A STUDY OF JOB STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG EMPLOYEES OF THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCIAL LEGISLATURE IN BHISHO

By

ZOLISWA MAVIS TOM

9736646

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SUPERVISOR: M DYWILI
DECLARATION

I, the undersigned TOM ZOLISWA MAVIS (9736646), hereby declare that this mini dissertation entitled: A study of job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees of the eastern cape provincial legislature in Bhisho, is my own original work, and any ideas or thought that were adopted were acknowledged by the means of referencing the source in text or at the reference list. This document has not been and will not be submitted or presented for the award of any other Degree, diploma, fellowship or other similar title at any other University or any institute of higher learning.

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REMARKS
The reader is reminded that the references and the editorial style as prescribed by the *Publication Manual (5th edition)* of the American Psychological Association (APA) were followed in this thesis. This is in line with the policy of the Programme in Industrial Psychology of the University of Fort Hare, to use APA-style in all scientific documents.
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to:

- My employer, Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature who assisted me financial and encouraged that I get education so I can become the person I am today.

- My family members who passed on within a quarter in 2015, it is not easy till to date. *Those people are: MD (Nzotho) who is my father, Whitey who is my brother and Feziwe who is my younger sister. They will always be remembered by the entire family.*

- My daughter, Kholosa Zafika Tom and the rest of my family for their continued support.
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ABSTRACT

According to Greenberg (2011) stress is an inevitable fact of organizational life today, and has an effect on both the employer and employee. The main aim of this study was on finding out the effect of job stress on job satisfaction and employee turnover in the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature department. This study was conducted employing logical positivism as the philosophical paradigm; and this logical positivism derives from only two sources of knowledge which are logical reasoning and empirical experience. The researcher employed a non-experimental exploratory quantitative approach, employing the questionnaire as a data collection instrument. A sample size of 238 participants was used to collect data. Data analysis was done using the Pearson correlation coefficient and multi regressions. Job stress was found to have substantial influence to increase turnover intentions and to decrease job satisfaction. In addition, job stress and job satisfaction combine to have a collective influence on turnover intentions. The study recommends managers to implement motivational strategies to enhance job satisfaction and retain employees as long as possible.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The South African Act of Parliament number 100 of 1996 expresses that the Legislature has the authority on law-making, oversight and public participation. Sections 114 and 118 of the Act provide that law-making is the expected course taken to change a general conception of a law into a real law. Oversight is when the Legislature department takes to conduct assessments of its own programs and performances, to identify areas to enhance the efficiency, and to cultivate effectiveness in governmental operations. Public participation promotes the right of individuals to take part in decision making process for the decisions made by superiors that directly or indirectly affect them.

The fulfillment of the expected responsibility requires employees to be psychologically and physiologically well, without stress and optimally performing their tasks. According to Auditor-General’s Report (2013/2014), job stress is a predictor to job dissatisfaction and job negative performance among employees of the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature, ultimately leading to a high rate of staff turnover and audit qualification. Codja (2014) defines audit qualification as “a form of words in a report from the auditors of a company’s account, stating that in their opinion the accounts are not a true reflection of the company’s financial position, meaning that the firm’s financial position is misrepresented”.

Job stress, job satisfaction and employee turnover have been found to be linked in some way, such that the lack of employee satisfaction may lead to occupational stress. Conversely, satisfied employees are less likely to experience occupational stress. According to the Health & Safety Executive (HSE) (2001) job stress is globally regarded as a major determinant to workforce health and that of their working environment. Parmer (2004) affirms that when employees are persistently stressed their health is threatened; they lose motivation to work, become less creative and they become unsafety at work. In addition, Parmer (2004) states that their workplaces become less likely to be prospering in competitive conditions.

The growing attention on job stress as a research area has been important especially to the degree of its effects. White and Bundred (2000) assert that job stress can cause a variety of physical illness including hypertension, whilst Lang and Consoli (2002) believe that extreme levels of job stress can negatively influence the emotional well-being. Blix, Cruise, Mitchell,
Blix & Gandha (2000) confirm that in a business setup, employees with high levels of stress have been reported to be less efficient in doing their jobs. In a study by Dollard & de Jonge (2002) the findings indicated an inverse correlation to exist between job stress and job satisfaction among various populations.

In order to allow detailed understanding of the effects of job stress, this study will examine the interrelationships of job stress, job satisfaction and employee turnover among the staff of Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The Provincial Legislature of the Eastern Cape is the Assembly of the people and exerts every possible effort to deliver successful quality services that are a result of sustainable and transformative growth. The Legislature Strategic Plan (2003, p. 2) indicates that excellence is one of the valued attributes of the Legislature, allowing the continuous improvement of performance and standards in service delivery. The assumption of this research is that a stressed individual cannot strive for excellence as a value. The dimensions of these three variables (organizational factors, intellectual factors and output) in this study are also presumed interrelated. The afore mentioned variables can negatively affect job satisfaction and performance which ultimately result into job stress.

On the 28th May 2014 NEHAWU submitted a document before the Parliamentarians indicating its grievances within the operational environment requesting for the expulsion of the Accounting Officer. The reason for this plea included among others those factors that affect employees which are; flawed employment practices at the Legislature, internal policies, employee/employer relations that are sour, dragging of salary negotiation process and improvement of basic conditions of service for employees. All these factors affect the morale of the staff in terms of job satisfaction and may lead to job stress, which may lead to employee turnover. The approved memorandum of 11th February 2014 showed that two General Managers of the Core Business of Legislature tendered their resignations at the same time. The two were considered valuable assets of the institution because they served more than twenty years; however, they erred against the organizational factors they had to resign. Stress causes some junior staff to come to work whilst intoxicated with alcohol, forcing the employer to take disciplinary actions against them (e.g. sanction was imposed as no work no pay- during July salary 2014).
Stressed employees do not contribute adequately to make the Legislature effectively accomplish its ultimate mandate mentioned before. Job satisfaction inversely relate with the turnover intentions of workforce, such that higher levels of job satisfaction makes a worker not to leave his/her job. However, there is a need to find the effect of job stress on job satisfaction and employee turnover in the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature. According to Shahu (2008) people with higher stress levels display lower performance whereas those with higher job satisfaction display higher performance. The problem therefore is high turnover due to job dissatisfaction and Audit Qualification for the 2013/2014 financial year due to low performance as a result of people who are always absent because of stress at the Legislature.

1.3 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The main objectives of this study are:

- To determine the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction.
- To determine whether higher stress levels results in high turnover intentions.
- To determine whether high job satisfaction results in lower turnover intentions.
- To determine the relationship between job stress, job satisfaction and employee turnover intentions.

1.4 HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

Ho: There is no significant relationship between job stress and job satisfaction.
H1: There is a significant negative relationship between job stress and job satisfaction.

Ho: There is no significant relationship between job stress and turnover intentions.
H2: There is a significant positive relationship between job stress and turnover intentions.

Ho: There is no significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions.
H3: There is significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Ho: Stress and job satisfaction have no combined effect on turnover intentions.
H4: Stress and job satisfaction have a combined effect on turnover intentions.
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

According to Greenberg (2011) stress is an inevitable fact of organizational life today, and has an effect on both the employer and employee. The findings of this study may add value to literature on job stress and employee motivation, as it seeks to investigate whether occupational stress plays a role in job satisfaction and employee turnover. The study also seeks:

- To investigate the extent to which occupational stress can influence job satisfaction and employee turnover among employees of the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature.
- To take a South Africa context with regards to occupational stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Importantly, there is a Research Department in the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature, which has never conducted a study of this nature and with a focus on the interrelatedness of job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The findings of this research will, therefore, be of particular importance to the legislature and to the country as a whole.

1.6 PARADIGMATIC

This study was focused on the subject of Industrial and Organizational Psychology with particular interest on occupational wellness. According to Louw (2007) occupational wellness can be well understood by considering factors such as job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. This study focused on these factors and utilized some theories to model the phenomenon. Some scholars including Bergh (2005), Greenhaus & Parasurm, (1989) and Roberst & Levenson (2001) affirm that the stressors emanating from work demands usually have a spill-over effect from work to the family. This study was conducted employing logical positivism as the philosophical paradigm; and this logical positivism derives from only two sources of knowledge which are logical reasoning and empirical experience. Positive knowledge is obtainable through the process of induction, using empirical methods to allow for measurement and comparison of constructs. The nomothetic method and induction were included in the methodology. According Meyer, Moore and Viljoen (1989) the nomothetic method describes psychological processes by making general inferences on the general principles that apply to all people, without considering individual differences.

Induction, on the other hand, allows generalizations to be made from specific deductions to general principles (Meyer et al., 1989). As a sub-field within Industrial and Organizational
Psychology, psychometrics was employed in carrying out the empirical investigation. According to Gregory (2004) psychometrics is centered on the application of mathematical and statistical procedures in Industrial and Organizational Psychology. The empirical investigation conducted for this research was dependent on the measurement theory which allows comparing and contrasting relationships between or among variables. The systems theory is used to integrate aspects of job demands, organizational social support and self-efficacy within an organizational-personal system. This is done in order to determine the manifestation of job stress or outcome of the interaction between these variables and the phenomenon under investigation.

Mouton and Marais (1992, p.21) proposed a research model and this model was adopted by the researcher as a framework construct for the research process necessary to investigate and address the above-mentioned problem statement and research objectives. The five dimensions of social research namely; sociology, ontology, teleology, epistemology and methodology, are integrated in this model. This is done in line with the assumption made by the model that sees research as a social process. The model takes a theoretical and systemic framework approach and underlines the three sub-systems and the research domains that interact with each other in this discipline of Industrial and Organizational Psychology discipline. The three sub-systems are the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual sources, and the research process itself.

1.7 RELEVANT THEORETICAL DEFINITIONS

According to Babbie (2004) a theory provides explanations of observations and gives a guideline on how to intervene, predict behavior and conduct research. The theories employed in this study can be deemed relevant by first understanding the variables (Burr, 1995) that are at the heart of the study which are; job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

1.7.1 Job Stress

Health and Safety Executive (HSE) defines job stress as “the adverse reaction people have to excessive pressures or other types of demand placed on them at work”. Job stress is an unfavorable condition that occurs when an individual is unable to cope with the demands of the job they are doing. A persistent condition of stress may ultimately be linked with increased applications for sick leaves, staff turnover and other issues such as errors.
Henry (2008) proposed two theoretical models namely; the demand-control model and the effort-reward imbalance model which could be used to explain and measure stress. The demand-control model describes job stress to be emanating from the distinctive job task profile, for example, high demand with low control (job strain). In the effort-reward imbalance model job stress is may result from work contract, for example, a worker become frustrated when high efforts spent at work are not being reciprocated by appropriate rewards in terms of salary, job promotion or security, and esteem.

1.7.2 Job Satisfaction

Curriva (1999) defines job satisfaction as the degree of positive emotions and attitudes an employee develops towards a particular work role. In other words, job satisfaction is the amount of pleasure or contentment or gratification related with a particular job. In this study the researcher purposefully chose to view job satisfaction as defined by Johns et al (2007) to be a collection of attitudes that employees have about the jobs, and their perception of the job as articulated by Ivancevivh et al, (2008). According to Pestonejee, job satisfaction is a reference to employee’s feelings in four important areas “which include:

- Job – nature of work (dull, dangerous, interesting) hours of work, fellow workers, opportunities on the job for promotion and advancement (prospects), overtime regulations, interest in work, physical environment and machines and tools.
- Management supervisory treatment, participation, rewards and punishments, praises and blames, leaves policy and favoritism.
- Social relations – friends and associates, neighbor, attitudes towards people in community, participation in social activity, sociability and caste barrier.
- Personal adjustment – health and emotionality”.

Job satisfaction can be seen as an important indicator of how employees feel about their jobs. It, therefore, can be a predictor of work behavior such as organizational citizenship absenteeism, turnover. Lawler’s theory models job satisfaction according to four basic conditions as follows:

- The Fulfillment theory which explains the attainment of the thing needed. Basically, all workers find happiness when their demands and wishes are being satisfied. The more a worker earns, for example, the more he/she is satisfied and the less a worker
earns the less he/she is satisfied. In addition, a higher rank job or an interesting job can also satisfy employees.

- The Discrepancy theory focuses on what the workers are expecting and what they are getting. Their expectations, evaluations and hopes about their works are more important than what they are really having. The difference between expectation and gatherings formulates the base of this theory and addressing three questions: What do workers wish? What are their expectations? What can they get actually?

- The Equity theory – workers compare their qualifications and contribution to work and the job’s contribution to them, thus creating an attitude of worker against the work he does. If the worker is paid over his work he will feel guilty but if he is paid under what he deserves his feeling for justice will rise.

- The Two-factor theory focuses on the elements that amount to reasons of fulfillment. Negative elements are lower wages, no job guarantee and such factors. According to Herzberg (1976) fulfillment elements include the realization of worker himself and accomplishment of goals.

Herzberg, by his two factor theory, advanced Maslow’s main, physiologic and self realization theory and fortified it. Maslow’s theory is based on the comparison of the best and worst condition at work, also referred to as the motivators and hygiene (defensive) factors respectively.

Christen, Iyer and Soberman (2006) provide a model of job satisfaction in which the following elements are included:

- Job related factors
- Role perceptions
- Job performance and
- Firm performance

1.7.3 Turnover intentions

Turnover intention is that condition when an employee resolves to voluntarily leave the organization. This may end up affecting the organization’s status and that intention alone will inevitably have an impact on the employee’s productivity. Sousa-Poza & Henneberger (2002, p.1) distinguished turnover intention and turnover, describing the turnover intention to be the manifestation of the (subjective) probability that an individual will change his or her job within a certain time period, whereas turnover is a voluntary occurrence or event as a result
of employee movement across the membership boundary of an organization (Price, 2001, p.600). Sousa-Poza & Henneberger (2002) emphasize on the difference explicating that contrary to turnover, turnover intentions are not definite, but are often associated with job search behavior.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN
The researcher employed a non-experimental, quantitative approach in carrying out the study, targeting both the Male and Female workers of the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature as a population of interest. A sample of 238 respondents were drawn from the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature in Bhisho and subjected to a cross-sectional field survey.

The researcher made use of questionnaires to collect data, an instrument relevant to collect data from numerous respondents at the same time. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences was used in conducting data analysis. Chapter 3 discusses in full detail the research method, characteristics of the participants, measuring instruments, research procedure and the statistical analyses executed and ethical considerations.

1.9 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
The study relied on the participant’s honesty and ability to respond to questionnaires. A possible limitation comes from non-response both in part and whole. Another challenge to this study was funding to cater for travelling costs and any other instrument necessary to do the research; hence it was done in the premises of the Legislature.

1.10 LAYOUT OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT
This study consists of the following chapters:

    Chapter 1: Research Introduction and Background
    This chapter provides a brief background to the study with, the purpose of the study, scope of the study and hypotheses to be tested.

    Chapter 2: Job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees.
    This chapter sets out to discuss the literature on job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions as documented by various subject experts in various books and articles.

    Chapter 3: Research Method
    This chapter outlines the method followed by the researcher during the research process.
Chapter 4: Empirical research results

This chapter highlights the empirical results of the study as captured by the researcher using a questionnaire as the research instrument.

Chapter 5: Discussion

In this chapter results are discussed in relation to the hypotheses and previous research findings. The limitations focus on the factors which restrict the study. In addition, recommendations for future research and for future managerial practice and dissertation conclusion are made.

1.1 SUMMARY

“The main objectives of the study were laid out in this chapter, accompanied by the approach taken to achieve these objectives. The researcher provided an outline on the hypothesis to be tested, research methodology, data collection methods as well as the analysis which was used in the study. Finally the layout of the research report was outlined and ideas for dissemination were provided. The next chapter deals with literature review.

This chapter has outlined the background of the study, which explained the effects of job stress, job satisfaction and employee turnover intentions. It further examined the interrelationship of these three variables. The problem was clearly stated and hypothesis to be tested by the study was given. The objectives of the study and the significance of the study were also thoroughly outlined”.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter provided a brief introduction and justification for carrying out this study. Included also in the chapter is the background to the research, the problem statement, the objectives, and the hypotheses of the study. Fundamental definitions and explanations, as well as distinctions on the three variables in the study are given in this chapter to ensure better and adequate understanding of all these variables and how they relate to each other. The three variables under study are organizational stress, job satisfaction and intention to quit. The chapter goes on to make constructs on the interrelatedness of these variables. An analysis of previous studies carried out on the subject is done to gain a better insight of the study.

The literature review will focus on the theories available to model the three main variables and how various authors articulate about occupational stress with regards to job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

2.2 THEORIES RELATED TO JOB STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

2.2.1 Job stress theories

Quite a number of ideas on stress have been developed since the 1970’s. in this study, however, the researcher chose to focus on Person-Environment Fit (P-E Fit) theory developed by Caplan and Harrion (1982). The basic ideology of the P-E Fit theory is that stress emanates from the misfit between an individual and his or her environment. According to Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison (1998) this misfit can emerge from different levels, for example, stress is bound to arise where there is a mismatch between the demands placed on an individual and his or her abilities to carry out those demands. Consequently, the mismatch of demands and abilities makes individuals to develop coping and defense mechanisms, igniting both objective and subjective representations of the environment (Edwards et al., 1998). The difference between the objective reality of the work environment and the individual’s subjective perceptions of the work environment may also amount to stress.
According to Edwards et al. (1998), persistent stress can cause psychological strains. The strains can be described as aberrations from normal reasoning and behavior which include psychological strain is dissatisfaction. According to Spector (1997) job dissatisfaction is the evidence of negative feelings that arise in individuals from their jobs or parts of their jobs. It is reasonable to say that an individual who is given a job that does not match his/her set of skills, competencies and abilities; will not effectively perform and become highly stressed and unable to cope.

### 2.2.2 Job satisfaction theories

Identifying what exactly inspires people in an organization, enables greater understanding of what entails job satisfactions. The way people are motivated tells more on why people behave the way they do, thus persisting doing certain things or desisting from doing other things. Swanepoel et al (2003) categorized the numerous theories of motivation into content, process and reinforcement theories. Content theories are mainly centered on the factors that hypothetically motivate people and the theories include the Maslow’s needs hierarchy, Alderfer’s ERG theory and Herzberg’s two factor theory. Secondly, the process theories focus on the process of getting people motivated and the theory include the cognitive dissonance theory, Stacey Adam’s theory and Vroom’s expectancy theory. Lastly, the reinforcement motivation theories have the purpose of discovering how individuals can be habituated to act in a way that is satisfactory and the theories include McGregor’s theory X and the theory Y.

Herzberg (1959) proposed a two-factor theory that distinguishes motivators from hygiene factors as a way to understand that job satisfaction and discontent emanate from two different sets of diverse factors. The motivators in the organization explain the long-term condition of motivation in employees but lack to show what causes frustrations. Hygiene factors, on the other hand, do not in any way increase job satisfaction but their non-existence is reason enough to cause job dissatisfaction.

### Table 2.0.1: Motivators and Hygiene Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOTIVATORS</th>
<th>HYGIENE FACTORS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>Supervision</td>
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<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Salary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Work environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Company policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic aspects of the job</td>
<td>Relationship with colleagues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This theory therefore proposes the redesigning of employee occupations in order to incorporate more motivators.

A theory on job satisfaction by Samantha Hanly, (2000) proposes well thought-out mechanisms to enhance an employee’s job satisfaction and these include pay, promotion, benefits, supervisor personality, co-workers and safety on the job. These particular attributes of the job influence how an employee assumes on the job. There are other less regarded predictors of employee job satisfaction which relate to individual types and essentials of workplace culture.

**2.2.3 Turnover intentions theories**

In the context of personnel management, staff turnover, also known as labour turnover, is described as the rate at which an employer loses and gains employees. Turnover can be more understood by considering “how long employees tend to stay” or “the rate of traffic through the revolving door”. Business organisations experiencing high staff turnover may have negative destructive situations as far as output is concerned. This is because workers are frequently leaving and the ratio of trainees and inexperienced workers is very high. In addition, it is also unfortunate that employees with turnover intentions tend to perform poorly compromising the organizational effectiveness (Karatepe and Ngeche, 2012).

The Role Theory was developed by Fishbein and Ajzen’s (1980) and the theory puts forward that people’s lives are a continuous rearrangement of ‘roles’ both within and outside the organizational context. Fisher (2001) explicates that each particular rank within an organization can be properly viewed as a specific role into which an individual is “socialized”. The process of socialization, in this episode model, takes place when role senders communicates directly or indirectly with the role incumbent (focal person) stating
their expectations of the incumbent’s responsibilities. The goals of one’s job or processes of performing it must be explicit, otherwise it amounts to “Role ambiguity” (Johns et al. 2007).

A study by Johns et al. (2007) indicated that there are three elements that can lead to ambiguity, “such as:

- The organizational factors – the middle management might fail to provide the “big picture” as they are not in the upper management level.
- The role sender – role senders have uncertain prospects of a focal person, or the message is not effectively communicated between a role sender and a focal person.
- The focal person as a new staff need time to fully digest the work expectation communicated to him.

However, role conflict occurs when compliance with one sent role would compliance with another difficult Fisher (2001). Kahn et al (1964) identified five major types of roles conflict as below:

- Intra-sender conflict – conflicting prescription/proscriptions from the similar sender.
- Inter-sender conflict – conflicting prescriptions/proscriptions from the sender.
- Inter-role conflict – conflict between responsibilities in circumstances where an individual possesses more than one job.
- Person-role conflict – where an employee’s position requirements are incompatible with his/her own beliefs, values and norms.
- Role-overload – reasonable expectations may have been received from role senders, but he/she may not have enough time to address them all.

Therefore, in my opinion, role ambiguity and role conflict may result negative outcomes such as lower job satisfaction, increase on job tension, lower job performance and greater turnover intention”.

2.3 EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

2.3.1 Organizational stress

National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) No.99-101 states that stress relating to work and workplace can be understood as the undesirable physical and emotional
responses that happen when the demands job demands do not meet the capabilities and competences of the worker. This kind of stress can cause ill-health and even harm on both the physical and the psychological beings.

They further articulated that job stress can sometimes be confused with challenge, of which the two are rather different. Challenge gives individuals both psychological and physical motivation to learn new skills and master their jobs. When the individuals overcome or complete the challenge, they feel a sense of relaxation and satisfaction. Challenge, therefore, becomes important for personal development productive contribution to work. The challenge associated with a particular work is evident when people say that “a little bit of stress is good for you”.

2.3.2 Types of stress

According to Kriston Koch (2010) there are 8 types of work-related stress as follows:

- Overworked underling
- Frustrated go-getter
- Castaway
- Doormat
- The prisoner
- Burnout
- Bully target
- Wronged victim

Greenberg and Baron (2008), contextualized and categorized stress to be good or bad stress. The good stress is known as eustress which happens when stress is considered as an energizer for work and becomes motivating. It can be seen as a positive outcome of stress. Groble, Warnich,Carrrell,Elbert and Hartfield (2011) define eustress as “positive stress that accompanies achievement and exhilaration”. Furthermore, eustress can help those in management ranks to handle the challenges of their jobs. Greenberg and Baron (2008) debate that even though there stress can be good, it is important to note that that stress on the job, typically refers to negative sources of stress. The bad stress is referred to as distress.
According to Grobler et al. (2011) distress describes the emotions that arise as individuals start to have the sense of insecurity and inadequacy. It is the negative feelings that turn stress into distress. Distress can cause an individual to feel helpless, desperate and disappointed. This is why works should be concerned by stress that is related to work, organization, or occupation (Greenberg & Baron 2008).

2.3.3 Causes of stress at work

“In general view, nearly everyone agrees that job stress results from the interaction of the worker and the conditions of work. Views differ, however, on the importance of worker characteristics versus working conditions as the primary cause of job stress. These differing viewpoints are important because they suggest different ways to prevent stress at work.”

Job stress Article, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) No.99-101 outlined the circumstances that may result to stress as follows:

- The design of tasks – large volumes of work, little or no breaks to rest, prolonged work shifts, hectic and routine tasks with no room for development, do not make use of worker’s skills, and provide little or no sense of control.

- Management Style – no contribution by workers in decision making, ineffective communication within the organization, lack of family-friendly policies.

- Interpersonal Relationships – inconducive social systems and little support or help from work counterparts and supervisors.

- Work Roles – role ambiguity and vague job expectations, overwhelming responsibility, too many jobs to do.

- Career Concerns – job insecurity and no set up for personal growth, advancement, or promotion; prompt and unexpected changes.

- Environmental Conditions – unpleasant or injury threatening workplace conditions for example crowding, noise, air pollution, or ergonomic problems.”

Rothmann (2008) states that organizational stress happens when the cognitive, emotional, and environment system become imbalanced as a result of certain independent or external factors. According to Greenberg (2011) stress is basically a result of personal factors which include misunderstandings with other family members and financial problems. However, stress
related to work is determined by many factors, most of which are outside an individual’s control. Cartwright and Cooper (2002) developed a model which listed about eight sources of organizational stress, basically known as stressors. It is the collective effect of these stressors that puts pressure on an employee, even though a single stressor can cause some considerable stress. These stressors are emanate from work-relationships, work overload, job insecurity or fear of losing one’s job, lack of control over one’s circumstances, limited resources, poor or no communication at all, work-life balance, and remuneration benefits. A couple of studies carried on organizational stress by Khairuddin & Makhbul (2011) indicated that job insecurity is a major source of stress, alongside poor work relationships and work overload.

2.3.4 Symptoms of stress

According to National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) publication no. 99-101 reflects the following symptoms of job stress as follows:

- Headache
- Sleep disturbances
- Difficulty in concentrating
- Short temper
- Upset stomach
- Job dissatisfaction.
- Low morale.

Physical ill-health is the most notable symptom of stress related to work. According to Krantz, Berntsson and Lundberg (2005) reports that “neck-shoulder pain, tiredness, headaches, stomach problems, low back pain and sleeping problems” are the mostly identified symptoms of stress that can also cause sickness and absenteeism.

In addition, Grobler et al. (2011) identified persistent illnesses accompanied by nervous disruption, and mental failure to be symptoms of severe stress. Rothmann and Cooper (2008) describe four levels at which stress can be observed. These are cognitive, behavioral, physical and psychological levels. Each level is characterized by certain reactions that are observable from the person going through stress. Low quality of decisions, diminished memory and decreased creativity are observable symptoms at the cognitive level. The behavioral level is
attributed by the employees’ absenteeism, poor time-management and abuse of substances. The symptoms notable at the physical level include regular headaches, eating disorders, and cardiovascular disease. Finally, at the psychological level, depression, anxiety and low self-esteem are symptoms of stress faced by employees. Khairuddin and Makhbul (2011), state that the severity of stress that employees experience have a substantial effect on their commitment to work.

2.3.5 Effects of organizational stress to organizations

Job stress has been associated with the increases in work accidents, low productivity, and abnormal medical expenditure, which is very costly to organizations (Greenberg, 2011). EL Shikieri and Musa (2012) have reported stress to be related to aberrant personal functioning in the workplace. In addition, they found out that approximately 91.5 million working days are lost annually because of inefficiencies, low productivity and reduced commitment to work that emanates as negative outcomes of stress-related illness. El Shikieri and Musa (2012) emphasize that the stressed individual may rearrange priorities and, unfortunately, the organization becomes the least of all concerns. All in all, these things are costly to the organization as they compromise outputs and product quality, increase overtime and organizational sabotage.

2.3.6 Effects of job satisfaction to organizations

Aziri (2011) states that, Job satisfaction causes a series of influences on various aspects of organizational life. Some of them such as the influence of job satisfaction on employee productivity, loyalty and absenteeism are analyzed as part of this text.

The preponderance of research evidence indicates that there is no strong linkage between satisfaction and productivity. A comprehensive meta-analysis of the research literature, for example, finds only a 17 best estimate correlation between job satisfaction and productivity. Satisfied workers will not necessarily be the highest producers. There are many possible moderating variables, the most important of which seems to be rewards. If people receive rewards they feel are equitable, they will be satisfied and this is likely to result in greater performance effort. In addition, recent research evidence indicates that satisfaction may not necessarily lead to individual performance improvement but does lead to departmental and organizational level improvements. Finally, there is still considerable debate whether satisfaction leads to performance or performance leads to satisfaction (Luthans, 1998).
Employee loyalty is one of the most significant factors that human resource managers in particular must have in mind. Employee loyalty is usually measured with the Loyalty Questionnaire and can cause serious negative consequences when not in a high level. Usually three types of employee loyalty are considered: affective loyalty, normative loyalty and continuity loyalty. Affective loyalty has to do with the cases when an employee feels an emotional connection to the company, normative loyalty is a sort of loyalty that appears in cases when the employee feels like he owes something to the company and continuity loyalty comes as a result of the fact that the employee does not have an opportunity to find a job somewhere else.

2.3.7 Effects of turnover intentions to organizations

Staff turnover intention may be viewed as the employees’ voluntary desire to leave the organization for another. Intentions are a statement professing a particular behavior of interest. In other words the possibility that an employee will leave his job for another within an interval time is referred to as turnover intention. This intent may actually leads to turnover. Turnover intention is reported I literature as the major determinant of actual turnover. This knowledge of the main cause of turnover may be useful in actually reducing staff turnover. Turnover intention is deemed a multifaceted circumstance that is, according to some researchers, dependent on various factors such as age, gender, tenure, designation, experience, compensation, education, and nature of employment.

According to Armizi (2008) turnover intentions can significantly influence the commitment of other employees work such that organizations need put in place systems to at least curb employees’ turnover intentions. A low-levelled staff turnover gives an organization a competitive edge over rivalry ones, and this may be made possible by employing appropriate measures that enhance the commitment level of employees to their jobs.

Actual turnover has been described by numerous scholars and researchers in different terms such as quitting, such as turnover, attrition, exit, migration, and succession. Berndt (1981) emphasizes on the difference between actual turnover and turnover intentions, highlighting that intentions are statements about an alleged behavior not the actual behavior. Turnover intention can also be known as “intention to quit”. Bothma and Roodt (2012) describe turnover intention as a certain kind of revocation behavior relating to a low sense of identification with work. They further assert that “turnover or intention to quit is the
employee’s conscious and deliberate willingness to leave the organization and it is regarded as the last in a sequence of withdrawal cognitions”.

According to Brough and Frame (2004) job satisfaction is a strong predictor of turnover intentions.

### 2.3.8 Job Satisfaction in relation to Job Stress

Job satisfaction is the feeling of delight the employee achieves from the job experience (Tantiverdi, 2008). This explanation suggests that job satisfaction is a commonly worldwide affective response that individuals embrace about their job. Aronson (2005) states that understanding employee job satisfaction is an important organizational goal. Therefore it is the onus of the management to be interested in their employees’ attitudes because approaches or outlook give warnings of possible problems and because they influence actions. The most significant mechanism managers can execute is to elevate employee contentment by spotlighting on the intrinsic parts of the job, such as creating the work challenging and appealing because pay alone is unlikely to construct a satisfying work environment (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt 2009).

Judge et al. (2001) are of the notion that there are seven diverse models that can therefore be administered to depict the job satisfaction. A number of these models scrutinize the correlation between job satisfaction and job performance as unidirectional, either job satisfaction originates job performance or job performance causes job satisfaction. The final model is “Alternative Conceptualization of Job Satisfaction and/or Job Performance”. This model argues about how optimistic attitudes toward one’s job can foresee a high level of job performance.

### 2.3.2 Job stress in relation to turnover intentions.

Job stress can be viewed as one of the major causes of negative outcomes in an organization, for instance, employee intention to quit. This stress emanates from numerous sources such as role ambiguity, role-conflict, work-over-load, and work-family imbalance. According to Wunder et al. (2001) job-stressors have a direct and probably negative influence on the manager’s job satisfaction, which compromise organizational commitment and heighten the intentions of quitting and ultimately real turnover. In addition, Firth et al. (2004) found that the turnover intentions were significantly influenced by low levels of job satisfaction,
absence of organizational commitment, and the sense of stress. These elements were influenced by job-stressors. However, Igbaria et al. (1992) confirm that stressors do not directly influence the intentions to quit. Their impact is indirect through level of understanding of job stress, shortage of social support, job dissatisfaction and lack of commitment to the workplace.

2.4 FACTORS AFFECTING THESE THREE VARIABLES BY DIFFERENT AUTHORS

2.4.1 Factors affecting job stress

Lutrin (2005) articulate that stress was a result of particular factors which include; support from outside of work, organizational factors, feelings of being undervalued, support at work and the nature of the work itself. These factors have a substantial impact on the psychological and physical well-being of employees which may ultimately cause increased absenteeism and a willingness to quit the organization.

2.4.2 Factors affecting job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can also be described as a feeling of gratification emanating from an employees’ intuition of his or her job. According to Gibson, Donnelly, and Ivancevich (2000) job satisfaction is a manifestation of personal well-being related to the accomplishment of the task ascribed to carry out.

Robbins (2001) explained job satisfaction as a general attitude towards one’s job deriving from comparing the rewards actually received and what they believe they should receive.

According to Rue and Byers (1994) job satisfaction is made up of 5 components:

- Attitude towards other workers
- General working environment
- Attitudes towards the education system
- Financial benefits
- Attitudes towards supervision.

There are various components to job satisfaction and this presents a challenge in fully understanding what entails job satisfaction and its impact to the organization. Mullins (2002)
confirms that job satisfaction is a multifaceted and multi-dimensional concept, which can be interpreted or understood differently across varying characters of people.

McShane and Von Glinow (2005) also agree that job satisfaction complex phenomenon, that is a result of past and present oriented fulfilling sensations derived from one’s work role.

Baron and Greenberg (2003) states that the factors that lead workers to hold positive or negative perceptions of their jobs have been identified as follows:

- **Pay**
  
  There is no doubt that rewards received in monetary terms may play an important role as far as job satisfaction is concerned. According to Arnold and Feldman (1996) people have many needs and money provides the means to satisfy these needs.

- **The work itself**
  
  An employee may be absolutely happy with the job conditions and the people they work with, but may dread the work itself. This means that the work itself play a vital part in determining how an employee is satisfied with his or her job (Arnold and Feldman 1996). Nel et al @2004 states that “people would rather prefer a job that is interesting, challenging and would create opportunities for self-actualization and recognition”.

- **Promotions**
  
  The idea of promotion has substantial influence on job satisfaction as compared to recognition and achievement. The promotion to a higher rank is usually complemented with changes in pay, autonomy and supervision (Anorld and Feldman 1996).

- **Supervision**
  
  According to Baron and Greenberg (2003), job satisfaction is enhanced when employees view their superiors to be fair, competent and sincere. Conversely, infairness, partiality, incompetence and selfishness among superiors will amount to less satisfied workers.

- **Working conditions**
The worker would rather desire working conditions, which will result in greater physical comfort and convenience. The absence of such working conditions, amongst other things, can impact poorly on the workers mental and physical well-being, Baron and Greenberg, 2003). Robbins (2001) states that working conditions will influence job satisfaction, as employees are concerned with a comfortable physical work environment. In turn this will render a more positive level of job satisfaction”.

2.4.3 Factors affecting turnover intentions

The South African Bureau of Standards (2008, p.6) defines attrition as the ‘turnover rate of staff members by staff category’ whereby the turnover rate of employees is denoted as a ratio to the total number of employees within a specific period of time. This definition includes agents that had quit their jobs due to voluntary or involuntary reasons. Feinberg et al. (2000) defined turnover intention similarly as the number of agents who left in a period of time. In order to effectively accomplish the objectives of this study, turnover intention is defined as the intention to quit one’s job.

Arthur et al. (2006) established that P-O fit was a predictor of turnover intention. Batt (2002) articulated that turnover intentions were lower in employees with jobs that; require high skill level, allow some considerable level of autonomy, pay competitive compensation packages, and emphasize on job security.

According to McShane and Glinow (2003), job satisfaction is a major determinant of the turnover rate. It follows, therefore, that consistently low levels of job satisfaction may intrigue an employee to consider quitting the job.

According to Newstrom and Davis (1997) organisations that does not emphasize on high levels of employee satisfaction on the job, suffer the consequences of higher turnover rates. Management give proper attention to staff turnover especially that turnover significantly affect business operations. Job dissatisfaction which drives workers to quit their present jobs, has a huge impact on turnover than the incentives that attract the workers into new jobs (MsShane and Von Glinow (2003).

Robbins (2001) asserts that there is a negative relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism such that the employees who face low job satisfaction seem to be less committed to work and may increasingly be absent to do their jobs. Consequently, the high rate of
absenteeism may create a huge financial demand on the organization through low productivity and low performance (Arnold and Feldman, 1996). Absenteeism is similar to turnover, because the two cause disruptions in normal operations and activities, punching the organization in the face with increasing additional costs (Arnold and Feldman 1996). Baron and Greenberg (2003) put forward other causes for absenteeism that need to be investigated by the human resource department. Poor worker-worker and superior-worker relationships may inevitably cause absenteeism among employees (Baron and Greenberg 2003).

2.5 STRATEGIES OF DEALING AND COPING WITH STRESS
Avey, Luthans and Jensen (2009) deliberate on “The Emerging Positive Approach”. This approach focuses on criterion or mechanisms that organizations could employ to help their employees to effectively manage their ever-challenging work environment, by progressively promoting positivity and concentrating on enhancing employee strengths, rather than applying the focus on the negative and trying to redress employee vulnerabilities and weaknesses. They further state that the approach does not need to ascertain the value of positivity but, promote a more positive approach that does not concentrate on the magnified negative attributes relating to stress.

Grobler et al. (2011) advises that the best way of dealing with stress is to try and focus on relaxation, however, they warn that it is also important to establish the main factors that contributed to the stress in one’s life. Greenberg (2011) encourages using a tactic where an individual creates a formal plan or arrangement of managing one’s stress. This plan includes managing one’s time wisely, eating a healthy diet, being physically fit, relaxing and meditating, ensuring a good night’s sleep, avoiding inappropriate self-talk, and taking time-out. All these help the body fight the negative and dangerous effects of stress by assisting the body stay healthy and clearing one’s mind of all the negative thoughts and feelings that lead to stress.

Good relations with fellow colleagues and superiors can help individuals cope with stress (Viljoen & Rothmann, 2009). Greenberg (2011) advises employees to adopt a positive affectivity nature, by trying to view people and events in a positive light. This helps them experience positive moods and feeling in a wide range of settings and resources in terms of training and working equipment can help with alleviating employee’s stress levels (Viljoen & Rothmann, 2009).
Decision-making is associated with control. Individuals who believe that they have some control over their work environment often experience lower levels of stress than those who feel that they have little or no control at all in what happens in their work environment (Viljoen & Rothmann, 2009). It is for this reason that the inclusion of all the employees in the organization’s decision-making is encouraged.

Open and effective communication in an organization tends to decrease the levels of stress experienced by employees. This communication should also be accurate in order to increase the predictability of the work environment (Viljoen & Rothmann, 2009). Organizations are often faced with many changes that often are not communicated to employees. These can include, for example, decreasing budgets or increasing demands. Unpleasant surprises can destroy the employee’s morale and lead to stress.

DeMauro (1998) commends that managers should communicate openly to their staff even if the communication is about an unpleasant event that might take place in the organization. She points out that communication builds trust and helps the employees feel good and valuable, and employees who feel good and valued often experience reduced stress levels. Moreover, good relations with staff are developed with talking or communicating.

According to Bell, Rajendran and Theiler (2012), a person’s attitudes, emotions, skills and behaviors produced in one domain (either work or personal life) flow into the other. Spillover can have positive or negative effects, and can occur in both directions – work-to personal life and personal life-to-work. They further argue that good work-life balance and low work-life conflict benefits organizations indirectly, through increased well-being, decreased job stress and decreased burnout of its employees.

**2.6 STRATEGIES OF DEALING WITH JOB SATISFACTION.**

Continuously, satisfactions will still play an important role and control the employee’s behavior. Thus, the research still investigated on how way, job satisfaction can help the organization challenges. According to Zeffane, Ibrahim (14) indicate that job satisfaction is the core concern in research and theory of organizational behavior. However, review of the literature has shown many different meanings and definitions of job satisfaction and thus, researchers have argued that satisfaction is one of the most difficult construct to define accurately (Padilla Velez, 1993).
2.7 STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE RETENTION AT WORK.

Fundamentally, turnover, particularly voluntary turnover, brings about monetary and structural pressures and constraints on the organization. This is because, unlike involuntary turnover, voluntary turnover maybe prompt and does not allow management to prepare for the changes that may amount to financial losses. In order to reduce turnover intentions, organizations may offer competitive compensation packages, with emphasis on performance and tenure (Michaele Curtis, 2001). Employee-centric businesses allow employees to participate in decision making and thereby reducing their intent to quit.

An employee retention strategy would be necessary to redress employee grievances and the ways and means that will address their issues. This would mean that the employees would be enabled to take their issues regarding pay, their work, their role etc. There should be HR Plan in consultation with all stakeholders of the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature towards resolving the issues. Paul Shaw (2012) highlights the factors that contribute to a unique and meaningful employment proposition to develop an effective retention strategy.

According to Karatepe and Ngeche (2012), employees with turnover intentions tend to render poor serve and corrode organizational effectiveness. From the organization’s perspective, turnover of employees can lead to costs arising from recruitment, selection, training or the employment of temporary staff (Morrell, Loan-Clarke & Wilkinson, 2004). In addition, turnover may have an effect on the organizational culture or employee morale (Morrell etal., 2004).

Coetzee and Schreuder (2010) suggest that “external factors, such as competition for talent and the availability of alternative jobs in the local or global economy, contribute to the problems of high employee turnover”. However, embeddedness and engagement have become popular concepts that promote employee retention (Halbesleben &Wheeler, 2008). As an employee retention theory, job embeddedness is a combination of forces that keep an individual from leaving the job (Mitchell et al., 2001b) whereas work engagement represents a positive work-forced psychological state that keeps an employee in the job (Schaufeli et al., 2002)
2.8 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AND TURNOVER INTENTION

According to Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008), job embeddedness represents a build-up of connections (e.g. co-workers or networks) that will be difficult to replace outside the organization. Likewise, a move out of the organization may require an excellent alternative to be worth the sacrifice of invested resources. Job embeddedness is related to the organization and the workplace, thus higher levels of job embeddedness would be related to lower intention to leave the organization.

Mitchell et al. (2001b) and Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) put forward that turnover intention can be a result of a lack of embeddedness. Unfortunately, there is only but limited literature testing the relationship between job embeddedness and turnover intention. A study by Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) reported a significant relationship between these constructs. In terms of job embeddedness and turnover intention, Mitchell et.al (2001b) reported that people who are embedded in their jobs have less intent to leave the organization, whilst Halbesleben (2010) found a significant relationship between work engagement and turnover intention.

2.9 LITERATURE REVIEW

Huge and multi fields literature denotes a lot of major aspects such as work atmosphere, organizational support, work load and other more in determining how nerve-racking the work can be and its consequence on employee physical and psychological health,(Ganster and Loghan, 2005). Therefore literature review will focus on how various authors articulate about occupational stress with regards to job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

More researchers have found that job stress impacts and manipulates the level intensity of job satisfaction and their general performance in their jobs. Another editorial on job stress at work by Jeanne Segal and Robert Segal (2008) is of the notion about the ways of how to decrease and handle job and workplace tension in current vibrant environment. Additionally, it is tough to deal with job disputes because job stress trim down the productivity of an employee as well as the emotional and physical well-being of an employee, it is vital to discover out the ways to manage it. In Personnel Management literature, job satisfaction and stress are the concerns which are paid attentions to. Stamps and Piedmonte (1986) established considerable positive connection between job stress and satisfaction.
According to Clarke (1990), “aspects like autonomy, amount of tasks, lack of expertise in employees like the company is using the most modern machinery and the organization has not skilled their personnel’s, workload on employees, performance demands, disturbances and role and job conflicts along with occasion to comprehend the task, demographics like culture, age and gender differences, home life, no appreciation of the employees, mistrust and unfairness attitudes between the personnel’s random disruptions are mainly familiar and imperative issues leading to job stress.”

According to Mobley et al. (1979) the intent to resign from or leave the job is determined by a number of factors which include organizational factors, individual employee characteristics, job-related and labour-market expectations, and individual values. This intention to quit will ultimately amount to turnover intentions which can be categorized into extensive categories such as personality factors and organizational factors. Job stress is now commonly deemed as stress caused by stressors at personnel level (Ivancevich, 2008) and has become the focus spot of the Organizational Behavior and Management literature especially that businesses aim for excellence in work-life balance. According to Fisher (2001), the role theory explains stress as an arousal influenced by conflicting work roles, or inadequacies of information required to effectively execute a sent role. These situations are known as role ambiguity and role conflict.

2.10 SUMMARY
This chapter covered literature related to all three variables: job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. An outline on the theories used to model the variables was tabulated together with empirical literature. Extended research maybe needed to further understanding and knowledge on these propositions so that they can be tested and confirm.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION
This chapter will provide an overview and description of the research design and methodology employed in the study. An explanation of the participants and sampling methods which have been used will be followed by a brief discussion on the measuring instruments which have been utilized in this study. There will be a focus on the rationale, validity and reliability of the instrument. The procedure used to collect data and methods used to analyze data are discussed.

3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.2.1 Research Design
This section discusses the design implementation in the study. This research is of non-experimental and quantitative nature. A survey was conducted to collect the empirical data. Exploratory research is done to explore relatively unknown areas in order to gain new insight and understanding into a phenomenon and feels that not enough knowledge is available on the subject (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997).

3.2.2 Population and sample

3.2.2.1 Population
According to Babbie and Mouton (2006), the population for a study is the total number of a group (usually of people) about whom we want to draw conclusions. They further explain that it is almost impossible to be able to study all the members of the population that interest us, and can never make every possible observation of them especially when the population is very big.

The population sample for this research study is around the employees of the entire Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature in Bhisho, from junior level to the top management level. The researcher is aware that the sample size can impact on the statistical test by making it either insensitive (due to small sized samples) or overly sensitive (due to larger sized samples). The population for the study constituted 620 employees (N=620).
3.2.2.2 Sample

Gray (2004) defines a sample as a group of objects, occurrence or individuals chosen from the main population for a study. This study targeted the employees of the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature in Bhisho, from junior level to the top management level. The proposed research adopted a probability sampling approach. The researcher sought to randomly select research participants so as to allow every employee in the Legislature to have an opportunity to take part in the study. According to the Raosoft calculator the sample size is \( n = 238 \).

3.2.3 Sampling procedure

The sampling approach which has been used in this study is the non-probability purposive sampling method. Individuals form the unit of analysis. According to De Vos, Stydom, Fouche and Delport (2005), the odds of selecting a particular individual, in non-probability sampling are not known because the researcher does not know the population size or the members of the population. Non-probability sampling is economical and it involves participants who are the most accessible. Purposive sampling is based entirely on the judgment of the researcher. The most characteristic, representative or typical attributes of the population are utilized to create a sample (De Vos et al., 2005).

According to Sarantakos (2005), sampling has various advantages. Firstly samples are a necessity as in many cases a complete coverage of the population is not possible. Secondly, samples permit effectiveness and it is argued that sampling provides a better option since it addresses the survey population in a short period of time and produces comparable and equally valid results. Thirdly, samples ensure economy of time and labour as samples take less time and are less demanding in terms of labour requirements, since it covers only a small proportion of the target population. Lastly, samples are more detailed in information and are thought to offer a high degree of accuracy because they deal with relatively small number of units. The appropriate instruments are discussed in the next section.

3.3 QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTRATION

This section discusses the measuring instruments which are applied in this study. The self-administered questionnaires are in paper-and-pencil format. In the case of self-administered questionnaires, the questionnaire is handed to the respondent, who completes it on his/her own, but the researcher is available in case any problems may be experienced. The researcher
limits his own contribution to the completion of the questionnaires to an absolute minimum. The researcher thus largely remains in the background and can at most encourage the respondents with a few words to continue with his contributions, or lead him back to the subject. The answers are limited to those questions set in the questionnaire, and no other ideas, propositions or alternative answers are allowed. According to De Vos et al. (2005), the researcher should always use a standardized questionnaire as their first choice. The research instrument was comprised of four parts measuring study variables.

3.4. MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

For the purpose of this study the following instruments were used and as follows:

3.4.1 Demographics/Biographical information

Participants will also complete a demographic questionnaire. The questionnaire gathered data relative to participant’s general information such as:

- Age
- Gender
- Marital status
- Ethnicity
- Years working in the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature
- Academic rank
- Employment status

These characteristics were based upon a review of related literature.

3.4.2 Stress

The Effort-Reward Imbalance (ERI) questionnaire was used to measure occupational stress. This is a 16-item, four-point rating scale ranging from “1” (Strongly disagree) to “4” (Strongly agree). Cronbach’s alpha for the whole questionnaire is 0.89.

3.4.2.1 Intention to quit

Turnover intention scale developed by Roodt in 2004 was used to measure intention to quit. According to Bothma and Roodt (2012), to enhance reliability, behavior intention should be measured within a reasonable time frame. This is a 14-item scale. The Scale adopts a 7-point
Likert scale, where participants are asked to indicate the extent to which they experience particular feelings. Responses range from “1” (Never), to “7” (Always). This scale has a reliability coefficient of 0.80 for turnover intention or intention to quit.

3.4.2.2 Job Satisfaction

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) is indeed solitary of the extremely widespread methods commonly used in job satisfaction research (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist in 1967). The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was administered to assemble facts about the job satisfaction of participants in this proposed study. It comprised of 20 items and uses a 5-point Likert type response layout.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire comprises of twenty (20) objects that measure job satisfaction. Weiss et al., (1967:18) wrote, “The results of these studies … indicated that the MSQ measured satisfaction in accordance with expectations from the Theory of Work Adjustment”; therefore, the general job satisfaction scale had earnestly construct validity. According to Cook et al., (1981) the MSQ’s internal consistency fluctuated from .84 to .91 for the intrinsic subscale, .77 to .82 for the extrinsic subscale. Test-retest consistencies of between 0.70 and 0.80 are conveyed by Cook et al., (1981) using an alpha coefficient of 0.96 (Rothmann, Scholtz, Fourie& Rothmann, 2000). Similarly, Ivancevichand Matterson (1978) re-counted a Cronbach alpha of 0.80 and 0.84 for the subscales in a study of one hundred and seventy soldiers and electricians.

3.4.3 Validity and reliability

According to Babbie (2004), validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure. The above measures have been shown to be psychometrically sound. The developers of the scales report high correlations between scales and constructs they measure. A high construct validity is therefore demonstrated.

Reliability refers in general to the extent to which independent administration of the same instrument (or highly similar instruments) consistently yields the same (or similar) results under comparable conditions. Reliability is primarily concerned not with what is being measured, but with how well it is being measured (De Vos et al, 2005). De Vos et al. (2005) states that Cronbach’s coefficient alpha, is a measure of internal reliability. The occupational
stress scale, the Cronbach’s alpha of the instrument was 0.89 (Siegrist et al., 2001) (for the current sample for occupational stress, the Cronbach alpha is 0.82).

3.5 RESEARCH PROCEDURE
Upon receiving approval from the Research Committee at Fort Hare University for the commencement of the study, the researcher approached the Management of the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature and the advantage of working there as Senior HR Practitioner, where the researcher obtained participants for the study. Permission for the study was also obtained from the HR Division of the entire Legislature where the study was conducted. Data was collected from all levels of the entire staff of the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature. The questionnaire (see Appendix A) was then distributed to those who had consented to participate in the study.

Participants were given a clear statement which indicated the aims of the process verbally. The contribution each participant could make to improve the value of the study was also communicated to participants. For ethical reasons, the participants were asked to fill in a consent form (see Appendix B). Every effort was made to avoid adding stress to the participants during the research process. Other employees who were not willing to participate in the study were thanked for their time and interest in the study. The researcher reassured all participants who are involved in the research that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained in the reporting of the research. The questionnaire was set in simple English.

Questionnaires were collected immediately after they were completed. The next step was to check the questionnaires in order to determine their completeness. Questionnaires with far too much missing data were excluded from the research. The responses on questionnaires were coded and captured using a data base program on a computer. Data were analyzed via the computer programmes already mentioned in Chapter 1. The final step was to report the results of the questionnaires and this was done in terms of descriptive and inferential statistics. The statistical techniques which were used in the research are discussed in the next section”.

3.6 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF DATA
The statistical processing of data is presented in terms of quantitative procedures and statistical techniques. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was employed to carry out data analysis. The size of the sample, very small, limited the utilization of
appropriate statistical techniques. The analysis comprised of descriptive statistics which include frequencies, means, standard deviations, and chi-square analyses. These tools were used to summarize and convert the unprocessed data to a more interpretable format. Inferential statistics are statistical techniques that make it possible to draw inferences about population parameters using sample statistics, e.g. to test claims about the population mean you based on the sample mean (0). The generic name for these techniques is hypothesis tests (De Vos et al, 2005). The Pearson’s correlation and t-test were also used to test the hypotheses.

T-test were used to compare means between the constructed groups on variables of interest (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999). The means were used to describe the results. The means are the sum of all squares in the distribution divided by the number of scores in the distribution. The calculated mean is used to compute the average scores which are obtained for the different components of the questionnaire (Kerlinger and Lee, 2000). The advantage of using the mean is that it can be algebraically manipulated and it is also a far superior estimate of the population mean than are other measures of central tendency, for examples mode or median. A disadvantage of using the mean is that it is influenced by extreme scores.

3.7 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

In order to gather data for this proposed study a questionnaire was administered to participants. Permission was requested from the University of Fort Hare’s Ethics Committee to carry out the study. Once permission was granted, workers were randomly selected from a complete report of support personnel generated from the PERSAL (Personnel & Salaries) system used by the institution. Invitations were sent out via email and in some instances telephonically, requesting staff to participate in the study. A venue was arranged in one of the Committee Rooms at the Legislature and participants were requested to attend a very brief session (10 minutes at the most) where the purpose of the study was fully explained, verbally.

Questionnaires were handed out in booklet format, and participants were asked to either submit the completed questionnaires in a box that would be utilized for this purpose, or directly to the researcher. The respondents/participants were given reasonable time (2 days) to complete and return the questionnaires. According to Babbie and Mouton (2006), the use of questionnaires is advantageous because questionnaires are economical, speedy, there is no
bias (as in interviews: interviewer bias), and the possibility of anonymity and privacy encourages candidates to be willing to respond on sensitive issues, and do so honestly.

After the data collection phase, the researcher checked all the questionnaires for missing data. Those with missing data were discarded.

3.8 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS
Statistical analysis will be carried out with SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). Reliability of the data collection instrument was tested by the Alpha co-efficient Cronbach. Pearson correlation was used to analyze and measure relationship between variables whilst multi regressions were carried out to test hypothesis H4.

3.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS
According to Skinner, Mersham (2001: 13) when a researcher is to conduct a research he or she should act in truth, accuracy, fairness and responsibility to the public. The research must maintain integrity and the generally accepted standards of the research profession. A researcher should consider the following:

- Permission to conduct the research will be received from the University of Fort Hare and Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature.
- Participants will not be physically or emotionally harmed.
- Participants will receive clear explanation about the task – informed consent.
- Researcher will respect privacy and ensure anonymity and confidentiality meaning that the information about participants should not be divulged.
- There will be no deception and plagiarism

3.10 SUMMARY
This chapter gave an outline of the research methodology used in carrying out this research. The chapter provided detailed accounts of the study target population, the sample and sampling method, the measuring instruments, the statistical methods used in testing the hypothesis, delimitations of the study and ethical considerations that were used in this research.
CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION
The preceding chapter outlined the research methodology and research design employed in the study. This is an analysis chapter with the aim to organize, analyze, interpret and discuss the results obtained. All the statistical procedures were done using SPSS and all tests were done at 5% significance level.

4.2 PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

4.2.1 Internal consistency

Table 4.0.1: Cronbach for Key Study Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Items Used</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Stress</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.732*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effort</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over commitment</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.661*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.793*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.601*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.847*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significantly acceptable

Table 4.1 shows the results for the internal consistency of the data collection instrument. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was employed to test for the reliability of the research
instrument. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient exceeded 0.6 for job stress, turnover intentions and job satisfaction indicating acceptable internal consistency.

### 4.2.2 Descriptive statistics

Table 4.2 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the study sample. A Chi-square test for equal proportions was used to test for differences in frequency distribution within each demographic variable.

**Table 4.0.2: Biographical Data – Frequencies, Percentages and Chi-Square test for equal proportions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>75.4454</td>
<td>&lt; 0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 – 25 yrs</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>14.9832</td>
<td>&lt; 0.0047*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 – 35 yrs</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 – 45 yrs</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 – 55 yrs</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56+</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>262.7143</td>
<td>&lt; 0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>86.0756</td>
<td>&lt; 0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Qualification</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>92.6050</td>
<td>&lt; 0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tenure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1 yr</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 5 yrs</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>46.5798</td>
<td>&lt; 0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10 yrs</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15 yrs</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16+</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>145.3613</td>
<td>&lt; 0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.1 is a graphical presentation and description of the descriptive statistics of the biographical information. Significant different levels within a demographic measure are highlighted with a (*) in table 4.2 above. A significant p-value is <0.05. All demographic variables have significant unequal proportion within their levels.

4.2.3 Gender

![Gender Distribution](image)

**Figure 4.0.1: Gender distribution of respondents**

Figure 4.1 is showing the gender of respondents. Most of the respondents (78.2%, n = 186) are female employees, while male employees comprised 21.8% of the respondents (n = 52). The Chi-square tests for equal proportions (p=<0.0001) shows that there is a significant difference between the distribution of men and women within the respondents.

4.2.4 Age

Figure 4.2 below shows that the majority of the respondents (26.5%, n = 63) are in the age group 18-25 years, while 24.4% (n=58) are in the age group 26-35 years. A total of forty respondents (16.8%) fall in the age category 36-45 years and forty seven respondents (19.7%) fall in the age category of above 46-55 years old. The Chi-square tests for equal proportions showed that there is a significant difference (p=<.0001) within the different age groups and
this can be clearly seen from the bar graph were the majority of the respondents are in the age groups 18 to 25 and 26 to 35.

**Figure 4.0.2: Age distribution of respondents**

### 4.2.5 Distribution of Respondents by race

**Figure 4.3 Race distribution**

**Figure 4.0.3: Race distribution**
Figure 4.3 illustrates that the majority of the employees, (n=138) 58.0% were Black, while 15.1% (n=36) were Coloured employees. A total of 59 (24.8%) of the respondents were whites and only 1.3% (n=3) were Indian. The difference in the race category is significant (p=<.0001) with the Black people being majorly represented among the respondents.

4.2.6 Marital status

Figure 4.4 illustrates that of the 238 respondents who participated, 87 (36.6%) of the respondents are single, seventy two (30.3%) are married, forty six respondents (19.3%) are separated, fourteen (5.9%) respondents are divorced and nineteen (8.0%) of them are widowed.

![Marital Status](image)

**Figure 4.0.4: Marital Status of respondents**

4.2.7 Educational Qualifications

Figure 4.5 illustrates the education level of the sample. The graph depicts that the majority of the respondents, 31.9% (n = 76) have an educational level of an honors’ degree whilst 26.9% (n = 64) possess a bachelor’s degree. Forty-five respondents (18.9%) have a national diploma, 10.1% (n = 24) possess a master’s degree, whilst twenty-five (10.5%) have a matric certificate and only four (1.7%) hold a PhD qualification. The Chi-square tests for equal proportions showed that there is a significant difference (p=<.0001) within the different
educational levels and this can be clearly seen as the majority of the respondents have an honors’ degree as compared to the rest.

Figure 4.0.5: Education qualifications of respondents

4.2.8 Distribution of Respondents by tenure

Figure 4.0.6: Tenure distribution

Figure 4.6 above shows that the majority of the respondents in the study have worked for 1 to 5 years (30.7%; n=73). Respondents who has worked for 6 to 10 years constitutes the second
largest category (n=70; 29.4%). A total of 24 employees (10.1%) have been working for less than a year whilst forty-six (19.3%) have worked for 16 years or more.

4.2.9 Job status

![Job status Pie Chart]

**Figure 4.7: Job status**

Figure 4.7 depicts the job status of respondents. The majority of the respondents (89.1%, n = 216) are permanent employees, while temporal employees comprised only 10.9% of the respondents (n = 26). The Chi-square tests for equal proportions (p=<0.0001) shows that there is a significant difference between the distribution of permanent and temporal employees within the respondents.

4.2.10 Correlational Analysis

The Pearson product correlation coefficient was used to test for the correlation between the demographic variables and the three main variables, i.e. job stress, turnover intentions and job satisfaction. Table 10 below shows the output of the correlational analysis.

**Table 4.3: Pearson’s correlations between each of the measures and demographic features**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Job Stress</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.239**</td>
<td>-.310**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 4.3 it can be noted that all study variable had no significant correlation with gender. Only job stress and job satisfaction had also no correlation with job status in the
study. However other variables had significant negative and positive correlation with the study variables.

Job stress had a significant positive correlation with age \( (r=0.239; p=<.000) \), marital status \( (r=0.283; p=<.000) \), race \( (r=0.223; p=<.001) \), education qualifications \( (r=0.332; p=<.000) \) and tenure \( (r=0.154; p=<.018) \). The when levels of age, marital status, race, educational qualification and tenure increases so does job stress.

The results also shows that there is a positive significant correlation between turnover intentions and job status \( (r=0.172; p=<.008) \). This means that when job status increases so does turnover intentions. At the same time turnover intentions had a negative correlation with age \( (r=-0.310; p=<.000) \), marital status \( (r=-0.314; p=<.000) \), race \( (r=-0.129; p=<.047) \), educational qualifications \( (r=-0.254; p=<.000) \) and tenure \( (r=-0.215; p=<.001) \). The results show that as educational qualification, marital status, race, age and tenure increases the level of turnover decreases and vice versa.

Figure 4.3 also shows job satisfaction had a positive correlation with age \( (r=0.366; p=<.000) \), marital status \( (r=0.292; p=<.000) \), race \( (r=0.149; p=<.022) \), qualifications \( (r=0.347; p=<.000) \), and tenure \( (r=0.284; p=<.000) \). This shows job satisfaction increases when age, marital status, race, qualifications and tenure increases.

4.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

Hypothesis 1: The Job Stress/Job Satisfaction Hypothesis

\( H_0 \) – Job stress is not significantly negatively related to job satisfaction.

\( H_1 \) – Job stress is significantly negatively related to job satisfaction.
Table 4.2: Pearson Correlation for Job Stress and Job Satisfaction

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. The findings in Table 4.2 depict that Job stress is significantly negatively related to job satisfaction ($r=-0.312; p<.0001$). This shows that when job stress levels are high job satisfaction level decreases. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 2: The Job Stress/Turnover Intentions Hypothesis**

$H_0$ – Job stress is not significantly positively related to turnover intentions.

$H_2$ – Job stress is significantly positively related to turnover intentions.
Table 4.3: Pearson Correlation for Job Stress and Turnover Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>JobStress</th>
<th>TurnoverIntentions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JobStress Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.348**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TurnoverIntentions Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.348**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

The results in Table 4.3 show that there is a significant positive correlation between job stress and turnover intentions (r=0.348; p=<.0001). This shows that as job stress increase the level of turnover intentions also increases. The null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: The Job satisfaction/Turnover Intentions Hypothesis

H₀ – Job Satisfaction is not significantly negatively related to turnover intentions.

H₃ – Job satisfaction is significantly negatively related to turnover intentions.
Table 4.4: Pearson Correlation for Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>JobSatisfaction</th>
<th>TurnoverIntentions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JobSatisfaction</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.317**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TurnoverIntentions</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.317**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was employed to test the relationship between job satisfaction and staff turnover intentions. The findings show that there is a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (r=-0.317; p=<.0001). Hence we reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis and conclude that job satisfaction is significantly negatively related to turnover intentions. Thus a high level of job satisfaction is associated with a low level of turnover intentions and vice-versa.

**Hypothesis 4: The Job Stress/Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions Relationship**

Ho: Stress and job satisfaction have no combined effect on turnover intentions.

H₄: Stress and job satisfaction have a combined effect on turnover intentions.

To quantify the combined effect of job stress and job satisfaction on turnover intentions, job stress and job satisfaction were first separately modeled as explanatory variables on turnover intentions using multiple linear regression models. When first separately modeled as explanatory variables on combined turnover intentions, the resulting models (see Tables 4.5a, b and c and Tables 4.6a, b and c below), show that both models are significant. Only 12.1% of the variation in turnover intentions is being explained by job stress whilst only 10.1% of
the variation in turnover intentions is explained by job satisfaction. The output is present below.

Table 4.5: Multiple Linear Regression Model for Job Stress and Turnover Intentions

Table 4.5(a): Significance of Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Regression</td>
<td>5.261</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.261</td>
<td>32.430</td>
<td>.000a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>38.283</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43.544</td>
<td>237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: TurnoverIntentions

b. Predictors: (Constant), JobStress

Table 4.5(b): Variation Explained by Explanatory Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), JobStress
Table 4.5(c): Parameter Estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>5.002</td>
<td>.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JobStress</td>
<td>-0.629</td>
<td>.110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: TurnoverIntentions

The overall F statistic is significant (F=32.430; p=<0.0001). The model fits, with an $R^2$ of 0.121. The table of parameter estimates indicates that all parameters are significant and the estimated regression equation is:

$$\text{Turnover Intentions} = 5.002 - 0.629\times \text{Job Stress}$$

Table 4.6: Multiple Linear Regression Model for Job Satisfaction and Turnover intentions

Table 4.6(a): Significance of Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Regression</td>
<td>4.387</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.387</td>
<td>26.444</td>
<td>.000b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>39.157</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43.544</td>
<td>237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: TurnoverIntentions

b. Predictors: (Constant), JobSatisfaction
Table 4.6(b): Variation Explained by Explanatory Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.317a</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>.40733</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), JobSatisfaction

Table 4.6(c): Parameter Estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: TurnoverIntentions

The overall $F$ statistic is significant ($F=26.444; \ p=<.0001$). The model fit well with an $R^2$ of 0.101. The parameters are all significant and the models is as follows;

$\text{Turnover Intentions} = 4.218 - 0.288*\text{Job satisfaction}$

A further multiple regression model was used to test whether there is a combined effect between the interaction of job stress and job satisfaction on turnover intentions. The two variables, i.e job stress and job satisfaction were both modeled as an explanatory variable on turnover intentions. The resultant model is significant ($F=23.937; \ p=<0.0001$) as shown on Table 4.7a.

The combined effect of the explanatory variables explains 16.9% of the variation in combined turnover intentions. The parameter estimates form this multiple regression model shows that the two variables, i.e job stress and job satisfaction had a significant effect on turnover intentions ($t$-value=$-4.04; \ Pr > |t|=<0.0001$) and ($t$-value=$-3.701; \ Pr > |t|=<0.0001$) respectively with both of them having a negative effect on turnover intentions.
Table 4.7: Multiple Regression Model for Job Stress, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

### Table 4.7(a): Significance of Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>7.370</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.685</td>
<td>23.937</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>36.175</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43.544</td>
<td>237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: TurnoverIntentions

b. Predictors: (Constant), JobSatisfaction, JobStress

### Table 4.7(b): Variation Explained by Explanatory Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), JobSatisfaction, JobStress
Table 4.7(c): Parameter Estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unstandardized Coefficients</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>5.340</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td>17.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JobStress</td>
<td>-.498</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>-.275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JobSatisfaction</td>
<td>-.210</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>-.232</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intentions

The overall $F$ statistic for the moderated model is significant ($p=<.0001$). The model fits, with an $R^2$ of 0.169. The table of parameter estimates indicates that the estimated regression equation is

$$\text{Turnover Intentions} = 5.340 - 0.498*\text{Job Stress} - 0.210*\text{Job Satisfaction}$$

Table 4.8: The effect of the Combined Multiple Regression Model on Turnover Intentions Vs the separate models effect

Table 4.8a: Combined effect of Job Stress and Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.411$^a$</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>.39234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), JobSatisfaction, JobStress
Table 4.8b: Job Stress alone

Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.348(^a)</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>.117</td>
<td>.40276</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Predictors: (Constant), JobStress

Table 4.8c: Job Satisfaction alone

Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.317(^a)</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>.40733</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Predictors: (Constant), JobSatisfaction

Tables 4.8a, b and c shows that the combined effect of the explanatory variables explains 16.9% of the variation in turnover intentions. Thus job stress and job satisfaction explained a smaller variation separately (12.1% and 10.1% respectively) on turnover intentions as compared to their combined effect which explained 16.9% of the variation in turnover intentions. A Chi-Square test for proportions was carried so as to determine if there exists a significant difference on these variations. The R-square for the combined model was tested with the R-Square values for the two separate models.

Table 4.9: Chi-square Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymptotic Pr &gt; ChiSq</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Chi-Square value (Pr >\text{ChiSq} = 0.2939) shows that there is no significant difference on the R-Square values of the combined model and the two separate models. Thus there is sufficient evidence at 5\% significance level to accept the null hypothesis over the alternative hypothesis and conclude that job stress and job satisfaction have no combined effect on turnover intentions.

4.9 SUMMARY
The chapter gave a detailed account and presentation of the findings gathered using the research instrument. The chapter firstly focused on the descriptive information of the sample, thus the demographical findings. Inferential analysis of the data obtained from the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire was then carried out.
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION
The previous chapter provided full details on the analysis of the data obtained from the field. The researcher conducted both descriptive and inferential analysis procedures on job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. In this chapter, the researcher gives special reference to the results presented in the preceding chapter, in order to make relevant and appropriate conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for future research in related studies.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS
On all the demographics, gender did not have any significant correlation with all study variables which are job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. This shows that any changes in job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees were not affected by gender. It is consistent with research done by Oshagbemi (2000) who failed to find significant differences in job satisfaction basing on gender. Similarly, Donohue & Heywood (2004) could not prove any job satisfaction differences on the basis of gender in their study conducted amongst young American and British employees. Gender also did not have a significant correlation with job stress which is similar to the study results of O'Leary (1989) who after carrying out Meta-analysis on 15 studies that focused on gender differences in occupational stress reported that there are no gender differences in experienced and perceived work stress. Also gender did not have significant correlation with turnover intentions which can be supported by the study done by Benjamin, Ilevbare & Alausa (2012) which found that gender did not have a significant main influence on turnover.

Also in this study job status did not have any significant correlation with job stress and job satisfaction. This shows that whether one was a permanent or temporary staff it did not affect their job satisfaction and job stress levels. This results is inconsistent as temporary employment was found to have a negative influence on the job stress, well-being, work attitudes and commitment to the organization by De Cuyper et al., (2008) and De Witte & Näswall (2003). Temporary employees have job characteristics that are more aggravating which leads to strains and negative stress reactions and that the work of temporary employees is of less quality. This negative relationship can also be explained as individuals tend to compare the outcomes they receive and those received by permanent staff. This feeling of
deprivation and inequity leads to a decrease in job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment (De Witte & Näswall, 2003)

In terms of job stress it had a positive correlation with age, marital status, race, educational qualification and tenure. In the case of educational qualification, the findings are the same as obtained by Bjork et al. (2007) who concluded that nurses in possession of a master’s degree or other continuing education were more satisfied than those without additional education. In addition, Gazioglu & Tansel (2002) observed that those with degrees and postgraduate degree holders had high levels of job satisfaction compared to individuals with lower levels of education. One can say that those who have the highest qualifications experience job satisfaction due to their increased compensation or position in the organization which comes with the level of education.

Also job stress had a positive correlation with age of respondents. Job stress increased and age also increased among respondents. This also similarly mean that younger employees experience less job stress which may be because younger workers may find it easier to pursue new career options, which may alleviate some of the effects of workplace stress (Mauno et al., 2013). The results of the study are inconsistent with the study done by Lambert and Paoline (2008) and Boyas and Wind (2009) found no significant relationship between age, gender and educational levels to job stress and organizational commitment in a research.

The study also shows that job stress had a significant positive relationship with marital status. This means that as marital status increase which according to the questionnaire are the widowed and divorced, the job stress also increases. This may be due to work family conflict which may result in leading to stress. These results however contradict to the results of Abirami (2012) which confirmed that marital status has no significant impact on occupational stress.

Tenure had a positive correlation with job stress which shows that in this study as the respondents’ tenure increased their level of job stress also increased. This results is corroborated by Cullen et al. (1985); Lasky, Gordon, and Srebalus (1986) who all found that correctional officers with higher tenure showed higher levels of job-related stress.

At the same time also job stress had a positive correlation with race. This shows that as race of employees’ increases from the scale of the questionnaire so does job stress. This results are
accentuated by a meta-analysis by Dowden and Tellier (2004) that reported that non-White officers reported lower stress from work than White officers. However a non-significant relationship was reported between race and job stress (Lambert et al., 2009; Lambert, Hogan, & Allen, 2006).

In terms of turnover intentions it had a positive correlation with job status. High job status according to how it was measured from the questionnaire is temporary employees. Therefore temporary employees have high turnover intentions than permanent staff. It was argued by Eisenberger & et al., (2002) that temporary staff has monetary relationship with organization but permanent staff has more relational relationship like commitment hence less likely to leave the organisation.

In addition, turnover had negative correlation with age, marital status, race, educational qualification and tenure. In terms of age the results shows that as age increases turnover intentions decreases. This finding concurs with study done by Lonne (2001) and McNearney et al (2008) who found that turnover rates generally decline with age. Possible explanations for this include Buhler's (1968) suggestion that people between the age of 15 and 25 are non-committal and experimental in setting goals and charting paths (Buhler 1968). Therefore young employees have high turnover intentions than older employees.

Turnover intentions also had a negative correlation with educational qualifications. This means the more educated the employee is the less likely they are to leave an organisation. These results are accentuated by Parks & Waldo (1999) and Sourdif (2004) who found that more highly-skilled employees were more likely to stay, particularly for reasons such as job satisfaction rather than external factors, and the reverse was true for the lower skilled employees.

The results also shows that turnover intentions had a negative correlation with tenure meaning as longer tenured employees were more likely to stay with an organization. This result is supported by Somers (1996) and Hall et al. (2007) who found that rates of turnover are significantly higher amongst those with shorter than those with longer tenure. One rationale for this could be that longer-tenured workers have more investments or side-bets in the organization and are consequently less likely to leave.
Turnover intention is also negatively correlated with marital status and race, meaning that turnover is high among single and black employees from the study. A similar finding is evident in the study by Mohammed et al., (2012) who reveal significant associations between turnover intention and demographic variables relating to gender, age, marital status, dependent children, education level, nursing tenure, organizational tenure, positional tenure, and payment per month.

Job satisfaction was found to be positively correlated with age, marital status, race, educational qualification and tenure. This means that the race category influences the level of job satisfaction. Numerous studies including Strawser & Slocum (1972), Davis (1985), Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley (1990), Martin & Tuch (1991) all cited in Friday et al., (2004), confirm these results that white employees amongst different occupational classes experienced higher levels of job satisfaction in comparison to African employees.

Job satisfaction also had a positive correlation with educational qualifications which shows that job satisfaction among employees increases when they have higher educational qualifications that for those with low qualifications. These results are consistent with Bjork et al. (2007) who discovered that nurses with a master’s degree or other continuing education were more satisfied than those without additional education. Similarly, many studies found that education of the employees has a significant positive association with employees’ job satisfaction (Castillo, 2004; Du, Song, Liu, & Picken, 2007; Salami, 2008; Stup, 2006); as more educated people get good status and salary packages from their organizations which are sufficient to meet their basic needs.

Job satisfaction also had a positive correlation with age, as employees gets older they experience more job satisfaction than younger employees. This results is in line with Warr (1992) who found significant variations across age where older employees tend to report higher job satisfaction than younger employees. Many studies have found that employees’ age is a strong positive link with their job satisfaction (Cabrita & Perista, 2007; Click, 2008; Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mosadeghrad, Ferlie, & Rosenberg, 2008; Sneed & Herman, 1990). This may be because older employees may have lower expectations from their jobs than younger employees.
In terms of marital status this study found that married people experience more job satisfaction than single employees. This result is consistent with other research conducted which emphasize that married employees are more satisfied with their jobs than their unmarried counterparts (Austrum et. al. 1988; Garrison and Muchinsky 1977; Watson 1981). This may be due to the fact that marriages inherently carry many responsibilities that may make a steady job more valuable and important.

Marital status had a positive correlation with job satisfaction which shows that job satisfaction increases as marital status changes. Married employees demonstrated more emotional attachment than single employees. Previous studies confirm this finding stating that that married employees are more satisfied and committed to their jobs than single employees (Bowen, Radhakrishna, & Keyser, 1994; Mosadeghrad et al., 2008; Salami, 2008)

One of the study hypothesis stated that job stress had a negative correlation with job satisfaction. It was tested and the results show that as job stress increases the level of job satisfaction decreases among employees. Dollard & de Jonge (2002) concluded the same emphasizing that an inverse correlation between job stress and job satisfaction among various populations. In addition, Boles, Wood, & Johnson, (2003) report that the effect of role stress on job satisfaction is negative regardless of gender. The employment of the P-E Fit theory, this finding then implies lack of fit between the individual and the lack of support in the environment which leads to stress and thereby decreasing the level of job satisfaction.

Job stress was found to have substantial influence to increase turnover intentions. Thus, as levels of job stress increases among employees their intentions to quit also increases. These results are confirmed with the conclusions from a study by Wunder et al. (2001) that job-stressors have a direct and harmful outcome on the employee’s job satisfaction, leading to compromised organizational commitment and increased intentions of quitting and eventually the real quitting from organization.

The analysis of the present study demonstrated that job satisfaction had a negative correlation with turnover intentions. The results show that when employees experience low job satisfaction levels in the organization their turnover intentions increases. The current findings also corroborated with a study by Firth et al. (2004) which concluded that the intent to quit were highly influenced by low satisfaction realized on the jobs, the absence of organizational
commitment, and sensing of stress. In addition, MsShane and Von Glinow (2003) states that job dissatisfaction which pushes workers out of their present jobs has a greater effect on turnover than incentives that lure them into new jobs.

Job stress and job satisfaction combine to have a collective influence on turnover intentions. Many studies (Brotheridege & Grandey, 2002; Mobley, et al., 1979) have been carried out on job satisfaction and job stress as determinants of employee turnover. Among all the potential mediating variables, job satisfaction was chosen as it has been considered the most important factor in voluntary turnover research (Trevor, 2001). According to Lee et al., (1999) job satisfaction plays an important part in almost all turnover theories and according to Dickter, Roznowski, & Harrison (1996) it was tested to be the key psychological predictor in most turnover studies. Previous studies, for instance by Brotheridege & Grandey (2002); Mayes & Ganster (1988); O”Driscoll & Beehr (1994); Parasuraman & Alluto (1984); Rahim (1997), indicate that stress is a key predictor of turnover intentions. Therefore job stress and job satisfaction have a combined effect turnover intentions.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Managers must take time to know and understand the best possible ways of making work more satisfying for their staff and this in turn help overcome hindrances to effective performance. Implementation of motivational strategies is necessary at this stage to increase the job satisfaction and to retain employees for as long as possible. The managers should not only focus on improving job satisfaction of their employees in an effort to improve organizational effectiveness, but also focus on the multiplicity of factors relating to job satisfaction, such as job stress and empowerment. It can be encouraged at this stage to have management promoting unique behavior in their employees to allow for a culture of continuous learning.

5.4 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

In this study the researcher relied on self-reports measures. Fundamentally, in almost all studies, the use of data which is dependent on self-reports is potentially problematic. Self-reports are a subjective measure, dependent on the respondent’s interpretation of the questions (Tremblay & Messervey, 2011). Respondents may sometimes exaggerate on behaviours they perceive appropriate and understate on behaviours they assume to be
inappropriate (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). The reliance on self-report data leaves open the possibility of distortion. The use of shortened versions of the study variables measures may play down the effect tests for significant associations. In addition, the sample size is very small and includes only respondents from one department, which are from only one geographical area than a wider population. Lastly the study did not use interviews which would have gained a deeper insight on the study variables.

In future studies, more comprehensive results are obtainable by extending the population to include different business categories within SA and enhancing representability of samples for wider geographical area and wider selection of legislature. Also, by interviewing the personnel staff it will enable the researcher to get first-hand information as to what they are currently doing to enhance job satisfaction levels and reducing job stress and turnover intentions.

5.5 CONCLUSION RELATING TO THIS CHAPTER

The main aim of this chapter was to discuss the findings of this study. The chapter also highlighted the limitations of the study and to made recommendations for future research as well as for management to improve turnover intentions.

5.6 CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE ENTIRE STUDY

The results obtained from testing correlations between variables in the study add to the literature on the subject with similarities in the conclusions made by several other studies. All in all, the major findings to this study can be concluded as follows:

- Gender did not have a significant correlation with job satisfaction, job stress and turnover intentions.
- Job status of employees had no significant correlation with job stress and turnover intentions. It only had a significant negative correlation with job satisfaction.
- Job stress and job satisfaction were found to have a positive correlation with age, marital status, race, tenure and educational qualifications
- Turnover intentions had negative correlation with age, marital status, race, tenure and educational qualifications
LIST OF REFERENCES


I am Zoliswa Mavis Tom, a student in the Department of Industrial Psychology, faculty of Management and Commerce, at the University of Fort Hare. I am conducting a study on “Job Stress, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions among employees of the Eastern Cape Provincial Legislature”. The information you provide will be used to improve working life and help the Department as the whole in managing retention of employees. You are also welcome to add any comments you may have in the allocated spaces. The study is strictly for research purposes. Information obtained will be kept confidential.

**Section A: Biographical Information**

*Please respond to the following questions by supplying the required information or making a (X) next to the appropriate response. If you do not find the exact answer for your case, please choose a response closest to your case.*

1. What is your age group (in years)?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 – 25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 – 35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Gender:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. Marital status:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Separated</th>
<th>Divorced</th>
<th>Widowed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

4. Race

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Coloured</th>
<th>Indian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

5. What is your highest educational qualification?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Matric</th>
<th>National Diploma</th>
<th>B. Degree</th>
<th>Honours Degree</th>
<th>Master Degree</th>
<th>Doctoral Degree</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

67
If your response to the above question is other, please specify

6. How long have you worked at this institution?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Less than a year</th>
<th>1 – 5 years</th>
<th>6 – 10 years</th>
<th>11 – 15 years</th>
<th>More than 15 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

7. Tenure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Permanent</th>
<th>Temporary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Section B: Effort-Reward Imbalance questionnaire.

Please tick on the box that you think is appropriate to your organization.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have constant time pressure due to a heavy work load.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I have many interruptions and disturbances while performing my job.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Over the past few years, my job has</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
become more and more demanding.

4. I receive the respect I deserve from my superior or a respective relevant person.

5. My job promotion prospects are poor.

6. I have experienced or I expect to experience an undesirable change in my work situation.

7. My job security is poor.

8. Considering all my efforts and achievements, I receive the respect and prestige I deserve at work.

9. Considering all my efforts and achievements, my job promotion prospects are adequate.

10. Considering all my efforts and achievements, my salary/income is adequate.

11. I get easily overwhelmed by time pressures at work.

12. As soon as I get up in the morning I start thinking about work problems.

13. When I get home, I can easily relax and “switch off” work.

14. People close to me say I sacrifice too much for my job.
15. Work rarely lets me go, it is still on my mind when I go to bed.

16. If I postpone something that I was supposed to do today I’ll have trouble sleeping at night.

Section C: Turnover Intension Scale

The following 14 items measure your intention to quit. Please circle the answer that best describes your behavior or intended behavior.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>How often have you considered leaving your current job?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>How frequently do you scan news papers for job opportunities?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>To what extent is your current job not addressing your important personal needs?</td>
<td></td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>How often are opportunities to achieve your most important goals at work jeopardized?</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>How often are your most personal values at work compromised?</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>How frequently are you day-</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>dreaming about a different job that will suit your personal needs?</strong></td>
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<td><strong>7.</strong> What is the probability that you will leave your job, if you get another suitable offer?</td>
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<td><strong>8.</strong> How frequently do you look forward to another day at work?</td>
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<td><strong>9.</strong> How often do you think about starting your own business?</td>
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<td><strong>10.</strong> How often do only family responsibilities prevent you from quitting?</td>
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<td><strong>11.</strong> How often do only vested personal interest (pension fund, unemployment fund etc) prevent you from quitting?</td>
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<td><strong>12.</strong> How frequently are you emotionally agitated when arriving home after work?</td>
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<td><strong>13.</strong> How often is your current job affecting your personal well-being?</td>
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<td><strong>14.</strong> How often do the troubles associated with relocating, prevent you from quitting?</td>
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</table>

**Section D: Job satisfaction**
To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the statements below?

Instruction: Indicate your choice by placing an (X) in the block that best describes your understanding of Job satisfaction in your organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In my present job, this is how I feel about………</th>
<th>Very dissatisfied</th>
<th>dissatisfied</th>
<th>neutral</th>
<th>satisfied</th>
<th>Very satisfied</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Being able to keep busy all the time</td>
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<td>2. The chance to work alone on the job</td>
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<td>3. The chance to do different things from time to time</td>
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<td>4. The chance to be somebody in the community</td>
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<td>5. The way my boss handles his/her workers</td>
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<td>6. The competence of my in making decisions</td>
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<td>7. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience</td>
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<td>8. The way my job provides for steady employment</td>
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<td>9. The chance to do things for other people</td>
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<td>10. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>The way organizational policies are put into practice</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>The chance to tell people what to do</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>My pay and the amount of work I do</td>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>The chances of advancement in this job</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>The freedom to use my own judgment</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>The chance to try my own method of doing a job</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>The working conditions</td>
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<td>18.</td>
<td>The way my co-workers get along with each other</td>
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<td>19.</td>
<td>The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job</td>
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<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>The praise I get from doing a good job</td>
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**Thank you……………..**
APPENDIX B: ETHICAL CLEARANCE
APPENDIX C: PLAGIARISM REPORT

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<td>Internet Source</td>
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<td>Internet Source</td>
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<td>Internet Source</td>
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</table>

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www.ohiolink.edu


repository.up.ac.za


Srivastava, Sanjay, and Arun K. Sen. "Role

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Shin, Jung Cheol Jung, Jisun. "Academics job satisfaction and job stress across countries in
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<td>docslide.us</td>
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<td>54</td>
<td>Takawira, Ndayiziveyi, Melinde Coetzee, and</td>
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