 2002). Krause (2005) describes performance as the extent of accomplishing organisational goals and objectives concerning the vital features of an organisation for the relevant stakeholders. Performance is, therefore, principally specified through a multi-dimensional set of criteria (Ghalem *et al.* 2016:3).

It is the execution of job of job-related tasks by employees during their JP, with the doing of such tasks being aimed at ensuring organisational performance (Hambuda 2017:72). Performance evaluation and assessment assist in documenting employees' JP, which can benefit the organisation's efficacy and employees through career development, constructive feedback and promotion (Mbombela 2014:40).

3.4.3 Job performance

JP is the main experiment in organisational management and embraces meaningful measures to inspire employees to attain higher JP levels and enhance organisational competitiveness, which is the main objective of every effective organisation (Wu & Lee 2011:12551). Pushpakumari (2008:89) indicates that employee attitude is vital to management as it influences the behaviour of employees in the organisation. Organisations require high performing employees to achieve organisational goals and provide excellent service and products to accomplish any competitive advantage (Sonntag & Frese 2001:4; Tabassum, Khan, Sheran & Khan 2016:1). According to Ahmad, Ing and Bujang (2014:1751) and Inuwa (2016:90), organisations are enhancing the performance of employees for optimal productivity or excellent service delivery, which leads to organisational efficacy. An extremely fulfilled employee is an absolute requirement to enable the organisation to attain absolute performance and success (Pushpakumari 2008:89). The complete organisational performance is determined by the employee's performance, which should be efficient and effective (Pushpakumari 2008:89).

Employees are an important resource in any organisation that enables the performance of an organisation's activities and operations (Mudah, Rafiki & Harahap 2014:73). Organisations must have the capability to understand employees' gratification as it is linked with their job and determines their productivity and performance (Inuwa 2016:90). Tabassum *et al.* (2016:1) proclaim that an organisation's performance at a high level is determined by the gratified employees, who are an essential source of achieving organisational goals. According to Shaju and Subhashini (2017:117), satisfied employees become attached to the organisation and becomes committed, enhancing organisation integrity and self-confidence. In addition, they strive to better their JP and improve their productivity beyond expectations (Tabassum *et al.* 2016:1).

3.4.4 Job performance defined

Employers need to appreciate employees' performance as it is essential for management to make decisions that affect organisational performance and success (Alromaihi, Alshomaly & George 2017:5). Employees' performance is a critical test related to effectiveness, quality, knowledge management, financing, and development (Platis, Reklitis & Zimeras 2015:480). There is increasing competition within the safety and security industry. Various organisations appreciate the employee's JP to have a competitive edge, as the JP of employees enhances the organisation's performance and success and assists in delivering quality service (Perera & Weerakkody 2016:3).

The University of Minnesota Libraries Publishing (2015) demonstrates the main determinants of JP as perceptions of organisational justice and interpersonal relationships, stress and work attitudes, mainly JS. This definition suggests a link between JS and JP but is silent on its possible causal pathway. Campbell and Wiernik (2015:47), in turn, claim that the direct predictor of JP is role-specific knowledge, skill and choice behaviour concerning the direction, intensity and duration of the effort. Dizgah, Chegini and Bisokhan (2012:1735) describe JP as a set of conduct exuded by an employee relating to their job or the extent of competence gained due to the person's job type (training, producing or servicing). Furthermore, JP shows the employee's capability in their job based on specific features such as the legal, extent of and employee's achievements (Babu, Singh & Sachdeva 1997:161).

JP is considered "the worker's entire performance in attaining the anticipated worth and achievement of tasks under the procedure and time requirements of the organisation" (Lee, Cheng, Yeung & Lai 2011:690). Similarly, Liao, Lu, Huang and Chiang (2012:5299) define JP as the standard for advancements, redundancy, rewards, punishment, reviews and salary changes. It identifies behaviours and actions controlled by the employees that affect the organisation's goals (Rotundo & Sackett 2002:66). Campbell, McHenry and Wise (1990:313) indicate that JP is composed of two sets of behaviours, namely those observed in the performance of their job and are crucial in attaining organisational goals and behaviours associated with the purposes of the organisation. Contrary to the strictly behavioural meaning of JP, Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit (1997:71) submit that performance is behaviours with an evaluative feature. This definition conforms to the prevailing technique utilised to determine JP, namely performance assessments from supervisors (Newman 2004). The rating system is used to assist management in making judgments on employees' performance to contribute to pay progress and provide skills development and promotion decisions, which is also the case in the SAPS. However, it is the experience of this researcher that it is always easier to design something like a performance assessment instrument than it to implement it successfully in practice. as an example, consider how easy it was to design policies around COVID-19, but its implementation was accompanied by much controversy and many difficulties.

Murphy (1989:218) states that JP definitions must focus on behaviour compared to results, as employees will circumvent proper procedures to achieve results, adversely affecting organisational performance. Furthermore, Campbell *et al.* (1993:35) indicates that performance is not the outcome of behaviour but relatively behaviours themselves. On the contrary, Motowidlo (2003:39) describes that JP is the sum of employees' behaviours at work and resembles organisational values. Tabassum *et al.* (2016:2) indicates that organisations must find creative and

innovative ways of enhancing employee performance to increase their organisation performance and productivity.

There are varying definitions of JP, and Abbas and Yaqoob (2009:269) show that employee performance is an organisation's main feature, which needs to be critically and extensively examined for its success. Ahmad and Khurram (2011:5249) argue that employee JP encapsulates the comprehensive belief of the employees about their behaviour and contributions to the organisation's achievement.

This researcher indicates a need to deal with JP as a holistic concept from various definitions. Accordingly, Ahmad and Shahzad (2011:5249) suggest that employee JP represents the total belief of the employee about their behaviours and contributions to the achievement of the organisation and identified aspects such as compensation practices, performance evaluation, and promotional practices as predictors of employee performance. Furthermore, Anitha (2014:308) states that when employee JP is an indicator of the employee's financial or other outcomes, it is directly linked with its performance and achievement. Anitha (ibid.) further indicated that the working atmosphere, leadership, team and co-workers relationships, training and career development, reward programme, guidelines and procedures, workplace well-being, and employee engagement are significant factors determining employee JP.

From an employee's perspective, JP is fundamentally the consequence of a series of behaviours, and consequently, from the employer's perspective, outcomes are the critical elements for JP appraisal (Vanden Berghe 2011:24). The several tasks performed daily contribute to JP (Cardy 2004:13). Campbell (1990:687) developed a model comprising eight dimensions to measure JP (Jex 2002:90), as indicated in Figure 3.11:

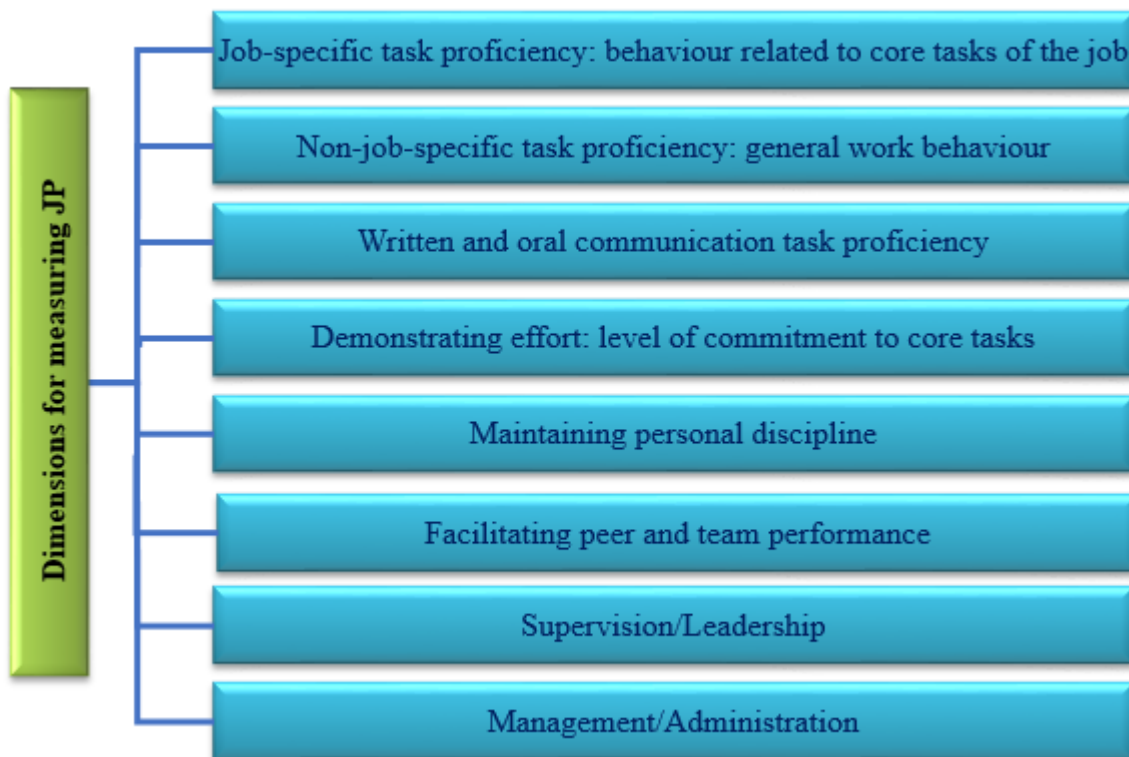


Figure 3.11: Dimensions for measuring JP

Source: Jex (2002:90)

Historically, JP was viewed as a single construct, but researchers now agree that JP is a multidimensional factor (Perera & Weerakkody 2016:5). Vroom (1964) opines that individual JP results from “ability multiplied by motivation”. JP consists of many parts that are made up of indicators that can differ among various jobs that can be assessed (Hambuda 2017:73). A more acceptable definition is the one provided by Milkovich and Wigdor (1991), who describe JP as “consisting of a complicated series of interacting variables pertaining to aspects of the job, the employee and environment”. Salleh, Yaakub and Dzulkipli (2011:1) indicate that the foundation of performance is “personal, organisational, environmental, motivation, skill level, attitudes and role perceptions”.

Employees can utilise their competencies within their organisation by ensuring that they ensure continuity and sustainability of organisational performance (Hambuda 2017:73). Employees who are well developed can use their knowledge and skills without any supervision, compared to those who are perceived as under-developed, who depend only on their knowledge, which has adverse repercussions on their performance (Tembur 2017:12). Tembur (ibid.) states that continuous training and development of employees increases their performance which conforms to organisational policies and standard operating procedures. In the SAPS, recruits are subjected to 10 months of a basic training learning programme, which is vigorous, before being deployed to various police stations countrywide to execute their duties. According to organisational standards,

they are also exposed to numerous in-service training opportunities to enhance their operational knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

3.4.5 Dimensions of JP

From the above, it can be concluded that organisations are much concerned about JP. This is due to, among other things, an emphasis on high productivity at the workplace as there is greater demand for service by clients (Hunter & Hunter 1984:72). However, JP is also determined by the volume of work, organisational goals and mission, and employee conduct that must be aligned to organisational standards (Befort & Hattrup 2003:17). Kantz and Kahn (1978:838) identified the distinction between in-role and extra-role performance. In-role performance denotes employee conduct exuded to execute expected duties on the job, and extra-role performance indicates behaviour outside role expectations, termed OCB (Christian, Garza & Slaughter 2011:100). Peng (2014:75) and Green and Heywood (2008:716) identified two divergent types of JP, namely task and conceptual performance as indicated in Figure 3.12:

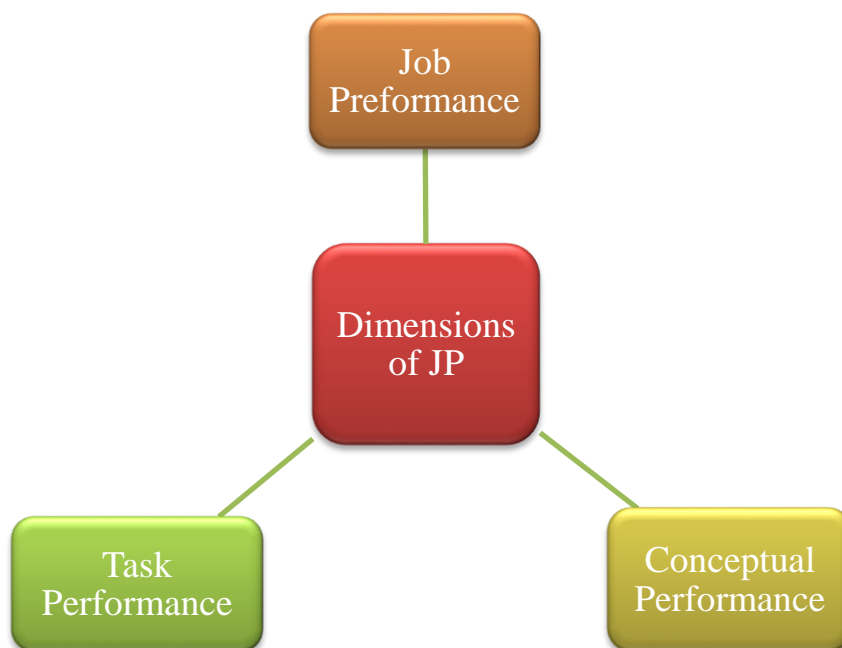


Figure 3.12: Dimensions of job performance

Source: Borman & Motowidlo (1993:71)

Significant effort has been directed toward distinguishing between task and contextual performance (Sonnetag *et al.* 2010:428). According to Motowidlo and Schmit (1999:56), three fundamental differences between task and contextual performance are indicated in Table 3.7 below:

Table 3.7: Differences between task and contextual performance

TASK PERFORMANCE	CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE
Performance is job fixed	Actions are equivalent for almost all jobs
The predicted capability determines it	Impetus and character determine it
In-role conduct performs duties based on approved job-description	Extra-role conduct performs duties outside the expected role and is not compensated by prescribed incentive systems

Source: Motowidlo & Schmit (1999:56)

This researcher now elaborates on these differences in the so-called sub-dimensions of JP.

3.4.5.1 Task performance

According to Peng (2014:75), task performance refers to employees' performance of primary duties that are officially enumerated in their job description. Motowidlo and van Scotter (1994:475) states that task performance (technical JP) is the employees conduct linked with preserving the primary existence of the organisation. Furthermore, task performance indicates activities associated with the compensation system that is fundamentally technical and meets the prerequisites as shown in the job description (Perera & Weerakkody 2016:5).

Generally, task performance comprises activities that convert raw materials into the goods and services manufactured by the organisation or permit the organisation's operation with efficacy (Motowidlo *et al.* 1997:71). Furthermore, task performance can be a multidimensional construct (Sonnetag & Frese 2001:6). Campbell (1990:687) suggests that five components of performance are associated with factors denoting task performance:

- Job unambiguity task ability;
- Non-job-unambiguity task ability;
- Written and oral communication ability;
- Supervision in the level of leadership and;
- Management.

Each of these factors comprises various sub-factors, which differ between jobs; namely, the management factor contains sub-dimensions such as (1) planning and organisation: (2) supervision, leading, and inspiring employees and providing feedback: (3) training, coaching and developing employees: and (4) effective communication and feedback (Borman & Brush 1993:1).

3.4.5.2 Contextual performance

Contextual performance includes activities that are voluntary and not aligned with the primary job of the employee. However, the employee executes these duties to enhance organisational image and performance (Owusu 2014:26). Peng (2014:75) opines that this contains a positive attitude toward colleagues and performance in the organisation, irrespective of whether the job is linked with the employee's primary job. In comparison, Chen (2004:435) defines it as a task of one's interpersonal competency which complements the broader organisational environment whereby the technical core must operate.

To increase organisational performance, Parker, Williams and Turner (2006:636) indicate that employees need to exceed their normal duties, not being limited to their ordinary job description. Contextual performance entails behaviour that excludes organisational performance; however, it supports the organisational, social and psychological environments (Sonnetag *et al.* 2010:428).

According to Sonnetag and Frese (2001:6), there is a distinction between two types of contextual performance: behaviours that focus on organisational efficacy and proactive behaviours that enhance organisational performance systems and policies.

Borman and Motowidlo (1993:71) identify five (5) types of contextual performance;

- Offering to exceed expectations;
- Diligence and presentation when completing vital task requirements;
- Assisting co-workers;
- Complying with organisational policies even when inconvenient; and
- Component of loyalty.

Based on the literature, there is a slight distinction between contextual performance, OCB and citizenship performance, according to Bothma (2015:17). However, their literature appears independently and highlights insignificant differences in behaviours, causes, effects, and approaches (Owusu 2014:26). The SAPS as a public department is expected to implement the principles of the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, known as Batho Pele Principles. The policy document focuses primarily on how public servants need to deliver excellent and professional service to the country's inhabitants. The policy document intends to produce an innovative and creative approach to service delivery. This approach would require extensive changes to certain aspects such as systems, procedures, attitudes and behaviour within

the SAPS and public service departments and prioritising the people as the core business (Khoza 2009:19).

Organisational efficacy is based on task and contextual performances contributing to creating organisational worth (Peng 2014:75). Charbonnier-Voirin and Roussel (2012:281) indicate that modifications in the work-space and the effects on the type of work, namely team-work, project management, empowerment practices and customer-oriented practices, have affected models that include adaptive performance, which is explained below.

3.4.5.3 Adaptive performance

There is an increasing need for adaptive employees due to the competition's ever-changing and evolving working environment (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan & Plamondon 2000:612). Various studies indicate that adaptive performance is distinguished from other components of performance. Hesketh and Neal (1999:21) state this as adaptive performance, while Murphy and Jackson (1999:325) explain the role of flexibility and London and Mone (1999:119) expounded on the ability to incorporate new learning experiences into one's job.

Based on a comprehensive literature review and factor analysis, an eight-dimensional classification of adaptive performance was identified (Pulakos *et al.* 2000:612);

- Dealing with crisis management;
- Management of work-related stress;
- Displaying innovative and creative problem-solving skills;
- Handling unreliable and volatile work situations;
- Learning work responsibilities, equipment and procedures;
- Establishing interpersonal flexibility;
- Showing cultural flexibility; and
- Demonstrating physical oriented flexibility.

According to Sonnentag *et al.* (2010:430), adaptive performance can be considered a multidimensional construct. Having discussed task, contextual and adaptive performance, this researcher now probes the literature for possible associations between these performance constructs.

3.4.5.4 Relationship between task, contextual and adaptive performance

There is a theoretical difference between task, contextual, and adaptive performance and task and contextual performance are practically disconnected (Sonnentag *et al.* 2010:430). Furthermore, task and contextual performance are essential for outcome variables (Johnson 2001:984). In a meta-analysis of managerial jobs, Conway (1999:3) established that task and the contextual performance had a unique effect on management performance.

Griffin, Neal and Parker (2007:327) established a model that incorporates key performance concepts. These authors submitted that the two principles vary (i.e. increasing independence and uncertainty of work systems) and the need for a collaborative model containing various performance dimensions (Sonnentag *et al.* 2010:430). The three core performance dimensions are discussed as illustrated in Table 3.8:

Table 3.8: Core performance dimensions

Proficiency	Adaptivity	Proactivity
Entails the accomplishment of role requirements that can be formalised.	The degree of acclimatisation to changes at the workplace.	The degree of self-directed action necessary to acclimatise to changes.

Source: Sonnentag *et al.* (2010:430)

Performance is considered a multidimensional construct, and the dimensions are multi-dimensional, as each performance dimension is associated with various features of organisational success (Sonnentag *et al.* 2010:430).

The three constructs concerned with this research, namely JE, JS and JP, were extensively discussed, and the researcher will analyse the literature for possible associations between these constructs.

3.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JE AND JS

JE, entailing both on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness has been defined as the collective forces that retain an employee from leaving a job, enabling employers to determine the employee's stimulus to enhance their JS (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1103). Various studies on JE have concentrated on social relationships labelling them as job-related lethargy (Cheng & Chang 2014:24; Holtom & Inderrieden 2006:435; Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1102). Specific studies on employee impetus have concentrated on the resources emanating from interpersonal relationships or JE (Halbesleben &

Wheeler 2008:242). Gorgievski and Hobfoll (2008:18) contended that JE does not only indicate an employee's inherent job inspiration; however, it can produce precious resources.

The Field Theory suggested by Lewin (1951) signifies that "peoples' lives are symbolised and connected by a conceptual life space and that people tend to analogise themselves as being entangled in a net of various forces and connections" (Cheng & Chang 2014:28). Maertz (2004:115) claims that the relationships within the community element affected the employee's decisions relating to their employment. Consequently, off-the-job links are crucial in establishing positive attitudes towards an employee's job. Various researchers found that employees attached to their communities display a positive attitude toward their jobs (Reitz & Anderson 2010:190). In addition, Portoghese, Galletta and Battistelli (2011:42) indicate that employees attached to their communities have a better relationship with their supervisors, which enhances their JS.

Festinger (1954:117) proposed that attitude is always linked to a set of behaviours that an employee displays toward a particular object, which is termed "attitude object" (Cheng & Chang 2014:28). Eagly and Chaiken (1993:1) indicate that when employees assess an attitude object favourably, they are inclined to display loyal conduct. Hence, socio-cognitive theorists have argued that employees' attitude toward their job (JS) affects their on-the-job behaviours (JE) (Cheng & Chang 2014:28).

JE is considered "higher" than constructs such as JS, OCB, and job involvement because it emphasises contextual factors that encourage staying with the organisation (Lee, Burch & Mitchell 2014:199). According to Ma, Mayfield and Mayfield (2018:5), an employee with high JE is not prone to leave their job compared to an employee with low JE. However, JE promotes retaining better than JS and organisational commitment collectively.

3.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JE AND JP

Research by Karatepe and Karadas (2012:614) indicates a positive relationship between JE and JP. However, Greene (2012) suggested that JE has an insignificant impact on employees' JP compared to previous studies. This suggests that the direction of the impact is not from JE to JP but is inconclusive about JP to JE. However, Candan (2016:72) denotes no significant association between JE and JP. Candan (2016:72) states that initial research on JE concentrated on positive results, whereas later studies indicated that JE could negatively affect the motivation of employees at their workplace (Crossley *et al.* 2007:1031). These research results reveal an uncertainty in the relationship between JP and JE.

Burton (2014:518) asserts that employees with high-level JE are inclined to be exposed to the “mobbing attack”. Demirag and Ciftci (2017:1) state that “mobbing attack” at the workplace progressively leads to various behaviours directed at an earmarked employee by an employer or one or more co-workers. These behaviours, include threats undermining an employee’s self-confidence, giving unwelcome surprises, insolence, exclusionist behaviour, discounting an employee’s feelings, gas-lighting and discrimination. Candan (2016:72) also suggests that if leader-member interchange and organisational self-esteem are low, the high level of JE can affect employees’ JP. Certain studies have explained the relationship between JE and JP (Cheng & Chang 2014:24). On-the-job embeddedness has a significant positive effect on JP, even though no similar substantial relationship exists for off-the-job embeddedness (Lee *et al.* 2004:718).

Previous studies have examined the relationship between the dimensions or elements of JE and JP. There is little research to explore the relationship between JE as a holistic construct and JP. However, it seems logical to this researcher that JE could act as a predictor of JP or as a mediator or moderator between JP and JS, and this research is attempting to clarify this pathway among the three constructs.

3.7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JS AND JP

Various organisations have conducted evaluations of the relationship between JS and JP (Tabassum *et al.* 2016:5). The probable relationship between employee attitudes and performance was measured, corresponding with the Hawthorne studies and the subsequent human relations movement (Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton 2001:376). The effects of employee JS on JP and JP on JS are still essential (Hambuda 2017:73) and hence it is critical to determine the relationship and the causal direction between JS and JP. It has a significant impact on how organisations deal with employer-employee relationships and how to minimise human relations challenges within a workplace (Jalagat 2016:36). The study conducted by Laffaldoano and Muchinsky (1985:251) concluded that the numerical relationship between JS and JP reveals an insignificant relationship between the two constructs. Conversely, further research conducted by various scholars found that the association between JS and employee JP is positive (Bakotić 2016:118; Raza, Rafique, Hussain, Ali, Mohsin & Shah 2015:1; Vermeeren, Kuipers & Steijn 2014:174). This finding suggests correlational research and as perceptions of JS increases so do perceptions of JP.

The correlation between the two variables is a central research topic in the organisational behaviour literature (Ram 2013:17). Research by Brayfield and Crockett (1955:405) found an insignificant relationship between JS and JP and termed it a “minimal or no relationship”. The evaluation conducted by Brayfield and Crockett (*ibid.*) was restricted by limited publications

available, as only nine studies were utilised in reaching the conclusion that there was a link between employee JS and JP (Judge *et al.* 2001:377). Again, this seems strange to this research as it seems intuitive that a good performance rating will influence JS in some or other way.

Cummings (1970:541) established three essential themes in the relationship between JS and JP: satisfaction causes performance, performance causes satisfaction and rewards drive performance and satisfaction. Various theories differ establishing the relationship and the extent of influence between JS and JP (Jalagat 2016:42). According to Mirvis and Lawler (1977:564), JS and JP positively correlated. Kornhanuser and Sharp (1976:323) reviewed research of 30 studies conducted in the industrial sector and concluded that a significant positive relationship was present between JS and JP. Porter and Lawler (1968) proposed that satisfaction impacts employees' determination. Therefore, enhanced satisfaction from performance assists in enhancing performance expectations leading to rewards.

Judge *et al.* (2001:377) identified seven methods in which the satisfaction-performance relationship has been detailed. A graphical depiction of the different functional forms is provided in Figure 3.13:

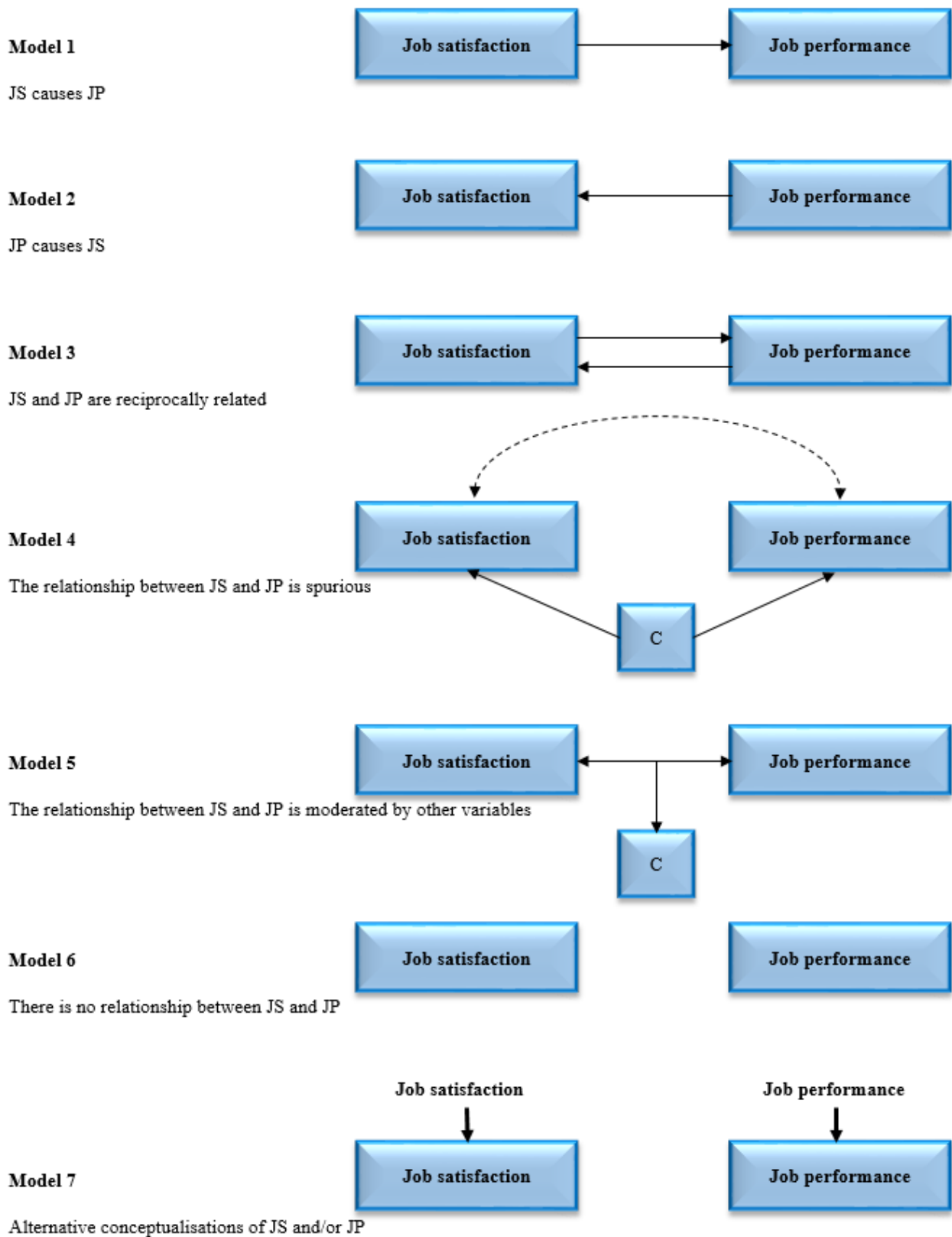


Figure 3.13: Models of the relationship between JS and JP (Model 4 & 5, C denotes a third variable, which according to the process model of Hayes (2018), could be a mediator, a moderator or both)

Source: Judge *et al.* (2001)

JP and JS have a reciprocal relationship underpinned by the notion that if extrinsic satisfaction results in performance, intrinsic satisfaction also result in performance, leading to further satisfaction (Indernum & SaheedBayat 2013:3). In contrast, Shaikh, Bhutto and Maitlo (2012:323), as well as Muindi and K'Obonyo (2015:225), suggest that "JS causes performance instead of performance causes satisfaction".

After exploring the relevant literature, Inuwa (2016:96) concluded that JS has a positive and substantial correlation with JP, which signifies that the increase in the level of employee JS will result in an increase in JP and a decrease in JP will result in less JS. However, correlation does not signify causality as it is well known that "the rooster crowing does not cause the sun to rise in the morning". This research in the SAPS is utilising mediation and moderation and like SEM can indicate causality in both size and direction (Hayes 2018:129). The study by Jalagat (2016:42) established that JS and JP are interconnected and inter-reliant. Consequently, JS is recognised as one of the main predictors of employee JP in an organisation (Gu & Chi Sen Siu 2009:561). But being a predictor does not necessarily mean it is a causal construct.

Except for impacting employee JP, the role of JS as a mediator or moderato construct in its relationship with OC, OCB, transactional leadership, talent management and personal excellence, have been previously researched. Research conducted by Loan (2020:3311) found that JS mediated the impact of OC on JP, which indicated that OC influenced JS, which in turn affected JP. Hartanto (2014:979) denotes that JS is potentially a dominant variable in the effect of transactional leadership on employee JP. This is supported by research conducted by (Mantauv 2014:46), which found that JS can be a good mediator on JP. Ölçer (2015:119) conducted further data analysis to test the mediating effect of JS because JS may act as mediating variable on JP. This study will research which of the six possible pathways between JP, JE and JS are most likely in the context of the respondents working in the various academies in the SAPS.

3.8 SUMMARY

The chapter concentrated on the three main variables of the current study, namely JE, JS and JP. In this chapter, a brief outline of the model and theories of JE, JS, and JP were discussed, and the consequences and previous research on the three variables. From the literature, it appears that the three constructs of JE, JS and JP are associated with one another, but the evidence about the causal pathways and which construct caused it needs further clarification.

The next chapter will discuss the methodology utilised to conduct the study to achieve the research objectives.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 expounded on the concepts of JE, JS and JP and their relationship with one another from literature. Chapter 4 emphasises defining the research design and the research approach utilised in this study. The purpose of Chapter 4 is to indicate the framework the research methodology used to address the research objectives (see Chapter 1). A more detailed discussion on the sampling procedures used, target population characteristics, the rationale for sampling, sampling method, and sampling size will follow. Considerations for the design and use of measuring will be highlighted. The pilot study and statistical data analysis methods will be reported. Finally, ethical considerations relevant to the research will be chronicled.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2010:144) state that a research design gathers accurate data and explores and examines the given research hypothesis and question. Every research project needs a detailed and well-outlined research design. A research design ensures that the validity of the research findings is increased by adequately outlining the research project's plan and structure, which will eradicate possible mistakes (Mouton 2014:108). This study embraced a survey design guided by the study's set objectives.

A research design embodies actions taken to finalise the study from the beginning to the end (Burns & Grooves 2001:223). It includes asking questions based on theoretical orientation selection of respondents, data collection, and reporting the results. In addition, Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2011:34) state that research design is a strategic outline for action that assists as a link between research questions and the implementation and completion of the research. MacMillan and Schumacher (2001:166) also indicate that the objective and aim of a well-articulated research design is to ensure that results are more valid and reliable.

Monette, Sullivan and DeJong (2008:9) are of the opinion that a research design is a process that follows problem formulation and precedes data collection, which entails a strategy that indicates how the researcher will implement the step-by-step project approach. On the other hand, Babbie and Mouton (2012:107) write that a research design outlines the research project that precedes the definitive research process.

Scholars contend that research design and research method are dissimilar concepts, even though they are utilised conversely (Schutt 2006:41). The research design refers to the rational structure of the investigation or examination. It also enunciates what data are essential, from whom they intend to obtain data and how they respond to getting data needed to answer the research question (Mitchell & Jolley 2004:25; Yin 2009:27).

In contrast, research methods indicate the method of data collection, which could be qualitative, quantitative or both. Hence the discussion below.

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Scholars differentiate between qualitative and quantitative research methods (Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam 2008:56). The distinction between quantitative and qualitative research marks a series of difference in approaches to research (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2011:47). Welman (2005:6) describes these approaches as positivist or anti-positivist. A positivist approach ascribes to a “logical positivist” school of thought. On the contrary, anti-positivists believe that an in-depth understanding of human behaviour is vital, as voiced by participants.

The primary purpose of the quantitative research technique is to examine and investigate pre-destined hypotheses and introduce outcomes that can be generalised (Msibi 2017:39). Researchers who utilise quantitative research to explore theoretical generalisations use experimental, quantifiable and measurable methods. They also accentuate the dimension and examination of instrumental relationships between constructs (Golafshani 2003:597). Patton (2002:39) generally defines qualitative research as “any kind of research which results or findings are not informed or drawn from any numerical methods or scientific requirements”. He also emphasises that these “findings which are produced from real-world situations where the observations of interest develop logically”.

According to Wyse (2011:86), qualitative research is utilised to expand and understand essential explanations, thoughts, beliefs, attitudes and impetus. This technique introduces extensive knowledge to an identified problem and can assist in advancing a theory that could be utilised in a quantitative study (Creswell 2009). Babbie and Mouton (2012:499) further postulates that the qualitative method essentially purports to comprehend the participants’ experience. Additionally, their thought, opinions and attitudes will be probed by seeking answers to the following critical questions “what”, “how”, or “why” rather than “how many” or “how much”, as in quantitative methods.

Quantitative research entails a methodical and neutral process, utilising statistical data from only a particular group of a population being examined (Maree & Pietersen 2007:145). Natural sciences are techniques used in quantitative research as they are intended to guarantee impartiality, generalisability and dependability (Weinreich 2009:124). Choy (2014:101) indicates that quantitative research has strengths and weaknesses (see Figure 4.1).

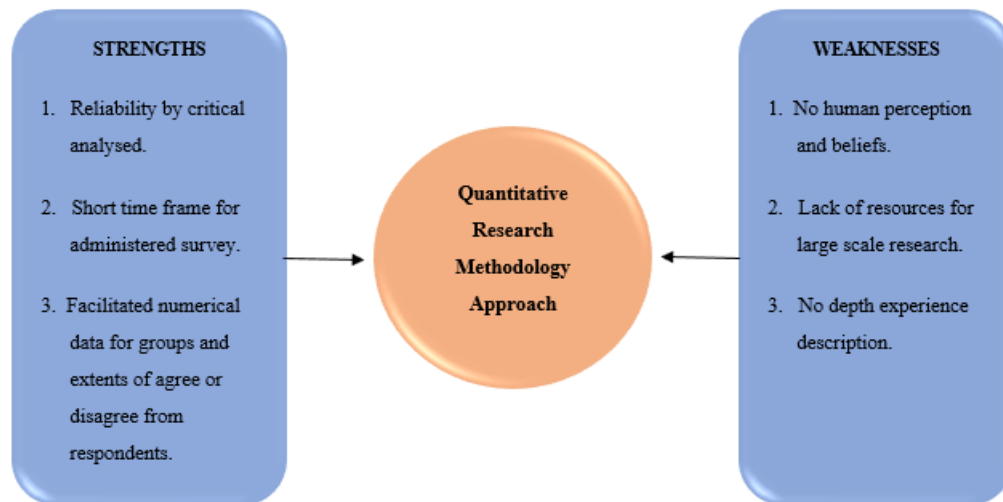


Figure 4.1: strengths vs weaknesses ascribed to quantitative research methodology

Source: Choy (2014:101)

According to Muijs (2004:7), if researchers adopt a practical technique to research methods, they need first to determine what type of questions are appropriately responded to when utilising quantitative methods, in contrast to qualitative methods. Muijs (2004:7) describe these as the four core types of research questions that quantitative research is predominantly appropriate to ascertain answers to:

- Firstly, when do researchers expect a quantitative answer? Examples are: “How many police officers want to pursue further tertiary studies?” or “How many trainers are needed for the basic training learning programme nationally, and how many are in various academies?” The necessity to utilise quantitative research to respond to this question is evident.
- Secondly, quantitative methods can provide precise statistical results when used in research studies. Examples are: “Is the number of recruits in academies increasing or dwindling?” or “Is the competency rate of learners increasing?” A quantitative study determines the precise, quantifiable outcomes.
- Thirdly, scholars frequently want to clarify and describe the experience of paradox to determine the condition of something. Various numerical methods have been advanced

and established that enable researchers to calculate scores on one or more factors or variables. An example is the entry-level recruitment of police officials calculated from scores on one or more other factors or variables (e.g. rate of joblessness, remuneration, rate of promotion, circumstances).

- Finally, determining a hypothesis is the primary purpose of conducting quantitative research. There can be intentions to explain a specific hypothesis, such as a connection or association between learners' achievement and their years of experience and level of rank.

Babbie (2010:20) indicates that the quantitative method accentuates the impartial and independent measurements and the statistical, mathematical or numerical examination of data collated using “polls, questionnaires or surveys”. McNabb (2008:200) explains that quantitative research mainly aims to determine the link, association or connection between one factor, an independent variable and another factor, the dependent variable. In a quantitative study, the emphasis is on controlling all the elements in the activities and illustrations of the respondents – thus managing the variables through critical attention to their interconnectedness (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit 2013:3).

For this study, the quantitative research method was selected to guarantee the participants' privacy and identity and the concealment of data. Secondly, the research objective was determined before collecting data, and all elements of the study were planned preceding data collection. The benefits of the survey method contain the capacity to attain and collect data from an illustrative sample that can be generalised to a population (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2012). Kelley, Brown and Sitzia (2003:261) contend that the main shortcomings of this approach involve a poor reply rate additionally the lack of detail from the data being studied or examined.

4.4 SAMPLING DESIGN

Sampling is one of the most significant elements in the research process, as it plays a vital role before selecting a sample plan and undertaking the main study (de Vos *et al.* 2010:222). Sampling philosophy was established to illustrate various means of depicting “scientific” samples (Maree 2007:172). Indiscriminate and demonstrative population samples can provide important information about the broader population. Unrau, Gabor and Grinnel (2007:279) emphasise that a sample consists of features or a subsection of the population that is intended to be included in the study. Furthermore, a sample can also be regarded as a subset of a dimension depicted from a population whereby the study focused. De Vos *et al.* (2011:223) claim that the term sample always signifies the concurrent subsistence of a population or universe of which the sample is a minor segment, or a set of persons nominated from the population.

4.4.1 The target population

Researchers do not collect data from the whole population; instead, they nominate their samples from the identified population (Swanson & Holton 2005). The research population constitutes a pool of individuals or objects identified as having similar features (Wegner 2012). The target and accessible populations (Tonidandel & LeBreton 2011:366) include the two types of populations for research purposes.

The accessible population implies the population in research to which researchers can enact their presuppositions or hypothesis (Saunders *et al.* 2012). Whitley and Kite (2012:485) refer to a target population as a group of people to whom the research results will be applied. Furthermore, Flick (2011:71) refers to the target population as the several individuals, circumstances and occasions to which the research objective will denote and must be delimited unequivocally before the research question and implementation.

For this study, the target population was restricted to national employees performing official duties within the SAPS academies, including both genders. One of the significant and vital criteria for the study was that employees must be the SAPS Act appointed members, be employed, and perform duties within the academies. The study's target population was 956 employees performing duties within the SAPS academies. All Public Act appointed personnel employed at various academies for this research were excluded.

4.4.2 Sampling and sample size

A sampling unit is a set of components identified for selection in the sampling procedure (Babbie & Mouton 2012:174). Samples are a subsection of the population for research purposes (Goddard & Melville 2011:34). Salkind (2010:121) explains that a sampling frame can enable sampling: a complete list of all the research population's components is essential to probability sampling. Consequently, each unit of analysis is stated only once (Welman 2005:57).

The list of employees was compiled from the data obtained from the HRD of the various academies and the SAPS Persal/Persap systems, as illustrated in the Tables 4.1 and 4.2:

Table 4.1: Component In-service police development strength

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT						
PERSONNEL PROVISIONING: FIXED ESTABLISHMENT						
ACTUAL STRENGTH PER IN-SERVICE POLICE DEVELOPMENT SAPS ACADEMIES						
Atteridgeville	Benoni	Rietondale	Thabong	Chatsworth	Hammanskraal	Potchestroom
31	31	10	17	29	44	26
Thabazimbi	Moloto	Addo	Mankwe	Arcadia	Roodeplaat	Paarl
18	24	19	22	14	63	51

Source: SAPS (persap function 5.5.5.5)

Table 4.2: Component Basic police development strength

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT								
PERSONNEL PROVISIONING: FIXED ESTABLISHMENT								
ACTUAL STRENGTH PER BASIC POLICE DEVELOPMENT SAPS ACADEMIES								
Tshwane	Oudtshoorn	Bishop Lavis	Phillipi	Bhisho	Mthatha	Graaff-Reinet	Ulundi	All Saints
177	66	43	53	64	39	46	30	39

Source: SAPS (persap function 5.5.5.5)

4.4.3 Sampling procedure

Selecting research participants from a whole population and including conclusions about which individuals, surroundings, actions, behaviours, and social processes implies the process of sampling (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2011:49). The significant model in sampling is representativeness (Babbie & Mouton 2012:136). The purpose is to nominate a sample encompassing all the population units in which the researcher purports to make findings (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2011:49). The population comprises persons, groups, organisations, actions, or the circumstances as the study entity to which they have been introduced (Welman 2005:52).

Social science research utilises probability and non-probability sampling (Wyse 2011). Non-probability sampling techniques pose questions concerning how good the sample size will epitomise the target population (Muhib, Lin, Stueve, Miller, Ford, Johnson & Smith 2001:217). This concern stems from several researchers concluding that non-probability sampling is fundamentally substandard to probability sampling and should be preferably utilised under very restricted conditions, such as scarcity of resources (Tansey 2007:766). The shortcoming associated

with this technique is that the sample choice is the researcher's discretion. Consequently, an element of prejudice can ensue in the study.

Probability sampling approaches are the preferred approach to sampling in quantitative studies. The nomination of the respondents occurs indiscriminately. The discretion and requirement of who will be included in the sample are non-systematic and indiscriminate. If the population is enlarged, it will accurately embody it (Salkind 2012:96). Miller and Lovler (2016:200) state that with probability sampling, all respondents in the population have an equal opportunity to form part of the sample. Each segment in the population has a stringently positive representation in the probability. Determine the existence of an impartial estimator of the population. This becomes an essential and appropriate condition (Wretman 2009:30). This study used a probability sampling method.

The quantitative paradigm is dependent on probability sampling techniques. However, the non-probability techniques can also be utilised. The attention and emphasis of the qualitative paradigm are on non-probability sampling techniques (de Vos *et al.* 2010:228). Probability sampling techniques are the desired method of attaining a demonstrative (inclusive) sample; however, researchers need to explicitly outline the population and guarantee that all respondents have equal opportunity to be nominated (Andrew, Pedersen & Mc Evoy 2011:48). Simple random sampling was considered an appropriate method for this study.

The selected sample must conform to the characteristics of a well representative sample, and thereby, the process attracts respondents from a recognised population in such a way that all components in that population have equal and precise opportunity (probability) of being incorporated into the sample (Berg & Lune 2012:51). The advantages and disadvantages of simple random sampling are discussed in Table 4.3:

Table 4.3: Simple random sampling advantages and disadvantages

SIMPLE RANDOM SAMPLING	
ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
With a suitable sample size, simple random sampling produces a holistic and equivalent perspective of the population. (For example, if an organisation has eighty employees situated within close proximity and intends to examine the typical travelling distance, it may select to gather data from twenty unsystematically employees chosen as a representative sample)	The sample size required to produce suitably descriptive outcomes may be excessively big and burdensome to sample. (For example, if the police department has thousands of police stations in the whole country, indiscriminately selecting individual police stations may result in a challenging and time-consuming data gathering process)
It is comparatively forthright to devise the sample.	It may be challenging to attain a comprehensive list of all actions from the sample size, which is a precondition for simple random sampling. (For example, if the police department intends to determine the average time of attending to complaints, it would have to list every trip undertaken by patrol vans before a random sample could be selected)

Source: World Resources Institute & World Business Council for Sustainable development (2013:154)

When assessing the relevancy and appropriateness of a sample, it is essential to find an impartial sample. Simple random sampling was utilised for this study to ensure an impartial sample. As indicated prior, the study population was 956 Police Act personnel within all academies. Thus, the study’s appropriate and suitable sampling size was 400 Police Act members.

4.4.4 Sampling size

The sample size of a numerical sample is the number of annotations that creates it (Mouton 2014). A bigger population is preferable to ensure access to a broader respondent base with similar needs (de Vos *et al.* 2010:224). Such a bigger sample size translates to improved precision in estimates of numerous properties of the population (Mouton 2014). Maree (2007:178) contends that the sample’s size, essentially for it to epitomise the entire population, should be based on the extent of uniformity of the population. A sample in research terms denotes a distinct portion of a numerical population whose properties are utilised to make approximations about the population (Singh 2007:88). Sample sizes are affected by pragmatic conclusions and experiences, such as the time and cost of gathering data for a study (Maree 2007:178).

Israel (1992:1) suggests that the undermentioned three criteria must be indicated to determine a suitable sample:

- The extent of preciseness: The collection in which the correct significance of the population is predicted to be. This collection is usually articulated in percentage points.
- Assurance or risk level: The numerical measure of the number of objects out of 100 from which outcomes can be expected to be within a specified range. In other words, this means that if a “95 per cent confidence level is selected, 95 out of 100 samples” will have the accurate population value within the range of accuracy specified.
- The extent of predictability: The qualities being determined denotes the dissemination of attributes in the population. The more diverse a population, the bigger the sample size required to attain a given extent of accuracy. The decreased variable a population, the lessor the sample size.

Maree (2007:178) denotes that the “kind of numerical analyses plans, the precision of outcomes expected and the distinct features of the population largely determine the sample size”.

In the research conducted by SehBaradar, Ebrahimpour and Hasanzadeh (2013:95) and Gilbreath and Karimi (2012:118), they adopted sample sizes of between 150 ($n = 150$) and 200 ($n = 200$), respectively. According to Sekaran (2003), the rule-of-thumb sample size is between 30 and 500. A sample of 400 was utilised and was expected to represent the total population from which it was identified. Participants were selected to be encompassed in the sample, when they conformed to the following criteria:

- They were employees appointed in terms of SAP Act within the SAPS academies.
- They consented to partake in the study.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION

Both quantitative and qualitative data are pragmatic but collect different kinds of information using various methods (Assessment Capacities Project 2012:10). To make acceptable inferences from a research study, the researcher must have unswerving and dependable data to analyse and interpret (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2011:51). The discretion of the technique to gather data for the researcher utilising the quantitative method can be classified into the following: planned observation programmes, planned interview timetables, surveys, worksheets, indexes and measures (de Vos *et al.* 2010:181).

Surveys are predominantly crucial in explaining a bigger population's distinct features. They make significant samples achievable; they permit researchers to pose as many questions as possible on an identified topic by presenting substantial flexibility in the examinations (Babbie 2011:304). Questionnaires are tools for collecting information about the "attitudes, insight, views, thoughts and feelings" (Radhakrishna 2007:1). The fundamental purpose is to attain facts and sentiments about an experience, event or episode from those knowledgeable on the particular issue (de Vos *et al.* 2011:186). Furthermore, Collins and Hussey (2014:156) state that the objective of a questionnaire is to determine the respondents' actions, thoughts, and feelings. The fundamental rationale is to guarantee that all respondents have the same questions (Brace 2008:4).

The data collection technique for this study was a planned questionnaire. This approach enabled insights into respondents' views, opinions, and feelings. An information brochure with guidelines that pronounces the significance and the aim of the study was affixed to the questionnaire. The respondents were guaranteed that their privacy would be concealed, and they were at liberty to choose to participate in the study or not. The questionnaire did not request respondents to divulge their names to that of their academy. Unambiguous instructions on completing definite items in the questionnaire were made available.

The questionnaires were administered to the randomly selected respondents with the assistance of fieldworkers at each academy. The fieldworkers were thoroughly informed of how the respondents should complete the questionnaires. The fieldworkers volunteered to assist the researcher as they were acquainted with their environments and were easily able to communicate with the respondents. They adequately informed the respondents of the instrument, and they permitted the respondents to complete the questionnaire at their own pace. The fieldworkers collected all completed questionnaires and handed them over to the researcher for analysis. Completed questionnaires were collected after a week. Due to members working on a rotational system because of COVID-19, they were dealt with accordingly based on their COVID-19 working roster.

4.5.1 Questionnaire design

A well-developed and crafted questionnaire stimulates respondents to provide comprehensive, precise and correct information (Collins & Hussey 2014:43). Questionnaire design is influenced by factors such as the required data, the system of administration, content, wording, and order (Kothari 2004:156).

This study employed a Likert-type rating scale with an unequal 1 to 5 agreement format for the questionnaire. In a Likert-type rating instrument, respondents specify their agreement or

disagreement with each statement. The items on the questionnaire ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

Kothari (2004:156) recommends the use of a Likert-type scale for the following reasons:

- It is easy to create.
- Respondents can answer all statements making them more acceptable and valid.
- It can be created expeditiously, and students of opinion research can utilise it in their research.
- It can be utilised in both “respondent-centred and stimulus-centred studies”.

The questionnaire consisted of the following four sections:

Section A collected demographic information of the respondents. Respondents were obligated to avail details concerning their gender, whether male or female. Furthermore, they had also to provide further information relating to their race, age, marital status, first language, educational level, and years employed at academies. A comprehensive analysis of the employees’ profiles is discussed in Chapter 5. An item dealing with the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 has been added to this section.

Section B comprised questions on JE. The JE questionnaire (Clinton, Knight & Guest 2012:112) was used for this study. It contained a five-point Likert-type scale that measures JE. The 12-item scale questionnaire included statements such as “*The organisation provides me with a way of life that suits me*”. The questions anchored with 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

Section C comprised questions on JS. The Brief JS Measure II (Judge, Locke, Durham & Kluger, 1998:17) was used for this study. It contained a five-point Likert-type scale that measures JS. The questions anchored with 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The 7-item scale questionnaire included statements such as “*I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in my job*”.

Section D comprised questions on JP. The JP measure (Koopman, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, de Vet & van der Beek 2014:331) was used for the purpose of this study. It contained a five-point Likert-type scale that measures JP. The questions anchored with 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The 14-item scale questionnaire included statements such as “*I willingly take on extra responsibilities*”.

4.6 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study implies a study of limited scope, which includes all the planned processes for the implementation in the main study, including the assessment of procedure adopted, such as stating the number of respondents to be used and application of the statistical methods to analyse the data (Monette, Sullivan, Dejong & Hilton (2013:9). Fink (2010:184) contends that the pilot study's purpose is to increase and optimise the reliability of the study to be undertaken. It is imperative that all newly compiled and not yet finalised questionnaires be pilot tested before using them in the actual study (de Vos *et al.* 2010:195).

Saunders *et al.* (2012:89) suggest the following structured framework be utilised to test a questionnaire:

- What was the time frame used by the respondents to answer the questionnaire?
- Were instructions given to the respondent unambiguous?
- Were there any questions that were unequivocal and uncertain which were experienced by the respondents?
- Was the questionnaire definite and stimulating?
- Did the respondents feel awkward or distressed by a specific type of question?

The application of these guidelines aided the researcher in receiving relevant and crucial feedback from the 25 respondents who participated in the pilot study.

The fundamental aim and rationale for implementing the type of piloting were to experiment and assess the reliability of the questionnaire before it was utilised in the main study. Pilot testing was done with 25 respondents from other government departments, in order to test the reliability of the questionnaire. Subsequently, necessary adjustments were made to the questionnaire, requiring specific items to be removed, restructured or rephrased to facilitate understanding chapter 5 reports on the pilot test results.

4.7 DATA PREPARATION

Babbie and Mouton (2012:460) denoted that the data preparation process includes decreasing data from uncontrollable facts to controllable synopses. The raw data collected from the questionnaires must undergo an immediate arrangement process before being assessed and examined using numerical methods (Aaker Kumar & Day 2004:433). Data acquired in this manner must be managed based on the plan structured for the study's primary aim based on the research plan (Kothari 2004:122). In this section, editing and coding are explained and deliberated.

4.7.1 Editing

The first step after data has been collected in the data processing is editing, which can be defined as scrutinising the data collected through a questionnaire to identify mistakes, inaccuracies, faults and exclusions and make appropriate rectifications and modifications (Sam & Sam 2011:178). Khan (2011:189) defines editing as exploring and scrutinising the raw data gathered to identify inaccuracies and exclusions and making necessary refinements and amendments before the data is analysed. This editing implies a process whereby collected information from the questionnaire is dissected to eradicate and exclude errors made by either the researcher or the respondent (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham 2006:480). All collected and completed questionnaires were studied, examined and scrutinised to ensure data was precise, correct, comprehensive and unswerving.

For purposes of this study, the wording of the questionnaire was meticulously examined and proof read by the research promoter and co-promoter.

4.7.2 Coding

Babbie and Mouton (2012:412) postulate that to conduct a quantitative analysis when other research methods are employed, the researcher must often be involved in a coding process after the data have been gathered. Coding conceptualises research data and categorises it into significant and applicable classifications to analyse data and interpret it (Singh 2007:82). Coding includes applying rules to the data to translate information from one method to another (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2011:189). Furthermore, Malhotra and Birks (2006:724) describe coding as the process of assigning codes to signify responses to definite questions along with a data record and column position that the code occupies. Various coding techniques rely on the direction of the research to be conducted and the amount of data to be collected; however, it naturally starts with modest expressive labels to encapsulate the meaning of a unit of text (Hammond & Wellington 2013:23).

The questionnaire was computer coded from 1 to 25 for the pilot test and from 1 to 400 for the main study by designating a code number for each respondent. Section A (biographical information) of the questionnaire was also computer coded from questions A1 to A8 by allocating numbers to each response. For example, gender was coded 1 = male and 2 = female. The pre-coding procedure was utilised throughout the questionnaire by allocating a set of response options to the respondents and by allocating a code number to each question and response of sections B, C and D of the questionnaire. A five-point Likert-type scale was utilised, ranging from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree” on the other end. Codes were entered from 1 to 5 for each question.

4.8 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical approaches are utilised to examine, assess and evaluate quantitative data. After the researcher has considered the appropriate constructs, the scores on these constructs (data) are usually transmuted numerically to assist the researcher in (1) explaining the data concisely and (2) making conclusions about the features of the population established on data from samples (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2011:188). A unique identifier was allocated to each variable. The data was captured on the computer utilising the following programmes: Microsoft Excel (spreadsheet), Microsoft Access (database management) and the SPSS, version 26.0, for Windows. The following sections explain the descriptive analysis, factor analysis, correlation, and regression.

4.8.1 Descriptive analysis

Jaggi (2003:1) declares that statistical activities include collection, quantifying, categorising, totalling, relating, producing, analysing and deducing methodically attained quantitative data. Descriptive statistics necessitates the researcher to know the point of fundamental inclination, the extent of unpredictability and the degree to which various variables are connected to a data set (Leedy & Ormrod 2010:265), thereby encapsulating the configuration of scores observed on a measured variable.

Descriptive statistics afford categories of data that can facilitate the gathering of data from demarcated respondents (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2006:495). Descriptive statistics can be prone to be utilised with data from all stages of measurement. However, only data from interval and ratio stages are pliable to examination using inferential statistics (de Vos *et al.* 2010:252).

4.8.1.1 Frequencies

Collected demographic data related to gender, age, race, marital status, first language, educational level and years employed at academies were categorised through frequency tables using Microsoft Excel. The frequency is a synopsis indicating how frequently a set, range or range of scores in an investigation or study is present (Privitera 2014:32). Data generated are presented graphically using various charts.

4.8.1.2 Mean

The mean is the most regularly utilised measure of vital propensity. It comprises groups based on the number of features embedded by the group relative to the size (Fielding & Gilbert 2006:102). The mean can be defined as a collective measure of central predisposition. The mean is the

significance that each participant is accorded if the sum is distributed equally between all group members (Watier *et al.* 2011:3). Field, Miles and Field (2013:23) state that the mean is calculated by accumulating all scores and apportioning the total scores available.

The purpose of the mean scores in this study was to determine the level of JE, JS and JP of employees within SAPS academies. Chapter 5 reports the mean scores for sections B, C and D drawn from the questionnaire.

4.8.2 Factor analysis

Wesley (2006:4) describes factor analysis as a gathering of various approaches utilised to explore how fundamental variables affect answers on the number of measured variables. Factor analysis assists in making sure that there is congruency between the collected data and theoretically predicted design of the targeted variables and determining whether measures utilised were appropriate and relevant in achieving the set outcome (Matsuaga 2010:98).

Factor analysis functions on the basis that quantifiable and evident variables can be compacted to lesser dormant variables that have a similar common variable and are unobservable. This process is known as decreasing dimensionality (Bartholomew, Knott, & Moustaki 2011:167). In addition, Yong and Pearce (2013:80) view factor analysis as convenient for studies that include certain factors such as a few or hundreds of variables, items from questionnaires, or a battery of tests, which can be decreased to a lesser set to get a fundamental theory and enable interpretations.

Onsman and Brown (2010:2) highlighted the following practices of factor analysis:

- It decreases a considerable number of variables to be a lesser set of elements known as factors,
- It determines the fundamental measurements amongst measured variables and dormant constructs, and establishes underlying dimensions between measured variables and latent constructs, in so doing permitting the construction or the modification of theory,
- It offers to construct validity confirmation of self-reporting scales.

Factor analysis comprises various numerical methods to simplify multifaceted sets of data in social sciences, typically applied to connections between variables (Kline 2014:2). According to Malhotra and Birks (2006:612), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling sufficiency is used to determine the relevance of factor analysis.

This test assisted in assessing if the collected data were adequate for factor analysis (Hinton, McMurray & Brownlow 2014:341). The results of factor analysis in this study will be explained in Chapter 5.

4.8.3 Correlation

Correlation analysis is one of the frequently utilised methods for connections between two or more variables, and it denotes the association or link between two or more variables (Singh 2007:146). Correlation means that a variation in the significance of one variable is connected with an amendment in the other variable (Flick 2011:144). Similarly, Gates (2010:448) states that correlation analysis is how variations in a variable are linked to the deviations in another variable.

Correlation analysis is utilised to study links and connections among two or more variables (Salkind 2010:1171). Correlation is a statistical measure of the extent of agreement between two sets of scores that runs from +1 to -1, where +1 indicates full agreement, 0 means no relationship and -1 means complete disagreement (Kline 2014:3). Correlation research explores how a change in one factor relates to a change in one or more other factors based on correlation coefficients (Sam & Sam 2011:28).

Correlations were utilised to determine the relationship between JE, JS and JP in this study. These correlations are elaborated in Chapter 5.

4.8.4 Regression analysis

Regression is a numerical method to establish the “linear relationship between two or more variables” and is mainly utilised for likelihood and connecting conclusions (Campbell & Campbell 2008:2). Consequently, the value of one variable can be described in terms of the deviations in the value of another variable (Babbie & Mouton 2012:464). This analysis method is applied to determine whether there are variations in the population sample, according to Birn (2004:221). Clow and James (2014:416) differentiate between two types of regression analysis, namely:

- Simple regression, which determines how an independent variable connects to the results.
- Multiple regressions, examine the link between various independent variables and the outcomes. Regression analysis is also applied to determine the predictive validity of the constructs.

Singh (2007:151) recognises two regression analysis methods: linear regression (graphics) and algebraic regression. The simple (or bivariate) LRM model is intended to examine the connectedness among a pair of variables that appear in a data set (Campbell & Campbell 2008:3).

Regression analysis determined if JS predicts higher levels of JE and if JP predicts higher levels of job embeddedness amongst the demarcated respondents. This researcher also used mediation and moderation analysis which is also a form of linear regression (Hayes 2018:78).

4.9 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

According to Ben-Eliyahu (2014), the validity and reliability of the measuring tool can assist the researched learning about the degree of the construct being studied as it will readily avail the numerical importance in the data collected. This section will detail the explanation of validity and reliability in research and determine the validity and reliability of the research instrument used in this study.

4.9.1 Reliability

The essential criterion for data collection is reliability (Mouton 2014:144). Reliability refers to the probability that the used measurement procedure will explain the similarities of responses to the items if a similar measurement is used again (Babbie & Mouton 2012:125). In addition, reliability is simply that part of a measure free of purely accidental mistakes; nothing in the description of reliability requires that the measure be valid (Drost 2011:107). Vijayalakshmi and Sivapragasam (2008:80) postulate that factors that affect reliability include duration of the test, impartiality in scoring and precision in instruction.

Kothari (2004:122) proposes that the reliability of an instrument can be enhanced in the following ways:

- The measuring tool used to be managed consistently to guarantee uniformity.
- A standard to be developed will be used for checks and balances, which will enable deductions and inferences to be made by the researcher.
- Proper development of fieldworkers or assistants is imperative when utilised to get consistent results.

Reliability in quantitative analysis takes two primary forms, according to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:506). These forms are internal consistency measures: the split-half technique and the alpha coefficient, and both calculate a coefficient of reliability that can lie between 0 and 1.

The split-half reliability method is focused on the internal consistency of instruments (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole 2013:227). The coefficient used to measure the internal reliability of an instrument is called Cronbach's alpha coefficient and is based on the inter-item correlations (Maree 2007:216). According to Bless *et al.* (2013:226), when the various items' scores are inter-correlated, the internal consistency will be high, and the alpha coefficient will be close to one. Maree (2007:216) emphasises that when poorly formulated items do not correlate strongly, the alpha coefficient will be close to zero.

The composite reliability of each of the constructs used in this study will also be ascertained via

$$CR = \frac{(\sum \lambda)^2}{(\sum \lambda)^2 + \sum \varepsilon}$$

where λ is the factor loading of the items in the particular factor.

4.9.1.1 Internal consistency reliability

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

4.9.1.2 Cronbach alpha

The "internal consistency of a multi-item scale where the average of all possible split-half coefficients results in different splitting scales" is referred to as the Cronbach alpha (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2007:652). Malhotra and Birks (2006:314) state that the Cronbach alpha, also known as the coefficient alpha, "ranges from zero to one, and a value of 0.60 or less generally indicates poor internal consistency reliability".

The following guidelines for the Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be used:

Table 4.4: Guidelines for Cronbach's alpha coefficient

Cronbach's alpha coefficient	Reliability
0.90	Very highly reliable
0.80-0.90	Highly reliable
0.70-0.79	Reliable, satisfactory
0.60-0.69	Marginally, minimally reliable

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

Questionnaire reliability for this study was established using the Cronbach alpha values and presented in Chapter 5 to follow.

4.10 VALIDITY

Validity is defined by how any measuring tool measures what it is envisioned to measure (Thatcher 2010:125). According to Babbie and Mouton (2012:122) in conservative practice, the term validity refers to how a pragmatic measure sufficiently reveals the real meaning of the concept being researched. In quantitative data, validity might be enhanced through precise sampling, suitable tools and appropriate numerical treatments of data (Cohen *et al.* 2007:133). The different types of validity are discussed in the next section.

4.10.1 Content validity

According to Fink (2010:116), content validity denotes a measure methodically and adequately assesses the abilities or features it is supposed to measure. Babbie and Mouton (2012:123) state that content validity refers to how much a measure encompasses the variety of meanings included within the concept. This is done by (1) stipulating the content area enclosed by the hypothesis when establishing the construct definition: (2) writing a questionnaire or scale items that are relevant to each of the content areas: and (3) establishing a measure of the construct that involves the best items from each content area (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2011:149). Durrheim and Foster (1995:387) monitored these three steps by defining dogmatism as comprising of beliefs in four content areas, producing a primary pool of approximately 30 items in each of the four content areas and then selecting the most characteristic item from each area to make up the primary version of the scale.

To attain content validity in this study, the questionnaire comprised various questions that sufficiently assessed all aspects of employees' levels of JE, JS and JP. Content validity of the measuring instrument is presented in Chapter 5.

4.10.2 Construct validity

One of the challenging difficulties in social sciences research is construct validity (Mouton 2014:128). Determining the construct validity of a measure includes both theoretical and pragmatic work: establishing the degree to which a construct's measure is pragmatically associated with other measures with which it is theoretically related (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2011:151). Vijayalakshmi and Sivapragasam (2008:82) indicate that construct validity is a validity technique utilised in tests employed to study the construction of various behaviours and abilities. Furthermore, it involves how well the measurement tool sized the construct (Aaker *et al.* 2004:724). Construct validity is neither purely critical nor entirely experiential and focused on establishing how the constructed instrument can measure a construct (Mangal & Mangal 2013:586). Cook and Campbell (1979:64) indicate three threats to construct validity: inadequate preoperational explication of constructs, mono-operation bias and mono-method bias.

For purposes of determining construct validity, according to de Vos *et al.* (2010:175), the significance of the construct must be understood, and the suggestions the theory makes about the links between this and other constructs must be established. Construct validity comprises three distinct steps: firstly, identify a set of theoretical connections between constructs: secondly, practical testing of suppositions: and lastly, determine the pattern of connections in terms of how they simplify the construct validity of the measure (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2011:151).

However, to establish the construct validity of theoretical concepts, various indicators can be utilised, and different methods can be further used to assist in this regard (Mouton 2014:129). Another prevalent method for determining construct validity is factorial validity (Grinnel & Unrau 2008:129). This is mainly used in cases where there is uncertainty about the exact nature of the dimensions being measured or when the researcher wants to confirm whether the theoretical dimensions are being measured (de Vos *et al.* 2010:175).

4.10.3 Criterion validity

Nunnally (1978:87) opines that criterion validity is applicable “when the purpose is to use an instrument to estimate some important form of behaviour external to the measuring instrument itself, the latter being referred to as the criterion”. Criterion validity interchanges from subjective evaluations of face validity and affords more objective proof of validity (de Vos *et al.* 2010:174). Criterion-related validity is how a measure is associated with another standard or criterion that is recognised to correctly specify the construct (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2011:147). This includes various measurements and is determined by equating scores on an instrument with an external standard

known to, or believed to, measure the concept, trait or behaviour being studied (de Vos *et al.* 2010:174).

Another method for establishing criterion validity is envisaging group membership through the newly compiled tool (de Vos *et al.* 2010:174). Terre Blanche *et al.* (2011:147) suggest that there are two types of criterion-related validity distinguished by temporal positioning of the “criterion measure in relation to the measure of the scale being validated, namely, predictive validity and concurrent validity”.

To assess the criterion reliability of the instrument, a pilot study was completed with government employees from various departments, who would be excluded from the demarcated sample frame.

4.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research ethics implies “a division of applied ethics based on the definite backgrounds of preparation, conduction, interactive and following up research” (Punch 2014:36). Creswell (2014:92) indicates that researchers must protect the privacy and secrecy of their research respondents. He further emphasises the need for a trusting relationship, the advancement of reliability of research, and protection against misbehaviour and indecency that can potentially tarnish the reputations of those undertaking the research.

The following values are critical in conducting research, reliability and integrity, except knowledge and precision. For purposes of this study, due ethical consideration to this research study was adopted to conduct an outstanding, well presented and qualified study. Therefore the following ethical issues that are relevant for this study were complied with:

- Study participation was of own accord. Respondents were not coerced to partake in the study and their knowledgeable consent was a requisite.
- Approval was requested to conduct the study from the SAPS Divisional Commissioner: HRD, and the study was conducted strictly professional.
- Ethical clearance and authorisation to conduct the study were acquired from the university’s Ethics Research Committee.
- The background of the study was clarified to all the participants.
- Privacy of information required was guaranteed at all times.
- Personal data of respondents were utilised for the sole purpose of the study.
- Before handing out questionnaires, the study’s goals and objectives were clarified to the participants.

- Personal responses from individual respondents were not attributed to any specific individual.
- Research professionalism was maintained during all stages of the study.
- Objectivity in the collection and interpretation of data was prioritised.

4.12 SUMMARY

The study sample was selected to encompass an equitable representation of the employees within the SAPS academies. A quantitative approach formed the basis for this empirical study, as discussed. The nominated research methodology and survey approach adequately supported the researcher in obtaining the population group's perceptions in the area under research. The target population, sampling method, sampling frame, sampling size and data collection considerations were comprehensively discussed.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 outlined a synopsis of the research methodology embarked upon in this study. In addition, chapter 4 indicated considerations relevant to sampling, data collection and analysis, and reliability and validity of the questionnaire, amongst others. The following types of analysis were applied to present the research outcomes, namely descriptive analysis, factor analysis, correlations and regression analysis, and mediation analysis using the process tool (Hayes 2018).

Data analysis was executed in two distinct segments. First, the pilot testing, and secondly, the consolidation of the core survey conclusions through a comprehensive analysis. De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delpont (2011:416) state that data analysis and findings include the rationality of the data collected, the identification of critical shortcomings or limitations experienced, and insights gained from the study. For this study, the term analysis denotes the statistical representation of responses to unfold and elucidate the phenomena that those responses replicate or encapsulate (Babbie & Mouton 2012:646). Furthermore, the term analysis refers to the enumeration of specific methods searching for forms of relationships that subsist between data groups (Sam & Sam 2011:177).

SPSS, version 26.0 for Windows, was utilised to analyse the data. It is essential that researchers thoroughly examine the data using relevant and applicable statistical techniques to move from data to information (Singh 2007:122). This chapter outlines the analysis of data, explanation and discussion of the results attained. The following features outline this chapter: results of the pilot study, descriptive statistics of the sample, factor analysis, correlation analysis, mediation analysis and regression analysis.

The comprehensive analysis of data enabled the attainment and realisation of the objectives of this study which implies a thorough examination, scrutinisation and consideration of collected data.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistical analysis of participants' responses to the questions in Section B of the questionnaire was conducted to produce demographic profiles of the respondents in the form of using charts. The profiles of the participants' gender, race, marital status, first language, educational level and the number of years' experience as a government employee are presented in frequency Table 5.1 to 5.7 below. Table 5.8 presents the results of the descriptive statistical analysis of the responses to the question on the influence of the Employment Equity Act of 1998 on the level of the participants' JS.

A1. Gender

Table 5.1: Frequency table of gender in the sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Male	205	57.9	57.9	57.9
	Female	149	42.1	42.1	100.0
	Total	354	100.0	100.0	

The data in Table 5.1 shows that there were 1.4 males to each female respondent in the sample. Of the 354 respondents, male respondents comprised a greater part of the sample (57.9%) than female respondents (42.1%).

A2. Race

Table 5.2: Frequency of population groups in the sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	African	220	62.1	62.1	62.1
	Coloured	54	15.3	15.3	77.4

	Indian/Asian	7	2.0	2.0	79.4
	White	71	20.1	20.1	99.4
	Other (Specify)	2	.6	.6	100.0
	Total	354	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.2 shows that of the 354 respondents, Africans comprised a greater part of the sample (62.1%), compared to Whites (20.1%), Coloured (15.3%), Indians (2.0%) and other (.6%). As there were so few Indian/Asian and other respondents, the race groups were recoded to form three categories as indicated in Table 5.3. These will be used for statistical analysis.

Table 5.3: Race groups in the sample were recoded into three groups.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	African	220	62.1	63.8	63.8
	Coloured	54	15.3	15.7	79.4
	White	71	20.1	20.6	100.0
	Total	345	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	9	2.5		
Total		354	100.0		

Table 5.3 outlines the race groups of respondents. The majority of respondents were Africans (62.1%), followed by respondents who were White (20.1%), respondents who were Coloured (15.3%), and respondents who did not properly indicate their actual race (2.5%).

A3. Age

Table 5.4: Frequency of age groups in the sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	20-24	4	1.1	1.1	1.1
	25-30	16	4.5	4.5	5.6
	31-35	29	8.2	8.2	13.8
	36-45	100	28.2	28.2	42.1
	46-55	183	51.7	51.7	93.8
	56+	22	6.2	6.2	100.0
	Total	354	100.0	100.0	

The mode was the 46 to 55 year age group, the mean somewhere in the 36 to 45 year age group and the median in the 46 to 55 year age group. The largest age group was 46 to 55 years old (51.7%). This is most likely because respondents in this age group are experienced in the work required within Division: Human Resource Development in the SAPS and they have long service.

A4. Marital status

Table 5.5: Frequency of marital status groups in the sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Single	100	28.2	28.2	28.2
	Married	195	55.1	55.1	83.3
	Divorced	42	11.9	11.9	95.2
	Widow	10	2.8	2.8	98.0
	Widower	2	.6	.6	98.6
	Other (specify)	5	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	354	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.5 outlines the marital status of respondents. The majority of respondents were married (55.1%), followed by respondents who were single (28.2%), respondents who were divorced (11.9%), respondents who were widows (2.8%), other (1.4%) and respondents who were widowed (.6%).

A5. First language

Table 5.6: Frequency of the first language recoded to four groups

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	English	56	15.8	15.8	15.8
	Afrikaans	93	26.3	26.3	42.1
	Sotho	55	15.5	15.5	57.6
	Nguni	150	42.4	42.4	100.0
	Total	354	100.0	100.0	

The first language was recoded into four English, Afrikaans, Sotho and Nguni groups. Many respondents spoke Nguni as their first language (isiXhosa & isiZulu) (42.4%), followed by respondents who spoke Afrikaans (26.3%) and lastly, by respondents speaking English (15.8%)

and Sotho (Setswana, Sesotho and Sepedi) (15.3%). Respondents speaking Afrikaans were either Coloured or White respondents.

A6. Educational level

Table 5.7: The frequencies of the educational level groups in the sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Not given	7	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Diploma	141	39.8	39.8	41.8
	Degree	74	20.9	20.9	62.7
	Honours	33	9.3	9.3	72.0
	Masters	12	3.4	3.4	75.4
	Doctoral	2	.6	.6	76.0
	Other (specify)	85	24.0	24.0	100.0
	Total	354	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.7 outlines the educational level of the respondents. Most of the respondents (39.8%) have a National Diploma. Twenty four percent (24%) of the respondents indicated they had other qualifications (24%), 20.9% of the respondents had a bachelor's degree, 9.3% of the respondents had an honours degree, 3.4% of the respondents had a master's degree, 2.0% of the respondents did not indicate their level of qualifications, and .6% of the respondents had a doctoral degree.

A7. Years employed as a government employee

Table 5.8: Frequencies of the groups in years employed as a government employee

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0-5yrs	32	9.0	9.0	9.0
	6-10yrs	33	9.3	9.3	18.4
	11-15yrs	55	15.5	15.5	33.9
	16-20yrs	79	22.3	22.3	56.2
	21+yrs	155	43.8	43.8	100.0
	Total	354	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.8 outlines the number of years employed as a government employee. The highest percentage is the respondents with employment service of 21+ (43.8%), followed by respondents who are employed between 16-20 years (22.3%), then respondents with service employment between 11-15 years (15.5%), followed by respondents with employment service between 6-10 years (9.3%), and the lowest percentage are the category of respondents between 0-5 years (9.0%).

A8. To what extent has the Employment Equity Act of 1998 influenced your level of job satisfaction

The five categories in this item were collapsed into three groups.

Table 5.9: Frequencies of the three groups formed in the item extent that EEA has influenced your level of JS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	No/small extent	116	32.8	32.8	32.8
	Moderate extent	118	33.3	33.3	66.1
	Large/V. Large extent	120	33.9	33.9	100.0
	Total	354	100.0	100.0	

The three groups are approximately the same in frequencies if grouped as in the table concerning the degree or level of influence of the EEA on JS.

5.3 ANALYSIS OF SECTION B OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Section B of the questionnaire contained 12 items, which asked respondents about their job embeddedness in the SAPS academies. The answers to the questions were measured according to a five-point Likert scale whereby respondents had to choose from options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). To group the items in a more frugal way, factor analysis was utilised. A principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was used. The KMO value of 0.857 and Bartlett's sphericity value of $p < 0.000$ indicated that a more parsimonious grouping of items was plausible. The analysis resulted in two first-order factors explaining 55.465% of the variance. The factors with their items were:

FB1.1 – B11, B9, B12, B10, B7, B8. This factor was named Community Fit (CF) and had a Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.874.

FB1.2 – B5, B6, B1, B2, B4, B3. The factor, named Organisational Fit (OF), had a Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.775.

The two first-order factors were then subjected to another PCA with varimax rotation. One second-order factor resulted, explaining 67.96% of the variance present. It was named JE and had a Cronbach reliability of 0.846.

The results of the above-mentioned analyses agreed with some of the literature findings (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:1104) that the JE construct is comprised of two sub-dimensions or factors, namely CF and OF. The factor had mean of 3.39, which indicated that the respondents were uncertain about the impact of JE in the context of the SAPS. The median was 3.50, and the standard deviation (SD) was 0.828. The 1000 bootstrap samples had a 95% confidence interval between 3.31 (LI) and 3.49 (UI).

5.4 ANALYSIS OF SECTION C OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Section C of the questionnaire shortened the original questionnaire (Judge *et al.* 1998 amended). It contained seven items asking respondents how they feel about their jobs. The answers to the questions were measured according to a five-point Likert scale whereby respondents had to choose from options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). However, Item 3 had its scale inverted as it was negatively worded. The initial PCA following the varimax procedure suggested that items B6 and B7 should be detached as their communality values were low (< 0.20). The two items first had their scales inverted and were then removed. The factor analysis procedure was repeated with these two items removed. The KMO of 0.719 and Bartlett's sphericity value of

$p < 0.000$ indicated that a more frugal grouping of items was possible. One factor explained 52.4% of the variance present with a Cronbach's alpha reliability estimate of 0.775 and an Omega of 0.757. The factor was named job satisfaction (JS) consisting of:

FC1.0 – C1, C2, C4, C5, C3Rec.

The factor had a mean of 4.15, a median of 4.20, an SD of 0.69, which negatively skewed data distribution. Thus respondents agreed with the items in JS. However, in retrospect, the items in the JS part of the questionnaire were too few to measure the JS of the SAPS employees in the academies. More items covering other aspects of JS would have been better. In addition, negative values led to numerous problems and therefore should have to be avoided in a future study.

5.5 ANALYSIS OF SECTION D OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Section D of the questionnaire had 14 items which were measured according to a five-point Likert scale whereby respondents had to choose from options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The items asked about job performance within the department they worked. A PCA following the varimax procedure resulted in a KMO of 0.92, and Bartlett's sphericity of $p < 0.000$, which indicated that a more frugal grouping of items was plausible. The solution explained 58.7% of the variance. The items in the two factors were:

- FD1.1 – D13, D14, D12, D4, D9, D10, D5. This had a Cronbach's alpha reliability estimate of 0.878 and was named Task Performance (TP), although it also referred to aspects that influence TP.
- FD1.2 – D8, D1, D3, D7, D6, D2, D11. This was named Contextual Performance (CP) and had a Cronbach's alpha reliability estimate of 0.876.

Using PCA with Varimax rotation, a second-order procedure reduced the two first-order factors to one. This explained 86.97% of the variance, had a Cronbach's alpha reliability estimate of 0.924 and was named Job Performance (JP). It had a mean of 4.39, median of 4.46 and an SD of 0.57. Data distribution was negatively skewed. This was probably due to the items measuring self-perception and hence susceptible to the halo-effect. The analysis supported that done by Peng (2014:750), Green and Heywood (2008:716) and Motowidlo and Schmit (1999:56), which found two diverse types of JP, namely TP and CP.

The primary purpose of this research is to establish the relationship present between JE, JS and JP. As three continuous variables are involved, an analysis could lend itself to a type of mediation

analysis with one of the three variables acting as a mediator. According to Hayes (2018:78), “mediation analysis is a statistical method used to evaluate evidence from studies designed to test hypotheses about how some causal antecedent variable X transmits its effect on a consequent variable Y”. In this research, it is about how JS transmits its influence to JP in the presence of a mediating variable (JE) or JP transmits its influence to JS via mediator JE. Hayes (2018:78) writes, “A mediation model links a putative cause (X) to a presumed effect (Y) at least in part through a mediator variable (M)”.

5.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB EMBEDDEDNESS, JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Before being able to address the primary research objective, which was to investigate the influence of JE on JS and JP, the researcher attended to the secondary empirical objectives, which were to ascertain the employees’ perceptions of the three constructs and to determine the relationship between them. In achieving the second secondary research objective, the correlations between JP, JS and JE were analysed and the following results were obtained:

- JS with JP - $r = .492$, $p=0.000$, $R^2 = .2421$
- JS with JE - $r = .417$, $p=0.000$, $R^2 = .174$
- JP with JE - $r = .310$, $p=0.000$, $R^2 = .096$

The correlation values show that the three factors are significantly correlated. From the R^2 values, JS and JP have the highest shared variance (24.21%). The shared variance between JS and JE was 17.4%. The lowest shared variance is between JP and JE, namely 9.6%. This could show that JS is more strongly related to JE than is JP. However, which variable is causal cannot be determined from the correlation. The three variables JS, JP and JE, can be arranged in numerous causal ways.

This researcher used mediation analysis using process version R3.5 (Hayes 2018:79) in SPSS 26. From the literature review, it was not clear whether JS is the cause of JP or *vice versa*. This researcher decided to first use JS as the outcome variable (Y) and JP as a predictor (X), with JE acting as mediating variable. (M). This was based on using linear regression with multiple indicators. When regression analysis used JS as an outcome or dependent variable and entered JP and JE separately, two models resulted. Model 2, with JS as outcome and JP and JE as predictors had a significant change in F-value namely $\Delta F(1,351) = 40.15$, $p = .000$, $r = 0.56$. The standardised Beta values were:

JP ($\beta = 0.401$, $p=0.000$), JE ($\beta = 0.293$, $p=0.000$).

Hence, both JP and JE are significant predictors of JS. Using Bayesian regression with JP and JE as predictors of JS (outcome or consequent), the Bayes Factor (BF) was 5.29×10^{26} . This value shows that the likelihood of the data given the model, including the two predictors, is 5.29×10^{26} times greater than the probability of the data with only the intercept (Field 2018:430). When using JP (outcome or consequent), the Bayes factor was still large (6.75×10^{19}) but smaller than when using JS as an outcome. JS and JP are probably in a non-recursive relationship, influencing the other. JP also has a larger effect on JS (5.29×10^{26}) than *vice versa* (6.75×10^{19}).

5.7 THE EFFECT OF JOB PERFORMANCE ON JOB SATISFACTION WITH JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AS A MEDIATOR VARIABLE

The research aimed to investigate the influence of JE on JS and JP in the context of the selected employees of the SAPS academies. However, once the data were obtained and analysed and the relationship between JE, JS and JP ascertained, the researcher reasoned that it would be appropriate to use JE as a mediating variable between JP as the predictor and JS as the outcome variable. Moreover, as three continuous variables were involved a type of mediation analysis was considered appropriate with one of the three variables acting as a mediator. According to Hayes (2018:78), “mediation analysis is a statistical method used to evaluate evidence from studies designed to test hypotheses about how some causal antecedent variable X transmits its effect on a consequent variable Y”. In the research a mediation analysis was conducted to determine how JS influenced JP in the presence of a mediating variable (JE) or how JP influenced JS as a mediator. Hayes (2018:78) states “a mediation model links a putative cause (X) to a presumed effect (Y) at least in part through a mediator variable (M)”. In the study, the researcher used mediation analysis using Process Version R3.5 (Hayes 2018:79) on SPSS 26.

This researcher first decided to use JE as mediating variable between JP as a predictor and JS as the outcome variable. First to be discussed is simple mediation analysis (Hayes 2018:79).

5.7.1 Simple mediation model using process (Hayes 2018) Process Version R3.5

The researcher tested whether the JE of the employees under study mediated the effect of JP on their JS. The hypothesised model is presented in Figure 1.2 in Chapter 1, which is the basis for the one in Figure 5.1 below, which illustrates JE as the mediator variable, JP as the predictor variable and JS as the outcome variable.

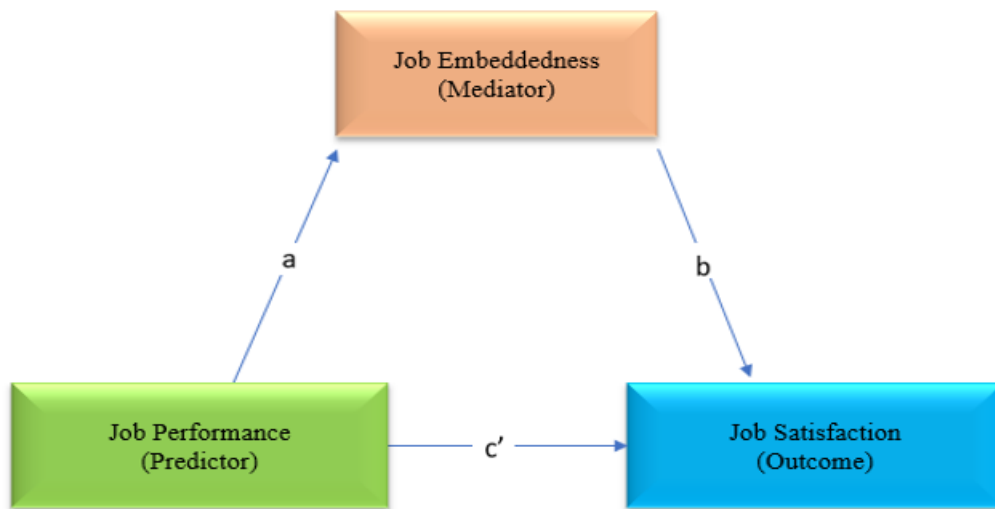


Figure 5.1: A simple mediation model of JE as a mediator variable between JP as predictor and JS as an outcome

The process model utilised was Model 4, and the indirect and total effects were tested using 5000 bootstrapped samples. The confidence intervals were 95%.

Figure 5.2 provides the regression coefficients obtained from the analysis provided by the Hayes (2018:79) Process Version R3.5 programme. In addition, it shows the direct and indirect effects of JS as the predictor variable, JP as the outcome variable and JE acting as the mediating variable.

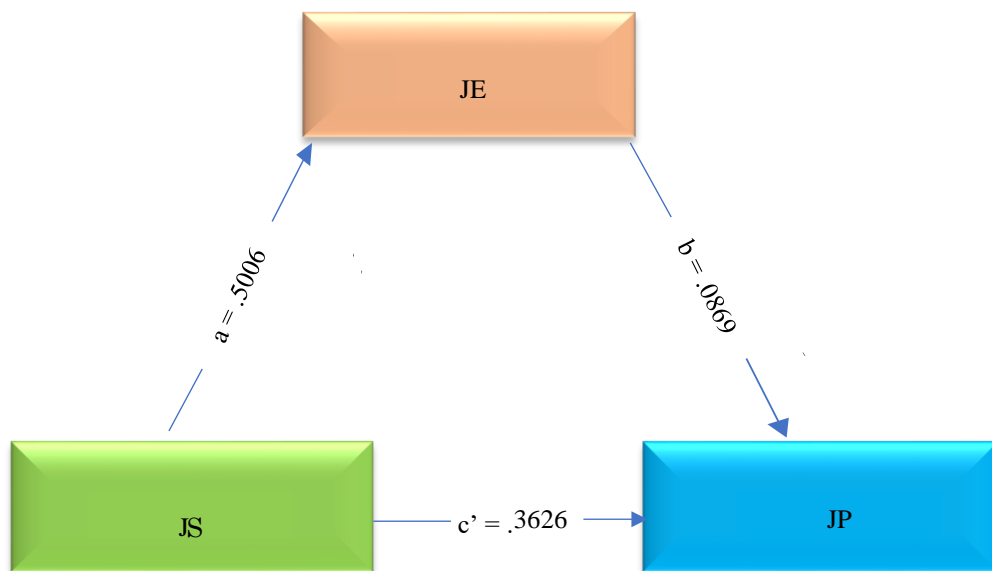


Figure 5.2: Direct and indirect effects of JS as a predictor of JP via JE acting as a mediator

Table 5.10 below presents a summary of the results of the analysis provided by Hayes (2018:79) Process Version R3.5 programme with JS acting as the predictor, JP as the outcome and JE as the mediator.

Table 5.10: Total, direct and indirect effects of JP (X) on JS (Y) with JE as mediator

Total effect of X (JP) on Y (JS)					
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.4061	.0383	10.5981	.0000	.3307	.4815
Direct effect of on X (JP) on Y (JS)					
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.3626	.0419	8.6624	.0000	.2803	.4449
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:					
	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI	
FB2.0	.0435	.0178	.0091	.0788	

The unstandardised indirect effect (.0435) of JE is calculated as the product of paths a (.5006) and b (.0869). This gives a value .0435 ($b = .0435$, $se = .0178$, $p < 0.001$). This indirect effect is tested using bootstrap standard errors and confidence intervals. The null hypothesis is that the population indirect effect is zero, whereas the alternative is that the population indirect effect is non-zero. Hence, if zero (.0000) falls between the lower (Boot LLCI) and upper bound (Boot ULCI) 95% confidence intervals, then the null hypothesis is more likely. If the null falls outside the interval, the null is unlikely and not accepted (Field 2018:505). Hence, the indirect effect of JS on JP via JE is statistically significant as both the lower and upper limits are larger than zero.

The total effect is found by adding the direct effect (c') to the indirect effect ($a \times b$). Hence, $DE + IE = .3626 + .0435 = .4061$ (see Total effect in Table 5.10). As zero does not fall between the lower (.3307) and the upper bound (.4815) confidence intervals, one infers that the total effect of JP on JS is significantly different from zero. These results support the hypothesis that JE, as a holistic construct, does mediate the relationship between JS and JP.

The reciprocal model where JS is the predictor and JP is the outcome, with JE also acting as a mediator, is displayed in Figure 5.3.

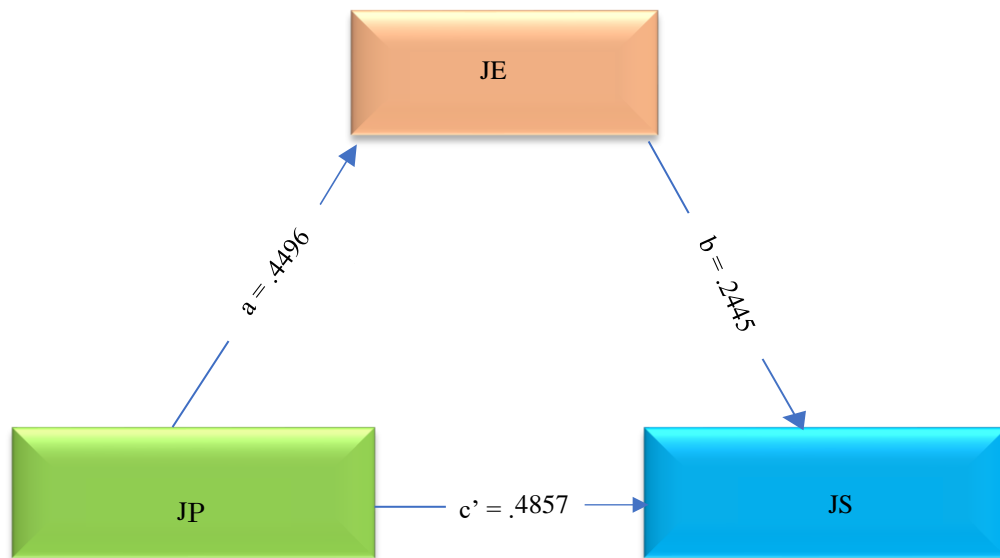


Figure 5.3: Direct and indirect effects of JP as a predictor of JS via JE acting as a mediator

The data for the process mediation Model 4 is given in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11: Total, direct and indirect effects of JS (X) on JP (Y) with JE as mediator

Total effect of X on Y					
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.5956	.0562	10.5981	.0000	.4851	.7062
Direct effect of on X on Y					
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.4857	.0561	8.6624	.0000	.3755	.5960
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:					
	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI	
FB2.0 JE	.1099	.0273	.0602	.1666	

The unstandardised indirect effect of JP on JS via JE is calculated as a product of paths a (.4496) and b (.2445). This gives a value $a \times b = .1099$ (SE = .0273, Boot LLCI = 0.0602, ULCI = .1666). This indirect effect is tested using bootstrap standard errors and confidence intervals and is significant as zero is not present between the upper and lower confidence intervals. The total effect is found by adding the direct effect (c') to the indirect effect ($a \times b$). Hence, $DE + IE = .4857 + .1099 = .5956$ (see Total effect in Table 5.11). As zero does not fall between the lower (.4851) and the upper bound (.7062) confidence intervals, one infers that the total effect of JP on JS is significantly different from zero. These results support the hypothesis that JE, as a holistic construct, does mediate the relationship between JP and JS.

This researcher concludes that the relationship between JP and JS with JE acting as a mediator is reciprocal (non-recursive). The total effects (direct and indirect) are shown in Figure 5.4.

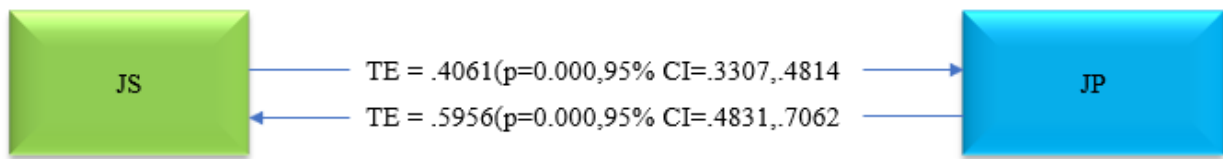


Figure 5.4: The non-recursive effect of JS on JP

The total effect of JP on JS is reciprocal or non-recursive as it is possible to trace a path from JS to JP and back. However, the total effect consists of a direct and indirect effect, with the indirect effect going via JE as a mediator. Comparing the two models shows that the direct effect of JP on JS is .5956 while the direct effect of JS on JP is 0.4061. The indirect effect of JS on JP via mediator JE is 0.0435, while the indirect effect of JP on JS via JE is 0.1099. This suggests that JP has a stronger causal influence on JE than JS. Hence, JP causes JE and JE, which in turn causes JS. JS also causes JE, which causes JP, but this effect is not as large as the JP, JE and JS effect. Why JP has a larger causal influence on JS via JE needs further investigation.

As JE is composed of two sub-dimensions, it is possible that one can make use of a parallel mediation model with the two components of JE in parallel with one another as shown in Figure 5.5.

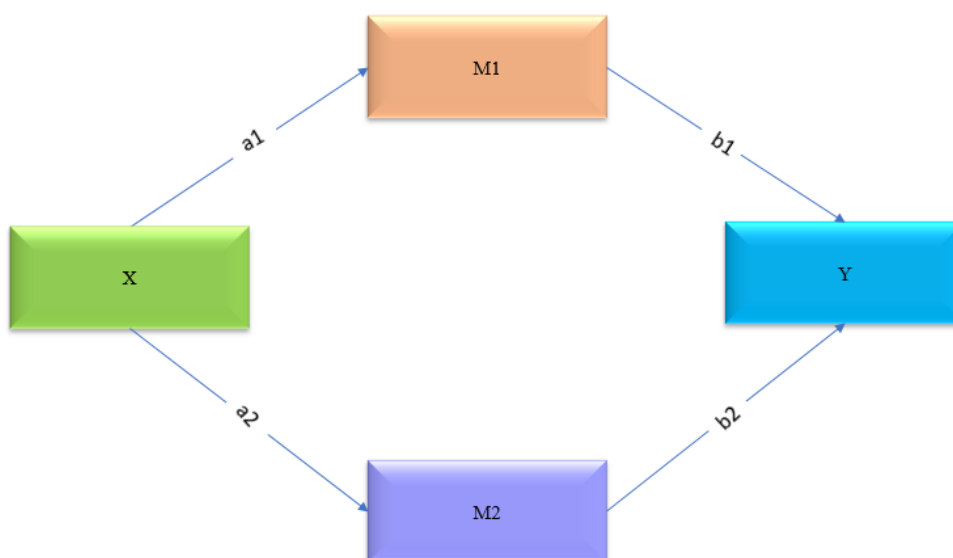


Figure 5.5: A parallel mediation model

The model with JS acting as an antecedent (predictor X) and JP as consequent (outcome Y), with O_Fit and C_Fit (components of JE) acting as parallel mediators, is shown in Figure 5.6.

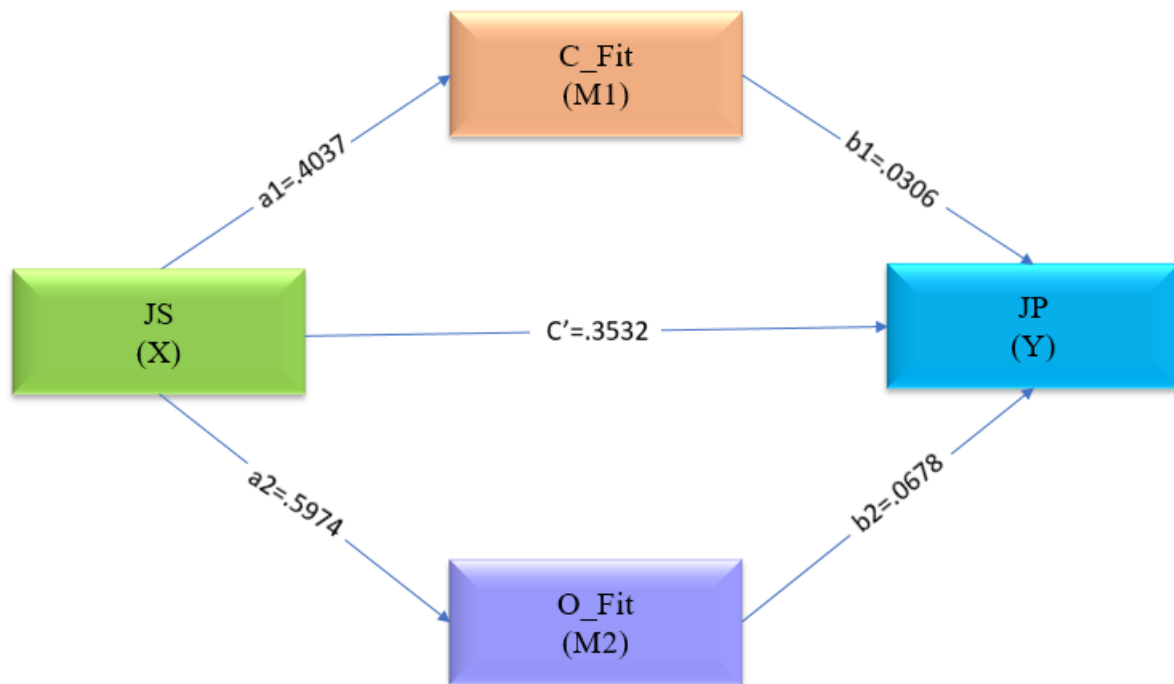


Figure 5.6: A parallel mediation model with OF and CF as mediating variables between JS and JP

Hayes (2018:149) writes, “in a parallel multiple mediator model, the antecedent or predictor variable (X), is modelled as influencing a consequent or outcome variable (Y) through two or more mediators (M1 and M2 in this case) with the condition that no mediator causally influences another mediator”.

The appropriate values obtained from Model 6 using process version R3.5 (Hayes 2018:79) are given in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: Regression coefficients, standard errors and model summary information for the influence of JS on JP of the parallel mediation model depicted in Figure 5.6

Total effect of X (JS) on Y (JP)					
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.4061	.0383	10.5981	.0000	.3307	.4815
Direct effect of on X (JS) on Y (JP)					
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.3532	.0437	8.0766	.0000	.2672	.4393
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:					
	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI	
Total	.0529	.0234	.0104	.1032	
FB1.1_CF	.0124	.0102	-.0071	.0336	
FB1.2_OF	.0405	.0240	-.0022	.0932	
(C1)	-.0281	.0285	-.0888	.0241	
Specific indirect effect contrast definition(s)					
(C1)	FB1.1_CF minus	FB1.2_OF			

- The specific indirect effect of JS through C_Fit (M1) to JP is $.4037 \times .0306 = .0124$ (LLCI = $-.0071$, ULCI = $.0336$) (The interval contains zero: hence, no significant effect through C_Fit).
- The specific indirect effect of JS through O_Fit (M2) to JP is $.5974 \times .0678 = .0405$ (LLCI = $-.0022$, ULCI = $.0932$) (The interval contains zero hence no significant effect on JP through O_Fit).
- The total indirect effect is $.0124 + .0405 = .0529$ (LLCI = $.3307$, ULCI = $.4815$) (Does not contain zero: thus, total indirect effect is significant).

The TE = DE + IE = $.3532 + .0335 + .0935 = .4061$ (LLCI = $.3301$, ULCI = $.4061$). The 95% CI do not contain zero. The total effect (TE) of JS on JP is $.4061$, which is the same as that in Figure 5.4 and Table 5.10).

Using JP as a predictor (X) and JS as consequent or outcome (Y) with C_Fit and O_Fit as mediators gives a total effect of $.5956$, which is the same as in Figure 5.4 and Table 5.11. JE acts as a holistic construct or mediator and not as two sub-dimensions when investigating cause and effect.

JE does not act as a moderating variable in this sample of respondents. Using JE as moderating variable did not result in any significant effects. Using conditional process analysis, no significant interactions could be found when JE is a moderating variable.

5.7.2 Synthesis of the mediation model

JP and JS are causally related via JE acting as mediators. The relationship between JP and JS is a non-recursive one. JP as a predictor has a larger direct (.4857) and indirect causal effect (.1099) on JS as an outcome variable when JE acts as a mediating variable. When JS acts as a predictor of JP as the outcome variable, the direct effect (.3626) and indirect effect (.0435) on JP as an outcome are smaller. Both models have significant effects, but the total effect of JP on JS is larger (.5956) than the total effect between JS as predictor and JP as the outcome (.4061). This research supports the views of Indernum and SaheedBayat (2013) that JS and JP have a reciprocal relationship and that of Judge *et al.* (2001) that the relationship between JP and JS is mediated by other variables such as JE. When using the two sub-dimensions of JE (OF and CF), the specific indirect effect of JP on JS through C_Fit is not significant. However, the total indirect effect of JP on JS was significant, suggesting that CF and OF act as a holistic construct (JE) as mediating variables.

5.8 ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN THE THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES AND THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES IN THE SAMPLE

5.8.1 Gender as independent variable

As three dependent variables or outcomes are involved, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was utilised. The three outcome variables (JS, JP and JE) were tested for possible association at the multivariate level with gender. The summarised test results were:

$\Lambda = 0.993$, $F(3,350) = 1.06$, $p = 0.367$.

No significant association could be found between JS, JP and JE concerning the gender groups at the multivariate level. Hence, no further tests are needed at the univariate level. In both JS and JP, males and females agreed with the factors. Regarding JE, both gender groups were neutral, and gender group did not significantly influence perceptions of JS, JP and JS of respondents in the sample.

5.8.2 Race as independent variable

The Wilk's Lambda multivariate test for JS, JP and JE for race gave the following:

$\Lambda=0.993$, $F(6,680) = 3.98$, $p=0.001$, $r=0.18$. The test shows that, when tested together, there is a significant association present, but the test does not show which of the race groups differ from one another. Results of the univariate were:

JS (FC1.0) – $F(2,342) = 7.76$, $p = 0.001$, $r = 0.21$

JP (FD2.0) – $F(2,342) = 9.76$, $p = 0.000$, $r = 0.23$

JE (FB2.0) – $F(2,342) = 1.42$, $p = 0.242$, $r=0.10$.

These tests show that the three race groups differ from one another regarding JS and JP. They do not differ with respect to JE. Further, post-hoc tests using the Games-Howell test are shown in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Post-hoc test of JS and JP with respect to the race groups (5000 bootstrapped samples used)

Factor	Group	Mean		Games–Howell test (p-value)		
				A	C	W
Job satisfaction (FC1.0)	African	4.22	A	/	-	***
	Coloured	4.19	C	-	/	*
	White	3.86	W	***	*	/
Job performance (FD2.0)	African	4.45	A	/	-	***
	Coloured	4.44	C	-	/	*
	White	4.12	W	***	*	/

* $p<0.05$ ($p>0.01$ but $p<0.05$)

** $p<0.001$

*** $p<0.0005$

The results presented in Table 5.13 above showed that African respondents agreed most strongly with both JS and JP, followed by Coloured and White respondents. Africans differed statistically significantly at the 0.0001% level from Whites while Coloured differed from Whites at the 0.05 % level. None of the significant tests had 95% confidence intervals that contained zero. Hence, the alternative hypothesis is more likely, namely that White respondents in the SAPS academies agreed significantly less strongly than African and Coloured respondents regarding JS and JP if they were in the 95% confidence intervals in the sample.

However, the JP construct comprises two sub-dimensions: task-and contextual performance (TP and CP). Hence, it is necessary to distinguish which of these two sub-dimensions differ regarding JP and the racial groups. The appropriate values are given in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Post-hoc tests for TP and CP with respect to the race groups

Factor	Group	Mean		Games–Howell test (p-value)		
				A	C	W
Task performance (TP-FD1.1)	African	4.50	A	/	-	***
	Coloured	4.51	C	-	/	*
	White	4.21	W	***	*	/
Contextual performance (CP-FD1.2)	African	4.41	A	/	-	***
	Coloured	4.31	C	-	/	*
	White	4.04	W	***	*	/

* $p < 0.05$ ($p > 0.01$ but $p < 0.05$)

** $p < 0.001$

*** $p < 0.0005$

5000 bootstrapped samples used

The results presented in Table 5.14 above revealed that the African respondents agreed most strongly with both task and contextual performance, followed by Coloured and White respondents. Although all three racial groups agreed with both TP and CP, the Africans agreed statistically significantly more strongly with both sub-dimensions of JP than did White respondents. Coloured respondents also agreed more strongly with both JP sub-dimensions but at a 5% significance level. Zero was not present between the lower and upper 95% confidence intervals.

In this sample, race thus influences task and contextual performance perceptions. As the first language is strongly related to race, one would expect similar findings when investigating the association between the first language as a predictor and JS, JP and JE as outcome variables.

5.8.3 First language as independent variable

The first languages were collapsed into four main groups English, Afrikaans, Sotho and Nguni. A contingency table of race versus the first language provides the frequencies of each racial group

according to the first language provided. A correspondence analysis shows the race in column frequencies and first language as rows (see Table 5.15).

Table 5.15: A correspondence table of race in columns and first language in rows

A5Rec. First language recoded to 4 groups	A2Rec. Race recoded to 3 categories			
	African	Coloured	White	Active Margin
English	18	18	11	47
Afrikaans	1	33	59	93
Sotho	55	0	0	55
Nguni	146	3	1	150
Active Margin	220	54	71	345

If one analyses the column frequencies only then, for example, the Nguni first language has a percentage of 66.4% while the row percentage would be 97.3%. Correspondence analysis transforms the frequencies into a graphical display in, which each row and column is depicted as a point and shows how the variables are related. A biplot, a representation of row and column points, represents the relative positions of one point of one set concerning all other points of the different set. CA analyses two-way or multi-way tables, with each row and column becoming a point on a multidimensional graphical map also called a biplot (Doey & Kurta 2011).

The biplot in Figure 5.7 shows this association more clearly.

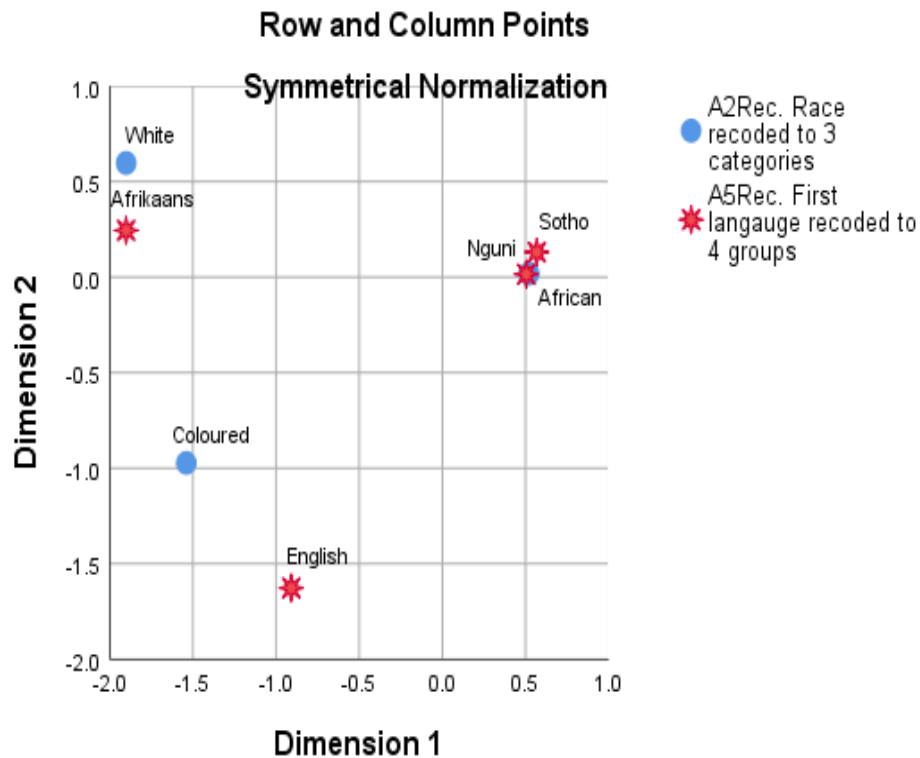


Figure 5.7: A biplot displaying race groups and relation to first language groups on two dimensions

The biplot shows that Nguni and Sotho are closely related to the African race group while Afrikaans is closely related to the White race group. The Coloured race group is related to both English and Afrikaans.

When testing the four language groups using MANOVA, the Box’s M test indicated that the assumption of the equality of covariance was violated. Hence, this researcher used non-parametric tests using the Kruskal-Wallis (H) test. Any significant differences found at this multivariate level was tested for pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni adjustments. Only the pairs that differed statistically regarding JS and JP are displayed in Table 5.16, as JE exhibited no significant differences.

Table 5.16: Comparing JS and JP across first language groups and calculating the effect sizes for pair-wise comparisons

Factor	Comparison	z	p-value (Adjusted)	\sqrt{N}	r
Job satisfaction	Afrikaans vs. Nguni	-2.825	0.028*	15.59	0.181
Job performance	Afrikaans vs. Nguni	-2.873	0.024*	15.59	0.184

* p<0.05

Table 5.16 above illustrated that only the Afrikaans first language group differed significantly from the Nguni language group. The effect sizes were similar, with the one for JP being slightly larger than for JS.

As JP has two sub-dimensions, it is necessary to see which of these two the respondents differ regarding Afrikaans and Nguni language groups. Using only effect sizes, TP had an $r = 0.17$ and CP had an $r = 0.18$. The Nguni language group perceive CP to be slightly more important than the Afrikaans group.

No significant associations could be found with the other independent variables, namely age, educational level, marital status or years employed as a government employee.

5.9 SYNTHESIS OF THE ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN DEPENDENT VARIABLES AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

The study aimed to determine the influence of JE on JS and JP amongst employees in the SAPS academies and the relationship between JE, JS and JP by utilising appropriate statistical techniques such as mediation, moderation and conditional process analysis. As three dependent variables were involved, MANOVA was utilised.

The three variables (JE, JS and JP) were tested for possible association with the sample's independent variables (gender, race and first language). However, there is no research conducted on the three variables independently to determine their association with regard to gender. It is extremely difficult to establish the association between JE, JS and JP with respect to gender due to little research conducted between the three variables and the independent variable gender. No significant association could be found between JE, JS and JP regarding gender groups at the multivariate level.

Concerning race, the results indicate that the three race groups (African, White and Coloured), differ in the extent of agreement regarding JS and JP; however, they do not differ in respect of JE. Africans differed statistically significantly at 0.0001% level from the Whites, while Coloured differed from Whites at 0.05% level. White respondents agreed significantly less strongly than African and Coloured respondents regarding JS and JP. It is challenging to get literature aligned with this study's results, as there is little research undertaken to establish the association between the three variables and race. The reason for this difference needs further investigation, as it is likely to be due to cultural and other differences. Spector (1997:11) writes that JS comprises various concepts or features, namely gratitude, communication, colleagues, fringe benefits and job

settings, nature of the work itself, the structure of the organization itself, an organisation's policies and procedures, salary, opportunities for promotion, appreciation, security and supervision. Dhurup, Surujlal and Kabongo (2016:388) add aspects such as leadership, social relations, culture, and participative decision-making and activities at work. Hence, this research believes that the JS part of the questionnaire utilized did not include sufficient items to cover cultural differences regarding the different viewpoints of the various racial groups.

The JP construct comprises two sub-dimensions: task and contextual performance (TP and CP). The mean for the two sub-dimensions ranged from 4.51 to 4.21 for TP and 4.41 to 4.04 for CP. African respondents agreed most strongly with TP with a mean score of 4.50 and CP with a mean score of 4.41. Coloured respondents followed with a mean score of 4.51 for TP and a mean score of 4.31 for CP. The White respondents followed with a mean score of 4.21 for TP and a mean score of 4.04 for CP. Africans agreed significantly more strongly with both sub-dimensions of JP than White respondents. Coloured respondents also agreed more strongly with both sub-dimensions, but at a 5% level of significance. In this sample, race thus influenced perceptions of both sub-dimensions TP and CP. There is little research conducted to establish the relationship between the three variables and the two sub-dimensions of JP. The reason for this difference between the race groups with respect to JP needs further investigation, as many other factors influence JS.

The first language was collapsed into four main groups, English, Afrikaans, Sotho and Nguni. The biplot showed that Nguni and Sotho are closely related to the African race group, while Afrikaans is closely related to the White race group. The Coloured race group is connected to both English and Afrikaans. When comparing JS and JP across the first language, it indicated that only the Afrikaans first language group differed significantly from the Nguni first language group. Again, the nature of these differences is likely to be cultural and needs further investigation. It is, for example, possible that Sotho and Nguni respondents identify more closely with a collectivist culture, whilst English and Afrikaans respondents are more closely aligned to an individualistic culture (Hofstede 1991:28).

No significant associations could be found on any other independent variables, namely age, educational level, marital status or years employed as government employees.

5.10 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the results of the empirical study. The results of the descriptive statistical analysis of the respondents' answers to the question in Section A of the questionnaire provided

their demographic profiles. The chapter explained the results of the factor analysis, PCA and KMO measure of sampling appropriateness. The analysis of the respondents' answers to questions in Section B of the questionnaire resulted in a factor mean of 3.39, which indicated that the respondents were uncertain about the impact of JE in the SAPS. The analysis of the respondents' answers in Section C of the questionnaire resulted in a factor mean of 4.15, which illustrated that respondents agreed with the items. In retrospect, the items in the JS part of the questionnaire were too few to measure JS of the SAPS employees in the academies. The analysis of the respondents' answers to questions in Section D of the questionnaire resulted in two factors, namely TP and CP, which accounted for a satisfactory total variance of approximately 58.7%. The correlation values showed that the three variables were significantly correlated, which suggested that JS is more strongly related to JE than is JP.

The analysis of the association between gender and the three dependent constructs showed no statistically significant differences. However, the race and first language groups did show significant differences. Statistically, White respondents agreed significantly less strongly with the statements about J and JP than did the African and Coloured respondents. This findings applied to both the components of JP, namely TP and CP. Regarding the first language of the respondents the Nguni language group obtained significantly higher mean scores that did the Afrikaans language group in terms of both JP and JS. The Nguni group also perceived CP as slightly more important than did the Afrikaans language group. However, no significant associations could be found between the dependent variables and any other independent variables, namely, age, educational level, marital status or years employed as a government employee.

In the next chapter, the results will be discussed according to the objectives of this study. Moreover, the chapter will make recommendations for the SAPS Division: HRD explain the study's limitations and provide suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 provided a comprehensive analysis of the data gathered and the interpretation of the results. This chapter discussed the conclusions drawn from the key research findings. Furthermore, it also contains the recommendations forthcoming from the findings presented. Lastly, the circumscriptions and denotations for research hereafter are listed.

The primary focus of this study was to establish whether JE influences JS and JP among the government employees within the SAPS academies. To accomplish this objective, JE, JS and JP were discussed thoroughly. The relationship between the three variables and JS as mediator or moderator was discussed in Chapter 3.

Derived from the outcomes of this study, various conclusions were drawn. The following sections highlight how both the theoretical and empirical objectives were realised.

6.2 THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES

Theoretical objectives of the study were attained through an analysis of the current and relevant literature. These objectives were formulated at the beginning of the study (refer to Chapter 1, Section 1.8.2).

6.2.1 Objective one: To conduct a literature review on JE, JS and JP in the workplace

The literature review on JE, JS and JP revealed diverse definitions of the constructs as discussed in sections 3.2.1, 3.3.2 and 3.4.4 of Chapter 3.

JE theory signifies one of these new viewpoints, concentrating on factors that inspire an employee to remain with an organisation (Nafei 2015:8). Previous studies found that JE predicts gradational variation in turnover after controlling for traditional turnover predictors, such as JS and quit intentions (Crossley *et al.* 2007:1031; Mallol, Holtom & Lee 2007:35). JE theory is a wide-ranging collection of various factors such as psychological, social and financial influences on employee retention (Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton & Sablinski 2004:153). These influences are present on the job and off the job environment of the employee and are frequently likened to components in a network in which an employee can become ensnared (Mitchell *et al.* 2001:189).

Holtom and Inderrieden (2006:435) opine that JE is comprised of (1) the links with others: (2) the fit with the organisation and community: and (3) sacrifices one has to make to change jobs. Wilson (2010:38) states that JE constitutes an aggregate of ideas about how a web of connections secures individuals to their communities and work organisations. Hence, it may be more appropriate to say that the term touches on aspects of job, organisation, occupation and community embeddedness.

Previous studies on organisational behaviour have established JS as an antecedent of improved leadership capabilities, and human resource management has always been concerned with the construct JS (Franek, Mohelska, Zubr, Bachmann & Sokolova 2014:1). The literature review on JS denoted various construct definitions as discussed in Section 3.3 of Chapter 3. For this study, JS is defined as an individual's total feelings toward their job and the outlook they have towards numerous features that characterises their work environment, which includes attitude and perception that could ultimately influence the extent of fit between the employee and the organisation (Ivancevish & Matteson 2002:96).

The motivational contents and cognitive processes that establish the matters of JS in any organisation can be elucidated from various theories developed by astute scholars (Saif *et al.* 2012:1382). Venugopalan (2007:38) conversely state that these different cognitive theories of motivation are commonly divided into two contrasting approaches: content and process theories. The various theories were discussed extensively in Section 3.3.3 of Chapter 3.

The factors that influence JS are discussed in Section 3.3.4 of Chapter 3. Spector (1997:2) identified the following factors of JS as illustrated in Table 3.6 in Chapter 3, namely salary, advancement, command and control, fringe benefits, contingent appraisals, operating procedures, colleagues, nature of work, communication, participative decision making, development and work place milieu.

Given the role that JS can play in worker productivity, absenteeism and turnover and hence the productivity of organisations, understanding the determinants of JS has important economic implications (Hauret & Williams 2014:2). JS is acknowledged as a multidimensional construct involving employee feelings about the variability of intrinsic and extrinsic job features (Al-Zu'bi 2010:103). Intrinsic rewards are both mental and psychological rewards and are directly encountered by the employees, whilst extrinsic rewards are dispensed and bestowed by the management within an organisation (Tabassum *et al.* 2016:5). For any organisation to succeed and achieve its strategic goals, they need to embrace JS and JP as both are essential and incremental.

They are the main critical elements to be considered in the managerial decision-making process (Tabassum *et al.* 2016:1).

Various definitions of the constructs were discussed and inferred in the literature review. However, this study's conceptualisation suggests that JP needs to be dealt with as a holistic construct. Accordingly, Ahmand and Shahzad (2011:5249) suggests employee JP symbolises the conviction of the employee concerning their behaviour and demeanour and their vital role played in the success and development of the organisation and indicates various factors such as salary levels, appraisal systems and progress opportunities as the determinant of employee JP.

Campbell (1990:687) developed an influential model containing eight dimensions to measure JP, which are indicated in Figure 3.10 of Chapter 3. Furthermore, JP is a multidimensional construct consisting of the three dimensions used to conceptualise and explore JP, namely task performance, conceptual performance, and adaptive performance. All three dimensions were extensively discussed in Chapter 3 in sections 3.4.5.1, 3.4.5.2 and 3.4.5.3. Organisations and departments must manage the employee JP with efficacy as it is imperative to implement the organisational strategic direction and realise and accomplish its strategic objectives (Nafei 2015:13). Hence, after a comprehensive and in-depth literature review of the diverse concepts of performance and JP, it is maintained that JP, in its simplest form, is the desired outcome that every organisation intends to realise effectively and efficiently.

6.2.2 Objective two: To conduct a literature review on the relationship between JE and JS and JP in the workplace

The relationship between JE, JS and JP was discussed in sections 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7 of Chapter 3. The process models measuring the effect of JP on JS with JE were discussed in Section 5.6 of Chapter 5. From the R^2 values, JS and JP had the highest shared variance of 24.21%. The shared variance between JS and JE was 17.4% and the lowest shared variance was between JP and JE namely 9.6%. This could illustrate that JS is more strongly related to JE than JP.

Based on little research conducted, it is enormously challenging to determine causal links, associations, or relationships between JE, JS and JP. The measure of JE often is linked or associated with its dimensions (on and off the job) and sub-dimensions (fit, links and sacrifice). Conversely, the results of this research or study illustrate a relationship between JE and JS, which is consistent with a study by Skelton (2017:84), which concluded that a statistically significant correlation exists between JS and JE.

Previous research investigated relationships between the dimensions or components of JE and JP. The study by Candan (2016:76) established no significant correlation between on-the-job embeddedness and performance. Conversely, Candan (ibid) established the existence of a positive correlation between off-the-job embeddedness and performance. Overall, a positive correlation (0,202*) was determined between JE and JP. These results are consistent with the previous literature (Sun, Zhao, Yang & Fan 2011:69; Fatima, Shafique, Qadeer & Ahmad 2015:421; Karatepe 2016:119). Conversely, little research has been done on JE's relationship as a holistic construct and JP.

The association between the two variables remains a dominant research topic in the organisational behaviour literature (Ram 2013:17). Even though the influence of JS on employee JP has been established and determined, the question remains unreciprocated, which is: Does employee JP have a significant influence on JS? (Alromaihi *et al.* 2017:12). Aziri (2017:77) deliberated on various models of JS, which indicate the positive relationship between JP and JS. Complementary conclusions were made as some models concluded that employee JP directly influences JS, and some models established that employee JP affects employee JS through numerous appraisals (intrinsic & extrinsic) (Aziri 2017:12) or through creating a positive or conducive workplace for employees (Moccia 2016:143). Consequently, there are mediating factors that have been identified that are set in the middle between JS and employee JP, demonstrating that JS has an indirect influence on JP and JP has an indirect influence on JS (Alromaihi *et al.* 2017:15). According to the results of this study, JS and JP are probably in a non-recursive relationship with one another and each one influences the other.

Considering the studies conducted previously, there has not been any study to directly determine the association or relationship between JE as a holistic construct and JS and JP. Therefore, it is imperative to consider that this study's most significant contribution to the literature would be at this point.

6.2.3 Objective three: To utilise the existing literature to design an appropriately structured questionnaire to measure the perceptions of employees within the SAPS academies

The research methodology is encapsulated in the literature review of the three variables (JE, JS & JP). The research items included in the research questionnaire were explained in Section 4.5.1 of Chapter 4. Comments elucidated from the deliberations in Chapter 4 suggested that the use of the pilot study guaranteed that the findings attained or extrapolated in this study were valid and

reliable. In Section 4.11, the ethical requirements were explained and complied with, specifically obtaining authorisation and approval from the SAPS, ensuring that the respondents participated voluntarily in the research activities and that information was kept confidential and anonymous.

Section B of the questionnaire contained 12 items that asked respondents about their JE in the SAPS academies. From the data analysis, two factors of JE were identified, namely, community fit (CF) and organisational fit (OF), which is in accordance with the findings of Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1104). Emanating from the findings that are explained and discussed in Chapter 5, it can be concluded that the respondents were uncertain about the impact of JE in the SAPS.

Section C was a shortened version of Judge *et al.* (1998:17) JS measure II. It contained seven items from which the respondents nominated the responses that describe their level of satisfaction. Stemming from the findings as explained in Chapter 5, it can be concluded that the respondents agreed with the items in JS. However, the items in the JS part of the questionnaire were found to be too few to measure the JS of the SAPS employees in the academies. More items dealing with other aspects of JS would have been better to contribute positively to the analysis of this study.

Section D of the questionnaire had 14 items modelled on a five-point interval scale. The items asked respondents about JP within their academies. From the data analysis, two types of JP were identified, namely task performance (TP) and contextual performance (CP) which was consistent with research by Peng (2014:750). The data distribution was skewed, probably due to items measuring self-perception and susceptible to the halo-effect.

Based on the explanation of the findings that were discussed in Chapter 5, it can be concluded that the respondents were satisfied with the job within the academies and their performance. Furthermore, they are uncertain about JE, which probably is a new phenomenon within their environments.

Subsequent to theoretical objectives being explained significantly, the next section summarises the empirical objectives formulated in Chapter 1.

6.3 EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES

The following empirical objectives were formulated for the study per the primary objectives of this study.

To establish levels of JE, JS and JP means were computed for each dimension.

6.3.1 Objective one: To determine the underlying structures of JE, JS and JP of employees within SAPS academies using data obtained from the structured questionnaire

This objective was achieved in sections 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5 of Chapter 5. In Section 5.3, the two components of JE were extracted, namely community fit (CF) and organisational fit (OF). A principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was used. The factor means of 3.39 illustrated that the respondents were uncertain about the effect of JE within the SAPS academies.

The means obtained in Section 5.4, when analysing the participants' responses regarding JS ascertained that they agreed that they were satisfied with their jobs. The JS factor had a mean of 4.15, which is in line with the conclusion by Mabila (2014:181), who found that most people working in the police service attested that the work environment highly influenced their love for their job.

Through the analysis of the mean (4.39), the level of JP of the employees within the SAPS academies was established in Section 5.5. The two distinct types of JP were identified, namely task and contextual performance. The mean score for the JP scale was 4.39, which illustrated that the employees at the SAPS academies were satisfied with their JP.

6.3.2 Objective two: To determine the construct validity and reliability of JE, JS and JP by utilising the data collected

In Section 4.9.1 and 4.10.2 of Chapter 4 the construct reliability and validity of the three constructs were discussed in detail. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient guidelines, as suggested by Cohen *et al.* (2007:506), were discussed in Section 4.9.1.2 of Chapter 4.

This objective was accomplished in Section 5.3 of Chapter 5 as both the sub-dimensions of JE namely, community fit and organisational fit, were reliable. Cronbach's alpha reliability of community fit was 0.874, which was highly reliable, and the organisational fit was 0.775, which was reliable or satisfactory.

In Section 5.4 of Chapter 5, the Cronbach's alpha reliability of JS was 0.775, which illustrated that the construct based on data collected was answered consistently.

In Section 5.5 of Chapter 5, the two types of JP, namely task performance and contextual performance, were found to be reliable. Cronbach's reliability of task performance was 0.878 and 0.876 for contextual performance, indicating that both were highly reliable.

6.3.3 Objective three: To determine the association between JE, JS and JP by utilising appropriate statistical techniques such as mediation, moderation and conditional process analysis and AMOS 26

JP and JS were found to be causally related via JE acting as a mediator. The relationship between JP and JS was found to be non-recursive. The total effect of JP on JS was larger (.5956) than the total reciprocal effect between JS as predictor and JP as the outcome (0.4061). This research supports the view that JS and JP have a reciprocal relationship, moderated by other variables such as JE (Saeed, Mussawar, Rab Nawaz Lodhi, Nayab & Yaseen 2013:1200 & Judge *et al.* 2001:1102).

6.3.4 Objective four: To determine the direct and indirect effects of the three constructs on one another

The total effect of JP on JS is reciprocal or non-recursive as it is possible to trace a path from JS to JP and back. However, the total effect consists of a direct and indirect effect, with the indirect effect going via JE as a mediator. Comparing the two models indicates that the direct effect of JP on JS is .5956 units, while the direct effect of JS on JP is 0.4061 units. The indirect effect of JS on JP via mediator JE is 0.0435, while the indirect effect of JP on JS via JE is 0.1099.

This suggested that JP had a stronger causal influence on JE than JS. It can be concluded that JP causes JE, and JE in turn causes JS. Furthermore, JS also causes JE, which in turn causes JP; however, this effect is not as large as the JP, JE and JS effects.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Emanating from the findings of the research conducted on JE, JS and JP of the employees of the SAPS academies, the following recommendations were made:

- Further extensive studies need to be undertaken to establish the influence of both dimensions of job embeddedness (on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness) and their sub-dimensions of links, fit and sacrifice, as JE plays a significant role as mediating construct between job satisfaction and job performance.
- An improved questionnaire to be developed which should encompass or incorporate qualitative data that will disclose valuable information unexploited during this study about job embeddedness with the Division: HRD and provide a clearer picture of understanding of the construct within the SAPS academies.

- Division: HRD to develop a strategy that focuses on the on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness of employees within academies, to determine their reasons to stay within the division and reasons that might propel employees to seek transfer to other divisions within the SAPS, different provinces or resign from the organisation.
- Gather sufficient background information about employees that are recruited to Division: HRD as it will determine their job satisfaction or performance in the near future, as the present system is inadequate.
- Managers at all levels within Division: HRD to show a keen interest in off-the-job factors that impact employees' job satisfaction and performance and provide necessary support by creating an enabling environment.
- The results of the overall mean score ($m=4.15$) for job satisfaction were satisfactory but could still be improved. An enabling organisational environment needs to be created where employees are treated as an essential resource of the organisation, being applauded, recognised and receive support to unravel their hidden talent and potential by contributing to the development of the SAPS human capital and contribute to the organisation to attain its strategic objectives as depicted in the National Development Plan or Vision 2030.
- Lifelong learning must be advanced and encouraged at all academies to enhance and advance employees intellectual capacity, translating to JS and JP.
- Employees can be empowered through exposure by sending employees to relevant academic conferences, workshops, and other forms of learning and training.
- Develop an employees' performance feedback system specially crafted for employees within Division: HRD to determine performance, identify possible gaps and provide appropriate developmental measures.
- In addition, more comprehensive interviews should be conducted to clarify or dispel any possible self-perceptions bias about on-the-job performance, as was measured in Section D of the questionnaire in this study. This may give greater clarity to some findings.

6.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS

This study was exposed to certain limitations that advance and promote the need for further research opportunities. The following limitations were identified in this study:

- Quantitative research methods involve structured questionnaires with close-ended questions. The results cannot consistently and constantly represent the actual occurring in a generalised form. It leads to narrow and restricted results indicated in the research proposal. However, it may give clarity to some findings.

- The respondents voluntarily completed the questionnaires, and the researcher had no control or influence over their responses. Consequently, the researcher had to depend on the truthful information submitted by the respondents.
- The items in the JS part of the questionnaire were too short to measure the content validity of the JS of the SAPS employees within academies. In addition, negatively worded items lead to numerous problems and should be avoided in future studies.
- The study was confined only to national academies, excluding provincial HRD academies, as they fall under the Provincial Commissioners and accessing them was going to be a challenge to the researcher.
- Only the SAPS permanently appointed members were targeted, excluding the Public Service Act personnel.
- The racial, language, age and ethnic composition at the SAPS academies are not proportional, as it affects respondents' perceptions.
- Despite the positive relationship among the three constructs (JE, JS & JP), the research findings in this study indicated that many members within the SAPS do not sufficiently understand JE.

6.6 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Notwithstanding the limitations identified in the preceding paragraph, the findings of this study highlighted numerous important and vital insights that other researchers in South Africa may utilise for future research purposes. The influence of JE as a holistic construct and its association with other variables need to be examined, explored, investigated and probed further within the SAPS. Primarily, little research on the relationship between JE, JS and JP has been conducted so far in the context of the SAPS and also in the public sector. Thus, limited relevant literature was available on the relationship between JE, JS and JP, specifically in the South African context.

This study substantiated and validated previous studies conducted and further indicated JE's direct and indirect effect on employees' JS and JP. Previous studies tested the relationship of sub-dimensions of JE with other variables. These studies were discussed extensively in Chapter 3 of this study.

JE as a holistic construct should be studied further in a broader approach to the work environment and its relationship with other variables such as JS, JP, OC and burnout. Therefore, this study may be utilised as a foundation to understand the influence and relationship between the variables measured and researched.

6.7 ORIGINAL CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of JE on JS and JP among employees within the SAPS academies and indicate its influence for enhancing job performance of employees within the academies. Based on previous studies no such investigation has been comprehensively undertaken in the SA public sector using the model of Hayes (2018) in the context of this study's demarcation.

This study has contributed to an area where there is a noticeable knowledge gap in the SA public sector and within the SAPS, through empirical evidence in relation to the influence of JE as a holistic construct.

6.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter indicated a synopsis and classification of all the chapters, explained how the study's objectives were attained, made recommendations regarding the findings, provided a comprehensive explanation of the limitations of this study, and outlined the future research opportunities stemming from this study. The primary objective of this research was to investigate the influence of JE on JS and JP among employees within the SAPS academies. The findings of this study concluded that participants were uncertain about the impact of JE within the SAPS. According to responses from participants in the study, two sub-dimensions of JE were identified, namely community fit and organisational fit.

Aziri (2011:77) opines that many external aspects and dynamics influence job satisfaction; however, it remains an internal factor determined by how the employee feels. The research discovered that employees were satisfied with their jobs and performance at various academies. Furthermore, the study found a positive relationship between job embeddedness and job satisfaction.

This study further identified two types of performance, namely task and contextual performance, which are imperative in influencing employees' perceptions of performing or not. Furthermore, the results indicated that JE acts as a mediating variable between JS and JP and is a causal effect and hence important. Finally, employers must identify the extent of influence of JE within their organisations to develop acceptable and sufficient measures to enhance employees' job satisfaction and performance.

Research on JE as a holistic construct is still limited, more specifically within the public service sector in South Africa, which presents limitless opportunities for both academics and practitioners.

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INFORMATION LEAFLET AND INFORMED CONSENT

**FACULTY: MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

Project Title: **INFLUENCE OF JOB EMBEDDEDNESS ON JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB PERFORMANCE AMONG EMPLOYEES WITHIN SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE ACADEMIES**

Primary investigator: **Advocate Ratsela Johannes Tala, M-Tech in Business Admin**

Study leader: **Prof Bennie Grobler, DED (Ed. Man.) and Dr Christel Marais, Phd (LRM), Department of Human Resource Management, Vaal University of Technology, Vanderbijlpark**

Dear Potential Research Participant,

You are invited to complete a survey questionnaire that forms part of my formal study/or for non-degree purposes. Please use some time to read the information described here, which will explain the details of this project. This study has been approved by the **Research Ethics Committee of the Vaal University of or FREC, Faculty of Management Sciences (Ethics clearance number)**. Permission to conduct the study was also granted by the Divisional Commissioner: Human Resource Development of the South African Police Service. All parts of the study will be conducted according to internationally accepted ethical principles

Background information

The primary objective of the study is to investigate the influence of job embeddedness on job satisfaction and job performance within SAPS academies. In addition, the study's empirical objectives is to determine the underlying structures of job embeddedness, job satisfaction and job performance of employees within SAPS academies.

Respondents and their role

All SAPS members appointed in terms of South African Police Act, 68 of 1996 will be required to participate in the study, due to their experience, knowledge and skills within Division: Human Resource Development.

Potential and/or foreseeable risks

No intentional risks or harm are anticipated as a result of participation. The researcher will assure the participants of confidentiality, anonymity of results and ethical behaviour during the study.

The basic rights of the respondent

- **Your participation in this study is voluntary, and it is within your right to withdraw from the study at any time you may wish to do so.**

APPENDIX 2 – QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please indicate your answer by placing a cross (x) in the appropriate block.

A1 Gender

Male	1	Female	2
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A2 Race

African	1
Coloured	2
Indian/Asian	3
White	4
Other (Specify)	5

A3 Age

20-24	1
25-30	2
31-35	3
36-45	4
46-55	5
56+	6

A4 Marital Status

Single	1
Married	2
Divorced	3
Widow	4
Widower	5
Other (Specify)	6

A5 First Language

English	1
Afrikaans	2
Sepedi	3
Setswana	4
Sesotho	5
Xitsonga	6
isiXhosa	7
isiZulu	8
SiSwati	9
Tshivenda	10
isiNdebele	11

A6 Educational level

Diploma	1
Degree	2
Honours	3
Masters	4
Doctoral	5
Other (Specify)	6

A7 Years Employed as government employee

0-5 Years	1
6-10 Years	2
11-15 Years	3
16-20 Years	4
21 Years and more	5

A8 To what extent has the Employment Equity Act of 1998 influenced your level of job satisfaction?

No extent	1
Small extent	2
Moderate extent	3
Large extent	4
Very large extent	5

SECTION B

Measure Job Embeddedness (JE)

(Clinton, Knight & Guest, 2012 as amended)

Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about the impact of your health problem on your work experiences. Please use the scale between strongly agree and strongly disagree as indicated in the table below. The Organisation is the SAPS						
Statement		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Uncertain	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
B1	The organisation provides me with a way of life that suits me.	1	2	3	4	5
B2	Overall, I fit very well in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
B3	My closest friends are in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
B4	Overall, I have strong ties with people throughout the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
B5	I would miss the excitement that this job brings if I left.	1	2	3	4	5
B6	There would be many things about the organisational life that I would be sad to lose if I left.	1	2	3	4	5
B7	The area where I am based right now is suitable for my family and friends.	1	2	3	4	5
B8	There is plenty to keep me happy off duty around here.	1	2	3	4	5
B9	Even if I decide to leave the organisation I would still live in the	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about the impact of your health problem on your work experiences. Please use the scale between strongly agree and strongly disagree as indicated in the table below. The Organisation is the SAPS

Statement		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Uncertain	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
	area where I am based at the moment.					
B10	My family has strong ties around the community where I am currently based.	1	2	3	4	5
B11	Leaving the area where I am currently based would mean many personal and/or family sacrifices.	1	2	3	4	5
B12	I would be very sad to leave the general community where I am based right now.	1	2	3	4	5

PLEASE GO TO THE NEXT PAGE AND COMPLETE SECTION C

SECTION C

BRIEF JOB SATISFACTION MEASURE II

(Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998 amended)

DIRECTIONS: Some jobs are more interesting and satisfying than others. We want to know how you feel about your job. For each statement below, use the following scale to indicate which is most descriptive of your current job: PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
C1	Generally speaking, I am satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5
C2	I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
C3	I often think of quitting my job.	1	2	3	4	5
C4	My opinion of myself improves when I do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5
C5	I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5
C6	I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly at my job.	1	2	3	4	5
C7	My own feelings are generally not influenced by how well I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5

PLEASE GO TO THE NEXT PAGE AND COMPLETE SECTION D

SECTION D

JOB PERFORMANCE (JP)

(Koopman, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, de Vet & van der Beek 2014 amended)

<p>In this section we would like to know more about your job performance within the department that you work for. Please choose among the options that seem most appropriate to you. Please indicate the extent of your disagreement or agreement with the statements by making a cross (x) in the corresponding number between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree).</p>								
D1	I willingly take on extra responsibilities.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D2	When old tasks are finished I start with a new tasks.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D3	When available, I take on challenging work tasks.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D4	I work at keeping my job knowledge up-to-date	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D5	I work at keeping my job skills up-to-date	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D6	I am able to find creative solutions to new problems in my work situation.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D7	I keep looking for new challenges in my job.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D8	I freely provide my opinion during work meetings.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D9	I am able to plan my work so that it is completed on time.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D10	In my last work appraisal I was able to meet my performance expectations.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D11	My work performance is driven by the results I have to achieve.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D12	I am able to separate main issues from side issues at work.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D13	I am able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
D14	I am able to cope well with difficult situations and setbacks at work.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION AND PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY.
YOUR VIEWS ARE MUCH APPRECIATED**

APPENDIX 3 - LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR

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

16 August 2021

To whom it may concern

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

Ratsela Johannes Tala

for the degree

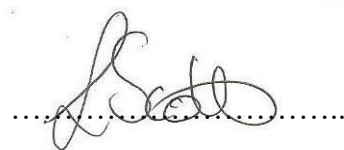
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

entitled:

***INLUENCE OF JOB EMBEDDEDNESS ON JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB
PERFORMANCE AMONG EMPLOYEES WITHIN SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
ACADEMIES***

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

Yours truly,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Linda Scott', is written over a horizontal dotted line.

Linda Scott