

**LOCUS OF CONTROL AND ITS IMPACT ON JOB SATISFACTION AND
ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

BY

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTERS OF COMMERCE IN INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

MANAGEMENT AND COMMERCE

of the

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

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ABSTRACT

**LOCUS OF CONTROL AND ITS IMPACT ON JOB SATISFACTION AND
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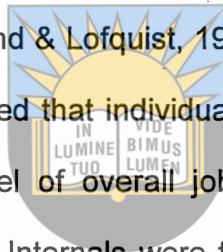
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: MASTER OF COMMERCE

Previous research has indicated that employee attitudes toward their work could possibly have an influence on their behaviour in the organisation. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are employee attitudes that have been widely studied by researchers. Satisfied and committed employees have been found to exhibit positive behaviours in the workplace such as low absenteeism and turnover rates, and higher job performance. The current research attempted to determine whether an individual's locus of control was associated with his/her level of job satisfaction and organisational

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commitment. The hope is that if an association is established, management might be able to shift an individual's locus of control, and so influence employee attitudes towards positive organisational behaviour among employees. A total of 101 respondents served as the sample. The sample consisted of all managerial and non-managerial employees employed at SAB and Johnson & Johnson in East London. Stratified random sampling was used for the present study. The Work Locus of Control Scale (Spector, 1988), the Internal-External locus of control scale (Rotter, 1966) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967) were used to collect data from the respondents. The results indicated that individuals with an internal locus of control (internals) experience a higher level of overall job satisfaction than those with an external locus of control (externals). Internals were found to be associated with higher affective and normative commitment levels than externals. There was no significant relationship between continuance commitment and locus of control (internal and external).



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DECLARATION

I declare that “**LOCUS OF CONTROL AND ITS IMPACT ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**” is the author’s original work and has never been submitted by the author or anyone else at any university for a degree. All the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



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First and foremost I would like to acknowledge my supervisor Mr. Andre` Nel. Thank you very much for your continuous support and encouragement. A special thank you to Mr. R. Chiruka the statistician, for helping me with the analysis of my data. I also wish to express my gratitude to The Govan Mbeki Research and Development Centre at the University of Fort Hare for providing me with a bursary to pursue my studies. I would also like to thank my parents Mr. and Mrs. Muvaki for their encouragement and continued belief in me. Finally I would like to thank God for the constant guidance in my life.



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DEDICATION

To my wife Fungai Jirivengwa, who has always been by my side and believed in me.



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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OUTLINE OF THE
STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Personality can be described as the overall profile or combination of characteristics that captures the unique nature of a person as that person reacts and interacts with others. It combines a set of physical and mental characteristics that reflect how a person looks, thinks, acts and feels. Understanding personality contributes to organisational behaviour insights because there seems to be a predictable interplay between personality and a tendency to behave in certain ways (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1998:37).

One important personality trait is locus of control, which was formulated within the framework of Rotter's Social Learning Theory of Personality and is concerned with a person's internal and external orientation (Neill, 2006:1). It can be defined as a generalised expectancy of the extent to which a person perceives that events in his/her life are consequences of his/her behaviour (Bergh, Buys, Schaap & Olckers, 2004:87). Persons with an internal locus of control (internals) believe that they control their own fate or destiny, while those with an external locus of control (externals) believe that much of what happens to them is beyond their control and is determined by environmental forces or fate.

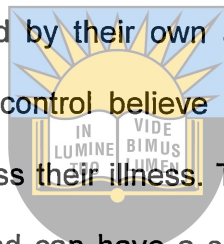
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In the organisational context, this could imply that employees with an internal locus of control believe that their hard work and effort will result in rewards such as recognition and promotion, while those with an external locus of control believe their hard work has nothing to do with being successful in the organisation. But rather luck/chance or powerful others (Beukman, 2005:81). Locus of control does not only apply to the work place. Lubkin and Larsen (2006:360) assert that locus of control also contributes to the way in which a patient views and responds to illness. Patients with an internal locus of control believe their health is determined by their own actions and behaviours, while those with an external locus of control believe it is beyond their control and therefore feel powerless to address their illness. Therefore locus of control as a personality trait is far reaching and can have a significant impact on people's lives. However, this study will only focus on its influence on employee behaviour in the work place. This concept is further discussed in chapter two.



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Schermerhorn et al. (1998:80) are of the view that individuals with an internal locus of control tend to do better on tasks requiring complex information processing and learning as well as initiative because they make more attempts to acquire information and are better at utilising it. They perform better on learning and problem solving tasks when performance leads to valued rewards and are more motivated as they believe that working hard leads to good performance. On the other hand, people with an external locus of control believe that their own actions do not influence future outcomes; hence they become less likely to work to reach their full potential.

Job satisfaction can be described as a pleasurable feeling that results from the perception that one's job fulfils or allows for the fulfilment of one's important job values (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 1998:107). It is more of an attitude that an employee possesses which reflects how content an individual is with his or her job. Job satisfaction is of great importance because it seems to affect overt organisational behaviour. Previous studies have generally indicated a low to moderate inverse relationship between job satisfaction and employee absences and turnover (Zaccaro & Collins, 1988:81; Begley & Czajka, 1993:552). This implies that the lower an individual's satisfaction with his or her job, the more likely is that person to be absent from work or to resign and seek other opportunities.



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Organisational commitment can be defined as an employee's psychological attachment to the organisation (Rabin, 2003:867). It can be measured by the following factors; a) identification with the goals and values of the organisation; b) the desire to belong in the organisation and c) the willingness to display effort on behalf of the organisation (Steers & Porter, 1992:290). Maxwell and Steele (2001:1) carried out a study to identify the determinants of organisational commitment and its effect in the organisation. Results suggested that organisational commitment is determined by job characteristics and work experiences such as the job scope, rewards and employee importance. Findings further suggested that organisational commitment was positively related to employee performance and inversely related to absenteeism and turnover

(Gaither, Kahaleh, Doucette, Mott, Pederson & Schommer, 2008:231; Duffy, Ganster & Shaw, 1998:950).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Research findings seem to indicate that negative and positive employee work related attitudes may exert powerful effects upon many forms of organisational behaviour. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are two important employee attitudes that have been found to be related to positive outcomes in the organisation. A high level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment has been found to be inversely related to job turnover intentions and absenteeism (Gaither, Kahaleh, Doucette, Mott, Pederson & Schommer, 2008:231; Duffy, Ganster & Shaw, 1998:950; Zaccaro & Collins, 1988:81; Begley & Czajka, 1993:552). Results from an Israeli study by Mannheim, Baruch and Tal (1997:1537) indicate that organisational commitment is positively related to performance. Botha (2007:1) found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are inversely related to role stressors, work-to-family strain based conflict and turnover intentions.

The evidence above implies that job dissatisfaction and a lack of organisational commitment could result in adverse outcomes in the organisation, such as increased employee turnover, absenteeism and a decrease in performance. Debate still exists about whether personality traits or situational factors are more important in determining employee attitudes and behaviour (Murray, Poole &

Jones, 2006:60). Hence the current study seeks to determine whether an individual's locus of control (a personality trait), which can either be internal or external, has any influence on one's level of job satisfaction or organisational commitment.

1.3 Research questions

- 1 How are the constructs of locus of control, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and the links among them conceptualised in literature?
- 2 What is the existing locus of control orientation, and levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment among the respondents?
- 3 Is there any relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction among the respondents?
- 4 What is the relationship between locus of control and organisational commitment among the respondents?



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1.4 Objectives

- To investigate how the constructs of locus of control, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and the links among them are conceptualised in literature.
- To determine the existing locus of control orientation, and level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment among the respondents.

- To identify any relationship between one's locus of control and his/her level of job satisfaction.
- To identify any relationship between one's locus of control and his/her organisational commitment.

1.5 Hypotheses

- The existing locus of control orientation among respondents is external, and their levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are low.
- There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control and his/her level of job satisfaction
- There is no relationship between one's locus of control and his/her level of organisational commitment

1.6 Significance of the study

Findings from previous research indicate that employee attitudes toward their work could possibly influence their behaviour in the organisation. The lower a person's job satisfaction and commitment, the more likely that person is to be

absent from work and to resign and seek other opportunities (Duffy, Ganster & Shaw, 1998:950; Zaccaro & Collins, 1988:81). Some research findings have suggested that there may be a link between job satisfaction and both mental and physical health (Baron, 1983:217).

Establishing a link between an individual's locus of control and his/her level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment will provide important insight on a possible determinant of these two important work attitudes. Results from past research have indicated that one's locus of control can be altered by factors such as an increase in status or by furthering one's education (Harvey, 1971:980; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991:412). If a link is established, management might be able to adjust an individual's locus of control, hence influencing employee attitudes towards positive organisational behaviour among employees.

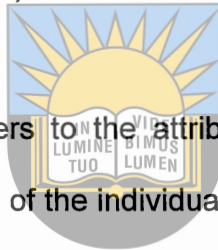
A link between an individuals' locus of control and his/her level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment could also play an important role in the selection process. Possible candidates could probably be tested whether they have an internal or external locus of control, enabling management to predict their levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, if they were to join the organisation.

1.7 Definition of Key Terms

Locus of Control: this is an important aspect of personality which refers to an individual's perception about the underlying main causes of events in his/her life (Rotter, 1954:1).

Internal Locus of Control: refers to the belief that one is in control of his/her own fate and destiny (Scott, 2007:1).

External Locus of Control: refers to the attribution of outcomes to external circumstances, beyond the control of the individual (Rotter, 1954:2).



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Job Satisfaction: this is a positive feeling about one's work and work setting (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2005:11).

Organisational Commitment: this refers to the employee's psychological attachment to the organisation (Rabin, 2003:867).

1.8 Delimitation of the study

Brinkmann (2006:280) states that demarcating a study assists in making it more focused and manageable.

1.8.1 Size of the organisations

Johnson & Johnson (Pty) limited based in East London employs approximately 120 employees and South African Breweries (SAB) in East London employs approximately 85 employees. This brings the total combined number of employees to roughly 205.

1.8.2 Type of organisations



The two organisations used for the study are manufacturing companies. Johnson & Johnson manufactures various health care products and South African Breweries specialises in the production of beverages.

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1.8.3 Geographical demarcation

The collection of data from respondents was limited to the two, Johnson & Johnson and South African Breweries in East London.

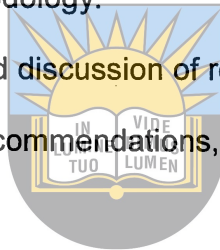
1.8.4 Units of analysis

The units of analysis for the present study included all the managers in the firms including directors and departmental managers. Supervisory and non-managerial employees were also included for analysis.

1.9 Outline of the Dissertation

The dissertation comprises of the following chapters:

- Chapter 1: Introduction, problem statement and outline of the study.
- Chapter 2: The concept of locus of control.
- Chapter 3: Job satisfaction.
- Chapter 4: Organisational Commitment.
- Chapter 5: Research Methodology.
- Chapter 6: Presentation and discussion of results.
- Chapter 7: Conclusions, recommendations, limitations and future research directions.



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1.10 Concluding Remarks

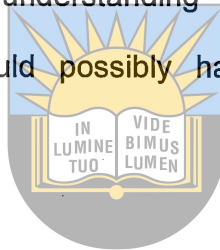
The chapter introduced and outlined the background of the study. It also clarified the problem and significance of the study. The next chapter is a detailed discussion of the concept of locus of control and its impact on organisational behaviour.

CHAPTER TWO

THE CONCEPT OF LOCUS OF CONTROL

2.1 Introduction

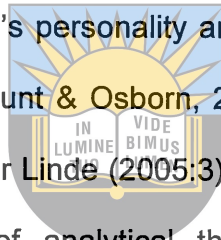
The Locus of Control is the independent variable to be examined in this study. The previous chapter introduced and outlined the background of the study. It also highlighted the importance of understanding the locus of control in an organisational context as it could possibly have a bearing on employee behaviour.



In this chapter, the concept of Locus of Control, as an attribute of personality, and especially its relationship to employee behaviour in the organisation will be discussed. Its connection with the Expectancy Value theory, Attribution theory and the concept of Self-Efficacy will also be reviewed. The main aspects to be addressed in this chapter are a clear definition of the concept of locus of control, the development of locus of control to determine one's internal or external orientation, the relationship between the locus of control and selected organisational variables, namely, motivation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, stress, leadership, job performance, employee turnover and absenteeism. A synopsis of factors that contribute to individual differences in locus of control will also be presented. Measuring locus of control and the various scales that have been formulated to evaluate the locus of control in various settings will also be discussed in depth.

2.2 Locus of Control as an Attribute of Personality

The term personality encompasses the overall combination of characteristics that captures the unique nature of a person as that person reacts and interacts with others. Baron (1983:87) defines personality as referring to “the unique pattern of characteristics that sets each individual apart from others, but that is somewhat stable over time”. An understanding of personality contributes to an understanding of organisational behaviour in that there seems to be a predictable relationship between an individual’s personality and his/her tendency to behave in certain ways (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2005:74-75). This is supported by results from a study by Van Der Linde (2005:3) which indicated a relationship between the personality traits of analytical thinking, detail consciousness, conscientiousness, and work performance.



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So what determines personality? Langton and Robbins (2007:43) suggest that an adult’s personality is made up of both hereditary and environmental factors, moderated by situational conditions. Heredity consists of those factors that are determined at conception including physical characteristics, gender and personality factors. Environmental factors such as cultural values and norms also play a substantial role in the development of an individual’s personality and behaviour (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2005:76). A third factor affecting the development of personality is the situation. It influences the effects of heredity and the environment on personality by eliciting different aspects of our personality when we are in varying situations. For example, some situations,

such as a religious service, may limit more behaviours than other situations such as a party (Langton & Robbins, 2007:44). Locus of control is a personality trait and is defined in detail below.

2.2.1 Definition of the concept

In psychology, Locus of Control is considered to be an important aspect of personality. The concept was originally developed by Julianne Rotter in the 1950s. Rotter's view was that behaviour was largely guided by "reinforcements" (rewards and punishments) and that through contingencies such as rewards and punishments, individuals come to hold beliefs about what causes their actions. These beliefs, in turn, guide what kinds of attitudes and behaviours people adopt (Neill, 2006:1). Locus of control is a personality construct referring to an individual's perception of the locus of events as determined internally, that is by his/her own behaviour or by fate, luck or external events, (Qatamy, 1999:198).

Rotter (1954:1) believed, as do most social learning theorists, that if you see a link between behaviours and reinforcers then your behaviour is affected by the reinforcers. If you don't see the link, then you react less predictably to reinforcers (and learning is not as likely to occur). The term Rotter coined for these beliefs about whether behaviour will meet with a rewarding outcome was Locus of control. Locus is the Latin word for "place". People with an internal locus of control believe that through their behaviour they can control the likelihood of

receiving reinforcers, while those with an external locus of control do not see much of a link between their behaviour and the likelihood of being rewarded.

Another view regards locus of control as a concept straddling psychology and sociology, related to where individuals conceptually place responsibility, choice, and control for events in their lives. It distinguishes between two common approaches which place the actual control as either internal or external to the person him/herself (Locus of Control, 2007:1). In other words, the locus of control describes peoples' beliefs about whether events are controlled primarily by their personal decisions and effort which indicates an internal orientation or by outside forces, such as their social and physical environment which indicates an external orientation (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1998:40). Langton and Robbins (2007:49) describe locus of control as, "a person's perception of the source of his or her fate".

The various definitions reviewed above seem to describe the concept of locus of control as indicating the degree to which an individual is convinced that he/she can determine whatever happens to him/her or exert an influence or control over it. Those who attribute control over events to themselves have an internal locus of control and those who attribute this control to forces in the environment, have an external locus of control (Beukman, 2005:81).

2.2.2 Development of Locus of Control Orientation (Internal/External)

Baron (1983:107) suggests that the differences in locus of control arise from past personal experience. It is possible that individuals who are exposed to a home environment in which effort and accomplishments are rewarded in a systematic manner tend to develop expectancies of internal control. In contrast, those raised in an environment where rewards seem to occur randomly, in an unpredictable way, tend to develop expectancies of external control. An alternative and yet analogous view is that most internals come from families that focused on effort, education, and responsibility, while most externals come from families of a low socioeconomic status where there is a lack of life control (Neill, 2005: 1).



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Although locus of control is fairly stable over time, it has been found to change in experimentally induced settings as well as some naturally occurring situations. Attainment of higher status is one of the most influential natural interventions in shifting the locus of control to becoming more internalised (Harvey, 1997:980). This is probably due to the increased confidence in one's self after gaining prominence over one's peers. Acquiring a higher level of education has also been shown to be influential in altering an individual's locus of control. There is ample evidence, as reviewed by Pascarella and Terenzini (1991:412) that the locus of control increases during college, that is, expectancies become more internalised. These conclusions came about after twenty years of researching the transition of children from primary education until the completion of their college

studies. Hence the acquiring of more knowledge seems to enhance the belief that events are primarily controlled by one's personal efforts.

Acculturation (the process in which an individual or group retains cognitions and practices of its heritage while simultaneously adopting those of another group with which there is repeated and prolonged contact) could possibly be a contributor in the development of locus of control (Cote, 2006:5). Findings from a study on Japanese nationals living in the United States revealed that the longer they have resided in the United States, the less externally controlled they have become (Ikemi, 1996:1). Research has indicated that people in the United States tend to be more internal than those in Japan (Berry, Poortinga, Segall & Dasen, 1992:120), hence prolonged contact with Americans is probably the reason Japanese people become more internally oriented through the process of acculturation.

2.3 Locus of Control and Related Theories

2.3.1 Expectancy-Value Theory of Social Learning

The locus of control is based on Rotter's Social Learning theory which suggests that the consequences of behaviour have an impact on the motivation of people to engage in that behaviour. The core of his approach is called Expectancy Value Theory and has as basic premise that an individual's behaviour is determined not just by the presence or size of reinforcements but by one's beliefs about what the

results of his/her behaviour is likely to be; in other words, how likely one is to get the reinforcement (Rotter, 1954:1).

Walters (2000:36) provides the following example; "If Jane is deciding whether to ask Tom or Dick to the Sadie Hawkins dance, she will consider the relative value of a date with each individual and the likely outcome of her request. She may value a date with Tom more than she values a date with Dick but believe that Dick is more likely to accept her offer. Jane's decision will hinge on how she evaluates the respective values and expectancies of asking Tom versus Dick to the Sadie Hawkins dance".



Having high or strong expectancies signifies that the behaviour will result in the outcome. While on the other hand, low expectancies indicate that the individual believes it is unlikely that his/her behaviour will result in reinforcement (Rotter, 1954:1). In other words, behaviour is a function of the expectancies one has and the value of the goal toward which one is working (Palmgreen, 2004:61). Studies demonstrated that reinforcement increases expectancies (and hence behaviour), only if the individual perceives such reinforcement as being caused by his/her behaviour, which reflects an internal locus of control (Barone, Maddux & Snyder, 1997:52).

2.3.2 Attribution Theory

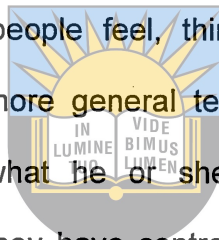
The Attribution theory proposed by Fritz Heider in 1958 seeks to describe how ordinary individuals account for events, their own behaviour and the behaviour of others (Gartner, 2004:205). It's the foundation for our constant search for the causes of successes and failures. Perceptions of causality, rather than reality are critical because they influence self-confidence, self control as well as expectations of the future and the motivation to work hard to achieve a goal (Thompson, 2007:198).



The locus of control is relevant to attribution theory because it is linked to the locus dimension of causality. Locus of causality determines the client's belief about what he or she can achieve (Reigeluth, 1983:417). Individuals who attribute success or failure to an internal locus believe that they are responsible for what happens rather than being controlled by outside forces and they are proactive rather than reactive to the environment. The attribution of success to an internal locus leads to feelings of self control and improved self esteem while attributing failure to internal locus will result in shame or guilt. On the other hand, if success or failure is attributed to external locus, it leads to feelings of helplessness or powerlessness. Attributing failure to an external locus may lead individuals to believe that tasks are too hard and allow them to expect less (Wallace & Ross, 2006: 230).

2.3.3 Self-efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy developed from Bandura's (1994:71) studies of human social cognition theories. Perceived self-efficacy refers to people's belief in their capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to deal with prospective situations (Baum, 1997:160). Alternatively, it can be defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave (Bandura, 1994:71). In more general terms it can be defined as an individual's own beliefs about what he or she is capable of doing (Lee, 2005:490). If individuals believe they have control over future events, they will attempt to exert that control in order to achieve a positive outcome.



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Hence the perception of control determines if one will try to pursue a certain goal or not. The locus of control being an individual's beliefs about whether he/she or external forces determine rewards and punishments has a significant impact on self-efficacy theories and how individuals' expectations determine the goals they set for themselves (Wise, 2006:1). The concept of locus of control is similar to, but different from self-efficacy, because it refers to control over an outcome and self-efficacy refers to control over behaviour (Baum, 1997:152).

2.4 Locus of Control and Employee Behaviour

2.4.1 Locus of control and its relation to causes of behaviour

The locus of control can be defined as an individual's generalised expectancies regarding the forces that determine rewards or punishment. Persons with an internal locus of control view events as resulting from their own actions, while on the other hand, those of an external orientation view events as being controlled by outside factors such as luck or fate (Griffeth & Hom, 2003:46). For instance, a person with an external locus of control will attribute failure to fulfil a certain goal to circumstances beyond his/her control, whereas one with an internal locus of control will attribute failure to poor personal preparation.



The logo of the University of Fort Hare is a shield-shaped emblem. At the top is a sun with rays. Below the sun is a book. The Latin motto 'IN LUMINE VERITATIS' is written across the book. The shield is flanked by two columns. Below the shield, the text 'University of Fort Hare' is written in a serif font, and 'Together in Excellence' is written in a smaller, italicized serif font below it.

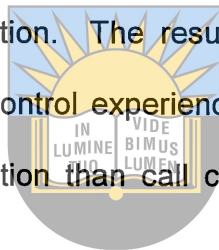
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The way people interpret such events has a profound effect on their psychological wellbeing. If people feel they have no control over future outcomes, they are less likely to seek solutions to their problems. The extensive impact of such maladaptive behaviours can have serious consequences; hence numerous social psychologists have been led to examine the impact of locus of control on individual behaviour in various settings (Wise, 2006:1).

2.4.2 Differences in Organisational Behaviour between Internals and Externals

2.4.2.1 Job Satisfaction and Motivation

Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2005:80) are of the view that internals are generally more satisfied with their jobs, less alienated, less rootless and possess a stronger relationship between job satisfaction and performance; probably because they see a stronger relationship between what they do and what happens to them and expect that working hard leads to good results. This view is supported by the findings of a study conducted by Nasima, Johan and Melinde (2006:1) to determine the relationship between call centre agents' job satisfaction and their locus of control orientation. The results suggested that call centre agents with an internal locus of control experience significantly higher general, extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction than call centre agents with an external locus of control.



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Rothmann (2000:8), in a cross sectional study using 624 employees from seven different organisations in South Africa, found that job satisfaction was related to an internal locus of control and a sense of coherence. In a Swedish telecom company, Muhonen and Torkelson (2004:267) used a sample of 281 employees and findings indicated that externals were less satisfied with their jobs than internals. In a meta-analysis using 101 samples from 88 studies, Spector (1986:1005) found that a high perception of control was positively related to job satisfaction.

Findings from another study also suggested that external locus of control is associated with high levels of job insecurity among employees (Bosman,

Buitendach & Labuschagne, 2005:26). However, a study done by Sui and Cooper (1998:55) on employees working in Hong Kong produced a different set of results. The results indicated that the locus of control was not significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction. It was correlated with satisfaction in the job itself, but it was not related to satisfaction with the organisation. Another study by Dailey (1978:311) also contradicts the internal locus of control and high satisfaction relationship, with results showing that compared to externals, internals are less satisfied with their co-workers probably due to the greater social orientation of externals.



Internals are expected to indicate greater job satisfaction than externals because of the following reasons: firstly, dissatisfied internals will quit dissatisfying jobs; secondly, internals tend to receive higher rewards due to their better performance; thirdly, internals tend to achieve more frequent promotions and salary increases; and finally, individuals who have sufficient control to leave a stressful situation and choose to stay, will evaluate the job situation as satisfactory (Kahn & Cooper, 1993:68).

Research has indicated that students with an internal orientation work harder, have a more active orientation to learning and take more pride in their success (Gagne, 1987:225). However, externals are not necessarily less orientated to rewards or personal goals, but internals will make a greater effort to earn rewards or achieve objectives, since they are more inclined to believe that their efforts will be successful. If performance does not lead to the desired outcome, internals

may adopt a more external stance (Spector 1982:483). Results from a study by Lu, Wu and Cooper (1999:1) indicated that as compared with internals, externals tended to perceive more sources of stress and they reported more stressors which seemed to be outside their direct control. On the other hand, internals were more satisfied with their jobs, suffered fewer physical and psychological symptoms, and exerted more coping effort.

Internals exhibit greater motivation, believe that their efforts will result in good performance and get higher salaries and greater salary increases than externals. While on the other hand, externals are less satisfied with their jobs, have higher absenteeism rates, are more alienated from the work setting and are less involved in their jobs than are internals (Langton & Robbins, 2007:49). This is most likely because externals feel they have little control over organisational outcomes.

2.4.2.2 Employee Turnover and Absenteeism

Another interesting aspect is the influence that the locus of control has on employee turnover. Since internals are more likely to believe that they are able to master their own environment and control their outcomes, they may be more likely to believe that they will be successful in obtaining an attractive alternative and thus are more likely to act on their turnover intentions than externals. Griffeth and Hom (2003:45) suggest that externals would be more likely to remain on the job even if they were dissatisfied and wanted to quit, while internals would be more likely to quit. Judge and Martocchio (1996:840) found that people with an

external locus of control gave more excuses for their absences and attributed external causes to their absentee behaviour. Hence the inference can be made that because externals attribute their absences to external causes, they are more likely to view absence as legitimate work behaviour.

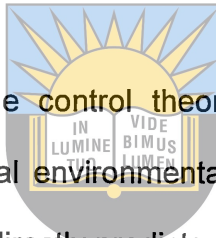
On the other hand, Rahman and Kumar (1984:73) found no relationship between locus of control and employee absence. Results from a field study of 200 employees working in the banking sector in Nigeria reported that organisational climate and not locus of control influences turnover intentions (Afolabi, 2005:102).



2.4.2.3 Organisational Commitment and Stress

Previous studies have indicated that an external locus of control is associated with a lack of commitment to the organisation. Current research, however, suggests that commitment is not a one-dimensional construct and can take many forms such as continuance and affective and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990:10). Continuance commitment occurs when the individual commits to the organisation because he/she perceives high costs of losing organisational membership; an employee with affective commitment strongly identifies with the goals of the organisation and desires to remain a part of the organisation. Normative commitment results when the employee merely feels it is obligatory for him/her to commit to the organisation (McKenna, 2000:279).

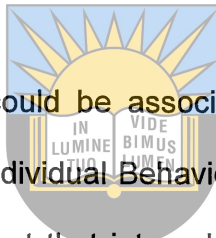
Coleman, Irving and Cooper (1999:995) examined the relations between locus of control and two forms of organisational commitment, namely affective and continuance commitment. The findings showed that internal locus of control was associated with affective commitment and external locus of control was associated with continuance commitment. Internals believe that if they leave the organisation, through their efforts they will be able to secure employment elsewhere; hence they are unlikely to stay in an organisation for fear of being stranded if they leave (Kahn & Cooper, 1993:68).



Spector (1998:157) developed the control theory, which suggests that both general locus of control and actual environmental control determine perceived control. Perceived control at work directly predicts stress and strains. A perceived stressor refers to the assessment and interpretation made by an individual of a potential environmental stressor and can lead to negative emotions such as anxiety and anger (Cooper, 1998:154). When control is high, the strength of relation between environmental and perceived stressor should be low. The individual will not view the situation as a job stressor and therefore will not exhibit an emotional reaction (Furnham, 2005:359). Scott (2005:1) supports this supposition and proposes that because internals feel they have choice in their lives and control their circumstances, they tend to feel happier, more free and less stress than externals.

Murat (2003:1) conducted research to see how teachers' burnout is related to different aspects of locus of control and the findings indicated that an external

locus of control was positively related to emotional exhaustion which is a dimension of burnout. On the contrary, Averill (1973:286) reviewed experimental research relating types of personal control to experience of stress. Findings implied that there are three main types of control, namely behavioural, cognitive and decisional control. These types of control are related to stress in complex ways, sometimes reducing it, sometimes increasing it and at times having no influence at all. This could mean that a high level of control does not necessarily result in low stress or strain.



A high internal locus of control could be associated with a lot of stress and difficulty with working in groups (Individual Behaviour in the Workplace, 2004:6). Kahn and Cooper (1993:68) suggest that internals may display more anxiety in situations not perceived to be within their control than externals. This is supported by results from a study by Marino and White (1985:782) which indicated that among hospital employees, for those who were internals, 'job specificity' was positively related to job stress, while for externals there was a negative relationship. Job specificity refers to organisations with highly mechanised structures and precise role prescriptions, a rigidity that does not allow for one to have much control. Therefore, externals will feel less anxious in situations that are out of their control than internals, probably because they do not perceive that they are in control of outcomes in their lives.

2.4.2.4 Leadership

Spector (1982:482) found that a relationship exists between locus of control and leadership in that leaders of internal orientation and those of external orientation had distinct leadership styles. Internal leaders portray a more persuasive approach and are more goal oriented than externals. Johnson, Luthans and Hennessey (1984:61) in a US study, also found that internal supervisors are more likely to be seen as persuasive and influential with their own supervisors than external supervisors. A study by Durand and Nord (1976:427) of managers in a United States textiles and plastics firm found that externals were viewed by subordinates as exhibiting more 'initiation of structure' at work. This appears to be reasonable as externals tend to lack initiative and prefer highly structured tasks (Blau (1993:125).



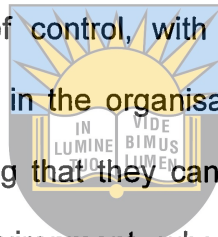
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Further evidence reviewed by Bass (1981:132) suggests that internal leaders are more task-oriented and make use of rewards and respect as ways of influencing subordinates, while external leaders seem to be more forceful and threatening in their approach. This is probably because externals believe they have no control to influence positive outcomes, hence rely on threats and coercion to gain compliance from subordinates, while internals feel in control, so when a problem arises, they modify their own behaviours to resolve the situation (Viano, 1992:45).

Individuals with an internal locus of control believe that they have personal control over their own lives and hence should be associated with charismatic and

transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006:170); this is supported by research which indicates that an internal locus of control correlates significantly with charisma and transformational leadership (Howell & Avolio, 1993:170; Gibbons, 1986). In a study of 88 small business managers from four countries, namely India, Honduras, USA and Ireland, findings showed that an internal locus of control was positively correlated to the success of small firms (Ward, 1994:32).

From the above discussion, it seems apparent that there is a relationship between leadership and locus of control, with an internal orientation being preferable for leadership success in the organisation. This difference could be due to internal managers believing that they can exercise a greater degree of control over situations in their environment, whether in a work setting or their operating environment, through their own initiative and independence of action than externals (Strickland, 1989:1).



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2.4.2.5 Job Performance

Existing literature suggests that there could be a link between an individual's locus of control and his/her work performance. Lefcourt (1982:16) reasons that externals, due to their demand for task structure before and during the performance of tasks and because they do not question the purpose for carrying out tasks, may take part in the performance of tasks without enthusiasm. In addition, they tend to show less interest in entrepreneurial skills that could assist them in taking more control in situations or initiating new structures, hence enabling them to obtain better results from their efforts.

Recent research has shown however, that internals may not always be better performers than externals. Due to a positive relationship between an internal locus of control and achievement as discussed above, some jobs appear to be more suitable for internals and others for externals (Beukman, 2005:85). Blau (1993:125) found that internals did better at job tasks requiring initiative, but externals did better in highly structured routine tasks. Thus internals and externals may be suited for different types of jobs, depending upon their need for compliance and initiative. This view is supported by Hyatt and Prawitt (2001:263-274) who did a study on auditors in six accounting firms. Results showed that auditors who have an internal locus of control perform at a higher level in unstructured rather than structured firms, while auditors with an external locus of control perform well in structured rather than unstructured firms. Blau (1993:125) suggests that internals are expected to perform better in the following tasks:

- Work requiring complex information processing and complex learning
- Work requiring initiative and independent action
- A job that requires high motivation and provides valued rewards in return for greater effort
- Highly technical or skilled jobs
- Professional jobs
- Managerial and supervisory jobs

Miceli and Near (1992:110) provide two possible explanations as to why internals would perform better in the above tasks. Firstly, internals believe that they control the events that affect them, they may have a stronger action orientation than do externals; and secondly, internals may feel more personally competent than externals, hence they are inclined to take up challenging tasks. Langton and Robbins (2007:50) suggest that externals are expected to perform better or just as well as internals whereby; the work is quite simple and easy to learn, the work requires compliance and conformity, and the job does not require great effort and contingent rewards are lacking.



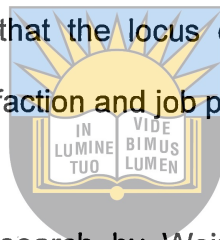
Harris and Hartman (2001:191) summarise the differences between individuals with internal and external locus of control in the table below:

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Table 1: Comparison of Internal and External Individuals

	Internals	Externals
1.	Are more satisfied with the results of personal efforts	Are less satisfied with the results of personal efforts
2.	Would feel more satisfied working under a participative leader & would be less satisfied with direct supervision than externals	Would feel less satisfied working under a participative leader & would be more satisfied with direct supervision
3.	Would see a stronger relationship between personal effort and personal output	Would see a weak relationship between personal effort and personal output
4.	Will use personal persuasion and rewards to influence others	Will use coercive power to influence others
5.	Will be more responsive to situations involving individual decisions	Will be less secure with individual decisions
6.	Will be more considerate of the needs of others	Will be more concerned about personal welfare than the welfare of others

Of interest as well is the effectiveness of the locus of control as an indicator of job performance. Bothma and Scheepers (1997:44) studied the role of locus of control and achievement motivation in the work performance of black managers in supervisory and senior positions in a diversified and geographically detached chemical company. The results showed that the locus of control is actually a better indicator of work performance than achievement motivation. This means that the construct of locus of control could possibly be used successfully in predicting work performance, as a selection tool in the selection process. Judge and Bono (2001:80) also agree that the locus of control is one of the best dispositional predictors of job satisfaction and job performance.



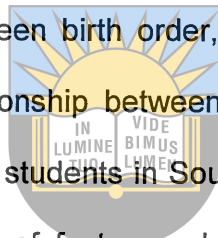
In contrast to these findings, research by Weiner (1979:416) indicates that attributions of successes or failures to relatively stable factors such as personal ability or task difficulty are better predictors of performance than locus of control. However, though the results from different authors vary slightly, they all seem to point out that the attribution of outcomes to oneself or to external factors can predict job performance.

2.5 Factors Contributing to Individual Differences in Locus of Control

2.5.1 Gender

Some studies have identified gender differences in locus of control, such as a study by Shehu and Mokgwathi (2008:101) which investigated health locus of

control among students in Botswana. The Multi Dimensional Health Locus of Control (MHLC) Scales were developed so as to tap beliefs that the source of reinforcements for health related behaviours is primarily internal, a matter of chance or under the control of powerful others (Wallston, Wallston & DeVellis, 1978:160). Results indicated that males scored higher in internal health locus of control. Findings from research by Kulas (1996:721) also reported that adolescent boys show greater internal locus of control than adolescent girls. Kumlemark and Berg (2007:1) reported similar results in a Swedish study that investigated the relationship between birth order, gender and locus of control. Erwee (1986:1) studied the relationship between achievement motivation and locus of control of black university students in South Africa. Three loci of control factors were extracted by means of factor analysis; namely personal control, political control and control over social relationships. Analysis of the results indicated that females seem to be more action oriented, but believe that they can exert less control over political and world events than males.



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This apparent external locus of control orientation in females could be because females perceive themselves to be more dependent interpersonally and more emotionally reliant on others than the so called 'dominant sex', the males (Aneshensel & Phelan, 2006:217). On the contrary, results from a study of final year under-graduate students from Botswana revealed that both male and female students displayed a great sense of external locus of control and causal attribution, believing that connections with the right people would help them in getting a job (Plattner & Mzingwane, 2008:1960). These contradictions in locus of

control between males and females could be based on the differences in the variables under examination.

2.5.2 Culture

Previously, various researchers came to the conclusion that one's culture is largely determined by the internality or externality that the individuals possess. These findings were promptly disputed by studies arguing that instead of the locus of control determining one's culture, there are a number of cultural factors that contribute to one's locus of control, ranging from gender to socialisation practices (Otterman, 1999:1). At the cultural level, the difference in locus of control suggests that in some cultures people are more likely to take social action to improve life's conditions, whereas in other cultures people are more dependent on institutions such as authorities and governments (De Mooiji, 2005:122).

On a global scale, research has indicated that Japanese people tend to be more external in locus of control orientation than people in the U.S., whereas differences in locus of control between different countries within Europe, and between the U.S. and Europe, tend to be small (Berry, Poortinga, Segall & Dasen, 1992:120). A lower socio-economic status is associated with an external orientation because poor people believe they have less control over their lives (Sharma & Bhal, 2004:129). This could imply that developed countries have individuals who have a relatively higher internal orientation than those in

developing countries. However, the difference in locus of control between blacks and whites has been found to remain the same even after socio-economic differences have been controlled (Berry et al, 1992:72). This is further discussed under ethnic differences below.

2.5.2.1 Ethnic differences

Graham (1994:44) reports that 44% of the studies done on locus of control show that whites have a higher internal locus of control than blacks, while the remaining 56% yielded either mixed or inconclusive results. In the US, findings from cross-cultural research have repeatedly found that blacks are more externally oriented than whites (Dyal, 1984:209). The Equality of Educational Opportunity Study by Coleman (1966:44) affirms this view, as results point out that perceived control in African-American students is more external than that of Caucasian American students, hence impacting negatively on their achievement in learning.

Attributing this ethnic difference in locus of control solely to the relatively lower socio-economic status of blacks as compared to whites would be inaccurate as research findings have revealed that the difference in locus of control between blacks and whites remains the same even after socio-economic differences have been controlled (Berry et al, 1992:72). A more accurate explanation could be that blacks as a minority in America have their locus of control determined by the actual degree of control that they can exert on the course of their own lives in the real world (Dyal, 1984:209).

With regard to locus of control in South Africa, conclusions from a study done by Riordan (1981:159) indicated distinct differences between ethnic groups. External locus of control was high amongst Asians, Coloureds, Africans and English speaking whites, while Afrikaans speaking whites scored high on internality. Pretorius (2004:75) suggests that these differences could be attributed to the political environment of the past where the Afrikaans speaking whites upheld the political status quo and hence had a relatively higher level of control.

2.6 Measuring Locus of Control



2.6.1 Overview

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Due to the increasing interest in locus of control as a psychological construct, a variety of instruments have been developed to measure the locus of control for different environmental settings, specific individuals and differing fields of study; thereby increasing the construct's validity (Lefcourt, Martin & Saleh, 1984:378). Nevertheless, some of these measuring instruments will only give a rough approximation of an individual's position towards a specific characteristic and a variety of inaccurate variables can arise, hence leading to flawed observations (Beukman, 2005:97). This view is supported by Lefcourt (1976:128) who mentions that there are a number of error variables which can lead to inaccuracy in any measurement instrument, hence lessening the effectiveness of that device for measuring actions or cognitions pertinent to a particular construct.

2.6.2 Instruments measuring Locus of control

Although various instruments have been designed for measuring the locus of control, the most popular among these is probably the Internal-External Locus of Control Scale of Rotter which was developed in 1966. It consists of 23 items, each with a pair of alternatives labelled "a" and "b". There are six extra items called "filler items" which are also included. Marks are awarded such that a higher score indicates a more external orientation, and a lower score, a more internal one (Harris & Hartman, 2001:188). This scale however, has not been successfully reported to relate to expectancy of success or to expectancy of change and concerns have been raised about the breadth of personality traits it measures and their cross situational generality. Nevertheless, as an evaluative scale it has been effective to determine whether one is internally or externally oriented (Prendergast, 1997: 611).

Rotter conceived of locus of control as a one-dimensional construct, with internal locus of control at one end of a continuum and external locus of control at the other. Hence the development of the I-E scale to assess individuals along this continuum, (Baum 1997:151). Levenson (1973:397) on the other hand argued that internality and externality are orthogonal from each other, (i.e., statistically independent and uncorrelated) rather than being opposite ends of a continuum. Levenson also believed that externality itself was multidimensional, hence she developed the Internal, Powerful and Chance (IPC) scales as separate indicators of i) generalised **internal** locus of control orientation, ii) the belief that **powerful**

other people controlled important reinforcements, or iii) **chance** externality. Since the 'I' scale was only slightly correlated to the 'P' and/or 'C' scales, this multidimensionality allowed a person to have both an internal and external locus of control simultaneously.

Schnore (1985:21) also argues that there are significant empirical and conceptual problems in the study of locus of control beliefs with elderly subjects. Specific criticism is directed towards Rotter's I-E scale which is said to be designed mainly for an adolescent and young adult population, hence making it inapplicable to the elderly. Criticism is also levelled by Crandall, Katkovsky and Crandall (1965,91) against Rotter's I-E scale. They disagreed on the so-called agents of external control which were identified on Rotter's I-E scale as luck, fate, impersonal and personal powers and preferred to regard significant others such as parents, teachers and peers as sources of external control.

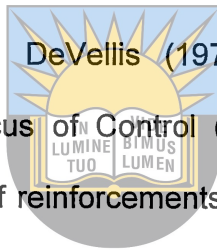
After the development of Rotter's I-E Scale, a range of measuring instruments have been developed for the determination of an individual's locus of control. Some of these are as follows:

- The Intellectual Achievement Responsibility (IAR) questionnaire was designed by Crandall, Katkovsky and Crandall (1965:91) to measure students' beliefs about the factors influencing their achievement in school. It asks students the power or strength of internal factors versus those that are external to them (Guskey & Sparks, 2000:227).

- Schneider (1968:333) worked on skills versus chance activity preference and locus of control, leading to the composition of the Activity Preference Scale. This scale assisted in discovering that internally orientated men preferred skilled activities, since these activities confirmed their expectations of external control, while those externally orientated preferred random activities that bore no relation to individual performance.

- Wallston, Wallston and DeVellis (1978:160) developed the Multi Dimensional Health Locus of Control (MHLC) Scales so as to tap beliefs that the source of reinforcements for health related behaviours is primarily internal, a matter of chance or under the control of powerful others. These scales are based on the previous work with a general Health Locus of Control scale which was developed from Rotter's social learning theory.

- Duttweiler (1984: 209) developed the Internal Control Index (ICI) to measure the locus of control in adults. It was developed in response to previously developed measures of locus of control which had been criticised for their format, response set, dimensionality and low reliability. After administration of this scale to 133 students at Gainesville Junior College in Georgia, United States, she found the scale to have good internal reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.85. Unlike the forced-choice format used on Rotter's scale, Duttweiler's 28-



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item ICI uses a Likert-type scale, in which people have to state whether they would rarely, occasionally, sometimes, frequently or usually behave as specified by each of 28 statements.

- In 1986, Beauvoir and LePoultier developed the Internality Questionnaire to evaluate whether management has a more internal orientation than other employees (Dubois, 1997:25).
- Montag and Comrey (1987:339) developed a scale in 1987 specifically aimed at measuring locus of control in drivers and so did Ozkan and Lajunen, who in 2005 developed a Multidimensional Traffic Locus of Control scale that is also targeted at driving (Hole, 2007:101-2).



The logo of the University of Fort Hare features a shield with a sunburst at the top, an open book in the center, and the motto 'IN VIDE QUAE BIVMUS' written across the book. The shield is set against a blue background with a white border.

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- The Child Health Research Unit at Bristol developed a scale called the Children's Attribution of Responsibility and Locus of Control Scale for use with English school children, (Hall & Hall, 1988:34).
- For the work domain, Spector (1988:335) developed the Work Locus of Control scale to assess how people feel concerning the control of reinforcements only in the workplace. This scale has been found to have good internal reliability and concurrent validity (Furnman & Steele, 1993:445).

Various other scales formulated to measure locus of control exist, each being more specific to a certain area or field, such as health, education or targeting certain individuals such as children or politicians. Specific scales such as the Economic Locus of Control scale (Furnham, 1986:29), Safety Locus of Control (Jones & Wuebker, 1985:151) and Work Locus of Control (Spector, 1988:335) tend to correlate more highly with variables within their domains than does the general Rotter Scale. This is supported by a study which indicated that work locus of control had stronger correlations with work related variables such as job satisfaction than general locus of control, (Spector, 1988:335). Nevertheless, the new work and organisational scales and the older scales seem to have an acceptable level of reliability and validity (Levenson, 1981:15).



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2.7 Concluding Remarks

This chapter discussed the concept of locus of control as an aspect of personality and how it affects various employee behaviours in the organisation. As a personality construct, locus of control was established to be the belief that individuals have about what determines events in their lives. Those who perceive that they personally control events and outcomes have an internal locus of control (internals) and those who believe that events and outcomes are out of their control and in the hands of fate or the environment have an external locus of control (externals). The development of locus of control orientation could possibly be attributed to past personal experiences, with individuals who were exposed to a home environment in which effort and accomplishments are rewarded in a

systematic manner developing expectancies of internal control while those raised in an environment where rewards seem to occur randomly and in an unpredictable way, developing expectancies of external control.

The link between locus of control and related theories namely expectancy-value theory, attribution theory and the concept of self efficacy was also examined. Differences in organisational behaviour between internals and externals were also addressed and overwhelming evidence suggested that there seems to be a link between one's locus of control orientation (internal or external) and some organisational behaviour variables. Internals were associated with higher job satisfaction, higher motivation, better performance, higher commitment, better leadership, less stress, absenteeism and turnover in the organisation. Contradictory findings suggested that internality is not always associated with overall job satisfaction and that in highly structured organisations, internals may experience more stress than externals.

Gender, culture and ethnical differences were identified as some of the factors contributing to individual differences in locus of control. Reviewed research findings reported females as being more external than males. A lower socio-economic status, resulting in perceived powerlessness was found to be associated with externality and could explain the reason why individuals in developed countries indicated higher internality than in developing countries. Most research done on the locus of control indicated that in general, whites are

more internal than blacks, even when socio-economic differences were controlled.

Various instruments for measuring locus of control were evaluated and the most popular one was found to be Rotter's Internal-External locus of control scale. As this scale measured general locus of control, numerous other scales were developed which were more domain specific in their assessment. These include Spector's Work Locus of control scale to measure perceived control in the workplace and the Health Locus of Control scale to assess control in health care settings. These specific scales were reported to be more reliable and valid in measuring locus of control in their respective fields. The next chapter is devoted to an extensive discussion of job satisfaction and its role in the organisation.



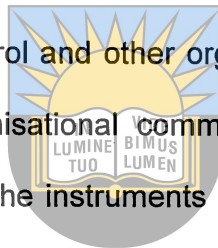
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CHAPTER THREE

JOB SATISFACTION

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the concept of locus of control and how it is related to organisational behaviour. The main aspects addressed were the development of the locus of control, theories related to locus of control, the relationship between locus of control and other organisational variables such as motivation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job performance and absenteeism, as well as some of the instruments designed to measure locus of control.



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Job satisfaction is the first dependent variable to be examined in this study. The term job satisfaction basically refers to the degree to which individuals like their jobs. This chapter will focus on the possible factors that result in job satisfaction and the consequences it has, as an attitude, for the organisation. Theories of job satisfaction and its relationship with other organisational variables such as motivation, performance, employee absence and turnover will also be discussed.

3.2 Defining Job Satisfaction

According to Spector (1997:2), job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. Kepler, Chapman and Minor

(1994:3) define it as the fulfilment and gratification that comes from work. It is not the money, the benefits or the vacations; but the good feelings you receive from doing the work itself. Locke (1976:1304) describes job satisfaction as "...a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". Job satisfaction can generally be viewed as an employee's attitude towards his or her job.

Based on this analysis, Jex (2002:116) proposes that along with how people feel (affect) about their jobs, both a cognitive and behavioural component should be added to the definition of job satisfaction. The cognitive aspect representing an employee's belief about his or her job or job situation and the behavioural component representing an employee's behaviour or behavioural tendencies towards his or her job. The addition of these components is consistent with the way in which social psychologists define attitudes, i.e. comprising of the affect, cognitive and behavioural aspects (Albarracin, Johnson & Zanna, 2005:4).

Robbins (2005:24) defines job satisfaction as, "a collection of feelings that an individual holds towards his or her job". This means that an individual with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive feelings towards the job and one who is dissatisfied will hold negative feelings towards the job. Schaffer (1953:3) believes the concept of job satisfaction is linked to individuals' needs fulfilment; thus overall job satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual which can be satisfied on the job are actually satisfied. The stronger the need, the more closely will job satisfaction depend on its fulfilment. On the

other hand, Lawler (1973:62) focuses on expectations rather than needs and hence is of the belief that “overall job satisfaction is determined by the difference between all those things a person feels he/she should receive from his/her job and all those things he actually does receive”. As a result, the larger this difference is, the lower the job satisfaction will be.

Locke (1969:316) favours values and dismisses both needs and expectations as being related to job satisfaction. He defines job satisfaction as, “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values”. From the definitions above, job satisfaction seems to be a state whereby someone regards his/her job positively, due to the job meeting the individual’s needs, expectations and values. Spector (1997:2) is of the view that job satisfaction is an important factor in the organisation as it reflects good treatment of employees and is also an indicator of their emotional wellbeing and psychological health.

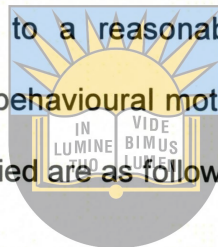
3.3 Theories of Job Satisfaction

3.3.1 Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

The first four theories to be discussed are the Content Theories, namely Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg’s Two-Factor theory, McClelland’s Theory of Needs and the ERG Theory. The content theories explain why human

needs change over time and identify the specific factors that motivate people (Ferguson, 2000:1).

Maslow published his first conceptualisation of his theory more than half a century ago (Maslow, 1943:370), where he attempted to formulate a needs-based framework of human motivation based on his clinical experiences with humans rather than prior psychology theories of his day which were mainly based on animal behaviour. This needs-based framework suggests that lower level needs should be satisfied to a reasonable degree before the more advanced need levels emerge as behavioural motivators (Steere, 1988:21). The five major types of needs he identified are as follows:



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Figure 1: Maslow's Needs Hierarchy

Source: Adapted from Steere (1988:22).

3.3.1.1 Physiological Needs

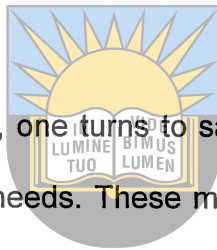
According to Maslow (1954:162) physiological needs are those required to sustain life and include air, water, food and sleep. The theory postulates that if these fundamental needs are not satisfied, then one will surely be motivated to satisfy them. Milliken (1997:65) suggests that management can satisfy employee's physiological needs by providing lunch breaks, rest breaks and wages that are sufficient to purchase the essentials of life.

3.3.1.2 Safety Needs

Once physiological needs are met, one turns to safety and security so as to be free from emotional and physical needs. These may include medical insurance, living in a safe place and job security (Norwood, 2008:1). These needs could possibly be satisfied by providing a safe working environment for employees, as well as retirement benefits and job security (Flippo, 1976:375).

3.3.1.3 Social needs

Once a person has met the lower level physiological and safety needs, higher level needs awaken. The first of the higher level needs are social needs. This is the normal human desire to be accepted and appreciated by others. These include friendship, giving and receiving love and belonging to a group (Montana & Charnov, 2000:239). The fulfilment of these needs could be achieved by creating a sense of community among employees through team-based projects and social events (Friday, 2003:45).



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3.3.1.4 Esteem Needs

Once a person feels a sense of "belonging", the need to feel important arises. Esteem needs may be classified as internal or external. Internal esteem needs are those related to self-esteem such as self respect and achievement. External esteem needs are those such as social status and recognition. Some esteem needs are: self respect, achievement, recognition and reputation (Chelladurai, 2006:108). To satisfy these needs, the organisation could put more effort into recognising employee achievements, assigning important projects and providing status to make employees feel valued and appreciated.



3.3.1.5 Self Actualisation

This is the highest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. According to Wagner (2008:1), self-actualising people are self aware, concerned with personal growth, keen to realise their potential and less concerned with the opinion of others. They tend to have needs such as justice, truth and wisdom. These needs can be met by providing employees with a challenge that awards them the opportunity to reach their full potential (Locke & Ciechalski, 1995:54).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is not without its shortfalls. It implies that to progress to a higher need, one has to satisfy the need directly below it, which is not the case in reality. Holden (2005:1853) states that an individual need not satisfy the need at one level and then move on to the next one, therefore people can be partially satisfied and partially dissatisfied at all levels in the hierarchy at the same time. Another limitation involves the cultural differences among

individuals which may result in people having different hierarchies of need, for example, some cultures seem to place social needs before other needs (Hofstede, 2008:1). Pizam and Mansfeld (2000:8) criticize Maslow's hierarchical framework for not including other needs such as dominance, play, abasement and aggression.

3.3.2 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

The next theory of job satisfaction is the Two-Factor theory which was propounded primarily by Herzberg. Unlike Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, this theory suggests that motivation is two dimensional and each dimension is comprised of distinct factors (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959:157). The first set of factors is called the 'hygiene' or 'extrinsic' factors and if they are not sufficiently present in the organisation, job dissatisfaction results. However, the presence of these factors in the organisation does not lead to job satisfaction, but merely results in no dissatisfaction. The hygiene factors identified by Herzberg include salary, benefits, type of supervision, administrative policies and work conditions (Thompson, 1996:13).

The second set of factors are named 'motivators' or 'satisfiers' and include achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, growth and the work itself. Whereas hygiene factors are related to the context of work, motivator factors are concerned with the nature of the work itself and the consequences of work. Their presence increases employee motivation, resulting in job satisfaction

while their absence results in no satisfaction (Agarwal, 1983:195). According to this theory, the factors that lead to job satisfaction are those that satisfy an individual's need for self actualisation (self-fulfilment) in their work (Furnham, 2005:334); hence are related to Maslow's higher level needs.

Herzberg's two-factor theory has received its fair share of criticism. Attack has been particularly centred on the research method of asking respondents to recall a time they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their work. Critics disapproved of this method because it is argued that people tend to blame environmental factors such as supervisors for their failures and tend to attribute satisfaction to their own achievements (Anderson, 2006:36). The second area of criticism of Herzberg's theory concerns his conclusion about satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Herzberg implies that an employee's productivity should vary directly with his/her level of satisfaction. This goes against findings from numerous research studies which indicate that this is not entirely true. There are highly satisfied employees who are low producers and vice versa (Agarwal, 1983:195).

3.3.3 McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory

The premise of this theory is that experiences acquired throughout their lives motivate people to achieve in one or more areas (Weisbord, Charnov & Lindsey, 1995:35). The three needs brought forward by McClelland are achievement, power and affiliation. He suggests that every individual possesses all these

needs but only one will dominate at any given time (Weisbord, Charnov & Lindsey, 1995:35). Individuals with a strong need for achievement find satisfaction in competitive tasks that are neither too simple nor extremely difficult (whereby success may depend more on luck than ability), (Ferguson, 2000:1).


Those with a strong need for affiliation look for acceptance within a work group and are satisfied with regular interaction with their co-workers or customers (Bogardus, 2007:35). People with a high need for power concern themselves with acquiring and exercising control over others (Weisbord, Charnov & Lindsey, 1995:36). Two types of power were identified, namely personal power and institutional power. Those who desire personal power desire work situations where they have control over others and can sometimes be destructive. On the other hand, persons who need institutional power find contentment in organising the efforts of other employees so as to further the goals of the organisation; hence they prove to be successful managers (Waiguchu, Tiagha, Mwaura & Mwaura, 1999:130).

3.3.4 ERG Theory

This theory was developed by Clayton Alderfer in 1969 and is an extension of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Bogardus, 2007:35). Alderfer identifies three types of needs; existence, relatedness and growth. Existence needs include physiological and safety needs which are similar to Maslow's first and second level needs. Relatedness needs are the social and external esteem

needs which include interaction with friends, family and co-workers. They are similar to Maslow's third and fourth level needs. Finally the growth needs include the internal esteem need and self actualisation need and is based on Maslow's fourth and fifth level needs. It consists of a strong desire to be creative, productive and to complete meaningful tasks (Alderfer, 1972:360).

Table 2: Comparison of ERG theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory

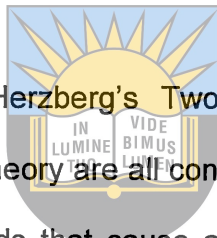


ERG Theory	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory
Existence needs	Similar to Physiological and Safety needs
Relatedness needs	Similar to Social needs
Growth needs	Similar to Esteem and Self actualisation needs
Lower level needs should not necessarily be met before higher level needs can be activated	Lower level needs should be met before higher level needs can be activated
If a higher order need is frustrated, the individual will regress to increase the satisfaction of a lower level need.	If a higher order need is frustrated, the individual will persevere to have it fulfilled.

Source: Adapted from Waiguchu et al. (1999:131).

Aldefer's ERG theory differs from Maslow's theory in that it does not suggest that lower level needs must be met before higher level needs can be activated. It also includes a unique frustration-regression principle, whereby if a higher order need

is frustrated; an individual may regress to increase the satisfaction of a lower level need which seems easier to satisfy (Waiguchu et al., 1999:131). For example, if growth opportunities are not provided to employees, they may regress to related needs and socialise more with co-workers. Yawn (1998:1) is of the view that the strongest predictor of job satisfaction is motivation, thus ERG theory can be used to predict satisfying jobs for any individual, based on their needs. Job enrichment could probably be useful in satisfying individuals who desire growth.



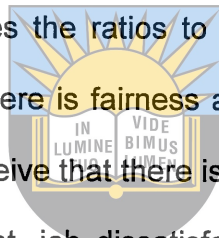
Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's Two-Factor theory, McClelland's Acquired Needs theory and ERG theory are all content theories that explain what motivates people, the type of needs that cause actions and the class of goals toward which people strive (Ferguson, 2000:1). However, Kane (1985:64) argues that content theories only explain why and not how human needs change. Process theories on the other hand, explain how behavior (action) develops, which components are involved and how the components interact (Seibt, 2004:23). One of the process theories is the Equity theory and is discussed below.

3.3.5 Equity Theory

Equity Theory is one of the process theories and postulates that the manner in which workers perceive the basic fairness of the system of rewards, directly affects their satisfaction and motivation (Bruner et al., 2003:35). This implies that

employees perceive their work-related participation in the organisation as an exchange process where they provide inputs into the organisation (e.g., effort and experience) in return for valued outcomes such as pay, promotions and recognition (Anderson, 2001:54). According to Hersen (2004:475), for job satisfaction to be experienced, an employee will compare their ratio of outcomes to inputs with another person's outcome-to-input ratio.

The other person is the employee's 'reference other' and could be a co-worker or a friend. If the employee perceives the ratios to be equal, job satisfaction will result as the employee believes there is fairness and equity in the organisation. Conversely, when employees perceive that there is a discrepancy between these two ratios, such as under-payment, job dissatisfaction will result as well as a decline in motivation (Anderson, 2001:54).



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3.3.6 Job Characteristics Model

Hackman and Oldham (1976:250) proposed the Job Characteristics Model, which has become a popular framework to study how certain job characteristics impact on job outcomes, including job satisfaction. The model states that there are five core job characteristics, namely, skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. These job characteristics impact the following essential psychological states; experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes and knowledge of the actual results (Hackman & Oldham, 1976:250).

- **Task identity:** is the degree to which one can see one's work from beginning to end, that is, the extent to which the employee is involved in all tasks of the job from the beginning to the end of the work process (Anderson, 2001:29).
- **Task significance:** the extent to which the employee feels the task is meaningful to the organisation (Weber, 2000: 10).
- **Skill variety:** the degree to which a job allows an employee to exercise a number of different abilities, skills or talents (Ratzburg, 2001:1).
- **Autonomy:** the extent to which the position provides the employee with meaningful discretion, independence and personal initiative in organising their work and controlling performance (Vardi & Weitz, 2004:146).
- **Feedback:** The degree to which completing a task provides for timely and clear performance feedback. Ratzburg (2001:1) suggests that this does not only refer to supervisory feedback, but also the ability of the employee to observe the results of their work.



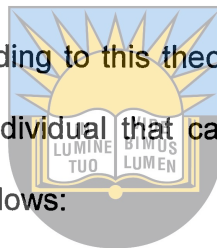
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The theory suggests that task identity; task significance and skill variety impact on the employee's experienced meaningfulness of the work. (Miner, 2005:78). An increase in autonomy is believed to enhance the employee's experienced responsibility, while an increase in feedback will enhance knowledge of the

actual results (Lee, 1998:76). According to the theory, jobs which are enriched to provide these core characteristics are likely to be more satisfying and motivating than jobs that do not provide these characteristics (Anderson, 2001:29).

3.3.7 Value Percept Theory

After defining values as that which an individual desires or considers important, Locke (1976:1297) argued that an individual's values would determine what satisfies him/her on the job. According to this theory, it is only the unfulfilled job values that were valued by the individual that can cause dissatisfaction. The model expresses satisfaction as follows:



Satisfaction = (want – have) x importance

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Therefore, it predicts that discrepancies between what is desired and received will lead to dissatisfaction only if that aspect of the job is important to the individual (Cooper & Locke, 2000:168). Thus, if intrinsic job characteristics were the most important aspect of a job to an employee, this theory would predict that increasing the level of intrinsic job characteristics (thereby reducing the want-have discrepancy), would be the most effective way of increasing that employee's job satisfaction (Locke, 2000:85).

The value percept model expresses job satisfaction in terms of employees' values and outcomes; hence a particular advantage of this model is that it highlights the role of individual differences in values and job outcomes (Eid &

Larsen, 2008:400). One potential shortfall of this model is that what one wants (desires) and what one considers important are most likely to be linked. In theory these concepts might be separable but in reality it would be difficult for many to distinguish between the two (Anderson, 2001:32). For example, why should an employee desire a great deal of pay if pay is not important to him/her (Cooper & Locke, 2000:169)?

3.3.8 Dispositional Theory

The dispositional approach proposes that job satisfaction is due to general tendencies to experience positive or negative affect, regardless of one's job. The theory suggests that certain individuals have dispositions that influence them toward feeling positive generally in their lives and includes being positive about their job (Brown & Lent, 2004:191). This implies that job satisfaction, to a significant extent, is rooted in individuals' personalities.

Staw and Ross (1985:469) were the first to propose the dispositional approach to job satisfaction. They based their conclusions on a longitudinal study of more than 5000 men over a period of five years and found that job satisfaction was stable throughout that period. Job satisfaction was stable for participants who remained in the same organisation or occupation, but the correlations were still significantly high even for participants who changed organisations or occupations. In addition, prior job satisfaction seemed to be the better predictor of current job satisfaction, rather than changes in pay or job status (Anderson,

2001:30). From the outcome of their study, Staw and Ross (1985:478) concluded that, "it may be easier for organisations to improve the job attitudes of its employees by simply selecting individuals for membership who have positive dispositions than by trying to build positive attitudes through situational changes".

However, Schaubroeck, Ganster and Kemmerer (1996:191) challenge this theory and suggest that job satisfaction could be indicative of stable job characteristics, rather than dispositions. Nevertheless, stable job characteristics could be the reason for the constant level of job satisfaction for employees who did not change their jobs over the five years (Staw & Ross 1985:469), but it is unlikely to be reason for the constant level of job satisfaction for participants who changed jobs and occupations over the five years.



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3.4 Determinants of Job Satisfaction

Anderson (2004:44) points out that job satisfaction is influenced by the nature of work people do, their individual personality and by the way these two factors interact. These two factors can be broadly classified along two dimensions, namely intrinsic factors (individual or person factors) and extrinsic factors (environmental factors). Intrinsic factors include an individual's abilities, age, race and personality, while extrinsic factors consist of pay, promotion, the job itself and other aspects of the working environment (Cooper & Channon, 1998:343). The following discussion outlines both intrinsic and extrinsic factors affecting job satisfaction.

3.4.1 Intrinsic (individual or person) factors influencing Job Satisfaction

3.4.1.1 Personality

Baron (1983:87) defines personality as referring to “the unique pattern of characteristics that sets each individual apart from others, but that is somewhat stable over time”. Some people characteristically report higher job satisfaction at any particular time and in any particular job or organisation, hence implying that personality traits probably play a part in influencing satisfaction (Schneider & Smith, 2004:308). In a study of personality characteristics and their relation to job satisfaction, Schultz and Schultz (1998:35) found that stability (versus neuroticism), internal (versus external) locus of control and committed (versus alienated) individuals express more job satisfaction. A high level of agreeableness has also been linked with increased job satisfaction (Rhodes & Hammer, 2000:1).

Magnus, Diener, Fujita and Pavot (1993:1046) suggest that because of their negative nature, neurotic individuals experience more negative life events than other individuals, hence they report low on job satisfaction. McCrae and Costa (1991:227) reason that agreeableness should be related to satisfaction because agreeable individuals have greater motivation to achieve interpersonal intimacy, which results in greater levels of well-being in the workplace. Individuals with an internal locus of control believe they are in control of outcomes in their lives. They are expected to indicate greater job satisfaction than externals because of the following reasons: firstly, dissatisfied internals will quit dissatisfying jobs;

secondly, internals tend to receive higher rewards due to their better performance; thirdly, internals tend to achieve more frequent promotions and salary increases; and finally, individuals who have sufficient control to leave a stressful situation and choose to stay, will evaluate the job situation as satisfactory (Kahn & Cooper, 1993:68).

There is a growing body of evidence challenging the notion that managers and the organisation control the factors that influence employee satisfaction. Contemporary research indicates that employee job satisfaction is largely genetically determined (Langton & Robbins 2007:102). Judge and Watanabe (1993:939) analysed data for a sample of individuals over a 50 year period and found that job satisfaction was consistent for these individuals even when they changed employers and occupations. These results indicate that an individual's disposition towards life, either positive or negative is established by his/her genetic makeup and carries over into his or her disposition towards work. Hersen (2004:117) notes that even though findings from research suggest the potential value of personality in predicting job satisfaction, a lot still needs to be done to understand the true nature of the relationship between personality and job satisfaction.

Another view defects from the notion that one's personality determines job satisfaction and instead posits that one's personal characteristics and their match to the nature of the job determines job satisfaction. This is the Person-Job Fit factor and it is discussed below.

3.4.1.2. Person-Job Fit

Furnham (1997:98) states that person-job fit refers to the congruency between the characteristics of an individual (ability, personality, knowledge and temperament) and the demands or requirements of the job. Mahalingam (2006:121) believes that assessing for person-job fit is essential to ensure job satisfaction because some potential employees may have the required skills, but due to cultural differences, they may have communication difficulties and difficulties working with other employees in the organisation hence resulting in their dissatisfaction. The following studies have yielded results that support this view.



In a New Zealand study of two private sector organisations by Hambleton, Kalliath and Taylor (2000:1), findings indicated that person-job fit correlates positively with job satisfaction and organisational commitment but not job performance. Huang (2003:1) in a Taiwanese study of 340 hotel employees found that the better the person-job fit, the greater the job satisfaction. A study of 277 employees in a Taiwanese power company revealed that person-job fit has a positive impact on work passion and job satisfaction (Hu, 2005:1).

Person-job fit seemingly has a positive relationship with job satisfaction. This is probably because a good match between a worker's skills and his or her job will lead to better performance, hence greater job satisfaction (Berryman et al., 2002:267). As a good predictor of job satisfaction, it would be beneficial to

assess person-job fit on all potential employees, so as to select those compatible with the job and the organisation.

3.4.1.3. Biographic Variables

a) Age

Furnham (2005:330) is of the view that job satisfaction increases with age possibly because age brings increased confidence, competence, self-esteem and responsibility. In a study by Wright and Hamilton (1978:1140), findings indicated that the least satisfied workers were those under the age of 30 years. Patti (2000:225) suggests that due to older workers' seniority, they are able to choose work tasks that are interesting and challenging thus resulting in greater job satisfaction among them. However, results from previous studies are not unanimous in their conclusions since some report no significant differences in satisfaction by age (Holley, Field & Holley, 1978:33; Oyesoji, 2006:736). In complete contrast, a Korean study of public and private employees, showed a negative association between age and job satisfaction in a subsample of private employees (Jung, Moon & Hahm, 2007:125).

The reason for this inconsistency could be due to the fact that the aspect of the job being measured differs from one analysis to the next and at times the data samples are not representative of the population since they are usually specific to one or a few firms (Bluestone, Montgomery & Owen, 1990:245). Generally,

however, researchers seem to agree that age is positively related to overall job satisfaction (Bernal, Snyder & McDaniel, 1998:287; Lee & Wilbur, 1985:781).

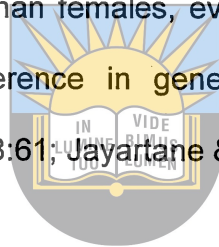
b) Gender

Clark (1997:341), using a large scale British survey found that women report higher levels of job satisfaction than men. Analysis showed that neither the different jobs that men and women do, their different work values nor sample selection accounted for the gender difference in job satisfaction. He argued that women's expectations are lower as they report higher satisfaction even when doing the same jobs as men. Patti (2000:223) supports this by suggesting that under equal work conditions, women are more satisfied with their jobs than men but proposes that where men are more satisfied with their jobs than women, it is largely due to unequal treatment in the workplace. Findings from a South African study of quantity surveyors by Bowen, Cattell and Distiller (2008:1) also support the view that perception of unequal treatment by females contributes to their lower job satisfaction.

Results from research have been inconsistent regarding gender differences in job satisfaction. In a study with 449 females and 886 males, Mottaz (1986:359) found that men and women in upper-level occupations had very similar perceptions of work rewards. Both men and women also regarded intrinsic rewards such as achievement and responsibility as most important, followed by social rewards and extrinsic organisational rewards respectively, indicating no gender differences in job satisfaction. On the other hand, an American study by

Toth and Aldoory (2000:1) indicated that men were more satisfied than women with their income and autonomy on the job, while women are more satisfied with factors such as job security. This is consistent with Tolbert's and Moen's (1998:168) view that men and women attach value to different aspects of the job, thus making it difficult to measure differences in job satisfaction based on gender.

Nonetheless, despite the apparent salary difference between males and females, where men generally earn more than females, evidence suggests that there is little evidence of a gender difference in general extrinsic or intrinsic job satisfaction (Glisson & Durick, 1988:61, Jayatane & Chess, 1984:448).



c) Race

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Evidence from research carried out on the impact of race on job satisfaction suggests that where blacks show dissatisfaction, it is usually due to perceived discrimination. In an American study where Caucasians are the majority, Mcneely (1992:224) concluded that African Americans were dissatisfied in workplaces where they felt racial discrimination in retrenchments. On the other hand, Asian Americans and Hispanic workers experience racial discrimination due to being paid lower salaries than Caucasians but oddly do not differ in job satisfaction from the majority of workers. Research on South African quantity surveyors revealed significant dissatisfaction by non-whites over issues of being subjected to greater supervision because of race and being hindered from contributing

meaningfully to the decision making process (Bowen, Cattell, Distiller & Michell, 2007:86).

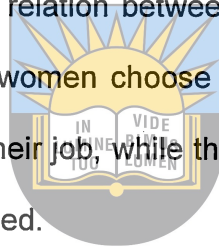
In a related study, Firebaugh and Harley (1995:87) found white women to be more satisfied than African American women, but results showed no race differences among men. Contrary to the assumption that whites experience more satisfaction than blacks, a study of police officers in America revealed that African American police officers are less likely to feel negative or depressed about their work (Dowler, 2005:476). From the above discussion it can be observed that non whites will feel dissatisfaction due to perceived unequal treatment in the organisation, depending also on the type of occupation, as some results indicate no racial differences in job satisfaction. Kim (2007:90) cautions that at times perceived discrimination could be just an increased sensitivity to any racial differences, whether or not due to discrimination.

d) Tenure

Tenure refers to the period that someone stays on a job or the length of the relationship between employee and employer (Okpara, 2004:327). Granrose (1997:58) reasons that the longer a worker stays on a job, the more likely that he or she is satisfied; because if he/she is not satisfied, they would have left the organisation. This view is consistent with numerous research findings that indicated a positive relationship between tenure and job satisfaction (Burns, 1984:37; Nestor & Leary, 2000:1; Theodossiou & Zangelidis, 2006:18). Okpara (2004:327) offers an alternative explanation for this positive correlation by

proposing that employees settle into their jobs over time, which leads to an increase in organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

However, in a United States study by Castro (2007:1) of the department of education, results showed that job satisfaction and tenure were negatively related for women of colour. This suggests that race and gender could possibly be moderating factors in the tenure-job satisfaction relationship. Findings from a study by Bedeian, Ferris and Kacmar (1992:33) reinforce this view by indicating a gender difference in the functional relation between tenure and job satisfaction. The reason for this could be that women choose to remain in the organisation even if they are not satisfied with their job, while their male counterparts choose to remain only when they are satisfied.



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Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001:233) oppose the view that tenure is positively related to job satisfaction. They are of the opinion that longer tenured employees are less satisfied than those who have been employed in the organisation for a short period. Patti (2000:224) comments that this could be due to the boredom and dullness of staying in one organisation for a long period, resulting in lower levels of job satisfaction for longer tenured employees. From the discussion above, it is apparent that results from research on the tenure-job satisfaction relationship are contradictory and further research is necessary.

e) Occupational Level

Numerous studies on the relationship between occupational level and job satisfaction seem to suggest that these two variables are positively correlated (Lee, Mueller & Miller, 1981:362; Robie, 1998:470). Sears, Rudisill and Sears (2005:68) agree that white collar workers tend to be more satisfied than blue-collar workers and managers tend to be more satisfied than non-managers. The cause of dissatisfaction among blue-collar workers could be attributed to a lack of opportunities for promotion (Sheppard & Herrick, 1972:26). Smither (1988:312) reasons that because lower level employees are usually exposed to an adverse working environment such as hot and dangerous conditions, their job satisfaction tends to be lower than higher level employees who work in a relatively comfortable environment.



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In contrast, some organisational researchers have argued that the importance of occupational level in determining job satisfaction is minimal, insisting that dissatisfaction is widespread even among white collar workers. Aronson (2005:103) found that nurses who had supervisory responsibility were less satisfied than those in non supervisory positions. Similarly, an Austrian study of job satisfaction among anaesthetists revealed that those in leading positions reported lower satisfaction than anaesthetists in non-leading positions (Kinzl et al., 2005:211). Consistent with these findings are results from a study of Namibian secondary school teachers which indicated that a higher number of teachers in managerial positions were dissatisfied with the intrinsic factors of their job than non-managerial staff (George, Louw & Badenhorst, 2008:146).

It seems therefore that the positive correlation between occupational level and job satisfaction cannot be fully confirmed as there are opposing results, probably due to moderating factors such as the nature of work.

3.4.2 Extrinsic (work) factors influencing Job Satisfaction

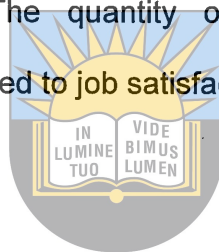
3.4.2.1 Pay and benefits

Pay can be defined as the amount of compensation that one receives for performing a specific job; including salary, wages and benefits (Cressey & Jones, 1995:176). Evans (1998:42) and Fields (2002:33) state that employees are satisfied if they feel fairly compensated for their efforts and accomplishments and will be dissatisfied if they perceive that their remuneration is unequal to that of their peers in the same field of work. Spector (1996:226) also maintains the view that perceived fairness of pay rather than the actual level of pay, determines pay satisfaction. Findings from a South African study of nurses by Horwitz and Pundit (2008:23) indicated higher satisfaction levels for private sector nurses than public sector nurses due to the former's higher pay levels and better working conditions. Hence the lower satisfaction of public sector nurses could be attributed to the perceived unfairness of their remuneration compared to that of private sector nurses.

However, patient care and interpersonal relationships with other nurses were identified by both private and public sector nurses as the more satisfying factors than pay. Lane (1991:230) also supports the view that interpersonal relations

with other employees are a better determinant of job satisfaction than level of pay. Furnham (2005:332) suggests that job analysis, wage surveys and objective work measurements should be implemented in the organisation so as to ensure fair remuneration, thus resulting in pay satisfaction among employees.

In contrast to the view that perceived fairness of pay rather than pay level is a stronger determinant of job satisfaction, results from a study of academic administrators found that salary level was a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Austin, 1985:68). The quantity of fringe benefits was also established to be positively correlated to job satisfaction (Artz, 2008:1).



3.4.2.2 Working conditions

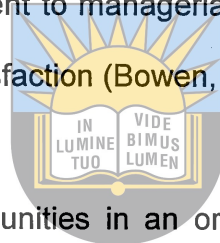
Working conditions include aspects in the organisations such as sanitary facilities, work place temperature, noise, ventilation and lighting (Clerc, 1985:213). Where working conditions are good, comfortable and safe, the setting appears to be conducive for reasonable job satisfaction, though not necessarily high job satisfaction (Mckenna, 2000:278). Previous research findings indicate that improving the working conditions of employees does result in better job satisfaction (Bockerman & Ilmakunnas, 2008:520; Fisher, Milner & Chandraprakash, 2007:22; Kinzi et al., 2005:211).

This is contradictory to findings by Herzberg et al (1959:157), who suggest that favourable working conditions, as all other extrinsic factors affecting job

satisfaction, will only result in 'no dissatisfaction' but not increased job satisfaction.

3.4.2.3 Promotion prospects

Thurau and Hansen (2000:175) postulate that perceived fairness in the administration of promotion policies within the organisation has a positive effect on employee job satisfaction. This view is supported by findings from a South African study of quantity surveyors, which indicated that perceived unfairness about opportunities for advancement to managerial ranks by women and blacks is a significant cause of job dissatisfaction (Bowen, Cattell & Distiller, 2008:1).



The absence of promotion opportunities in an organisation could also have a negative impact on the morale and job satisfaction of employees. Maclean (1992:183) reports that a lack of promotion opportunities is one of the major problems confronting employees in the teaching occupation, resulting in their reduced motivation and job satisfaction. Promotion prospects seemingly have a positive impact on employee satisfaction and morale because promotions provide employees with opportunities for personal growth, a higher social status and increased responsibilities and duties (Bajpai & Srivastava, 2004:89).

3.4.2.4 The nature of the job itself

This embraces aspects of the work such as skills variety, (the extent to which the job allows a worker to use a number of different skills and abilities when performing tasks), the interest and challenge derived from the job and clarity of

tasks to be performed (Mckenna, 2000:278). Work that an employee finds boring and overly routine, or that does not tap into his/her education, skills and interests will probably lead to a decline in job satisfaction (Harms, 2008:1). However, Robbins (1996:192) warns that if the job itself is too challenging, frustration and feelings of failure could result; but under conditions of moderate challenge, most employees will derive pleasure and satisfaction from the job.

Job enrichment, where more autonomy and responsibility are added to a job, could probably maximise the interest and challenge of work (Armstrong, 2003:342). To break away from the routine of monotonous jobs, Slack (1999:83) suggests that job rotation where workers move from one job to another as a way of extending their scope, could help to increase the variety of tasks they do hence resulting in improved job satisfaction. Alternatively, Syptak, Marsland and Ulmer (1999:1) propose that emphasising the importance of the employees' work and tasks and making them believe that they are making a significant contribution to the organisation is the ideal way to get them motivated and increase their satisfaction levels.

3.4.2.5 Supervision

Robbins (1996:193) is of the view that employee satisfaction increases when the immediate supervisor is understanding and friendly, offers praise for good performance, listens to employees' opinions and shows a personal interest in them. This is supported by results from a study by Tull (2006:465) which demonstrated a significant correlation between the perceived level of cooperative

supervision received and job satisfaction among student affairs administrators. Syptak, Marsland and Ulmer (1999:1) suggest that to decrease dissatisfaction in the area of supervision, employers should appoint a supervisor with the ability to treat all employees fairly and having the leadership skills to set a means of employee evaluation and feedback that leaves no employee feeling singled or left out.

A study by Munson and Posner (1979:9) revealed that job satisfaction and supervision satisfaction are higher in situations where the authority of the supervisor comes from his/her knowledge and practice skills rather than merely his position as supervisor. This could probably be due to the assistance and support employees get from a competent supervisor with expertise and not one who derives power solely from the position vested in him/her. Patterson, Warr and West (2004:193) examined the overall job satisfaction in 42 manufacturing companies and results showed that the overall job satisfaction is positively correlated to employees' average perception of the amount of supervisory support available.

3.4.2.6 Interpersonal relationships with co-workers

Rennie (2007:1) is of the view that office politics, rather than doing their job, causes the majority of employees' stress when they go to work and that the real pleasure one can get from work comes from friendship with colleagues. Similarly, Robbins (1996:193) believes that for most employees, work also fills the need for social interaction; therefore having friendly and supportive co-workers leads to

increased job satisfaction. Results from studies of the effect of workplace relationships on employee job satisfaction support this view and indicates that an employee's relationship with his/her co-workers is the strongest predictor of job satisfaction (Harmer & Findlay, 2006:1; Horwitz & Pundit, 2008:23). Ducharme and Martin (2000:223) also found that social support received from co-workers significantly contributes to job satisfaction.

By contrast, findings by Williamson (1996:96) showed that employees' relationships with their supervisors are more important than relationships with other co-workers in predicting satisfaction. Nonetheless, co-worker relations contribute in important ways to job satisfaction. A landmark study in the USA and Japan by Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990:34) revealed that Quality Circles, whereby employees work in a group and share ideas to solve management issues, significantly increased job satisfaction, implying that interaction with co-workers influences job satisfaction.

3.5 Potential Effects of Job Satisfaction

Whether an organisation does or does not create conditions for the provision of a minimum level of job satisfaction, one can expect certain outcomes or consequences to follow. This section will focus on the potential effects of job satisfaction on specific organisational behaviours such as productivity, organisational commitment and absenteeism. A brief review of its impact on

other attitudes such as life satisfaction and physical and mental health will also be included.

3.5.1 Productivity and Performance

The hypothesis that 'a happy worker is a productive worker', which implies that job satisfaction will lead to job performance, has received critical consideration from numerous researchers. Results from various studies have contradicted this hypothesis, indicating a low correlation between job satisfaction and job performance (Argyle, 1989:1; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985:251; Judge, Bono, Thoresen & Patton, 2001:376). A possible explanation for the weak relationship between job satisfaction and productivity at the individual level is that the research instruments used may fail to capture the many complex interactions and events in the work place and factors such as personality and job level may act as moderating variables (McKenna, 2000:280). On the other hand, Jex (2002:130) proposes that the opposite could be closer to the truth. He argues that if high levels of job performance ultimately lead to desirable outcomes, employees should be most satisfied with their jobs when they perform well and are rewarded for it. Hence job performance could actually lead to job satisfaction.

Robbins (1996:194) is of the view that the job satisfaction-performance relationship is stronger when the employee's behaviour is not controlled by outside factors. For instance, an employee's productivity on machine paced jobs is more likely to be influenced by the speed of the machine than his or her job

satisfaction. At organisational level, rather than at individual level, Ostroff (1992:963) found that organisations with more satisfied employees tended to be more effective than organisations with less satisfied employees.

3.5.2 Absenteeism

Findings from previous research seem to indicate a consistent negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism with a mostly moderate correlation (Bryman & Cramer, 1999:166; Josias, 2005:2; Martin & Miller, 1986:33; Sagie, 1998:156). It certainly does make sense that dissatisfied employees are more likely to miss work, but other factors have an impact on the relationship and reduce the correlation coefficient. For example, organisations that offer liberal sick leave benefits encourage all their employees, including those who are highly satisfied to take days off (Robbins, 1996:194).

Saiyadain (2003:27) reasons that a minor problem such as car trouble, a slight drizzle or a cold could be a sufficient reason for a dissatisfied worker to miss work, not a satisfied one. Hence dissatisfied workers are more likely to be absent from work. Hall (2005:235) offers an alternative explanation for this relationship; she suggests that as work becomes less desirable, an employee may reduce the number of actual hours worked by being absent, so as to match them with the perceived deteriorated value of the job.

Some research findings, however, indicate no relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism (Ehlers, 2003:1; Matrunola, 1996:827; McClenny, 1992:46).

3.5.3 Labour Turnover

Preceding studies seem to indicate a negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover, with the correlation being stronger than that for absenteeism (Martin & Roodt, 2008:23; Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2007:895; Vidal, Valle & Aragon, 2007:1272). In other words, employees who are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to leave the organisation than those who are dissatisfied. Wunderlich, Sloan and Davis (1996:386) agree that turnover is generally affected by a variety of factors that ultimately lead to low job satisfaction, such as low compensation and poor working conditions. Hogg and Terry (2002:142) warn though that leaving a job does not guarantee that unsatisfactory conditions will improve, as one may risk exchanging one set of dissatisfying aspects with a different set in another organisation.

The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is not without its moderators. Carsten and Spector (1987:374) found that as unemployment rates increased, the job satisfaction-turnover relation decreased. This implies that people tend to stay in their jobs despite being dissatisfied as alternative job opportunities will be limited. The level of satisfaction is also less important in predicting turnover if one is a superior performer. This is because the

organisation will make considerable efforts to keep superior performers by giving them pay rises, recognition and more promotional opportunities (Robbins, 1996:196).

3.5.4 Organisational Commitment

Robbins (1996:181) defines organisational commitment as 'a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation. Studies investigating the causal link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment have yielded inconsistent results. Some researchers have found a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Feinstein, 2002:2; Guleryuz, Guney, Aydin & Asan, 2008:1625). While others have argued that organisational commitment causes job satisfaction (Koslowsky, 1991:405; Wiener & Vardi, 1980:81).

In summary, research that has tested the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has yielded conflicting views about the direction of causal flow. Nevertheless, understanding the job satisfaction-organisational commitment relationship could be valuable as commitment seems to be associated with positive consequences in the organisation. Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993:538) reported that commitment is positively related to employee performance and leads to lower absenteeism and turnover rates.

3.5.5 Life Satisfaction

Past research findings have shown a moderate positive correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, though the correlation is not perfect (Dolan & Gosselin, 2000:1; Rode, 2004:1205). Life satisfaction refers to an individual's well-being and happiness (Josias, 2005:77). This suggests that job experiences 'spill over' and affect life satisfaction and/or vice versa, for example, problems at home can affect satisfaction at work and problems at work can affect satisfaction at home (Anderson & Sinangil, 2001:45). The imperfect correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction could be attributed to two hypotheses, namely segmentation and compensation (Josias, 2005:77). In terms of the segmentation hypothesis, individuals differentiate their lives so that satisfaction in one area of life has minimal influence on satisfaction in another area. The compensation hypothesis states that people will compensate for a dissatisfying job by searching for fulfilment outside work and vice versa (Spector, 1997:28).

A team of economists at the University of Aberdeen conducted a three year and six month study on the link between job satisfaction and the quality of life in Denmark, France, Greece, the Netherlands, Spain and the UK. Results showed that job satisfaction is the most critical factor for life satisfaction and well-being (Yelamanchili, 2006:1). Due to work being a very important part of most employees' lives, the satisfaction derived from one's job will most likely impact greatly on how happy he/she is generally.

3.6 MEASURING JOB SATISFACTION

3.6.1 Overview

Interviews or questionnaires can be used to assess job satisfaction in the workplace. It is possible to get more extensive information in an interview as respondents can elaborate on the issues under discussion, but since interviews are time consuming and expensive, a large number of research is done with the use of questionnaires. Questionnaires can be used to survey a large number of people with little effort or expense and it is easy to quantify and standardise questionnaire responses (Spector, 1997:5). Questionnaire measures of job satisfaction are of two kinds; namely single global rating (general) and summation score (specific). The single global rating attempts to ascertain overall satisfaction with the job, by asking a single question such as, "All things considered, how satisfied are you with your job?" Respondents then reply by circling a number between 1 and 5 that corresponds with answers from 'Highly Satisfied' to 'Highly Dissatisfied' (Robbins, 1996:190).

The summation score assesses satisfaction with different features of the job, such that one is able to ascertain precise measures of different things such as satisfaction with pay, supervisory style, promotion opportunities, working conditions and so on (Furnham, 1997:305). It is a more refined technique because it identifies key elements in the job and invites employees to express their feelings in numerical form about each element, using the same method as

discussed above on the single global rating. The individual scores are then added up to create an overall job satisfaction score (McKenna, 2000:278).

3.6.2 Instruments Measuring Job Satisfaction

There are various existing scales that have been developed to measure job satisfaction and in many studies, several have established reliability and validity. Some of the advantages of using existing job satisfaction scales are: most of them cover the major aspects of satisfaction, many have been shown to exhibit acceptable levels of reliability and their use in research provides good evidence for construct validity (Spector, 1997:6). On the other hand, their main disadvantage is that they will be limited to only those parts that the developers chose to put in their instrument, hence they will not include specific areas of satisfaction or dissatisfaction that are relevant to certain types of organisations (Mckenna, 2000:279).

The following discussion will only describe six of the existing scales for assessing job satisfaction among employees, namely; the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Job Satisfaction Index and the Job Perception Scale.

3.6.2.1 The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The Job Satisfaction Survey is a 36 item questionnaire that uses a summated rating scale format. It assesses nine facets of job satisfaction as well as overall

satisfaction. Each of the nine facet subscales contain four items, and a total satisfaction score can be computed by combining all of the items (Spector, 1997:9). The nine facets are Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards (performance based rewards), Operating Procedures, Co-workers, Nature of work and Communication (Doran & Almost, 2003:308). Each of the 36 items is a statement that is either favourable or unfavourable about an aspect of the job. The first item, for example, concerns pay and the second promotion opportunities. Respondents are asked to circle one of six numbers that reflects their agreement or disagreement with each item (Likert type response scale) Spector (1997:8).



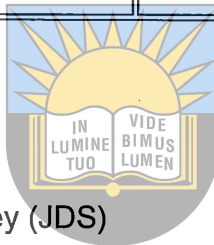
3.6.2.2 The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire produced by Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist (1967) is a scale that has been very popular among researchers. It comes in two forms, a 100-item long version and a 20-item short form. The MSQ measures 20 different dimensions, with five questions on each dimension in the long form, whereas the short form only contains one question on each dimension (Evans, 2002:1). The 20 dimensions measured by the MSQ are more specific than those of the Job satisfaction survey, making it highly valid and reliable (Spector, 1997:15). Evans (2002:1) states that the value of the MSQ is that it accurately measures job satisfaction, is applicable to employees, supervisors, managers and can be used in any organisation. Table 3 contains a list of the 20 facets from the MSQ.

Table 3: Facets from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Ability Utilisation	Co-workers	Moral Values
Achievement	Creativity	Recognition
Activity	Independence	Responsibility
Advancement	Security	Supervision—Human Relations
Authority	Social Service	Supervision--Technical
Company Policies	Social Status	Variety
Compensation		Working Conditions

Source: Adapted from Furnham (1997:306).



3.6.2.3 The Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)

The Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) was developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975:159) in conjunction with the theory of job characteristics and continues to be the most widely used measure of the nature of jobs. It is intended to diagnose existing jobs and has subscales to assess the nature of the job, job tasks, autonomy, motivation, personality, psychological states and reactions to the job; one of which is satisfaction (Bearden & Netemeyer, 1999:416). The JDS covers several areas of job satisfaction, specifically growth, pay, security, social, and supervision, as well as global satisfaction. The individual subscales contain two to five items each and the format for the facet items is a 7-point scale ranging from “Extremely dissatisfied” to ‘Extremely satisfied.’ The format for the global satisfaction subscale is a seven point ranging from “Disagree strongly” to “Agree strongly” (Spector, 1997:17).

3.6.2.4 The Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

The Job Descriptive Index was originally developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) cited in Fields (2002:23) and it assesses employee satisfaction with co-workers, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, and the work itself. Each of these is measured by a scale of 9 to 18 adjectives to which a person responds “yes,” “uncertain”, or “no” according to how descriptive the adjective is of his or her job. For instance, adjectives used to measure satisfaction with co-workers include boring, responsible and intelligent (Brief, 1998:13). Hulin, Brett and Drasgow (2002:36) are of the view that the JDI is the most carefully developed and validated measure of job satisfaction. They believe it continues to be the gold standard against which other measures are judged; it is the most widely used measure of job satisfaction.



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3.6.2.5 The Job Satisfaction Index

The Job Satisfaction Index was developed by Schriesheim and Tsui in 1980. It makes use of six items to form an index that describes overall job satisfaction and includes single questions to assess the degree of satisfaction with the work itself, supervision, co-workers, pay, promotion opportunities and the job in general (Fields, 2002:16).

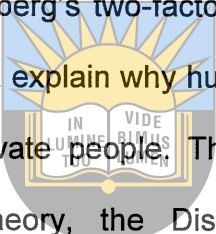
3.6.2.6 The Job Perception Scale

This scale was developed by Hatfield, Robinson and Huseman in 1985. It uses semantic differential responses to 21 items that describe aspects of a job. These include the work itself, pay, promotions, supervision and co-workers. The items in

the Job Perception Scale can be collapsed to form one summed measure of job satisfaction (Wehman, 1993:30).

3.7 Concluding remarks

Job satisfaction has been described simply as how people feel about their jobs or as the fulfilment or gratification that comes from one's work. Some theories of job satisfaction were reviewed in the literature; the Content Theories, namely Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two-factor theory, McClelland's theory of needs and the ERG theory which explain why human needs change over time and the specific factors that motivate people. The Job Characteristic Model, Equity theory, Value Percept theory, the Dispositional theory and their relationship with job satisfaction were also discussed.



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The chapter reviewed the factors influencing job satisfaction. These were divided into two groups; the intrinsic (individual or person) factors and the extrinsic (work) factors. Results from previous research indicate that, of the intrinsic factors, personality, person-job fit and biographic factors such as race, occupational level and tenure seem to influence job satisfaction while results were inconsistent for factors such as gender and age.

An analysis of the consequences of job satisfaction on organisational variables such as performance/productivity, organisational commitment, absenteeism, labour turnover and life satisfaction was carried out in terms of the literature.

Authors seem to agree that job satisfaction does not necessarily result in performance or productivity as external factors such as personality, job level and machine paced jobs could moderate the relationship. Of the numerous existing instruments measuring job satisfaction, six were described, namely the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), the Job Satisfaction Index, and the Job Perception Scale. These scales have exhibited acceptable levels of reliability and their use in research provides good evidence for construct validity.



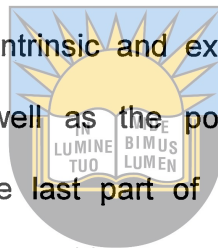
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CHAPTER 4

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

4.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter presented an in-depth discussion on the concept of employee job satisfaction and its potential impact in the organisation. The concept was defined and various theories of job satisfaction such as Maslow's needs hierarchy were reviewed. Intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing job satisfaction were identified, as well as the possible consequences of job satisfaction in the workplace. The last part of the chapter consisted of an overview of selected existing scales used in the assessment of job satisfaction.

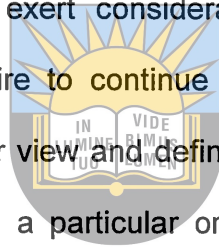


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This chapter will focus on organisational commitment and how it is linked to various outcomes in the organisation. Beukhof, de Jong and Nijhof (1998:243) are of the view that the success of an organisation and the pursuit of quality depend not only on how the organisation makes the most of its human resources, but also on how it stimulates employee commitment to the organisation. This implies that gaining the commitment of employees can have positive effects on the organisation. Therefore, this chapter defines the concept of organisational commitment, especially as a multidimensional construct. The causes of organisational commitment will be discussed, as well as the possible influence that commitment has in the work place.

4.2 Defining the concept of Organisational Commitment

Various authors have interpreted the meaning of organisational commitment differently, depending on their backgrounds. Organisational commitment is generally believed to represent an individual and psychological bond between an employee and an organisation, including both loyalty and identification with an organisation (Rabin, 2003:867). Steers and Porter (1991:290) add that the following factors should be included; a) a strong belief in the organisation's goals and values, b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and c) a strong desire to continue as an organisation member. Robbins (1996:181) holds a similar view and defines commitment as "a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation".



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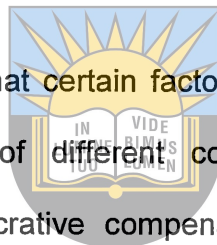
Formulating a clear definition of organisational commitment is difficult because empirical literature suggests that there are various definitions and measurements of organisational commitment. Rabin (2003:868) explains that this discrepancy could be due to the fact that researchers from different disciplines (e.g., psychology, economics, and sociology) have ascribed their own meanings to the term organisational commitment. These diverse differences could also be attributed to controversies over the nature of organisational commitment. From the organisational commitment literature come two different theoretical frameworks that are both complementary and distinct. One approach views

commitment as an attitude, while the other focuses on behaviour (Rowley & Fitzgerald, 2000:74).

Attitudinal commitment can be described as a mindset in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997:9). It focuses on an employee's willingness to exert an effort for the organisation and a strong desire to be part of the organisation (Julian, 2005:103). On the other hand, behavioural commitment posits that employees are committed to a specific course of action, such as maintaining employment in the organisation, hence making the individual committed through behaviour (Rabin, 2003:868). This behaviour of continuing the relationship with the organisation and compliance with its rules is usually in response to cost-benefit analyses (Coleman, 1990:24). In other words, the employee maintains membership with an organisation because investments such as the time spent in the organisation, friendships formed within the organisation and pension benefits tie the employee to the organisation. Hence the employee is committed to the organisation because of the perceived sunk costs that are too costly to lose (Bratton & Gold, 2001:358).

Allen and Meyer (1990:8) view organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct with three types of commitment; affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Affective commitment is an emotional attachment to the organisation, such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in the organisation

(Beugre, 1998:82). Continuance commitment is related to the costs and benefits associated with staying or leaving an organisation. An employee may maintain membership in the organisation due to the fear of the consequences of leaving, for example, a loss in income (Kroth, 2007:41). Finally, normative commitment reflects the view that an employee has a duty or an obligation to stay with the organisation. It develops from cultural and organisational socialisation, making the employees feel that they ought to stay in the organisation (Magyar, Knapp, Magyar, Zupancic & Wojtkowski, 2007:316).



Angle and Perry (1981:1) argue that certain factors within the organisation will contribute to the development of different components of organisational commitment. Factors such as lucrative compensation practices may induce continuance commitment as the employee might be reluctant to lose benefits, while training practices might induce normative commitment as the employee may feel he/she is obliged to stay in the organisation (Nyengane, 2007:42). This study will focus on organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct, adopting the interpretation by Allen and Meyer (1990:12), whereby commitment comprises of affective, continuance and normative commitment.

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4.2.1 Affective Commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1997:11), affective commitment refers to the employee's attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation, whereby employees with a strong affective commitment continue

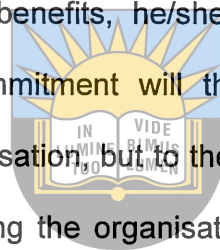
employment with the organisation because they want to do so. It can be described as the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, happiness and pleasure (Beugre, 1998: 83). The nature of affective commitment implies that it is dependent on interactions with the organisation one is a member of, thus the more gratifying these interactions are, the stronger the affective commitment (Goodwin & Jasper, 2003:116). This is supported by findings from a study by Boehman (2006:1) which indicated that organisational support and job satisfaction are antecedent to affective commitment.



Kroth (2007:41) reasons that affective commitment is the most positive form of commitment because employees who possess it will exert more effort in the organisation out of their genuine willingness than if they felt obligated to. Somers (2009:75), in a study of 288 hospital nurses found that positive work outcomes such as low turnover intentions and low levels of stress are associated with affective commitment. Similarly, Riley (2006:1) concluded from his study that managers need to foster affective commitment within their organisations so as to reduce turnover intentions. From the foregoing discussion, affective commitment seems to be the most desirable form of commitment and the one that organisations are most likely to instil in their employees.

4.2.2 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment, in an organisational setting, can be defined as the extent to which employees feel committed to their organisations by virtue of the costs that they feel are associated with leaving (Meyer & Allen, 1984:372). It is also referred to as 'calculative' commitment because it involves the assessment of the costs and benefits of leaving the organisation versus staying (Bass & Riggio, 2006:38). An employee weighs the costs against the benefits of leaving, and if they are superior to the benefits, he/she is likely to stay within the organisation. The expressed commitment will therefore not be due to any emotional attachment to the organisation, but to the result of a sound calculation of the costs associated with leaving the organisation or the benefits of staying (Beugre, 1998:83).



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McGee and Ford (1987:638) carried out a factor analysis and found that the continuance commitment scale is actually a two-dimensional construct, consisting of 'personal sacrifices' and 'low alternatives'. The first dimension represents the personal sacrifices (costs) that would result from leaving the organisation and the second represents the role of available employment alternatives in the decision to maintain membership in one's organisation. Chelladurai (2006:288) is of the view that employees who continue in an organisation due to the strong costs associated with leaving, are less likely to make positive contributions to the organisation. Evidence from past research suggests that employees with continuance commitment might be poorer

performers, engage in fewer citizenship behaviours and exhibit more dysfunctional behaviours (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnysky, 2002:20). This is probably due to their lack of emotional attachment to the organisation, as maintaining membership in the organisation for them is due to the perceived loss of benefits if they leave, or the unavailability of alternative employment elsewhere.

4.2.3 Normative commitment

Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment, such that employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997:11). This form of commitment differs from affective commitment because it reflects a sense of duty or obligation to work in the organisation (psychological attachment), but not necessarily emotional attachment. It also differs from continuance commitment because it does not necessarily fluctuate with personal calculation of benefits or sunk costs (Chelladurai, 2006:287).

So how exactly does this feeling of obligation come about? Randall and Cote (1991:194) suggest that this is a moral obligation that arises when the organisation has invested in its employees. They argue that when employees start to feel that the organisation has spent much time or money developing and training them, such employees may feel an obligation to stay with the organisation. For example, employees whose organisation paid for their tuition

while they were furthering their qualifications might believe that they can repay the organisation by continuing to work for it. Kroth (2007:42) reasons that employees may also feel obligated due to a sense of responsibility. For example, a highly qualified engineer may remain in the organisation because he/she knows that everyone is counting on him/her and that there is no one else who is able to do the job.

Jex (2002:136) on the other hand is of the view that the most powerful determinant of normative commitment is simply the manner in which an organisation treats its employees. A psychological contract exists when an employee enters an organisation and it represents an employee's perceptions of what he/she feels is reasonable treatment as a member of the organisation, for example, fair remuneration or cooperative supervision. Normative commitment will therefore be high when an employee perceives that the organisation is honouring its end of the psychological contract.

Meyer and Allen (1997:15) suggest that affective, normative and continuance commitment are not mutually exclusive and that all three components may influence an individual's decision to continue membership in the organisation. For example, an employee may continue to work for an organisation because the organisational environment is acceptable (i.e. affective commitment), the cost of leaving the organisation is prohibitive (i.e. continuance commitment) and he/she feels obligated to continue working for the organisation (i.e. normative commitment, Chelladurai, (2006:288). To get a better understanding of the

different aspects of organisational commitment, the following section will focus on the factors that influence the development of organisational commitment.

4.3 The Development of Organisational Commitment

The preceding discussion suggests that instilling organisational commitment within employees could probably result in positive work outcomes such as lower turnover intentions and lower absenteeism rates. Thus several empirical studies have attempted to identify the determinants of organisational commitment, in the hope that organisations will focus on these specific factors, which will then lead to desirable levels of commitment within their employees. Rabin (2003:869) is of the view that the common theme underlying the development of organisational commitment is the notion of exchange between employees and their organisations. The argument is that if the organisation satisfies the needs and desires that employees enter the organisation with, it may have more committed employees. The following is a discussion of the factors that influence the development of affective, continuance and normative commitment.

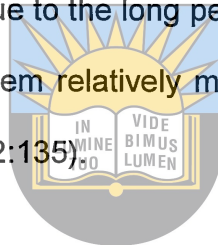
4.3.1 Factors influencing the development of affective commitment

Meyer and Allen (1997:41) suggest that the factors influencing affective commitment can all be classified according to three categories which are: personal characteristics, organisational characteristics and work experiences.

4.3.1.1 Personal characteristics

a) Employee age

Evidence from past research seems to indicate a positive relationship between employee age and affective commitment (Hawkins, 1998:1; Meyer & Allen, 1984:372; Yew, 2008:85). A possible explanation for this could be that older workers experience limited job alternatives and greater sunk costs, thus making them continue in the organisation (Rabin, 2003:869). Older workers could also have more affective commitment due to the long period of socialisation they have had in the organisation, making them relatively more emotionally attached to it than younger employees (Jex, 2002:135).



On the other hand, findings from other studies report that there is no correlation between age and affective commitment (Cohen, 1993:1; Yoshimura, 2003:1; Badini, 2005:49). The period an employee has spent in the organisation (tenure) could probably be a better predictor of affective commitment than age alone, because an elderly employee may join an organisation, but is not emotionally attached to it because he/she has not spent much time in it. There seems to be an inconsistent relationship between employee age and affective commitment, but findings suggest a low to moderate correlation.

b) Tenure

Rabin (2003:869) is of the opinion that employees may become strongly attached to their organisations as tenure increases. He reasons that over time, those

employees who do not have a strong commitment to the organisation will leave, and those with strong commitment remain for longer in the organisation. This view is supported by findings from a survey of work-related opinions of 479 Australian police officers which indicated a significant correlation between tenure and affective commitment (Beck & Wilson, 2000:114).

Similarly, findings from a survey of 468 missionaries showed that tenure in the organisation was a stronger predictor of organisational commitment than age (Trimble, 2006:1). This could imply that organisations should give greater attention to increasing tenure of employees than to age if they desire to have committed employees. On the contrary Taylor, Audia and Gupta (1996:632) conducted a study to investigate the effect of lengthening job tenure on managers' organisational commitment and turnover. Results showed that lengthening job tenure decreased managers' affective commitment and increased the likelihood of turnover. This could be due to managers tending to view lengthening job tenure as a violation of the employment contract held with their corporate employers.

Findings from other studies reported an insignificant relationship between tenure and affective commitment (Cohen, 1993:1; Karim & Nizam, 2007:1). This inconsistency could be due to moderating factors such as the nature of the organisation or the type of work done. Overall, tenure seems to have a weak but positive relationship to affective commitment. Jex (2002:135) explains that the longer the tenure, the more competent employees become in their fields, the

more participative decision making they will do and the more autonomy they will have in the work place, all resulting in high affective commitment because they perform their jobs well and have more responsibility in the organisation.

c) Gender

Previous studies of the relationship between gender and affective commitment have yielded contradictory and inconclusive results. For example, Hawkins (1998:36), in a study of predictors of affective commitment among high school principals found no relationship between gender and commitment. A study of government IT employees by Reid, Allen, Riemenschneider and Armstrong (2008:60) also revealed no gender differences in affective commitment.

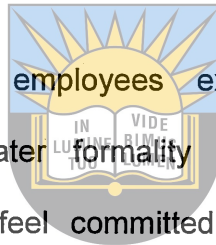


On the other hand, Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982:231) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990:171) suggest that women have higher levels of affective commitment to the organisation than do men. Rabin (2003:869) agrees and explains that this could be because women have to overcome more barriers to attain their organisational positions than men do. Although the preceding discussion is not exhaustive on the subject of the relationship between gender and organisational commitment, it seems as if gender makes little or no difference to commitment levels.

4.3.1.2 Organisational characteristics

Some researchers have focused on investigating the influence of organisational characteristics (e.g., organisational size, decentralisation, organisation culture,

organisation structure and human resource systems) on organisational commitment. Tseng (2003:1) found that developing the structure of the organisation so as to foster a learning environment for its employees to perform at their optimum will result in greater commitment among its workers. Yoon (2003:1) also found that employees' perceived organisational support positively influences their commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991:61) reason that employees who perceive a high level of support from the organisation are more likely to feel an obligation to repay the organisation in terms of affective commitment.



Researchers have found that employees experiencing decentralisation, functional dependence and greater formality of written rules within the organisation are more likely to feel committed to their organisations than employees experiencing these factors to a lesser extent (Rabin, 2003:869; Acorn, Ratner & Crawford, 1997:52; Morris & Steers, 1979:1). Decentralisation in the organisation will lead to employees becoming more involved in decision making, hence their commitment is likely to increase because they play a more participative role in the day to day running of the organisation (Bozeman, Young & Meurs, 2007:1). This suggests that managers could possibly structure their organisations so as to influence commitment positively.

4.3.1.3 Work experiences

Work experiences encompass aspects such as job scope, role ambiguity, fairness and leadership styles. Chen (2007:1), in a study of financial institutions in China found that transformational leadership has a significant positive

correlation with affective commitment. This could be because transformational leaders have the ability to change the way their subordinates think about their jobs through inspiration and intellectual stimulation, thus instilling emotional attachment to the organisation (affective commitment) among them (Ashkanasy, Hartel & Zerbe, 2000:231). Research also shows that the employee's relationship with his/her supervisor positively influences the psychological commitment to the organisation (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987:445; Katz & Kahn, 1978:20). Especially when the employees perceive that the supervisor is concerned about their welfare and is willing to listen and accept their suggestions (Warr, 2007:128).

In an Australian study, Scott-Ladd (2001:1) also found that employee participation in decision-making within the organisation is positively related to affective commitment.



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Mathieu and Zajac (1990:171) conducted a meta-analytic study and results indicated that affective commitment is positively related to the following three variables; job challenge, degree of autonomy and the variety of skills used. Botha (2007:1) found that employees who are not sure about their roles in the organisation (role ambiguity) and those who feel their roles are incompatible (role conflict) have low levels of commitment. Role overload has also been found to be inversely related to affective commitment (Rabin, 2003:869). Human resource initiatives could therefore be developed to identify the support needs that employees may have in terms of factors related to their work. If assistance is given to those employees experiencing strain, they could possibly develop higher levels of affective commitment.

4.3.2 Factors influencing the development of continuance commitment.

Continuance commitment reflects the recognition of costs associated with leaving the organisation, such that an employee will weigh the costs against the benefits of leaving, and if they are superior to the benefits, he/she is likely to stay within the organisation (Cohen, 2003:69). Meyer and Allen (1997:56) identify two factors that could possibly influence the development of continuance commitment, namely investments and perceived availability of alternatives.

4.3.2.1 Investments

The investments or side bets that an employee makes in an organisation, include time, job effort and the development of work friendships, organisation-specific skills and political deals that would result in considerable potential loss should the individual decide to leave the organisation (Griffeth & Hom, 2004:164). Side bets occur when an employee invests in training, pension plans or projects that he/she believes will pay off in the future through promotion or increased benefits, therefore deciding to remain in the organisation (Chelladurai, 2006:287).

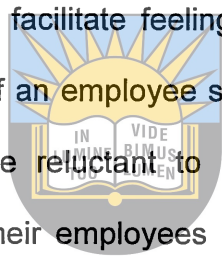
As outlined in the paragraph above, investments that an employee makes can be either related to the work itself or to social factors. Work related investments include the accrual of seniority, which means that an employee may be entitled to special benefits or privileges that would be forfeited should he/she decide to leave the organisation and work for another employer (Jex, 2002:135). Investment in time and job effort increases with age and tenure, hence they are



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considered good indicators of side bets, for example older, veteran employees hesitate to leave the organisation so as not to lose pension plans or other accumulated retirement benefits that are payable to them (Cohen, 2003:69). Other work related investments also include organisation-specific skills that prevent an employee seeking employment elsewhere as he/she cannot fully apply them except in that specific organisation (Kiefer, 2008:40).

Social investments such as the development of relationships with co-workers can lead to the creation of bonds that facilitate feelings of belonging and comfort. These feelings would be forfeited if an employee switched to another employer, and this may make the employee reluctant to leave the organisation (Jex, 2002:135). If organisations offer their employees specialised training, lucrative benefits and competitive work conditions, they will probably retain their employees as they may feel it is too costly to leave.



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4.3.2.2 Perceived availability of alternatives

Employees may feel attached to the organisation because of the lack of viable job alternatives elsewhere, for instance, in a time of recession when the unemployment rate is high (Warner, 2005:38). In a study of first year employees, Meyer, Bobocel and Allen (1991:1) found that continuance commitment strongly correlates with perceived low employment alternatives. Jex (2002:135) emphasises that it really does not matter whether actual alternatives exist; the important thing is an employee's perceptions. Economic aspects such as the unemployment rate may influence perceptions, and other factors such as the

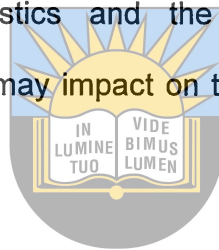
employee's perception of his/her overall competence, level of training and mobility will all enter into the perception of alternatives. Thus continuance commitment will be higher among employees who perceive few alternatives to the present employer (Turner, 2001:79).

There are variables besides investments and employment alternatives that may influence continuance commitment. For instance, having more children could be a reason for an employee to remain in the organisation for the sake of maintaining job security to support the growing family (Sparrow & Cooper, 2003:228). Age and tenure have been found to be associated with continuance commitment, though results from studies appear to be mixed. For some employees, the perceived cost of leaving the organisation will increase as they grow older, consequently increasing their organisational tenure. Other employees however, may find the costs of leaving the organisation insignificant as their experience and skills have increased, making them more marketable for alternative employment (Meyer & Allen, 1997:59).

From the preceding discussion, it appears that investments (side bets) and perceived availability of alternatives seem to be the major antecedents of continuance commitment, with demographic factors such as age and tenure showing modest relations with continuance commitment.

4.3.3 Factors influencing the development of normative commitment

Compared to affective and continuance commitment, it seems that much less is known about the development of normative commitment. Normative commitment develops as the result of the internalisation of normative pressures to pursue a course of action, and the receipt of benefits (both monetary and non monetary) that create a sense of obligation to reciprocate by continuing membership in the organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2008:63). Meyer and Allen (1997:60) believe that personal characteristics and the nature of an employee's transactions with the organisation may impact on the development of normative commitment.



At a personal level, Jex (2002:136) is of the view that individuals may differ in terms of whether their early socialisation emphasised the development of strong loyalty and a sense of moral obligation to the employer. If it did, they will probably exhibit high levels of normative commitment. Similarly, Meyer and Allen (1997:62) assume that internalisation is the process involved in the development of normative commitment during the early days of joining an organisation. They suggest that through a complicated process involving both conditioning and modelling of others, individuals may develop normative commitment. Jackson, Goffin and Helmes (2000:298) suggest that some organisations attempt to instil, during the initial socialisation process, a strong sense of moral obligation to the organisation in the employees.

According to Jex (2002:136), the most powerful determinant of normative commitment is ultimately the manner in which an organisation treats its employees. Similarly, Kyriakidou and Ozbilgin (2006:154) suggest that employees develop normative attachment to the organisation when they realise that the organisation's goals are congruent with their personal values, affirming the view that the organisation influences the development of normative commitment. Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2008:64) suggest that benefits received from the organisation by employees, such as training or a bursary for one's tuition, may create a sense of obligation to 'return the favour' by continuing membership with the organisation.



4.4 The Effect of Organisational Commitment

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Researchers have studied the consequences of organisational commitment in the workplace, especially how it affects factors such as performance, turnover and absenteeism. The different effects of organisational commitment on these organisational variables are explored below.

4.4.1 Job Performance

Results from research on the impact of organisational commitment and job performance seem to be inconclusive. In a study of guest workers in an Arab country, Shaw, Delery and Abdulla (2003:1021) found organisational commitment to be a significant predictor of overall performance. Other research

has also found a positive relationship between commitment and performance (Chang, 2006:1; Steyrer, Schiffinger & Lang, 2008:364). In similar studies, Cichy, Cha and Kim (2009:53) and Narimawati (2007:553) investigated the relationship between the multidimensional constructs of organisational commitment and performance. Results indicate that affective commitment has the strongest positive effect on performance, while continuance commitment is negatively related to performance. There is a low positive association between normative commitment and performance.



On the other hand, Mathieu and Zajac (1990:171) and Shore and Martin (1989:625) found no relationship between commitment and job performance. In fact, Hartline and Ferrell (1996:52) actually established a negative relationship. Chelladurai (2006:293) is of the view that these inconsistent results are due to several factors such as organisational policies, ability of the employee, quality of supervision, the resources made available to the employee and the degree to which performance of the task is dependent on other people. These factors moderate the commitment-performance relationship, thus producing varying results. Meanwhile, Benkhoff (1997:114) argues that the inconsistent results of the commitment-performance relationship are due to the use of incorrect instruments to measure organisational commitment. She suggests that commitment should be measured for specific categories in the work place, and then linked to job performance (Benkhoff, 1997:701). This is supported by research findings indicating that commitment to supervisors is positively related to performance and is strongly associated with performance than is commitment

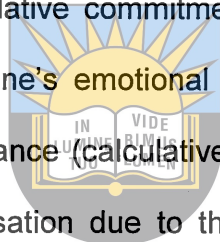
to organisations (Becker, Randall & Reigel, 1995:616; Benkhoff, 1997:701). Furthermore, commitment based on internalisation of supervisory and organisational values is related to performance (Becker et al., 1995:618).

4.4.2 Turnover and Absenteeism

Compared to the commitment-performance relationship discussed above, the relationships of organisational commitment with intention to leave, actual turnover and absenteeism seem to be stronger. This is a critical finding because turnover and absenteeism can be costly to an organisation in terms of recruiting and training new employees, and the loss in production due to employees missing work (Chelladurai, 2006:294). In a study of turnover among correctional workers, Camp (1993:279) found that organisational commitment has an inverse relationship with turnover. That is, higher levels of organisational commitment are associated with lower levels of turnover. The argument is that an employee who feels attached to the organisation is less likely to quit and seek employment elsewhere. Other researchers also found a strong negative correlation between organisational commitment and turnover and absenteeism (Lambert & Hogan, 2009:96; Wagner, 2007:235; Chang, Chou & Cheng, 2007:801).

Meyer and Allen (1997:45) caution against treating organisational commitment as a unilateral concept, and suggest that different components of organisational commitment may have varying effects on employee turnover and absenteeism. This is supported by Somers (2006:49), who used a three component model to

study turnover intentions, turnover and absenteeism. Affective commitment emerged as the most consistent predictor of these outcomes and was the only component of commitment with a strong negative relationship with turnover intentions, turnover and absenteeism. Normative commitment was inversely related with turnover intentions only, while no effects of continuance commitment were observed. Similarly, Mathieu and Zajac (1990:172) found that turnover was more strongly associated with attitudinal commitment than with calculative commitment. Affective and continuance commitment correspond with the constructs of attitudinal and calculative commitment. This is because affective (attitudinal) commitment reflects one's emotional attachment and identification with the organisation, and continuance (calculative) commitment represents the tendency to remain in the organisation due to the perceived costs of leaving (Hogg & Terry, 2002:133).



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The strong association that affective (attitudinal) commitment has with turnover and absenteeism is probably because employees with an emotional attachment to the organisation are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours or to miss work. Normative commitment is strongly linked to turnover intentions because employees who feel that they have a moral obligation to remain in the organisation will have no intention to leave (Meyer & Allen, 1997:26). This implies that management should be cautious about the type of commitment they instil in their employees. It would seem that affective (attitudinal) commitment should be preferred as it is strongly linked to lower turnover and absenteeism rates.

4.5 Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

Organisational commitment and job satisfaction seem to be related with connected distinguishable attitudes and behaviours. Mowday et al. (1982:28) distinguished commitment from satisfaction in stating that commitment is a global affective response to the whole organisation and that job satisfaction is an immediate and limited reaction to job experiences. These experiences include aspects of one's job such as supervision, pay and promotion. Rabin (2003:868) is of opinion that organisational commitment reflects a more stable attitude over time than job satisfaction, which reflects one's instant affective reactions to job facets and to day-to-day temporary events. In sum, organisational commitment is more evaluative and comprehensive than job satisfaction and it develops more slowly over time. Chelladurai (2006:295) reasons that this is because the exposure to processes and practices of the organisation towards achieving its goals takes time to affect the individual.

Another attribute contrasting organisational commitment and job satisfaction is the variability of the feelings. While commitment takes time to develop, it is also less variable in the sense that individuals do not easily change their liking for and allegiance to the organisation. In contrast, job satisfaction can change rapidly with any changes in the job attributes, such as an increase in job challenge or the limitation of one's autonomy (Chelladurai, 2006:295). Studies that have tested models dealing with the assumed causal link between satisfaction and organisational commitment have yielded inconsistent inferences. For example,

using data from a non-experimental study, Williams and Hazer (1986:219) tested several of these models and one provided evidence consistent with the view that job satisfaction causes organisational commitment. However the test of another yielded only slight support for the view that organisational commitment causes job satisfaction.

A few studies have tested competing causal models of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The models tested were that: (a) job satisfaction causes commitment; (b) organisational commitment causes job satisfaction; (c) job satisfaction and organisational commitment are reciprocally related; and (d) there is no causal relationship between these two variables. Vandenberg and Lance (1992:153) found evidence to support the assumption that commitment causes satisfaction. However, Currivan (1999:495) found nearly identical fits for all four of the above-mentioned models, suggesting that the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment may be specious. Huang and Hsiao (2007:1265) assessed the causal relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment by controlling the influence of personal traits and organisational attributes. Results indicated that there may be a reciprocal relationship between these two variables. Finally, Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller (1986:847) found no causal relation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Results from studies discussed above are inconsistent and hence it seems no conclusion can be made as to the impact job satisfaction has on organisational

commitment. It is however important that the causal relationship between these two variables be determined, for several reasons. Curry et al., (1986:847) argue that from a theoretical viewpoint, a causal relationship between the two variables (in either direction) would imply that studies which omit the relationship or the relevant variable have used inaccurate models, and their results are questionable. They also argue that from a practical viewpoint, knowledge of the actual causal ordering between commitment and satisfaction has implications for intervention strategies by managers in influencing commitment and employee turnover (Curry et al., 1986:847). This actually means that if the causal ordering between commitment and satisfaction is known, management will be able to induce satisfaction among their employees by implementing practices that encourage commitment or vice versa.



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4.6 Measuring Organisational Commitment

Measuring organisational commitment is perhaps more important for understanding employees' motivational state (Hubbard, 2004:202). As with most subjective attitudinal variables, organisational commitment is measured with self report scales. Organisational commitment instruments reflect the degree to which employees align with company goals, values, philosophy and practices. Organisational commitment measures often correlate with positive outcomes in the workplace such as lower turnover and absenteeism rates; thus, it is an important intangible measure (Phillips, Bothell & Snead, 2002:184). The following is an overview of two organisational commitment measurement instruments that

have been used extensively by researchers; namely the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979:228) and the Affective, Normative and Continuance Commitment scales (Meyer & Allen, 1990).

4.6.1 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Historically the first organisational commitment scale to gain widespread use was the Organisation Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) which was originally developed by Mowday et al. (1979:228). It consists of 15 items that reflect the three dimensions of their definition of commitment, which are; (a) a desire to maintain membership in the organisation, (b) belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation, and (c) willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation (Cohen, 2003:20). The OCQ primarily reflected what Meyer and Allen (1997:11) described as affective commitment, and to a lesser extent, normative commitment. Numerous studies have confirmed high internal consistency ratings and comparatively better predictive validity for this scale than for other organisational commitment scales (Larson, Lakin, Bruininks & Braddock, 1998:47). However, Jex (2002:136) argues that the major limitation of the OCQ is that it measures primarily the affective component of organisational commitment, and thus provides very little information on the continuance and normative components, which are very important as they are associated with different outcomes.

4.6.2 Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment Scales

The Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment scales were developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). This organisational commitment measure contains three subscales that correspond to the affective, normative and continuance components of commitment. Each of the original three scales comprised of 8 items and the distribution of responses would be made on the 7-point Likert scale, where 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree (Meyer & Allen, 1997:117). An example of an affective commitment item is: "This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me." An example of a normative commitment item is: "I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now." Finally, an example of a continuance commitment item is: "It would be too costly for me to leave my organisation in the near future."



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Due to the relatively recent development of this instrument compared to the OCQ, less evidence has accumulated to support its reliability and validity. However, all three scales have exhibited high levels of temporal stability (Fields, 2002: 51). In terms of construct validity, several studies have supported the three factor structure of the scale and there is also evidence that these forms of commitment are empirically distinguishable from related constructs such as job satisfaction, values and occupational commitment (Jex, 2002:137).

Other than the OCQ and the affective, normative and continuance scales, a handful of other organisational commitment measurement instruments have

emerged, but none has been used extensively. Jex (2002:137) suggests that in future it may be useful to measure commitment in terms of multiple bases and foci (as per the affective, normative and continuance scales), because different outcomes in the organisation may be associated with different combinations and foci of commitment.

4.7 Concluding Remarks

The concept of organisational commitment was defined and the differences in definitions were attributed to researchers from varying disciplines ascribing their own meanings to the term organisational commitment. The chapter focused on organisational commitment as a multidimensional concept according to the approach by Meyer and Allen (1997:11) and the three components of organisational commitment were analysed; namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. Affective commitment is the emotional attachment one has with the organisation, continuance commitment is more calculative and has to do with a cost-benefit analysis before deciding to remain in the organisation and normative commitment is a feeling of being morally obligated to maintain membership in the organisation. Literature revealed that various factors such as personal characteristics, work experiences, perceived employment alternatives, investments (side bets) and initial socialisation of employees are associated with the development of these different components of commitment.

Previous studies on the effect of organisational commitment on job performance, turnover and absenteeism seemed to indicate a stronger correlation between commitment and both turnover and absenteeism. A correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment was established, but findings from researchers on the direction of a causal link between the two variables were inconsistent. The last part of the chapter was an overview of instruments measuring organisational commitment; namely the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Affective, Continuance and Normative scales. These two scales have been extensively used by researchers and have demonstrated high validity.



This research will investigate the impact that an employee's locus of control has on the three components of organisational commitment (i.e. affective, continuance and normative commitment).

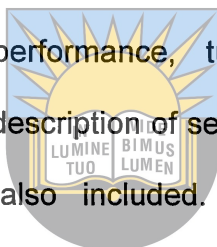
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CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the concept of organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct. It was defined and the factors contributing to its development were analysed. The consequences of the different forms of organisational commitment on performance, turnover, absence and job satisfaction were evaluated, and a description of selected instruments measuring organisational commitment was also included. Locus of control and job satisfaction were discussed in chapters two and three respectively.



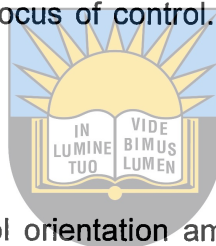
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This chapter aims to describe the research methodology that was used during the study, which includes the research design, research strategy employed and the sampling procedure adopted for the selection of candidates. A detailed discussion of the method used to collect data and the justification for using it is also included. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of the statistical techniques used to analyse data.

5.2 Objectives and Hypotheses of the Study

The overall goal of this study is to determine whether an individual's locus of control, either internal or external, is related with their level of job satisfaction and

organisational commitment. The hypotheses will be tested to see if there is any link between one's locus of control and his/her level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Results from past research have indicated that positive outcomes such as lower employee turnover and absenteeism are associated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Bryman & Cramer, 1999:166; Josias, 2005:2; Lambert & Hogan, 2009:96; Wagner, 2007:235). Hence establishing a link between these two variables and one's locus of control can assist organisations in predicting employee behaviour through assessing an individual's locus of control. The hypotheses of the study are therefore as follows:

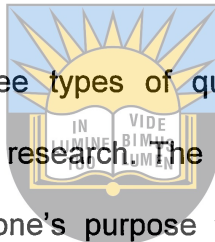


- The existing locus of control orientation among respondents is external, and their levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are low.
- There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control and his/her level of job satisfaction.
- There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control and his/her level of organisational commitment.

5.3 Research Design

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001:91), a research design is a plan that provides the overall structure for the procedures that the researcher follows, the data that the researcher intends to collect and the data analyses that the researcher conducts. Similarly, Adams and Schvaneveldt (1985:103) describe a

research design as a blue print or guide for data collection and interpretation – a set of rules that enable the investigator to conceptualise and observe the problem under study. Two basic approaches can be taken for conducting research, namely the quantitative and qualitative approach. The former involves the generation of data in a quantitative form that can be subjected to rigorous statistical analysis in a formal and rigid fashion, thus ensuring the reliability of the study (Kothari, 2005:5). This research is quantitative in nature as data collected is subjected to rigorous statistical analysis.



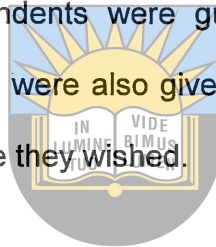
McNabb (2004:134) identifies three types of quantitative research designs: descriptive, causal and exploratory research. The decision to select a particular research design will depend on one's purpose for conducting the research. Descriptive studies are used when the researcher wants to describe situations and events that have taken place, while causal research aims to explain the causes of phenomena.

Exploratory research is conducted to investigate an issue or topic in order to develop insight and ideas about its underlying nature. Stebbins (2001:3) defines it as a broad-ranging, purposive, systematic, prearranged undertaking designed to maximise the discovery of generalisations leading to description and understanding of an area of social or psychological life. This definition aptly describes the current research as it seeks to further understand the relationship between an individual's locus of control and his/her level of job satisfaction and

organisational commitment. It also entails a systematic and prearranged format of literature review and data collection.

5.3.1 Ethical considerations

The issues of informed consent, privacy and confidentiality were addressed by the researcher before undertaking this study. Authorisation to carry out the research was sought and granted by the relevant representatives of the selected manufacturing companies. Respondents were guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity by the researcher. They were also given the option to withdraw from participating in the study at any time they wished.



5.4 Research Strategy **University of Fort Hare** *Together in Excellence*

Laurel (2003:135) describes a research strategy as a distinct pattern of action that helps you to direct your efforts so that you conduct your research in a structured fashion, rather than unsystematically. The survey research strategy was used in the present study. Survey methodology typically obtains information about a number of different variables in which the researcher is interested and identifies the relationship between those variables (Haslam & McGarty, 2003:54). The survey is an effective tool to gain information about people's feelings and opinions as well as determining cause-and-effect relationships. The results of a survey are often used to describe people's opinions, attitudes and preferences (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister and Zechmeister (2006:144). McNeill (1985:17)

contends that a survey is probably the ideal method of obtaining large amounts of data in a statistical form, from a large number of people in a relatively short time. The current study made use of the survey method to obtain information about employees' locus of control orientation and to assess their levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Surveys usually make use of interviews and questionnaires to obtain information from candidates. The main advantage of questionnaires over interviews is that more respondents can be questioned over a shorter length of time by answering questionnaires rather than by being interviewed (Coolican, 1999:149). This study made use of self administered questionnaires that were hand given to respondents to fill in.



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5.5 Population and Sampling Procedure

5.5.1 Target population

Black (1999:111) describes the population as any group that shares a set of common traits that the researcher seeks to make conclusions about. The population for the current study, comprised of all the employees, both managerial and non-managerial, permanently and temporarily employed at South African Breweries (SAB) and Johnson and Johnson in East London, South Africa.

5.5.2 Sampling frame

A sampling frame usually consists of a list of all members of the population, such that the elements of the sample will be the members of the population that are chosen from the sampling frame (Thomas & Hersen, 2003:72). In the present study, the sampling frame was constituted from the lists of all the managerial and non-managerial permanent employees at SAB and Johnson & Johnson.

5.5.3 Sampling



Foreman (1991:1) defines sampling as the selection of candidates to take part in a research project, usually with the aim of being able to use these candidates to make assumptions about a larger group of individuals. It entails making decisions about which individuals, settings or events to consider during the study. The individuals or items to be sampled for a particular research will be influenced by the unit of analysis, i.e. the objects that are the focus of the investigation (Kalton, 1999:82). For the current study, the units of analysis consisted of both managerial and non-managerial employees such as directors, factory workers, clerks and interns at selected manufacturing companies in the East London region of South Africa.

5.5.3.1 Sample

A sample is defined as a model of the population or a subset of the population that is used to gain information about the entire population (Bickman & Rog,

1997:102). The 'power' of samples to describe the larger population is based on the assumption that survey responses in a sample are applicable to the population from which the sample was drawn. The ability to generalise from a sample to the population depends critically on the representativeness of the sample (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister & Zechmeister, 2006: 148). Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005:155) argue that a sample should not only be selected so as to be representative of the population from which it was drawn, but it should be large enough so that the researcher can be reasonably certain that if a different sample had been drawn, using the same procedure, similar results would be concluded.

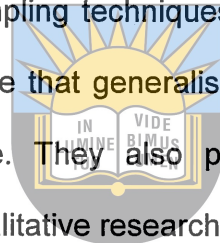


5.5.3.2 Sampling procedure

The sampling procedure basically refers to the technique that the researcher uses to select the cases to observe (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2007:133). There are basically two approaches that can be taken in sampling: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. With non-probability sampling, there is no guarantee that every element in the population has an equal chance of being selected for the sample. The most frequent type of non-probability sampling is convenience sampling, whereby the selection of respondents is primarily based on their availability or willingness to respond (Goodwin, 2002:125).

Other forms of non-probability sampling include purposive sampling and snowball sampling. In purposive sampling, the units to be observed are selected on the

basis of the researcher's judgment about which ones will be the most useful or representative (Babbie, 2009:193). Snowball sampling is ideal where the members of a special population are difficult to locate, such as homeless individuals or migrant workers. With this technique, the researcher collects data on the few members of the target population he/she can locate, and then asks those individuals to provide information needed to locate other members of that population whom they know (Schutt, 2006:157). Since the members in the population do not get an equal chance of being selected for the sample when making use of non-probability sampling techniques, Shaughnessy, Zechmeister and Zechmeister (2006: 151) argue that generalisations cannot be made about the population using the sample. They also point out that non-probability techniques are usually used by qualitative researchers.



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The present study made use probability sampling techniques. In probability sampling, each element in the sampling frame has an equal chance of being selected for the sample. Probability sampling was used because it ensures that the elements selected for the sample accurately resemble the parameters of the population they were selected from (Stangor, 2007:107). This means that the sample will have similar characteristics as the population from which it was selected, thus allowing for generalisations to be made about the population (Babbie, 2009:198).

Stratified random sampling was used for the present study. A stratified random sample is obtained by separating the population elements into groups, or strata,

such that each element belongs to a single stratum (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2002:279). Bernstein (1999:62) advises that this method is ideal when the population consists of several distinct, mutually exclusive groups called strata caused by factors such as age, gender or race. In this study, stratified sampling was used to group respondents according to their level in the organisation, i.e. managerial and non-managerial employees according to their relevant departments. The departments included accounting, marketing, sales, operations (factory workers, plant supervisors etc) and human resources. The respondents were then selected randomly from each stratum, i.e. each department mentioned. Table 4 below indicates the sample sizes and the actual response rate from each of the two manufacturing companies.



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Table 4: Samples and response rates

Company	Johnson & Johnson	SAB	Total
Sample	90	60	150
Responses	63	38	101

As indicated in table 4 above, a total of 150 questionnaires were distributed to respondents and 101 of them were returned, resulting in a total response rate of 67.3%. The table below shows the actual distribution of responses between managers and subordinates from the four manufacturing companies.

Table 5: Distribution of responses between managers and subordinates

Company	Johnson & Johnson	SAB	Total
Managers	29	11	40
Subordinates	34	27	61
Total	63	38	101

Table 5 shows that of the total 101 responses, 40 were managers and the remaining 61 were subordinates.



5.6 Data Collection

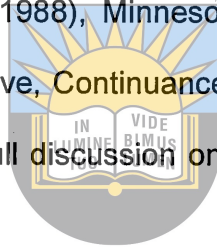
The current study made use of self-administered questionnaires to collect information from the selected respondents. Self-administered questionnaires require a great deal of preparation and monitoring to get a reasonable response rate, and they are distributed directly to respondents for completion (Fink, 2005:36). A pilot study was initially undertaken, so as to iron out any ambiguities in the questionnaire. This was done by distributing 15 questionnaires randomly to staff at the University of Fort Hare and at MSC College Alice. As the respondents were filling in the questionnaires, they would identify any questions that needed clarification. This assisted the researcher in developing a final instrument that could be easily understood by all.

Questionnaires were used for this study because when constructed and used properly they are a powerful scientific instrument for measuring different

variables from a potentially large number of respondents, over a short period of time (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister & Zechmeister, 2006:170).

5.6.1 Measurement instruments used for the study

The study made use of four questionnaires to obtain information on the locus of control and levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment from the respondents. These are: the Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966), Work Locus of Control Scale (Spector, 1988), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al., 1967) and the Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment Scales (Allen & Meyer, 1990). A full discussion on these questionnaires follows below.



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5.6.2 Rotter's Internal-External (I-E) Locus of Control Scale

After an extensive literature review on locus of control in chapter two, it was argued that for the purpose of this research, the Rotter's I-E locus of control scale, developed and operationalised in 1966 by Julian Rotter, is the most suitable instrument for assessing one's general locus of control. It consists of 23 items, each with a pair of alternatives labelled "a" and "b". The respondents have to choose between an internal and external alternative. There are six extra items called 'filler items'. Marks are awarded such that a high score indicates a more external orientation, and a lower score, a more internal one (Harris & Hartman, 2001:188). Individuals with a high internal locus of control believe that events

result primarily from their own behaviours and actions, while those with a high external locus of control believe that powerful others, fate or chance primarily determine events (Maltby, Day & Macaskill, 2007:92). Hence the response to each statement indicates the extent to which an individual believes he/she is in control, or not in control of events occurring around them.

For the present study nine items were selected from the scale and a five point Likert scale was used. Nine items were selected by the researcher as they were sufficient to give a general indication of the respondents' locus of control outside the work environment. The five point Likert scale was used so as to give the respondents the option to respond positively, negatively and neutrally. Respondents were instructed during the administration of the questionnaires by the researcher to mark the answer they considered most appropriate. The scale ranged from 1 to 5 as follows:

- 1 - Strongly disagree**
- 2 - Disagree**
- 3 - Not sure**
- 4 - Agree**
- 5 - Strongly disagree**

Table 6: Sample of items from Rotter's I-E locus of control scale

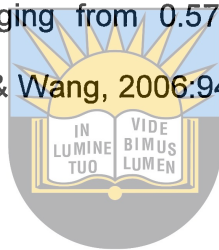
Sample of Rotter's I-E locus of control scale
Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck
This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the average citizen can do to influence government decisions
Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow
One should always be willing to admit mistakes



5.6.2.1 Reliability and validity of Rotter's I-E locus of control scale

Reliability and validity are crucial components to be considered when evaluating a particular instrument. According to Krishnamurthy, Schmitt and Ostroff (1995:293), reliability is concerned with the consistency of the instrument and an instrument is said to have high reliability if it can be trusted to give an accurate and consistent measurement of an unchanging value. Roeser and Downs (2004:97) argue that without a high degree of reliability, the measurement instrument is ineffective because the results of the research will vary from one study to another and from researcher to researcher. Validity can be defined as the extent to which any measuring instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:17). This implies that to be considered valid, an instrument should fully measure the concept it is supposed to measure.

Rotter's locus of control scale has been the most widely used and cited measure in the locus of control literature. Despite the extensive criticisms of the scale it has proven useful in exploratory research in which locus of control is suspected to be a contributing factor. Rotter (1966) provides detailed information on the initial reliability and validity of the I-E scale. He reported corrected split-half reliabilities of 0.65 for males and 0.79 for females. Test-retest reliability in various samples, with one and two month intervals, ranged from 0.49 to 0.83. Results from several studies have supported the construct validity of the scale and the concept, with reliability tests ranging from 0.57 to 0.86 (Beretvas, Suizzo, Durham & Yarnell, 2008:97; Tong & Wang, 2006:941; Zerega, Tseng & Greever, 1976:473).



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In the current study, Rotter's locus of control scale enabled the researcher to successfully gather information to determine the respondents' general locus of control.

5.6.3 Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS)

Spector (1988:335) developed the Work Locus of Control scale to assess how people feel concerning the control of reinforcements only in the workplace. According to the working definition, extended from the more general construct, work locus of control concerns generalised expectancies about control of reinforcements or rewards at work (Spector, 1992:18). Internals feel they can control reinforcements at work (e.g., salary, promotions) while externals feel they

cannot. The WLCS was developed to directly apply Rotter's locus of control scale to organisational life (Hersen, 2004:140). Hence Rotter's scale was used in the study to assess respondents' general locus of control; and the WLCS to assess their locus of control specifically in the workplace.

The work locus of control scale is a self-report 16 item questionnaire, scored on a 5-point, 6-point or 7-point Likert scale. The present study made use of the 5-point Likert scale, i.e. from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. Initially 49 items were generated from a conceptual analysis. Spector (1988:337) narrowed the scale down to 16 items, using six samples.



The inclusion of the 16 items was based on their item-total correlation, a lack of correlation with social desirability and a balance between external and internal items. The following is an example of items/statements from Spector's Work locus of control scale.

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Table 7: Sample of items from Spector's Work Locus of Control Scale

Sample of Spector's work locus of control scale
Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first
When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know
Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job

5.6.3.1 Reliability and validity of Spector's Work Locus of Control Scale

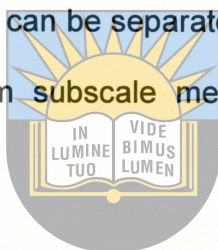
The work locus of control was validated on business administration and industrial psychology students totalling 1151. The test showed acceptable levels of internal reliability and concurrent validity (Furnham, 1994:160). This scale was developed in order to improve the size of correlations between locus of control and work related variables.

The WLCS was found to be negatively related to job satisfaction (Mean $r = -0.54$) and organisational commitment (Mean $r = -0.24$), meaning internals report higher scores on scales associated with these constructs than externals. WLCS is positively related to intention to quit (Mean $r = 0.23$) and role stress (Mean $r = 0.32$), meaning externals report higher scores on scales associated with these constructs than internals (Spector, 1988). The WLCS is also significantly related to Rotter's (1966) general locus of control scale (Mean $r = 0.54$), demonstrating convergent validity (Hershen, 2004:142). In a study by Furnham and Drakeley (1993:1) with 865 respondents, the WLCS demonstrated high internal reliability, with coefficient alpha values ranging from 0.73 to 0.88.

Spector's WLCS played a valuable role in the current study as it enabled the researcher to determine the respondents' locus of control in the work setting.

5.6.4 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967) is very popular among researchers and comes in two forms, the long and short form. The long form consists of 100 questions that make up 20 subscales measuring satisfaction with areas such as ability utilisation, achievement, activity, advancement and authority. Each subscale contains five items for the long form, whereas the short form contains only one item, and hence has a total of 20 items (Spector, 1997:15). These 20 items can be separated into a 12-item subscale for intrinsic satisfaction and an 8-item subscale measuring extrinsic satisfaction (Fields, 2002:7).



The present study made use of the short form (20-item) MSQ, with respondents answering questions making use of a 5 point Likert scale. Reasons for using the short form MSQ are that; it includes the 20 items in the long form MSQ, it is quicker for respondents to fill in and it has demonstrated acceptable internal consistency reliabilities for the extrinsic, intrinsic and total job satisfaction scores (Fields, 2002:7).

Table 8: Sample of items from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Sample of Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire
The way my boss handles his/her workers
My pay and the amount of work I do
The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job

The Likert scale ranged from 1 to 5 as follows:

- 1 - *Highly dissatisfied*
- 2 - *Dissatisfied*
- 3 - *Not sure*
- 4 - *Satisfied*
- 5 - *Highly satisfied*

5.6.4.1 Reliability and validity of the 'short form' Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

For the short form MSQ, several studies have reported acceptable internal consistency reliabilities for the extrinsic, intrinsic and total scores (Hart, 1999:564; Huber, Seybolt & Venemon, 1992:1356). Coefficient alpha values for the 20-item MSQ ranged from 0.85 to 0.91 (Klenke-Hamel & Mathieu, 1990:791; van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek & Frings-Dresen, 2003:191). Coefficient alpha values for the intrinsic satisfaction subscale ranged from 0.82 to 0.86, and 0.70 to 0.82 for the extrinsic satisfaction subscale, which indicates high reliability (Breedem, 1993:30 & Davy, Kinicki & Scheck, 1997:323). The short form MSQ also exhibits strong validity. Klenke-Hamel and Mathieu (1990:791) found that overall job satisfaction was negatively correlated with role conflict, role ambiguity and propensity to leave. It does however correlate positively with life satisfaction, non-work satisfaction, job involvement and performance expectancy (Hart 1999:564; Smith & Brannick, 1990:91).



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The 'short form' Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used in the current study and allowed the researcher to assess the existing levels of overall job satisfaction among the respondents.

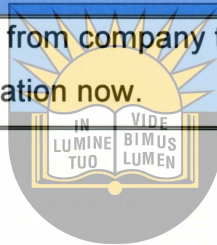
5.6.5 Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment Scales

The three-component model of commitment was developed by Allen and Meyer (1990:1). Affective commitment measures an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation. Normative commitment reflects pressures on an employee to remain with an organisation resulting from organisational socialisation. Continuance commitment refers to commitment associated with the costs that employees perceive are related to leaving the organisation (Wankel, 2009:295). The original questionnaire had eight items and was shortened to six items for each type of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997:118).

Table 9 below is a sample of the items (statements) in the three-component model. The present study made use of three items for each type of commitment. These items were selected from the six items in the three-component model of commitment, as they covered all the aspects of organisational commitment the researcher wished to investigate from the respondents. Candidates responded by making use of the 5 point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Table 9: Sample of items in the Affective, Continuance and Commitment Scales

Affective Commitment Scale Items
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organisation. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.
Continuance Commitment Scale Items
It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organisation in the near future.
Normative Commitment Scale Items
I think that people these days move from company to company too often. I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.



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5.6.5.1 Reliability and validity of the Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment Scales

The evidence accumulated so far to support the reliability and validity of the three component model has been encouraging. Coefficient alpha values ranged from 0.77 to 0.88 for affective commitment, from 0.65 to 0.86 for normative commitment and from 0.69 to 0.84 for continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990:1; Meyer, Irving & Allen, 1998:29; Hackett, Bycio & Hausdorf, 1994:15). In terms of construct validity, there is also supporting evidence. Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf (1994:17) found support for the three-component model, with affective, continuance and normative commitment each comprising a separate dimension.

Cohen (1999) cited in Fields (2002:51) used confirmatory analysis to show discriminate validity among affective commitment, normative commitment and

continuance commitment. There is also evidence that the three Allen and Meyer scales are empirically distinguishable from related constructs such as job satisfaction, values, occupational commitment and job involvement (Jex, 2002:137). This evidence suggests that the three-component model is reliable and valid so as to qualify for use in the present study.

Allen and Meyer' (1990) three component model of commitment enabled the researcher to effectively measure affective, normative and continuance commitment levels among the respondents.



5.7 Administration of the questionnaires

Permission was initially sought from the relevant authorities from SAB and Johnson & Johnson to conduct research in the organisation. The researcher personally distributed the questionnaires among the respondents for them to fill in. The reasons for this were:

- There was minimal interference thus ensuring freedom and anonymity.
- Follow ups for unreturned questionnaires was easy.

5.8 Data Analysis

The present study made use of a quantitative approach for the analysis of data collected via the questionnaires. Kothari (2005:5) explains that quantitative data

analysis entails subjecting data to rigorous statistical analysis in a formal and rigid fashion, guaranteeing the reliability of the results. Statistical techniques were applied in the analysis, so as to enable generalisations of sample findings to be made about the population under study. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse and present data in this study and it involved both descriptive and inferential statistics.

5.8.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to organise and describe the characteristics of a collection of data (Salkind, 2006:5). This method enabled the researcher to summarise data numerically in readily accessible formats in the form of charts, tables and graphs. Descriptive statistics are useful for describing single variables and for describing the associations that connect one variable with another (Babbie, 2009: 467). The descriptive statistics used in this current study to analyse demographic data included frequencies, percentages, standard deviations and means.

5.8.2 Inferential statistics

Leech, Barrett and Morgan (2004:53) define inferential statistics as statistics that make inferences about population values based on the sample data that was collected and analysed. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient

(Pearson's r) was used in the present study to specify the direction and magnitude of linear association between:

- an individual's locus of control and his/her level of job satisfaction
- an individual's locus of control and his/ her level of organisational commitment.

5.9 Concluding remarks

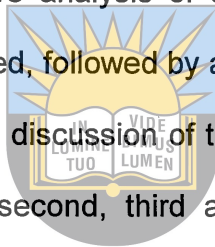
This chapter initially set out by outlining the objectives and hypothesis of the research, and then discussing in detail the manner in which the study was planned, data gathered and analysed. The quantitative approach was taken for the study and the survey research strategy was used to carry out the research. Stratified random sampling, which is a probability sampling technique, was used for the study. Data was collected making use of questionnaires which were hand delivered to respondents for them to fill in. The total sample was constituted of 150 candidates, and 101 responses were obtained, resulting in a total response rate of 67.3%. Descriptive and Inferential statistics were used in the analysis of data.

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter detailed the manner in which the present study was planned, data gathered and analysed. This chapter presents and discusses the results of data analysis. Descriptive analysis of demographic variables of the respondents will be initially presented, followed by a presentation of the results of the inferential statistical analysis. A discussion of the findings, making reference to the literature reviewed in the second, third and fourth chapters will then conclude the chapter.



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6.2 Descriptive statistics

The demographic variables presented below are the level of the respondent in the organisation, gender, age, educational level and tenure.

Figure 2 indicates that of the 101 respondents who took part in the study, 60.4% were non-managerial staff, 8.91% were lower management, 21.78% were middle management and 8.91% were employed in positions of top management.

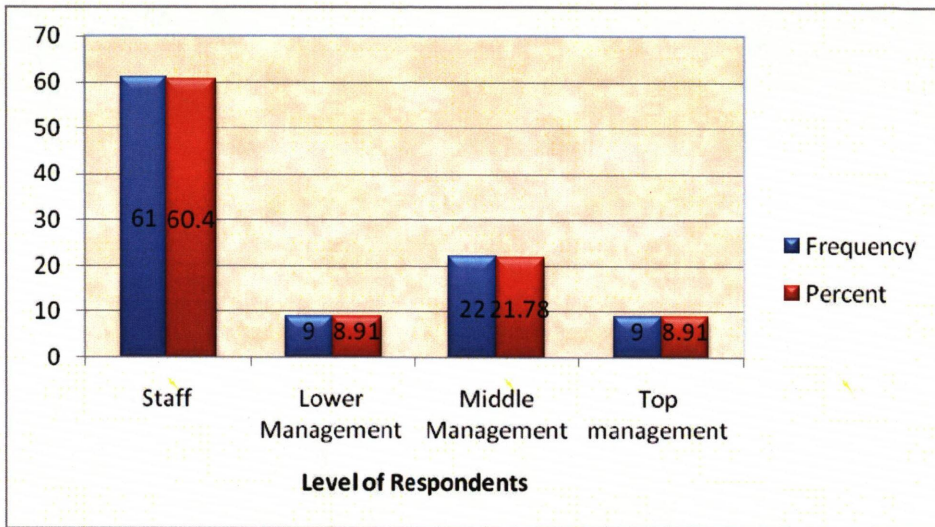


Figure 2: Distribution by level of respondents

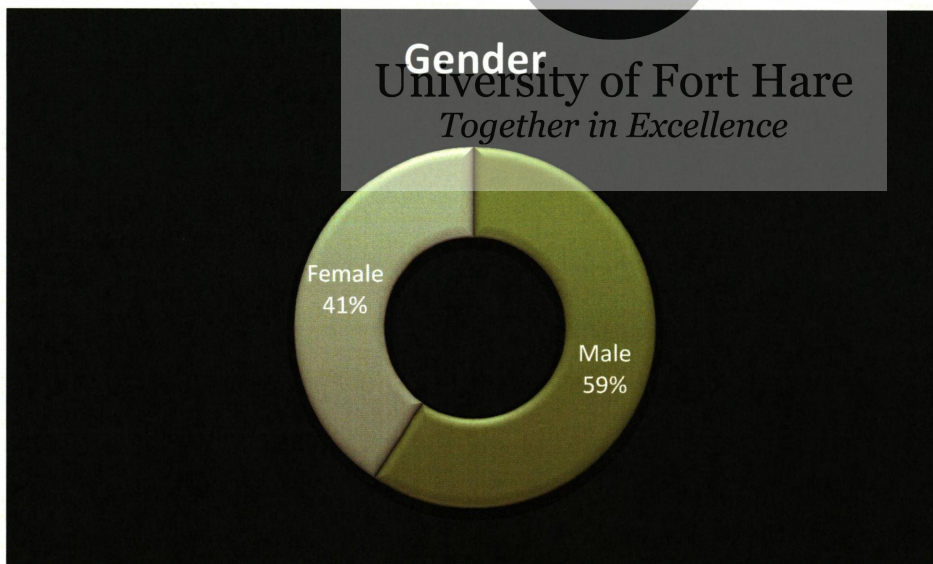


Figure 3: Distribution of respondents by gender

As shown in figure 3 above, 59% of the respondents were male and 41% were female.

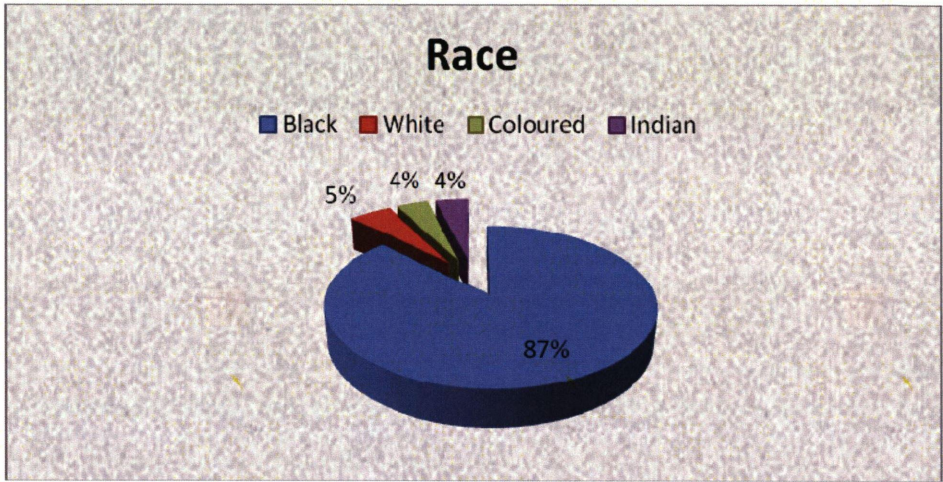


Figure 4: Distribution of respondents by race

Figure 4 above illustrates that 87% of the respondents were black, 5% were white, 4% were coloured and 4% were Indian.



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Figure 5: Distribution of respondents by age

Figure 5 shows that 45.54% of the respondents were between the ages of 25 to 35 years, 25.74% were below 25 years, 17.82% were between 36 to 45 years, 6.93% between 46 to 50 years and 3.96% above 50 years.

Figure 6 below illustrates that 48% of the respondents had been working in the organisation for two to five years, 25% have been working for less than one year, 14% for six to ten years and 13% for more than 10 years.

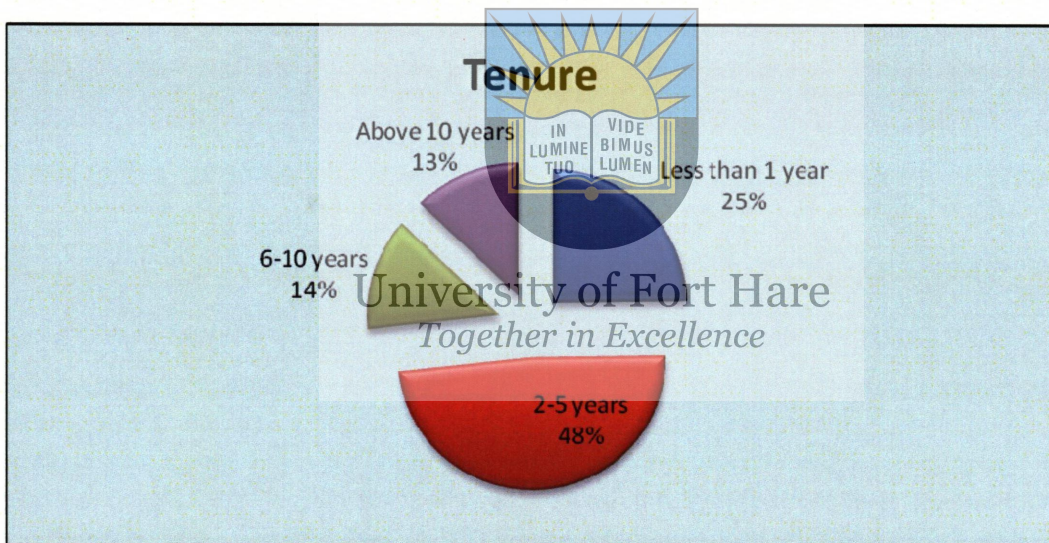


Figure 6: Distribution of respondents by tenure

Figure 7 indicates that of the respondents who took part in the study, 42.57% had certificates, 25.74% were in possession of diplomas, 16.83% had degrees and 14.85% had post graduate degrees.

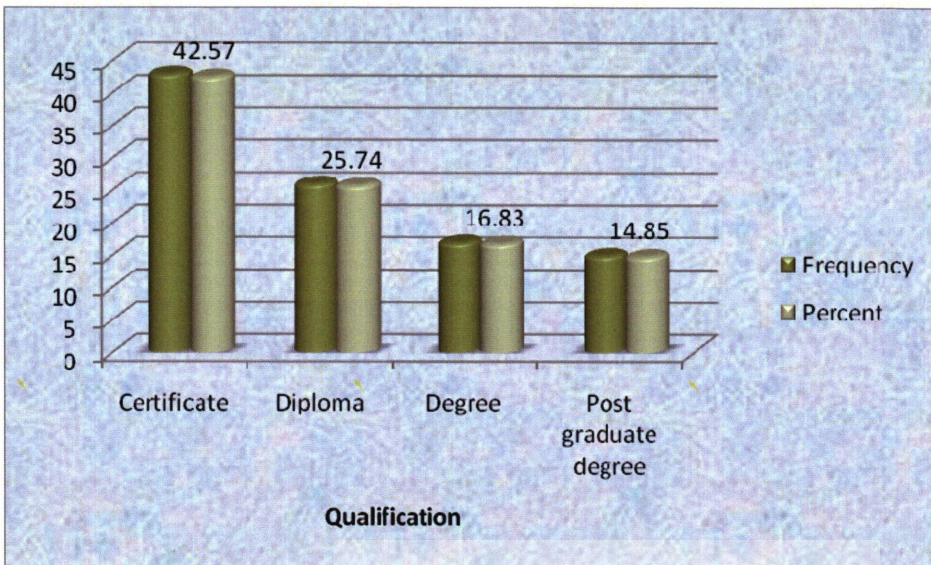


Figure 7: Distribution of respondents by qualification



6.3 Reliability of the instrument

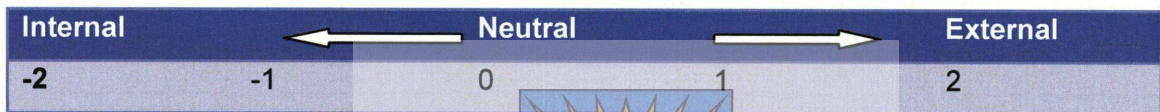
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Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was used to estimate the reliability of the questionnaire used to gather information from respondents for the current study. Cronbach's coefficient alpha typically ranges from 0 to 1, with higher magnitudes being more desirable. Leong and Austin (2006:136) recommend that any scale that one uses in research or to make decisions in applied settings should have a coefficient alpha of at least 0.75. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the questionnaire used in the current study was 0.8338, which is considered good.

6.4 Hypothesis one: The existing locus of control orientation among respondents is external, and their levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are low.

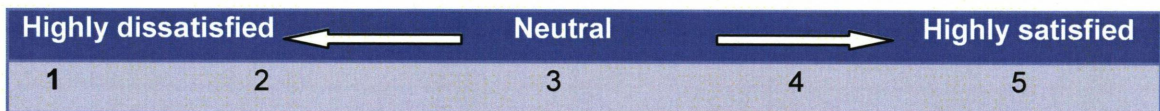
To test the first hypothesis, mean scores were calculated to determine the existing locus of control orientation among the respondents. The data for locus of control was coded as follows:



The overall mean score for locus of control was -0.56, thus signifying a low but generally internal orientation among employees.

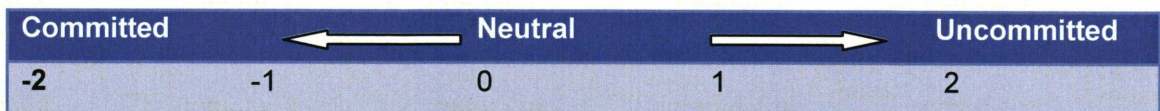


Mean scores were also calculated to determine the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment among respondents. For job satisfaction, the data was coded as follows:



The results showed an overall job satisfaction mean score of 3.29, which indicates a moderate level of job satisfaction among the employees.

For organisational commitment, the data was coded as follows:



The overall mean score for organisational commitment was -0.047, indicating a low level of commitment among employees.

6.5 Hypothesis two: There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control and his/her level of job satisfaction

6.5.1 Kruskal-Wallis (KW) test

To determine any differences in overall job satisfaction between internals and externals, the Kruskal Wallis (KW) test was used. The Kruskal-Wallis test is a nonparametric (distribution free) test which is used to compare three or more groups of sample data, and can be used whenever a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) model is appropriate (Stokes, Davis & Koch, 2000:167). For the current study, the KW test will evaluate if there is any difference in overall job satisfaction responses among individuals with an internal, those with an external locus of control and those who responded 'not sure'.

A significant result will indicate that at least one pair of factor levels are significantly different from each other. However, the KW test does not specify which pair, although inspection of the medians will show the extreme groups (Dytham, 2003:121). Table 10 shows the results obtained from the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Table 10: Results from the Kruskal-Wallis (KW) test

Variable	Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom (DF)	Pr > Chi-Square
1. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck	1.5055	2	0.4711
2. An individual's worth often goes unrecognised no matter how hard he tries	11.5457	2	0.0031*
3. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.	4.4126	2	0.1101
4. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the average citizen can do to influence government decisions	13.1119	2	0.0014*
5. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are	1.8284	2	0.4008
6. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.	6.9531	2	0.0309*
7. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.	8.1098	2	0.0173*
8. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality	10.8912	2	0.0043*
9. There is a direct connection between how hard I work and the results I get.	7.7959	2	0.0203*
10. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.	8.4397	1	0.0037*
11. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	10.8489	2	0.0044*
12. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	6.3307	2	0.0422*
13. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it.	5.3920	2	0.0675
14. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.	4.4342	2	0.1089
15. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.	8.9164	2	0.0116*
16. Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort	6.2807	2	0.0433*
17. In order to get a really good job, you need to have family members or friends in high places.	1.1971	2	0.5496
18. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	4.9360	2	0.0848
19. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know.	5.3083	2	0.0704

20. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	8.2250	2	0.0164*
21. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people	8.7511	2	0.0126*
22. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs	5.2078	2	0.0740
23. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	10.4548	2	0.0054*
24. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do.	1.7200	2	0.4232
25. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make little money is luck.	0.9756	2	0.6140

*Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 10 merely indicates that a significant difference exists among respondents with an internal locus of control, external locus of control and those who responded 'not sure'. This is an analysis of the pairs: Internal-external, internal-not sure and external-not sure. The current study is interested in the internal versus external pair; hence the Tukey's Studentized Range (HSD) test was used to conduct a mean comparison so as to determine if there is a significant difference in the overall job satisfaction level between internals and externals.

The following results were obtained:

Table 11: Results from Tukey's Studentized Range (HSD) test

Variable	Pair	Mean difference	Simultaneous 95% Confidence Limits
An individual's worth often goes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries	Internal - external	0.5228	0.1425 0.9031**
This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the average citizen can do to influence government decisions	Internal - external	0.6624	0.2729 1.0519**
It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.	Internal - external	-0.2091	-0.6366 0.2184

Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me	Internal - external	0.4456	0.0351	0.8560**
Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality	Internal - external	0.4924	0.0850	0.8999**
There is a direct connection between how hard I work and the results I get.	Internal - external	0.6053	0.1212	1.0893**
Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.	Internal - external	0.4334	0.0840	0.9001**
On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	Internal - external	0.4855	0.0860	0.8899**
If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you	Internal - external	0.3238	-0.1506	0.7983
Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.	Internal - external	0.4288	0.0820	0.9071**
Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort	Internal - external	0.5866	-0.3070	1.2145
Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	Internal - external	0.5532	-0.0011	1.1075
To make a lot of money you have to know the right people	Internal - external	0.5574	0.1694	0.9454**
People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	Internal - external	0.6089	0.1315	1.0993**

Comparisons significant at the 0.05 level are indicated by **

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As can be seen in table 11, internals tend to have a higher mean overall job satisfaction than externals, with significantly higher means being indicated by the (**). This implies that individuals with an internal locus of control experience significantly higher levels of overall job satisfaction than those with an external locus of control. The following are results from Pearson's Product Moment Correlation which give a measure of the correlation between locus of control and job satisfaction.

6.5.2 Inferential Statistics

To test the second hypothesis that, there is no relationship between an individual's locus of control and his/her level of job satisfaction, the Pearson's

Product Moment Correlation Coefficient method was used. Salkind (2009:114) defines the correlation coefficient as a numerical index that reflects the relationship between two variables. The coefficient value ranges between -1 to +1; with a coefficient less than 0.5 representing a weak positive linear relationship, coefficients greater than 0.5 but less than 0.7 representing a moderate positive linear relationship and those greater than 0.8 representing a strong positive linear relationship. A negative coefficient represents an inverse (negative) linear relationship.



Table 12: The Pearson's correlation matrix between locus of control and overall job satisfaction

	Locus of control	Overall job satisfaction
Locus of control	1.000	-0.31123*
Sig.	.	0.0015
N.	101	101
Overall job satisfaction	-0.31123*	1.000
Sig.	0.0015	.
N.	101	N.

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 12 above shows that there is a weak but significantly negative correlation between the locus of control and overall job satisfaction ($r = -0.31123$, $p < 0.05$). This implies that the more external an individual is, the lesser his/her overall job satisfaction is and vice versa.

6.6 Hypothesis three: There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control and his/her level of organisational commitment

6.6.1 Inferential statistics

To test the third hypothesis that, "There is no relationship between an individual's locus of control and his/her level of organisational commitment" the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient method was used. The results are presented in table 13.



Table 13: The Pearson's correlation matrix between locus and organisational commitment

	Locus of control	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Normative commitment
Locus of control Sig. N.	1.000 . 101	0.49216 <0.0001* 101	0.03689 0.7142 101	0.47667 <0.0001* 101
Affective commitment Sig. N.	0.49216 <0.0001* 101	1.000 . 101	0.36377 0.0002* 101	0.31681 0.0012* 101
Continuance commitment Sig. N.	0.03689 0.7142 101	0.36377 0.0002* 101	1.000 . 101	-0.01749 0.8622 101
Normative commitment Sig. N.	0.47667 <0.0001* 101	0.31681 0.0012* 101	-0.01749 0.8622 101	1.000 . 101

Table 13 above shows a weak but significantly positive relationship between the locus of control and affective commitment ($r = 0.49216$, $p < 0.05$). There is a very weak and insignificantly positive correlation between locus of control and

continuance commitment ($r = 0.03689$, $p > 0.05$). A positive and significant correlation exists between the locus of control and normative commitment ($r = 0.47667$, $p < 0.05$).

6.7 Discussion of results

Results from the study showed an overall internal locus of control orientation among the respondents. Past research findings have suggested that an individual's locus of control can become more internal through an increase in status or level of education (Harvey, 1971:980; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991:412). Hence the overall internal locus of control orientation among the respondents could be due to the implementation of employment equity programmes and skills training and development schemes that empower employees, thus making them feel more in control of outcomes in their lives. The findings signified a modest overall job satisfaction score of 3.29, which could be attributed to the current recession that has cast a shadow of uncertainty in the manufacturing industry.

The respondents demonstrated an overall low level of organisational commitment. This could possibly be attributed to the young nature of the respondents, with 71% of them under the age of 35 years. Rabin (2003:869) suggests that younger workers experience more job alternatives and less sunk costs, hence they are always seeking better opportunities elsewhere and find it easier to leave the organisation for greener pastures.

The findings indicated that there is a weak but significantly negative correlation between the locus of control and overall job satisfaction ($r = -0.31123$, $p < 0.05$). This implies that the more external an individual's locus of control is, the lower his/her overall job satisfaction and the more internal one is, the more satisfied one is. This is supported by Kahn and Cooper (1993:68), who suggest that internals indicate greater job satisfaction than externals because of the following reasons: firstly, dissatisfied internals will quit dissatisfying jobs; secondly, internals tend to receive higher rewards due to their better performance; thirdly, internals tend to achieve more frequent promotions and salary increases; and finally, individuals who have sufficient control to leave a stressful situation and choose to stay, will evaluate the job situation as satisfactory.



Locus of control and affective commitment was seen to have a weak but significantly positive correlation of ($r = 0.49216$, $p < 0.05$). This indicates that the more internal an individual is, the higher his/her affective commitment. These findings concur with the results from a study by Coleman, Irving and Cooper (1999:995), which showed that internal locus of control was associated with affective commitment while external locus of control was associated with continuance commitment. This could be because internals believe that if they leave the organisation, through their efforts they will be able to secure employment elsewhere; hence they are unlikely to stay in an organisation because they feel they will be stranded if they go, as would externals (Stroh, Northcraft & Neale, 2002:48). However, results from the current study revealed an insignificantly low positive correlation between locus of control and

continuance commitment ($r = 0.03689$, $p > 0.05$), therefore indicating no association between external locus of control and continuance commitment.

Results disclose that normative commitment has a weak but significantly positive correlation with locus of control ($r = 0.47667$, $p < 0.05$). Hence internals are associated with a higher normative commitment. Somers (2006:49) found that normative commitment is associated with positive outcomes in the workplace, such as lower turnover and high job performance; which is characteristic of internals.



6.8 Concluding remarks

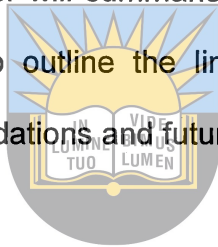
The current chapter was a presentation and discussion of the findings from the current study. Findings showed a low but generally internal locus of control orientation among employees. A moderate level of job satisfaction and low organisational commitment was recorded among the employees. The results indicated that internals experience a higher level of job satisfaction and have more affective and normative commitment than externals. The next chapter consists of the conclusion from the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations and future research directions.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter was a presentation and discussion of the results obtained from the current study. This chapter will summarise the conclusions made from the obtained results and will also outline the limitations experienced by the researcher and suggest recommendations and future research directions.



7.2 Conclusions

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Literature identified the locus of control as an attribute of personality which can be defined as peoples' beliefs about whether events are controlled primarily by their personal decisions and effort which indicates an internal orientation, or by outside forces such as their social and physical environment which indicates an external orientation (Schermerhorn et al., 1998:40). Job satisfaction was defined as the fulfilment and gratification that comes from work. It is not the money, the benefits or the vacations; but the good feelings you receive from doing the work itself (Kepler et al., 1994:3). Organisational commitment was viewed as a multi-dimensional construct consisting of affective, normative and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990:8). Affective commitment is an emotional attachment to the organisation, such that the strongly committed individual

identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in the organisation (Beugre, 1998:82). Continuance commitment is related to the costs and benefits associated with staying or leaving an organisation. An employee may maintain membership in the organisation due to the fear of the consequences of leaving, for example, a loss in income (Kroth, 2007:41). Finally, normative commitment reflects the view that an employee has a duty or an obligation to stay with the organisation. It develops from cultural and organisational socialisation, making the employees feel that they ought to stay in the organisation (Magyar et al., 2007:316).



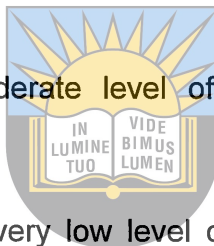
Past research findings have indicated a positive relationship between individuals with an internal locus of control and job satisfaction (Nasima et al., 2006:1; Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004:267; Rothmann, 2000:8; Spector, 1986:1005). The reasons for this could be that internals will quit a job that they find dissatisfying and they tend to receive higher rewards due to their better performance (Kahn & Cooper, 1993:68). However, internals could experience lower job satisfaction levels than externals if the work environment is highly structured and has precise role prescriptions that do not allow one to have much control (Marino & White, 1985:782).

From the literature reviewed, results from previous studies suggest that there is a positive association between individuals with an internal locus of control and affective commitment. External locus of control was found to be associated with continuance commitment (Coleman et al., 1999:995). This could be because

internals believe that if they leave the organisation, through their efforts they will be able to secure employment elsewhere; hence they are unlikely to stay in an organisation for fear of being stranded if they leave, like externals would (Kahn & Cooper, 1993:68).

Findings from the study point out the following:

- The results signified a low but generally internal orientation among employees. On the whole then, the workforce feels they are in control of outcomes in their lives.
- There was an overall moderate level of job satisfaction among the employees.
- The workforce exhibited a very low level of organisational commitment. This means that they do not feel attached to their organisations.
- Internals experience a higher level of overall job satisfaction as compared to externals.
- Internals have higher affective commitment levels than externals, implying that they feel more emotionally and psychologically attached to the organisation than externals.
- Externals have lower levels of normative commitment meaning that they feel less obliged to continue employment in the organisation as compared to internals.
- There was no significant relationship between continuance commitment and locus of control (internal & external).



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7.3 Recommendations

To increase the level of internal orientation among employees, the SAB and Johnson & Johnson could embark on some empowerment programmes such as employee literacy programmes for employees who are functionally illiterate. This would increase their marketability in the job market, enable them to contribute positively to the organisation and get promotions. Research has indicated that an increased level of education and status results in increased internality (Harvey, 1971:980; Terenzini 1991:412).

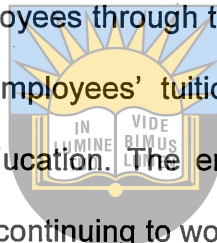


Ensuring a good match between an employee's skills and his/her job (person-job fit), management could possibly assist in increasing the level of job satisfaction among employees in the organisations. Some potential employees may have the required skills, but due to cultural differences they may have communication difficulties and difficulties working with other employees in the organisation hence resulting in their dissatisfaction Mahalingam (2006:121). This is particularly true for SAB and Johnson & Johnson which both have a diverse workforce.

Due to the current economic recession, anxiety levels are running high among employees in the manufacturing industry, with some employees having been retrenched and the remaining ones facing possible job loss. This has an adverse effect on job satisfaction levels. To counter this, management should try to open up communication channels and constantly update employees on the position of the organisation regarding retrenchment. Career guidance counsellors could also be consulted so as to help reduce anxiety levels among the remaining workforce.

In order to increase the level of affective commitment, the two organisations could try to implement human resources policies that support employees to perform at their optimum. Perceived organisational support by employees leads to them developing an emotional and psychological attachment to the organisation (Yoon, 2003:1).

To increase normative commitment, management has to make the employees feel obligated to remain in the organisation. They can induce this feeling of obligation by investing in their employees through training programmes, whereby the organisations sponsor their employees' tuition through scholarships and bursaries so as to further their education. The employees would then believe they can repay the organisation by continuing to work for it.



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7.4 Limitations

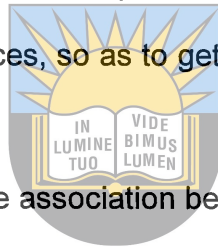
The limitations of the study are discussed below:

- Financial constraints made it impossible for the researcher to carry out the study in more manufacturing companies across the whole province (Eastern Cape).
- Financial constraints also made it impossible for the researcher to offer incentives for the filling in of questionnaires; hence some employees were not cooperative.
- Only two organisations in the manufacturing industry were studied, hence generalisations from the findings cannot be made about other industries.

- The self report questionnaires used to gather data could have inhibited some respondents from filling in the questionnaires accurately as they could not seek clarification of any queries from the researcher.

7.5 Directions for future research

- The study only focused on two manufacturing companies in the Eastern Cape. Future studies could attempt to carry out research in more companies across all provinces, so as to get a better representation of the population.
- This research determined the association between locus of control and job satisfaction and commitment. Upcoming research could attempt to determine whether there is a direct association between an individual's locus of control and job performance.
- A study to determine factors that influence an individual's locus of control will contribute a lot to this area of study. Knowledge of these factors would enable management to adjust their employees' locus of control so as to make them more efficient employees.
- Future research could attempt to find out the effectiveness of locus of control as a selection tool to predict the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of potential employees.



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7.6 Concluding remarks

This chapter outlined the conclusions that were drawn from the findings of the study. Suggestions were made as to how management could shift the locus of control of their employees and make it more internal. Recommendations were also made as to how SAB and Johnson & Johnson can increase the levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment among their employees. Limitations faced by the researcher when conducting the study and possible directions for future research were laid out in the chapter as well.



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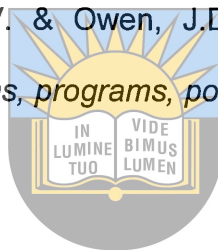
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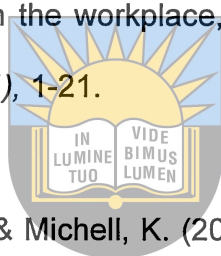
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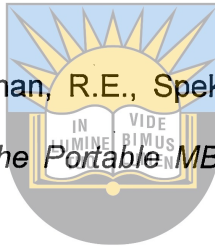
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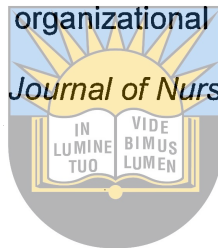
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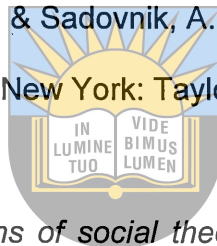
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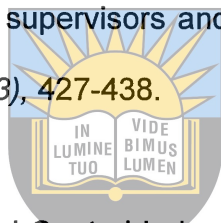
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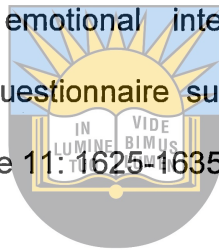
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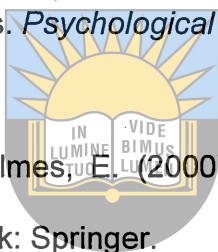
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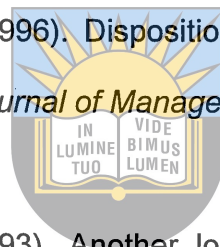
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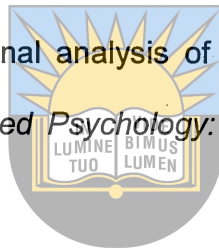
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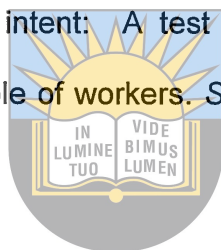
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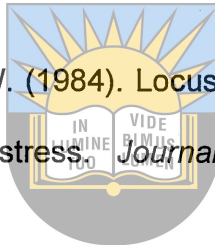
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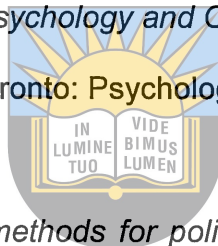
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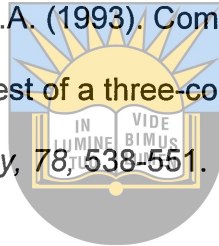
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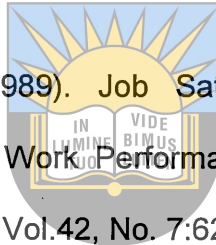
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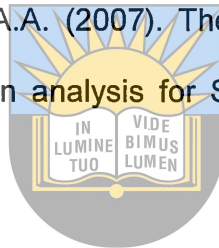
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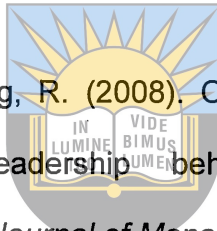
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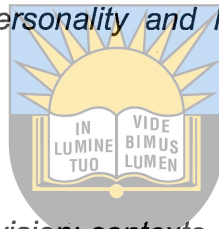
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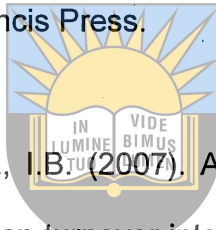
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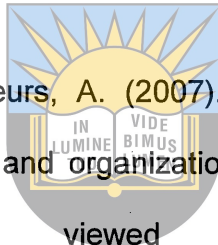
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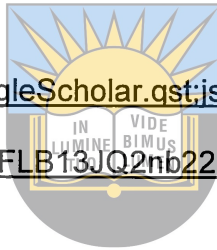
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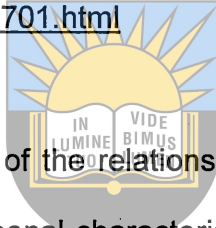
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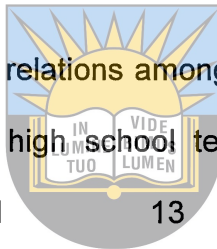
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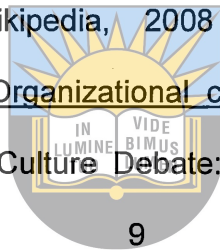
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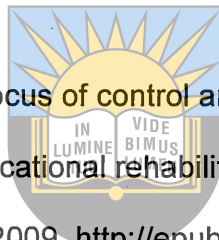
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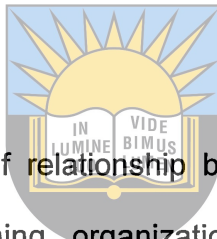
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ANNEXURE 1

QUESTIONNAIRE



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FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND COMMERCE

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

TOPIC

LOCUS OF CONTROL AND ITS IMPACT ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT: A STUDY OF TWO SELECTED MANUFACTURING COMPANIES IN EAST LONDON

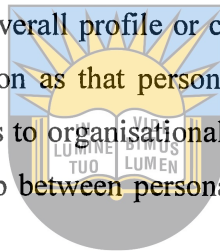
DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Biographical Information

My name is Tinashe Urayai, student number: 200432877 and I am currently registered at the University of Fort Hare for Masters of Commerce in Industrial Psychology (2008/2009). As part of the requirements for the completion of my studies, I am conducting a study on “**The Locus of Control and its Impact on Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment between management and employees in the manufacturing industry**”.

Executive Summary

Personality can be described as the overall profile or combination of characteristics that captures the unique nature of a person as that person reacts and interacts with others. Understanding personality contributes to organisational behaviour insights because there seems to be a predictable relationship between personality and a tendency to behave in certain ways.



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Hence my study aims to investigate how the locus of control affects the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of both employees and management in the organisation. The locus of control is a personality trait which describes peoples' beliefs about whether events are controlled primarily by their personal decisions and effort which indicates an internal orientation or by outside forces, such as their social and physical environment which indicates an external orientation.

Contact Details

Name: Tinashe Urayai

E-mail: tinashenova@yahoo.com

Cell Number: +27 73 261 3933

NB: All information collected will be treated in confidence and will only be used for the purposes of this study.

Section A: Information about survey respondents

Instructions: Tick the correct answer by making an **X** in the box of your choice

1. Level of respondent in the organisation

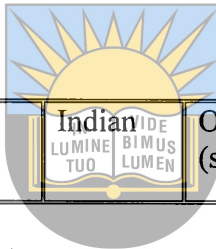
Top Management	<input type="checkbox"/>	Middle Management	<input type="checkbox"/>	Lower Management	<input type="checkbox"/>	Staff	<input type="checkbox"/>
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2. Gender

Male 1 Female 2

3. Race

Black	<input type="checkbox"/>	White	<input type="checkbox"/>	Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>	Indian	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other (specify).....	<input type="checkbox"/>
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4. Age

Below 25 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	25-35yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	36-45yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	46-50yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	Above 51 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>
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5. How long have you been working for this organisation?

Less than 1 year	<input type="checkbox"/>	2 - 5 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	6 – 10 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Above 10 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
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6. Highest Professional Qualification

Certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>	Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>	Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Postgraduate degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
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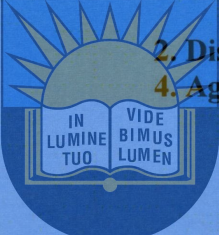
Other (please specify).....

Section B: Locus of control in the Work Place

There are two parts to be completed in this section. The first part questions your perceptions on locus of control in general, while the second part is concerned with what you think about work locus of control. In completing each statement in this section, carefully read the statement and indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by ticking in the appropriate box with an (X). Please answer all the statements below in full.

a) General Locus of Control

The following questions concern your beliefs about certain general events in your life

Key: 1. Strongly Disagree 3. Not Sure 5. Strongly Agree							
			2. Disagree 4. Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree
7. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.	1	2	3	4	5		
8. An individual's worth often goes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries	1	2	3	4	5		
9. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.	1	2	3	4	5		
10. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the average citizen can do to influence government decisions.	1	2	3	4	5		
11. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.	1	2	3	4	5		
12. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.	1	2	3	4	5		
13. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.	1	2	3	4	5		
14. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.	1	2	3	4	5		
15. There is a direct connection between how hard I work and the results I get.	1	2	3	4	5		

b) Work Locus of control

The following questions concern your beliefs about jobs in general. They do not refer only to your present job.

Key: 1. Strongly Disagree 3. Not Sure 5. Strongly Agree	2. Disagree 4. Agree		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
			1	2	3	4	5
16. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.	1	2	3	4	5		
17. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	1	2	3	4	5		
18. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	1	2	3	4	5		
19. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it.	1	2	3	4	5		
20. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.	1	2	3	4	5		
21. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.	1	2	3	4	5		
22. Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort.	1	2	3	4	5		
23. In order to get a really good job, you need to have family members or friends in high places.	1	2	3	4	5		
24. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	1	2	3	4	5		
25. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know.	1	2	3	4	5		
26. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	1	2	3	4	5		
27. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people.	1	2	3	4	5		
28. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.	1	2	3	4	5		
29. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5		
30. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do.	1	2	3	4	5		
31. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make little money is luck	1	2	3	4	5		

Section C: Job Satisfaction


This section of the questionnaire gives you a chance to tell how you feel about your present job, the things you are satisfied with and what things you are not satisfied with. Carefully read each statement and indicate the extent to which you are satisfied or dissatisfied with each aspect of your job. Tick with an (X) in the appropriate box.

The following questions concern your beliefs about certain aspects relating to your current job. Key: 1. Highly Satisfied 3. Not Sure 5. Highly satisfied 2. Dissatisfied 4. Satisfied	Highly dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Not Sure	Satisfied	Highly Satisfied.
	32. Being able to keep busy all the time.	1	2	3	4
33. The chance to work alone on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
34. The chance to do different things from time to time.	1	2	3	4	5
35. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.	1	2	3	4	5
36. The way my boss handles his/her workers.	1	2	3	4	5
37. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.	1	2	3	4	5
39. The way my job provides for steady employment.	1	2	3	4	5
40. The chance to do things for other people.	1	2	3	4	5
41. The chance to tell people what to do.	1	2	3	4	5
42. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
43. The way company policies are put into practice.	1	2	3	4	5
44. My pay and the amount of work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
45. The chances for advancement on this job.	1	2	3	4	5
46. The freedom to use my own judgment.	1	2	3	4	5
47. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	1	2	3	4	5
48. The working conditions.	1	2	3	4	5
49. The way my co-workers get along with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
50. The praise I get for doing a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
51. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	1	2	3	4	5

Section D: Organisational Commitment

This section enables you to express your perceptions about your relationship with the organisation and your reasons for staying. Carefully read each statement and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. Tick with an (X) in the appropriate box.

Affective Commitment Scale	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
52. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my life with this Organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
53. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5
54. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5


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Continuance commitment scale					
55. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	1	2	3	4	5
56. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization now even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5
57. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I want to leave my organisation now.	1	2	3	4	5

Normative Commitment Scale					
58. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	1	2	3	4	5
59. If I got another offer for a job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
60. I do not think that wanting to be a company man or company woman is sensible anymore.	1	2	3	4	5

ANNEXURE 2

**FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND COMMERCE
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND ENTERPRISE
DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY
PRIVATE BAG X 1314, ALICE 5700, SOUTH AFRICA
TEL: (040) 602 2607
MOBILE: 082 876 7129
anel@ufh.ac.za**



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Sir/Madam

Re: Request on granting access to your company for conducting research

The University of Fort Hare together with the National Council of Research, with their main aim of providing quantitative research, request if you could grant one of our masters students, Tinashe Urayai (200432877) in the Department of Industrial Psychology at the University of Fort Hare, Alice, South Africa permission and assistance to conduct research in your company as part of the fulfilment and completion of his Master's degree.

The research will be on: **“Locus of control and its impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment between management and employees”**. A proposal attached will be discussed with the relative people. It will be highly appreciated if upon granting permission you could provide us with the contact person and contact details (telephone number, cell- phone number, e-mail), should the student need some information pertaining this study.

Your assistance on the above mentioned matter will be highly appreciated. If you need any information on the student, feel free to contact me at numbers and e-mail address as on letterhead.

Yours sincerely,

Mr. Andre Nel (Lecturer)
Department of Industrial Psychology
Supervisor: Industrial Psychology

**THE RESEARCH IS FOR ACADEMIC USE ONLY AND INFORMATION WILL
BE TREATED AS HIGHLY CONFIDENTIAL**

ANNEXURE 3

Pearson Correlation Coefficients

The CORR Procedure

4 Variables: locus of control normative continuance
Affective commitment

Simple Statistics

Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Median
Locus of control	101	-0.55802	0.59811	-0.64000
normative	101	-0.05281	0.71450	0
continuance	101	-0.20792	0.79840	-0.33333
affective commitment	101	0.11881	0.82810	0

Simple Statistics

Variable	Minimum	Maximum
Locus of control	-1.88000	0.80000
normative	-2.00000	1.33333
continuance	-2.00000	1.33333
affective commitment	-2.00000	1.33333

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Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 101
Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0

	Locus of control	normative
Locus of control	1.00000	0.47667 <.0001
normative	0.47667 <.0001	1.00000
continuance	0.03689 0.7142	-0.01749 0.8622
Affective commitment	0.49216 <.0001	0.31681 0.0012

Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 101
Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0

	continuance	affective commitment
locus of control	0.03689 0.7142	0.49216 <.0001
normative	-0.01749 0.8622	0.31681 0.0012
continuance	1.00000	0.36377 0.0002

Affective commitment 0.36377 1.00000
 0.0002

The SAS System

The CORR Procedure

2 Variables: locus of control
 Overall job satisfaction

Simple Statistics

Variable	N	Mean
Locus of control	101	-0.55802
Overall job satisfaction	101	3.28614

Simple Statistics

Variable	Std Dev	Median
Locus of control	0.59811	-0.64000
Overall job satisfaction	0.82326	3.45000

Simple Statistics

Variable	Minimum	Maximum
Locus of control	-1.88000	0.80000
Overall job satisfaction	1.35000	4.95000

Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 101
 Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0

	Locus of control	overall job satisfaction
Locus of control	1.00000	-0.31123 0.0015
Overall job satisfaction	-0.31123 0.0015	1.00000

ANNEXURE 4

Cronbach Coefficient Alpha	
Variables	Alpha
Raw	0.833754
Standardized	0.833723



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