

**Job satisfaction and organisational commitment: a
comparative study between academic and support
staff at a higher education institution in
the Western Cape**

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study between academic and support staff at a higher
education institution in the Western Cape**

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KEYWORDS

Job satisfaction

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Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient

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ABSTRACT

Research suggests that increasing employee commitment and satisfaction impacts on employee productivity and job performance, and has implications for job related behaviours such as absenteeism, turnover and tardiness. Moreover, literature also suggests that downsizing and cost-cutting negatively impacts on the satisfaction and commitment of employees and impacts on the effectiveness of organisations.

The contention is that in order to reconcile the need to achieve high quality and organisational effectiveness in an environment of declining per capita resources and change, it will be necessary to secure a high level of commitment and satisfaction from all those employed in the higher education sector. This study therefore seeks to investigate the factors that produce commitment and satisfaction in academic and support staff respectively and to understand any important similarities and differences that may exist.

The sample group consists of 111 support staff and 132 academic staff (N=243) at a higher education institution in the Western Cape. Two staff members did not indicate the category of staff they belonged to. A biographical questionnaire, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) questionnaire and the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) were administered to the respondents. Statistical analysis includes Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, multiple regression analysis and analysis of variance.

The results of the study demonstrate no significant difference in organisational commitment between academic and support staff, although job satisfaction is higher in academic staff than in support staff. Furthermore, academic staff in the sample are relatively satisfied with the nature of the work that they perform, as well as with their co-workers and opportunities for

promotion, but are less satisfied with the supervision and compensation they receive. Support staff in the sample are most satisfied with their co-workers, followed by their supervision and the nature of their jobs. They appear to be less satisfied with their opportunities for promotion and least satisfied with the compensation they receive. The results of this study also indicate that the demographic variables of age, gender, tenure and level of education appear to be better predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the support staff than they are for the academic staff. This study argues that in order to increase job satisfaction in staff, higher education institutions should improve supervision received by academic staff; improve compensation received for all staff and improve the opportunities for promotion for support staff members.

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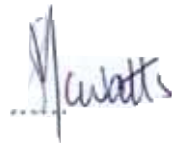
DECLARATION

I declare that *Job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A comparative study between academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape* is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Susheela Mcwatts

May 2005

Signed: _____

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'S. Mcwatts', written over a horizontal line.

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CHAPTER ONE

1. OVERVIEW

1.1. INTRODUCTION

South African higher education has been subject to many developments in recent years. After the demise of apartheid, there have been several policy and legal initiatives to transform higher education. Universities have witnessed radical changes as a result of a managerial turn in university governance (Du Toit, 2001). These changes are mainly due to higher education institutions and the State having had their interactions transformed into a system of co-operative governance and steering within a broad policy framework (Ibid).

Some of the other changes that higher education institutions have to contend with, are the "...expansion of higher education from elite to mass to universal systems, new trends in teaching and learning, the growth of alternative systems of educations, changes in the market place and new demands and needs of society..."(Kistan, 1999, p.125). Kistan contends that higher education institutions are expected to fulfill the changing needs of society, and thus their accountability to the government, who partly funds their operations, has resulted in the introduction of quality and quantity assurance mechanisms. As a result, institutions and the individuals within them have also become the subjects of more exacting targets, explicit and implicit comparisons and external scrutiny.

Several authors have identified the rise of the market university in South Africa, as a result of these changes. Bertelsen (1998), examined the notion of a 'market university' and how it impacted on the University of Cape Town (UCT). The author

argues that UCT has adopted practices such as corporate branding, corporate management styles and an intensification of academic work. Traditional areas of academic authority were also usurped by an increasingly powerful administration. According to van der Walt, Bolsman, Johnson and Martin (2002, p.13), "...the academic workforce is driven to meet the increasingly instrumental curriculum and research goals of a management enamoured of the reinvention of the university as a business". One effect of the application of market criteria to university operations, Bertelsen (1998) predicts, is that there will be an increase in the number of academic staff employed on short-term and/or contingent bases, and the stratification of academic staff into a tenured core and a growing, casualised periphery.

This picture is broadly confirmed by reports from individual campuses. The University of the Western Cape (UWC) has also made some strides towards marketisation. The stratification of academic staff has resulted in the retrenchment of 40 academics at UWC in 1997-8, contributing to a payroll saving of R36 million with more than one third of the 600 support staff applying for redundancy (Lever, 1999). While laid off workers paid a high price, the effects on employees who survived downsizing at UWC, and consequently the effects of marketisation, need to be carefully examined.

Downsizing, a consequence of marketisation, usually involves work-load increases, an escalation of job insecurity, and a decline in morale. Survivors usually report increased job stress and symptoms of burnout, and according to Savery & Luks, (2001), cognitive responses such as anxiety, reduced concentration and helplessness may reduce the employees' level of commitment, because they might identify with the loss of co-workers and friends. In addition, research done by Vakola and Nikolaou (2005), suggests that organisations need to examine the extra workload that organisational change may create. Extra workload, they argue, may create negative attitudes to change and, as a result, employees may be reluctant to contribute to change

A study carried out at a university in Australia yielded similar findings. It was found that as a result of marketisation, workloads intensified and as pressures to raise revenues increased, academics reported a lack of consultation, major declines in job satisfaction and high levels of personal stress at work (Winter & Sarros, 2002). In fact, Harman (2003, p.105) argues that in “many respects, adjustment to the new commercial environment has been painful and damaging to the academic profession in Australia.”

Researchers have now questioned the value of commercial models for educational systems (Bertelsen, 1998; Pounder, 2001). Research in higher organisational effectiveness has been hampered by the assumption of the ‘conventional profit making business’, rather than the more ‘loosely coupled’ educational organisation (Pounder, 2001, p.281). There have however, been very few attempts to develop models of organisational effectiveness specific to universities, and Pounder (2001) argues that this is an unsatisfactory state of affairs as organisational effectiveness has become one of the central preoccupations of universities worldwide as they respond to pressure to demonstrate public accountability. Bleazard (1998, p. 1) quotes Henry Mintzberg who stated simply that “What all of us want is more effective organizations”, and argues that it would be difficult to find a senior administrator within the higher education sector in South Africa who does not share this sentiment.

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The literature suggests that increasing employee commitment and satisfaction in organisations impacts positively on employee productivity and performance (Luthans, 1992). With the increasing speed of change in higher education institutions in South Africa, the need to develop more effective higher education institutions is paramount, and it is imperative that these institutions attempt to seek ways to

generate greater job satisfaction and organisational commitment for their employees. This study is concerned with exploring the variables that will enhance satisfaction and commitment for higher education institution employees in order to develop more effective institutions in South Africa.

Several models of organisational commitment have suggested that the effects of various antecedents on commitment are mediated through job satisfaction (Lok & Crawford, 2001; Williams & Hazer, 1986). For instance, Williams and Hazer (1986) found in their study that age, pre-employment expectations, perceived job characteristics and leadership style all influence commitment indirectly through their effects on job satisfaction. This is consistent with Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian's (1974) study, which found that organisational commitment is much less specific and more stable than job satisfaction and thus the latter is expected to affect the former. A later study by Steers (1977) supported these findings and suggested that employees whose needs are satisfied by an organisation would likely be more committed to it, and moreover, society as a whole benefited from organisational commitment. There is dissent from this view, but it has been the dominant view in the literature thus far (Currivan, 1999; Price, 2000).

In addition, literature has also identified a number of demographic and occupational characteristics that have empirically been shown to be significant predictors of both organisational commitment and job satisfaction. These variables are age, tenure, education and job level (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). These variables have been included in this study for two important reasons. Firstly, for the purpose of gaining a better understanding of their contributions to the commitment and satisfaction of academic and support staff at a higher education institution and secondly, as control variables to obtain a more accurate picture regarding the contribution that the facets of job satisfaction make on the commitment of these employees.

Although much has been written about satisfaction and commitment in the private sector, most studies in higher education have examined the satisfaction and commitment levels of academics and excluded support staff (e.g. Austin & Gamson, 1983; Gmelch, Lovrich & Wilke, 1984; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Smart, 1990, all cited in Volkwein & Parmley, 2000). Also, the few studies that there are have focussed primarily on understanding the nature and level of satisfaction and commitment, rather than on examining the factors producing satisfaction and commitment and the subsequent connections to important outcomes such as turnover and productivity (e.g. Solomon & Tierney, 1977; Blix & Lee, 1991; Smart & Morstain, 1975, all cited in Volkwein & Parmley, 2000).

In addition, in a higher education institutional setting, where the employees, especially academic staff, have an unmediated relationship with and influence over students, commitment and job satisfaction are crucial. The institution's image is determined and maintained by its employees, who are in turn considered representatives of the institution. It therefore follows that undesired employee withdrawal could greatly damage the institution and its image, as well as impact negatively on students.

In order to reconcile the need to achieve high quality and organisational effectiveness in an environment of declining per capita resources and change, a high level of commitment and satisfaction from all those employed in the higher education sector, is necessary. There is evidence in the change management literature that organisational commitment and job satisfaction play an important role in a change context. Lau and Woodman (1995) argued that a highly committed employee is more willing to accept organisational change if the change is perceived to be beneficial, but other researchers indicate that highly committed employees may resist change if they perceive it as a threat (Vanola & Nikolaou, 2005). These findings suggest that organisational commitment might influence attitudes to organisational change. Similarly, Rush, Schoel and Barnard's (1995) research findings suggest that

perceived increased pressure from change implementation is associated with increased stress, and as a result, is associated with lower job satisfaction and increased intentions to quit.

An enormous change that is currently affecting South African higher education institutions is the mergers of technikons and universities. In 2002, the cabinet ratified a set of proposals from the Ministry of Education to reduce the number of higher education institutions from 36 to 21 by January 2005, to accomplish key policy goals of equity, quality and efficiency and to eradicate the mismanagement that had arisen mainly in historically disadvantaged institutions. The then Minister of Education argued that inequalities, wasteful duplications and uneven quality were the products of an institutional landscape shaped by apartheid planners. Individual institutions either welcomed or rejected these proposals, depending on whether they were required to merge fully or not with other institutions. The empirical study in this thesis was conducted in 2003 before the mergers process, and it would be necessary for comparative purposes to conduct a similar study after 2005 to assess the impact of the mergers on the human resources of higher education institutions.

This study seeks to investigate the factors that produce commitment and satisfaction in academic and support staff respectively and to understand any important differences that may exist. In order to compare the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academics with that of the support staff in a higher education institution, a distinction is made in the total staff population, namely:

Respondents designated as academics are people hired at a higher education institution to perform mainly teaching, research and outreach duties.

11. Respondents designated as support staff are those people employed at a higher education institution in administrative, technical and service capacities.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study are to determine:

- whether a relationship exists between job satisfaction and organisational commitment between academic and support staff at an institution of higher education in the Western Cape.

whether the demographic and occupational variables of age, gender, tenure, job level and level of education significantly explain any variance in job satisfaction between academic and support staff at an institution of higher education in the Western Cape.

whether the demographic and occupational variables of age, gender, tenure, job level and level of education significantly explain any variance in organisational commitment between academic and support staff at an institution of higher education in the Western Cape.

- whether the demographic and occupational variables of age, gender, tenure, job level and level of education significantly explain any difference between academic and support staff at an institution of higher education, in terms of organisational commitment and job satisfaction in the Western Cape.

Pursuant to these objectives, this study will commence with a detailed literature review in chapters two and three with regard to job satisfaction and organisational commitment respectively, while the empirical section of the study is addressed in chapters four and five. In chapter six, conclusions are drawn based on the results obtained and the practical implications of the research findings are pointed out. Finally, some recommendations and suggestions are made that may be of value in future research.

CHAPTER TWO

2. JOB SATISFACTION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction as a formal area of research did not exist until the mid-1930s, although job satisfaction has become a much-researched area of inquiry over the last thirty years (Landy, 1989). Many authors cite Locke (1976) who estimated that about 3 350 articles or dissertations had been written on this topic by 1972 with Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992) suggesting that more than 5000 studies of job satisfaction had been published.

The burgeoning interest in this construct in academia since the beginning of the 1990s, is mainly due to there being very few studies on job satisfaction in higher education institutions, especially related to quality management (Kusku, 2003). Furthermore, higher education institutions are labour intensive and most of their budgets are devoted to staff, whilst their effectiveness is dependent on their employees as well (Ibid).

Another reason for this interest is that staff structure and staffing in higher education is becoming a topic of growing concern (Enders, 1997). Enders argues that although the academic profession has often been characterised by a high degree of job satisfaction, the morale of academic staff is often thought to be lower than in previous generations. Examples that Enders cites are dissatisfaction with salary, increased workloads, reduced research possibilities, loss of professional autonomy and a decline in prestige within society. In fact, Oshagbemi (1997a) argues that more

studies on the job satisfaction of university staff are not only justified, but are long overdue.

The dominant theoretical and empirical work in satisfaction studies in higher education is concentrated in the West and shaped by Western European and American influences. Not much research in this field has emerged from developing or less developed countries (Kusku, 2003; Yousef, 2002). Nor has any research in South Africa compared the satisfaction levels of academic and support staff of higher education institutions. This study draws a comparison and evaluates the satisfaction levels between both groups of higher education institution employees, as the job content of these employees and the expectations from the institutions for both groups are very different. Unfortunately, although the research on academics is rich, the research on support staff is not as rich in either breadth or depth (Kusku, 2003), thus the literature review in this study focuses mainly on academic staff.

In general however, the interest in job satisfaction has also increased due to its implications for work-related objectives. According to Oshagbemi (1997a) this is because job satisfaction is a potential determinant of productivity, absenteeism, turnover, in-role job performance and extra-role behaviour. Similarly, Yousef's (2002) study shows that higher levels of job satisfaction leads to better job performance, strong commitment to the organisation, lower turnover and reduced absenteeism. It thus makes economic sense to consider whether and how job satisfaction can be improved.

Oshagbemi (1997a; 2000c) argues that the topic of job satisfaction is also an important one because of its relevance to the physical and mental well being of employees. As most people spend a large part of their working lives at work, an understanding of the factors involved in job satisfaction is relevant to improving the well being of a large number of people. Thus job satisfaction has relevance for human health. Warr (1987) is in agreement and argues that there is a fundamental association

between work and mental health and lists nine sources of evidences for this conclusion, namely:

Studies that demonstrate the negative effects of job loss.

Studies that show the emotional consequences of different jobs and work environments on individuals.

Studies of various occupations illustrate different occupational effects for example, studies of suicide rates among police officers; burnout in social workers; alcoholism among civil servants.

Studies of job satisfaction indicate that there are differing levels of satisfaction among varying occupations.

- Aspects of certain jobs can be shown to affect mental and physical well-being; for example jobs with little opportunity for control seems to lead to stress reactions in work.

Workers who change jobs often experience a reduction in somatic symptoms characteristic of emotional turmoil

- Clinicians who treat individuals for adjustment disorders invariably find job-related issues in the etiology of the disorder.

Employment can be an effective intervention in treating the mentally ill.

Studies have shown associations between work satisfaction and life satisfaction.

This study will consider the various definitions and theories of job satisfaction; and examine both the determinants and consequences of job satisfaction

2.2 DEFINITIONS AND INTERPRETATIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Evans (2001) conducted a study into job satisfaction among education professionals and maintained that there are relatively few definitions of job satisfaction which are

pertinent, particularly in recent work and argues that the value of much of the literature is 'diluted', since it is often unclear what the researcher means when referring to job satisfaction.

Evans (2001) maintains that there are four levels of understanding represented by work in job-related attitudes such as job satisfaction. The first level has its basis in conventional wisdom and common sense, but is characterised by oversimplistic reasoning. On this level, job satisfaction is usually equated with centrally initiated policy and conditions of service, such as pay. At the other end of the scale, the fourth level is characterised by in-depth analysis and recognition for the need of conceptual clarity and precision. On this level, individualism is recognised, and although there is still a search for commonalities and generalities, these are accurate as they are free from contextual specificity. Evans (2001) argues that this level has contributed not only to what job satisfaction is, but also to what its determinants are, such as individuals needs fulfilment, expectations fulfilment or values congruence. In accordance with this argument, Evans' (2001) definition of job satisfaction is "a state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which the individual perceives her/his job-related needs to be being met" (p.12).

A common interpretation of job satisfaction is reflected in Ivancevich, Olelelns and Matterson's (1997, p.91) definition of job satisfaction as: "An attitude that individuals have about their jobs" which "results from their perception of their jobs and the degree to which there is a good fit between the individual and the organization". Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry (1990) argue that when there is no fit between individuals and their jobs, they will not be able to deliver quality service. According to Rousseau and Parks (1992), a measure of the degree of fit is based on the idea of the psychological contract, which is both perceptual and individual. Silverthorne (2004) maintains that the psychological contract differs from all other types of contracts as it is individual in nature and is based on perceptions rather than reality. Hallier and James (1997) caution that if the psychological contract is not

implemented, it could have an adverse effect on the job satisfaction organisational commitment of employees. This argument is supported by Boshoff and Tait (1996), and they contend that employees who are satisfied with their jobs are more likely to suit their jobs as well.

Oshagbemi (2000b) describes job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. However, selective perception may result in positive and negative affectivity (dispositional tendencies to experience pleasant or unpleasant emotional states), which may impact on job satisfaction (Price, 2000). For instance, an employee high in positive affectivity, may selectively perceive the favourable aspects of the job, and thereby increase job satisfaction. Furthermore, Price argues that positive and negative affectivity impacts not only directly on job satisfaction, but may "contaminate, or bias the measurement of other exogenous variables believed to be determinants of satisfaction" (p. 605). Thus job satisfaction research has to control for the affectivity variable.

Job satisfaction has been defined and measured both as a global construct and as a concept with multiple dimensions or facets (Price, 1997). This study however, is primarily concerned with the multi-faceted nature of job satisfaction which is implicit in Smith, Kendall & Hulin's (1969) definition as the extent to which employees have a positive affective orientation or attitude towards particular facets of their jobs. identified five facets that represent the most important characteristics of a job about which people experience affective responses:

- *The work itself* - the extent to which the job provides the employee with opportunities for learning, challenging tasks and responsibility.

Pay - the amount of financial compensation that an individual receives as well as the extent to which such compensation is perceived to be equitable.

Opportunities for promotion - the employee's chances for advancement in the organisational hierarchy.

Supervision - the ability of the employee's superior to provide technical assistance and support.

Co-workers - the degree to which fellow employees are technically competent and socially supportive (Smith *et al.*, 1969).

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Present day theories of job satisfaction are generally derived from theories on work motivation. A good framework is that of Campbell *et al.* (cited in Landy, 1989) who classified these theories as either content or process theories. Process theories explain "how behaviour is initiated, directed, sustained and stopped" and content theories on the other hand "search for things within individuals that initiate, direct, sustain, and stop behavior" (p.369).

Content theories thus give an account of the factors that influence job satisfaction and there are three well established models, namely the rational-economic, the social and the self-actualising models. Maslow's Needs Hierarchy Theory and its construction by Herzberg (1966) into the Motivation Hygiene Theory will be considered under the heading of the self-actualising model.

Process theories try to give an account of the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values interact with the characteristics of the job to produce job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). Equity theory, for example, argues that job satisfaction occurs when a comparison is made in terms of what an individual puts into a job and the rewards received with those of others, and the individual finds

equitable treatment. The premise of this theory is that individuals are satisfied when their job expectations are met. The complex model will introduce some aspects of the process theory.

The theories most frequently addressed in the literature are as follows:

2.3.1 Content Theories

2.3.1.1 *Maslow's self-actualising model*

Maslow (1970), postulated a needs hierarchy, with needs divided into those of a lower order and those of a higher order. Human needs he saw as falling into a hierarchy from the most basic physiological needs to needs for self-actualisation. As the basic needs are met, energy is released for the satisfaction of higher needs. Self-actualisation, according to Maslow, is the need a person has to fulfil his or her capabilities and potential, that is his or her desire for growth. The five needs are as follows:

- Physiological – the need for food drink and shelter
- Safety – protection against danger, threat and deprivation
- Social – belonging, acceptance and friendship
- Ego/esteem – self-esteem, reputation, standing
- Self-actualisation – self-development

According to Rowley (1996, p. 13), intrinsic to this model are the following factors that motivate individuals:

- Everyone seeks a sense of meaning and accomplishment in their work
- Individuals like to exercise autonomy and independence and to develop skills.
- Individuals are primarily self-motivated and self-controlled.

- There is no inherent conflict between self-actualisation and more effective organisational performance. Individuals are happy to integrate their goals with those of the organisation.

Whilst Maslow's theory might have appeal, it also seems to have some drawbacks. Gruneberg (1979) points out that there is no evidence for this hierarchy of needs, and furthermore, man's needs, even at the lowest levels, are not satisfied by one "consummatory act". The author argues that there are always physical needs to be satisfied and draws on evidence showing that the satisfying of certain needs leads to strengthening of those needs rather than the reverse.

However, not all researchers would agree with Gruneberg, as is evidenced by Mueller and McClosky's (1990) design of a multi-dimensional instrument covering eight facets of job satisfaction based on various dimensions of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Included are dimensions representing higher-order (psychological) needs, such as professionalism in the workplace and lower-order needs, such as pay.

2.3.1.2 *Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory*

Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory has made a significant contribution to the discussion of job satisfaction. Herzberg (1966) conducted studies of job satisfaction of employees in a variety of settings, and found that there are elements within the job and job environment, which lead to satisfaction or lack of satisfaction. Herzberg believed that the intrinsic components or job content, lead to worker satisfaction; and extrinsic components or job environment, detracted from satisfaction. Motivation factors were listed as satisfiers, as they prompt higher levels of performance. Satisfiers (or motivators) in fact, were closely related to self-actualisation needs. Satisfiers include the work itself, recognition, achievement, responsibility and the opportunity for advancement. The hygiene factors, in contrast, prevent optimum

performance and are called dissatisfiers and relate to Maslow's lower level needs. Herzberg listed the following items as dissatisfiers (or hygiene factors) that result from, but do not involve the job itself, namely company policy and administrative practices, supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships, physical working conditions, benefits and job security. Hygiene factors are necessary but not sufficient for job satisfaction. Only in the presence of both motivators and hygiene factors will the employee experience satisfaction. Positive motivation comes only from accomplishing a meaningful and challenging task.

A number of theorists have criticised Herzberg on the basis that his conclusions are based on a very narrow sample of the working population (e.g. Gruneberg, 1979). In addition, Rowley (1996) argues that Herzberg uses satisfaction and motivation as interchangeable, and assumes that increased satisfaction leads to increased motivation, and this is not always the case.

However, a number of studies have confirmed his findings. For example, in studies to determine whether intrinsic factors indeed contributed to job satisfaction, research confirmed Herzberg's claims that achievement, recognition, advancement, need for autonomy, and self-actualisation were the major factors in motivating individuals to perform at their maximum levels, thus leading to high degrees of job satisfaction (Graham & Messner, 1998). These researchers also found that the significant job dissatisfiers were supervision, personal life, relationships with superiors, relationships with subordinates and relationships with peers.

Nevertheless, as Rowley (1996) argues, the distinction between satisfiers and dissatisfiers is useful and the recognition that some factors contribute to positive motivation while others can only minimise dissatisfaction, is important.

2.3.2 Process Theories

2.3.2.1 *Complex models*

Schein criticised the claim to universality and generality in the content models and instead saw human nature as complex, with human needs and motivations varying according to the different circumstances people face, their life experiences, expectations and age (Rowley, 1996). He maintained that people are motivated to work when they believe they can get what they want from their jobs, which might include the satisfaction of safety needs, the excitement of doing challenging work, or the ability to set and achieve goals. Schein also introduced the concept of the psychological contract (Rowley, 1996, p. 14), which he saw as "...essentially a set of expectations on both sides and a match is important if efforts to improve motivation are likely to be effective." However, it is unlikely that a single theory could provide a complete framework for a multi-faceted construct such as job satisfaction and a combination of perspectives may be more useful (Saal & Knight, 1988).

2.4 FACETS OF JOB SATISFACTION

In recent years there has been an increase in the literature on the facets of job satisfaction (Groot, 1999). According to Lam (1995, p.73), research findings suggest that job satisfaction is "...not a static state but is subject to influence and modification from forces within and outside an individual, that is his or her own personal characteristics and the immediate working environment", which suggests that the facets of job satisfaction can be thus divided primarily into extrinsic and intrinsic sources of satisfaction. Furthermore, there has been research that indicates that biographical data such as age and gender have some influence on the level of job satisfaction (Savery, 1996).

Research has shown that employees are more productive when they are satisfied with their jobs and their environments in which they work, thus dimensions other than economic ones become major factors encouraging productivity and efficiency for the employees of higher education institutions, where the economic satisfaction level is rather low in return for work done and efforts made (Kusku, 2003).

2.4.1 Extrinsic Sources of Job Satisfaction

Extrinsic sources of job satisfaction originate from the individual's environment. Smith *et al.* (1969) have identified five facets that represent the most important characteristics of a job about which people experience affective responses, and constitute external sources of satisfaction:

2.4.1.1 The Work Itself

Hackman and Oldham (1976, p.250) developed a job characteristics model which contends that:

“...providing employees with task variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and feedback, will lead to three critical psychological states, (experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of actual results) which, in turn, will lead to high internal work motivation, high quality work performance, high work satisfaction, and low absenteeism and turnover”.

This argument is supported by the philosophy of total quality management, which emphasises employee involvement and feedback to improve employee's job satisfaction (McAfee, Quarstein & Ardalan, 1995). The suggestion is that employees feel that they are a major part of the organisation and are motivated to further participate in improving the system.

In support of this argument, Luthans (1992) argues that the nature of the work performed by employees has a significant impact on their level of job satisfaction. He maintains that employees derive satisfaction from work that is interesting and challenging and a job that provides them with status.

These findings are consistent with those of Oshagbemi (2000c), who based his study on academic staff at universities in the United Kingdom (UK). The results of his study are as follows:

- University teachers are more satisfied with their tasks of teaching, research, administration and management, in that order. There appears to be a widespread difference in the satisfaction levels, which university teachers enjoy, by performing their tasks. These results are consistent with the findings of a study conducted by Gruneberg and Startup (1978). They found that university teachers find teaching more satisfying than research. In an earlier study (Oshagbemi, 1999) it was found that university managers did not derive significantly greater satisfaction from research than other academics they managed. The result is surprising, as Oshagbemi argues that it was success at research activity in many cases, which saw them appointed as managers. However, managers might not have enough time for research and their satisfaction from research may be lower than before they became managers and they might enjoy fewer benefits of research.
- Halsey & Trow (1971) found however, that academics who are primarily oriented towards teaching rate their promotion chances lower than those primarily oriented towards research. These authors thus conclude that while there may be intrinsic gains from teaching,

intrinsic gains and extrinsic rewards appear to flow more research.

- Academics are dissatisfied with their administrative activities. They resent the time spent on these activities and are discontented with the nature of these activities. These findings could be explained by an earlier study of the same author, who found that academics felt that administrative duties did not constitute a core obligation (Oshagbemi, 2000c).
- Younger academics (under the age of 35), are more satisfied with teaching than older academics. However, this satisfaction reduces by the time they are in the 35-44 age range. As they grow older, until retirement age, the satisfaction level with teaching increases again. Oshagbemi (2000c, p.132) argues that this may be the result “of their more skilful approach to the task and their consequent better performance of that aspect of the job”.
- Research satisfaction decreases consistently with age. Oshagbemi (2000c) surmises that this finding may be attributed to the probability that older academics might not be executing as much new research as they would be supervising students and writing papers from previous research.
- Gender and rank are not significantly related to teaching. Thus, academics are generally satisfied with teaching across gender and rank.

It is interesting to note, that in an earlier study, Oshagbemi (1997a) found that there were a list of other aspects of university teachers' jobs, which together accounted for

a higher satisfaction level than either teaching or research considered individually. Included in the list were job security, opportunity for consultancy, freedom of life style, flexible working hours and foreign travel. This finding shows that considerations other than what may be regarded as employees' core activities could often be very important in determining total job satisfaction.

There are not many studies done on the external facets of satisfaction for support staff. However, evidence from public administration research indicate that employees of public organisations derive their job satisfaction primarily from the social aspects of their jobs, and only secondarily from the work itself (Volkwein & Parmley, 2000).

In addition to these findings, Van Yperen & Janssen (2002) found that exerting great effort to meet high job demands will not necessarily produce job dissatisfaction. These authors argue that an individual's goal orientation explains why some employees feel fatigued but satisfied with their jobs when faced with heavy workloads, whereas other's perceptions of high job demands are related to both fatigue and dissatisfaction. Landy (1989) however, maintains that the physical demands inherent in the job are likely to have an impact on the employee's level of satisfaction as work that is physically demanding or emotionally exhausting is less likely to produce satisfaction.

2.4.1.2 *Pay*

Pay refers to the amount of financial compensation the person receives as well as to the extent to which such compensation is perceived to be equitable (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). They contend that individuals are satisfied with their pay when existing pay corresponds to or is greater than desired pay. Pay dissatisfaction occurs when existing pay is less than desired pay.

Herzberg (1966) classified pay as a 'hygiene factor' in the work environment and maintained that pay can only lead to feelings of dissatisfaction, but not to satisfaction. Discrepancy theorists such as Locke (1969) and Porter (1961) maintain however, that satisfaction is a function of the employee's comparison of what exists on a job with what is sought on the job (Oshagbemi, 2000a). Equity theories as proposed by Jacques (1961), Patchen (1961) and Adams (1965), view pay satisfaction as a continuum possessing both positive and negative values (Ibid).

Oshagbemi & Hickson (2003) maintain that satisfaction with pay deserves a closer study for two main reasons. Firstly, pay affects the overall level of a worker's job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction and it is one of the five indices incorporated in the original and revised JDI. Secondly, pay constitutes a substantial, often major cost of doing or managing business and is a common denominator in most organisational decision-making. They conclude "...from the consideration of both employers (cost) and employees (benefit), pay satisfaction deserves further investigation" (p. 358).

An issue involving faculty compensation that is becoming an important component to some university compensation plans in the United States is compression and inversion (Comm & Mathaisel, 2003). Compression occurs when market conditions create salaries of junior staff that are very close to their more experienced colleagues. Inversion occurs when the salaries of some junior faculty exceed those of some senior faculty members in terms of experience and/or qualifications. Compression/inversion is sometimes blamed as a major contributor to a range of problems that impact on satisfaction and include (Ibid):

- faculty morale
- higher turnover
- higher complaint level
- lower research productivity; and
- changes in classroom performance.

A recent study by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business in the United States found that in almost every discipline, higher education institutions were paying more for new faculty than for many existing faculty in the same rank (Comm & Mathaisel, 2003).

In a study conducted by Oshagbemi (2000a) to determine the correlates of pay satisfaction in higher education, the following findings were made:

- Within the university work environment, out of eight aspects of job satisfaction, employees were most dissatisfied with their pay and promotions. These two factors are related, as promotions lead to increased pay. He also found that less than 30 percent of university teachers in UK universities are satisfied with their pay and over 50 percent indicated that they are dissatisfied, very dissatisfied or extremely dissatisfied. In the same study, Klein & Maher (1966) are cited; they found that higher education is generally associated with relative dissatisfaction with pay. Similar findings were made by Comm & Mathaisel (2003) in the United States, who found that 51 percent of the faculty does not believe they are fairly compensated.
- Complaints seemed to revolve around issues such as procedures for determining salary increases, the inadequacy of the salary levels to enable respondents to have the desired standard of living, and government policy towards pay levels in the universities.
- There are no statistical differences with respect to age variations relating to satisfaction with pay among the groups of university teachers. Although satisfaction with pay is not significant with respect to age alone, it becomes significant when interacted with gender and rank, each of which is statistically significant independently. His overall findings show that pay satisfaction in

the academia is largely explained by variations in gender and rank, but not age.

- Satisfaction with pay does not follow a progressive rise or any pattern with rank. It is interesting to note in this study that senior lecturers as a group are most happy with their pay. However, in a previous study by Oshagbemi (1997b), overall job satisfaction was positively and significantly related to rank but not gender or age. He found that professors were most satisfied with their overall jobs, followed by readers, senior lecturers and then lecturers. The author explains this by arguing that the salary bands of these academics overlap with those of the professors.

- Female academics are more satisfied with their pay compared with their male counterparts. Although male and female academics are dissatisfied with their pay, the men are significantly more dissatisfied compared with the women. In contrast, a study by Graham and Messner (1998) to determine the job satisfaction of principals, found that male principals were more satisfied with their pay than female principals. However, a study conducted by Higgs, Higgs & Wolhuter (2004) at all the institutions of higher education in South Africa, found no significant gender differences in pay satisfaction.

Furthermore, Goffee and Nicholson (1994), maintain that although females are more highly educated than men, they are less likely to occupy senior managerial positions and tend to be paid less. Indeed, it is reported that worldwide women earn only about two thirds as much as men (Women's International Network News, 1991). It is also reported that an average female academic in a UK university will earn between four and five years less salary than an equivalent man working the same number of years between starting and retiring (Times Higher Education Supplement, 1999)

Unless these discrepancies are attended to, women will continue to experience less job satisfaction than do men (Graham & Messner, 1998). Accordingly, Blackmore & Kenway (1993, p.98) state: "...educational administration remains, for the most part, obstinately gender-blind.....and that the male-stream/mainstream is unlikely to move in a feminist direction..." (quoted in Graham & Messner, 1998, p.197).

Oshagbemi (2000a) cites research findings that suggest that compensation policies and amounts influence level of absenteeism (Mobley *et al.*, 1979), turnover decisions (Finn & Lee, 1972), and employee decisions on productivity (Mahoney, 1979). The author argues that these findings suggest that pay satisfaction is an issue of both financial and psychological adequacy.

The findings of Lee & Martin (1996) also lend evidence to the above argument. They found that employees' loss of high-tier status possibly explains their pay dissatisfaction when they change from high-tier to low-tier jobs, even when pay is increased in the low-tier jobs.

With regard to the difference in satisfaction levels regarding pay between academic and support staff, a study done in Turkey shows that the salary levels of state university employees are far from optimal for both academic and support staff (Kusku, 2003). However, the academic staff are less content with their salaries than are the support staff. Kusku argues that the low satisfaction level with salary is not surprising in a developing country, where financial and economic resources are limited. As it is difficult to improve the salary levels in developing countries such as Turkey, attracting and retaining qualified staff at the state universities are equally difficult.

Similarly, there was no significant difference between the mean scores of academics and their managers regarding their pay, both groups were equally dissatisfied

(Oshagbemi, 1999). Managerial posts within higher education institutions are not as well remunerated as they are in private industries.

According to Cockcroft (2001), the safest generalisation that can be made with regards to pay is that it represents different things to different employees, and is certainly not the most important motivator for many individuals. This author cites Smither (1988), who states that whilst a few individuals are in a position to ignore the financial aspects of a job, most individuals appear to select their occupations based on the work itself, rather than the financial rewards thereof.

2.4.1.3 *Working Conditions*

Landy (1989) maintains that the match between the working conditions of employees and their physical needs determine in part their job satisfaction. This view is refuted by Luthans (1992) who argues that workers do not give much consideration to their working conditions and often take them for granted and complaints regarding working conditions are usually manifestations of other underlying problems, which often disappear when the underlying frustrations are identified and resolved. However, he does concede that working conditions are likely to have a significant impact on job satisfaction when they are either extremely good or extremely poor.

In contrast, a study by Oshagbemi (1997a) to determine job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction at higher education institutions in the United Kingdom revealed the importance of working conditions in affecting employees' satisfaction. In a later comparative study of academics and their managers, Oshagbemi (1999) found managers to have a significantly higher job satisfaction with their physical working conditions and facilities compared to academics. One argument offered for this finding is that managers enjoy the privileges of their appointments, such as big offices, sophisticated equipment and so forth. However, this argument could not be

applied to justify Kusku's (2003) finding that support staff too were more satisfied with their working conditions than academics in Turkey.

In a study conducted at South African institutions of higher education, Higgs *et al.* (2004) found that academics were fairly satisfied with their classrooms, technology for teaching, laboratories, research equipment and instruments, computer facilities, library holdings, faculty offices and secretarial support, although no comparisons were made with other employees of the institution. There were no significant gender differences.

2.4.1.4 *Co-workers*

Numerous studies indicate that individuals who perceive that they have better interpersonal friendships with their co-workers and immediate supervisors report higher job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 2001). A study by Lacy and Sheehan (1997), examined the impact of context elements, including work climate and atmosphere, on general levels of job satisfaction amongst academics. The results indicate that relationships with colleagues, among other factors, are the greatest predictors of job satisfaction.

However, in a study done by Kusku (2003), it was found that there are significant differences between the opinions of academic staff and support staff regarding the relationships amongst their colleagues and the level of competition between their colleagues. The satisfaction level of the relationship between colleagues is lower for the academic staff compared to that of the support staff. However, the satisfaction level for competition amongst colleagues was higher for the academic staff compared to that of support staff. Kusku concluded that academic staff are not content with their colleagues with respect to their co-operation and interest in academic studies. However, support staff, though content in their relationships with their colleagues, have concerns regarding the competitive power of their colleagues.

Nevertheless, research has largely shown that a supportive work climate and organisational culture, relationships with colleagues and superiors and teamwork have exerted positive and significant influences on support staff satisfaction (e.g. Austin & Gamson, 1983; Bruce & Blackburn, 1992, Hoppock, 1977; all cited in Volkwein & Parmley, 2000). Volkwein & Parmley conclude that reducing interpersonal conflict and promoting teamwork should rate high on the list of priorities for university managers.

Oshagbemi (1999) found that significant differences in satisfaction with co-workers exist between academics and their managers. It was hypothesised that since managers in academia generally get co-operation from most of their colleagues, they would derive more satisfaction from this aspect of their jobs compared to other academics who do not hold managerial positions. Also, Oshagbemi points out that academia demands some sort of interdependence in performing academic responsibilities and academics might not be as successful as managers in eliciting the co-operation of their co-workers, as academics tend to be individuals rather than team players. However, a study conducted at South African higher education institutions (Higgs *et al.* 2004) found that academics rated their satisfaction with co-workers higher than their job security, promotion opportunities, the management of institutions, and their job situation as a whole. There were no significant gender differences.

2.4.1.5 *Supervision*

Salancik & Pfeffer's (1978) social information processing theory explains the development of job attitudes with special regard to the relationship between job perception and job satisfaction. In terms of this theory, social information provides the sources for the formation of job attitudes, for example job satisfaction, and according to Chen (2001) enhances the consistency of these attitudes once they are formed. If a person is loyal to a supervisor, loyalty is used as "a source of information

to develop corresponding job attitudes, such as job satisfaction and intent to stay.” (Chen, 2001, p.652).

Other studies have also found that employees’ attitudes such as job satisfaction are developed through interaction with other people, for example supervisors, in the work environment (Chen, 2001; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Thus loyalty to a supervisor will influence job satisfaction and therefore intent to stay. Previous research conducted by Chen, Farh and Tsui (1998) indicates that if an employee is loyal to the supervisor, the employee will share similar values with the supervisor and will be psychologically attached to the supervisor. In interactions with the supervisor, the working experience may be more satisfying for the employee.

On the other hand, most staff in higher education institutions have significant autonomy and according to Rowley (1996) and Enders (1997), one of the main reasons why they select higher education as a career is because of this opportunity for personal autonomy which is seen as a major intrinsic reward of professional life. Autonomy is defined as the degree to which an employee exercises power relative to his or her job, and research suggests that autonomy decreases turnover by its positive impact on job satisfaction (Price, 2000). The nature of an academics job is that it is generally independent of a supervisor and can be carried out with a high degree of autonomy.

Another important claim in higher education is the positive connection between academic autonomy and quality (Volkwein & Parmley 2000). The relationship between autonomy and effective performance is assumed to operate both at the individual academic level and the institutional level. Although previous attempts by Volkwein to measure empirically the relationship between quality and autonomy at the institutional level have proven inconclusive (Volkwein & Parmley, 2000), studies by Vroom (1964) and Porter & Lawler (1968) lead one to expect that autonomy may

indirectly affect organisational quality through gains in productivity that result from higher managerial satisfaction.

In a study of public universities conducted by Volkwein, Malik and Napierski-Pranci (1998), little direct relationship was found between degrees of autonomy and support staff satisfaction (cited in Volkwein & Parmley, 2000). However, the researchers found a consistent connection between every measure of support staff satisfaction and the human relations aspect of the immediate environment.

2.4.2 Intrinsic Sources of Job Satisfaction

Vecchio (1988) maintains that intrinsic sources of job satisfaction originate from within the individual and have intrinsic and psychological value because of what they symbolise, but because they originate from an individual's physical environment, it can also be seen as an extrinsic source.

Perceived opportunities for promotion and recognition are generally viewed as intrinsic sources of job satisfaction.

2.4.2.1 Perceived opportunities for promotion

Perceived opportunities for promotion is the perception of the degree of potential occupational mobility within an organisation. According to Price (2001), the belief is that promotional chances decrease turnover indirectly by means of a positive influence on job satisfaction

Equity theory suggests that job satisfaction is influenced by employees' perceptions of the ratio of 'spent effort' versus rewards in comparison with their colleagues' experiences (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2002). In terms of this theory, if an employee

believes a colleague is getting promoted for perceived less spent effort, this is likely to reduce the job satisfaction for the future effort of other employees. A study conducted by Evans (2001) to identify and explain the factors that affected job-related attitudes in academics, found that situations and circumstances that were considered to be unfair were sources of dissatisfaction. It was found that the "...range of perceived unfairness included situations and circumstances that discriminated against the individual him/herself, discriminated against others, afforded unmerited advantages to others and differentiated where it was felt there should be uniformity or commonality" (p. 301).

In a study conducted in Australia (Harman, 2003), sixty-two percent of the academics surveyed felt that at their institution promotion opportunities were too limited. Similarly, Oshagbemi (1999) found that managers of higher education institutions derived more satisfaction from promotions compared with other academics and concluded that most managers in academic institutions are professors who have benefited from the promotion process and would therefore be expected to derive more job satisfaction from that aspect of their jobs. Furthermore, Higgs *et al.* (2004) found that academics of both genders in South African higher education institutions were only fairly satisfied with their opportunities for promotion.

2.4.2.2 *Recognition*

Gruneberg (1979) theorised that for many individuals, achievement sooner or later requires external validation (recognition) if it is to be sustained. Success produces a series of externally validated rewards, all of which have the effect of increasing the individual's self-esteem, whereas failure leads to a reduction in feelings of self-esteem.

Recognition can be given in tangible ways, such as through promotions and salary increases, or by verbal comments, such as praise (Gruneberg, 1979). Locke (1976)

argues that almost all workers value being praised for their work. He found recognition to be one of the single most frequently cited events causing either satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

The Impact of Demographic Variables on Job Satisfaction

Okpara (2004) found that job satisfaction could be predicted from demographic variables, but not all variables contributed to the same degree of satisfaction. Often theorists argue that many theories of job satisfaction take little account of differences between people (Gruneberg, 1979). For example, not all people may want fulfilment in their jobs; many want the highest financial rewards.

It must be noted, however, that the findings in this area of research are often inconsistent and less satisfactory than in other areas of job satisfaction (Ibid). The demographic variables to be considered in this discussion are age, gender, tenure, level of education and job level.

2.4.3.1 Age

The majority of studies on the relationship of age and job satisfaction have found some association between employee age and job satisfaction (Chinmetepituck, Crossman & Sarker, 2003). Indeed, one of the most comprehensive pieces of research into demographic variables and job satisfaction, according to Chinmetepituck *et al.*, (2003), is that of Rhodes (1983), who, drawing on the findings of previous bivariate and multivariate studies, suggests a positive, linear relationship between age and job satisfaction. Similarly, Ronen (1978) reported a linear relationship between age and job satisfaction in a sample of private sector production workers.

According to Herzberg (1966), job satisfaction starts high, declines, and then starts to improve again with increasing age. The assumption is that there is a higher level of morale among young workers, but that this declines after the novelty of employment wears off and boredom with the job sets in. Satisfaction rises again in later life as workers become used to their role (Chinmeteepituck *et al.*, 2003). Although research has been unequivocal, many studies since then have shown that older workers are more satisfied with their jobs than younger workers (Gruneberg, 1979, Hickson & Oshagbemi, 1999; Oshagbemi, 1997b; Spector, 2000).

Oshagbemi's (1997a) study involving 554 university teachers corroborated the view that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and age. Academics below the age of 35 years reported the lowest levels of satisfaction, followed by academics between the ages of 35 and 44 years. Academics above 55 years reported being the most satisfied with their jobs.

A review of the literature indicates several reasons for the positive association between age and job satisfaction. Mottaz (1986) offers the following reasons:

- Younger workers place significantly greater importance on intrinsic rewards like interesting and challenging jobs compared to older workers who are more concerned with extrinsic rewards such as pay and fringe benefits. Thus younger workers are more dissatisfied because they demand more than their jobs can provide.
- Older workers possess more seniority and work experience, which enable them to move easily into more rewarding and satisfying jobs.
- Older workers consider rewards such as interesting work, autonomy and promotions as less important and more difficult to attain. They thus demand

less of such rewards from their jobs and are therefore more satisfied with their work than younger workers.

- After having stayed in their jobs for some time, workers tend to adjust their work values to the conditions of the workplace, resulting in greater job satisfaction.

While many studies found a positive, linear relationship between age and job satisfaction, certain studies have found a curvilinear relationship (Gruneberg, 1979; Hickson & Oshagbemi, 1999; Spector, 1997, 2000). Luthans & Thomas (1989), ascribed these findings to the following possible reasons, amongst others:

- Older workers may become increasingly disappointed in recognising that their expectations and aspirations are becoming more limited.
- It may be due to the individual's attempt to cope with the idea of earlier retirement. The worker may experience reduction in dissonance and feel that his job is not really as satisfying as it used to be in an attempt to justify retiring early
- Older workers may experience increased pressures from factors such as changing technologies, role overload, or an increasing emphasis on objective productivity measures.

However, Gruneberg (1979) points out that it is important to remember that the pattern of satisfaction as a function of age is likely to differ from occupation to occupation and possibly between the sexes. For instance, Al-Ajmi (2001) found that job satisfaction varies with age for both men and women.

Okpara (2004, p. 329) suggests that the mixed and generally inconclusive results obtained in studies researching the relationship between job satisfaction and age may be due to the “largely atheoretical nature of research in this area as well as inconsistent application of proper statistical and methodological controls”.

2.4.3.2 Gender

In the past few decades, more women have entered the workforce in jobs that have been traditionally held by men (Spector, 2000). In South Africa specifically, the Employment Equity Act of 1998 provides for the elimination of unfair discrimination based on gender. In education in particular, Truscott (1994) suggests that any new legislation in South Africa must specifically mention non-sexism, and according to Higgs *et al.* (2004), the question of gender equality in higher education has become the dominant motive for educational reform worldwide. Recommendations from a study conducted by Badsha and Kotecha (1994) at seventeen South African universities were that representation of women in the academic and managerial staff be increased in particularly in senior ranks of top management. It has thus become more important to understand if there are significant differences in job attitudes between men and women. Thus, Lefkowitz (quoted in Singh, Finn & Goulet, 2004, p. 345) wrote:

“...these observed differences appear to confirm the implicit assumption that women’s reactions are indeed different from those of men – as a consequence of some unspecified psychobiological factors or of differential sex-role socialization...moreover, it seems pertinent to note the rather invidious nature of the above comparisons: all of them cast women as less well-adapted to life, as less competitive and less career-oriented, and thus, by inference, as less effective at work than men.”

Singh *et al.* (2004) argue that as a result of these perceptions and the inconclusive research results, it is important to conduct additional research using different data sets and methods. The findings on the relationships between job satisfaction and gender

have been notoriously inconsistent. For example, Groot (1999) found no significant differences in job satisfaction between men and women. Oshagbemi (1997b) found that female academics are more satisfied with their jobs than are male academics. However, a study conducted by Hulin and Smith (1976) found that female workers in manufacturing plants were less satisfied than male workers.

Inconsistencies in findings on gender and job satisfaction can be due to a variety of factors. According to Gruneberg (1979), results in this area often show that women are less concerned with career aspects and more concerned with social aspects. These research findings are interpreted as showing that the traditional role of females as empathetic and person-oriented shows in their job orientation, whereas males orientate more towards competitiveness. This interpretation is consistent with the argument offered by Loscocco (1990), who maintained that women most value the type of rewards that are more readily available from their jobs. For instance, DeSai & Waite (1991) found that support from supervisors and co-workers, as well as pay and (fringe) benefits, all increase women's job satisfaction as well as their attachment to their employer and the labour force in general. They are, therefore, more easily satisfied than men who desire the less-available autonomy and financial rewards. Although Oshagbemi (2003) found that gender by itself is not significantly related to job satisfaction, it is significant when compared with the rank of university academics. At higher ranks, female academics show greater overall job satisfaction than their male counterparts and he argues that this may be due to the relatively fewer numbers of female academics in higher academic ranks, who might see themselves as exceptionally gifted and hardworking in their disciplines.

In contrast to the above view, some researchers have maintained that women are inclined to be less satisfied in their jobs, because they tend to hold positions at a lower level in the organisational hierarchy, where pay and promotion prospects are less attractive (Lim, Teo and Thayer, 1998). Similarly, in a study conducted in a stratified sample in South Africa by Mwamwenda (1997), although both male and

female teachers expressed a considerable degree of job satisfaction, male teachers expressed more job satisfaction than female teachers.

Gruneberg (1979) and Oshagbemi (2000b) however, caution against making generalisations on the basis of research findings. They argue that not only might males and females in the same organisation differ in job level, promotion prospects, pay and so on, in different occupations, they may differ in the extent to which the same job satisfies their needs. A job high on social satisfaction, but low on skill utilisation and career prospects, may result in higher job satisfaction for women than for males; whereas in occupations allowing little scope for social relationships, the differences in satisfaction might be in the opposite direction

The Singh *et al.* (2004) study shows though that there are no inherent differences between men and women when job-related and demographic variables such as age and marital status are controlled. They found significant differences only with respect to organisational commitment between the genders, where women reported higher levels of job commitment.

2.4.3.3 *Tenure*

A number of studies have indicated that the length of service in a job could be used to estimate the levels of job satisfaction of employees (Vecchio, 1988). The assumption is, according to Oshagbemi (2000d), that the less satisfied employees tend to resign, while the more satisfied ones tend to remain with the organisation.

In a study of the effects of length of service on job satisfaction levels of university teachers, Oshagbemi (2000d) found length of service to be positively and significantly related to overall job satisfaction. This finding seems to corroborate those of Ronen (1978), who suggests that intrinsic satisfaction in a job is a major contributor to changes in the overall satisfaction of employees over time; length of

service is related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Mottaz (1986) offers the explanation that employees tend to adjust their work values to the conditions of the workplace, resulting in greater job satisfaction. The explanation offered by Savery (1996) is that employees who experience little responsibility, interest, recognition or achievement are more likely to experience dissatisfaction and leave the organisation. Clark, Oswald & Warr (1996) maintain that employees with longer service may experience higher satisfaction because they have found a job that matches their needs, or find opportunities for promotion which might lead to higher job satisfaction.

Chambers (1999) found that employees with longer length of service were more satisfied with their work itself as well as their level of pay. The inference is that satisfaction increases with time and that benefits that increase in time, such as security and experience, are likely to have an important influence on employee satisfaction. However, as pointed out by Oshagbemi (2000d), there are several workers who remain on their jobs more for economic reasons than through satisfaction with those jobs.

In contrast, Groot (1999), found no significant relationship between length of service and job satisfaction whilst research findings by Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001) and Gibson & Klein (1970) show a decrease in satisfaction with increased length of service. Gibson & Klein attribute this finding to a realisation by employees that the rewards on the job might not be as lucrative as they expected. Clark *et al.* (1996) posit that longer length of service in a job may result in boredom and lower levels of satisfaction, and research has shown that this may be exacerbated by low job mobility and external labour market conditions.

It is evident that the literature is inconsistent in this regard. This may be due to the fact that the relationship between satisfaction and length of service depends on a specific organisation and how length of service is viewed. In the university environment, for example, length of service does not necessarily guarantee

promotions. Often, academics have accepted appointments in other universities when their original universities have denied them a promotion to a higher rank.

It should be noted however, that controlling for length of service in an organisation still leaves open the possibility that older employees have had more experience, enabling them to select the kind of job which will satisfy them, based on their previous work history (Gruneberg, 1979). As Chinmeteepituck *et al.* (2003) point out, age may not be considered an independent predictor of job satisfaction, rather it may be better seen as a confounder that moderates the positive relationship between the length of service and job satisfaction.

2.4.3.4 *Level of Education*

Research investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and education has been inconclusive (Loscocco, 1990). The mixed evidence points to the complex nature of the relationship between educational level and job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). As this author points out, selecting the best-qualified candidate for a job is not necessarily the best decision to make. To have someone over-qualified in terms of the utilisation of skills is likely to lead to dissatisfaction when expectations or values on the job are not fulfilled.

Whilst certain authors have found a positive relationship between these two variables (Al-Ajmi, 2001; Okpara, 2004), Gruneberg (1979) found this association to be largely indirect, that is, the higher the person's qualifications, the higher education the person's occupational level and/or ability, and consequently, so too the employee's degree of satisfaction

2.4.3.5 Rank

Rank is used here to describe an individual's job status in an organisation and indicates an employee's seniority in a particular occupational category. Oshagbemi (1997b) maintains that relatively few studies have been designed to investigate the nature of the relationship between rank and corresponding levels of satisfaction.

However, there has been evidence from research findings which examined the relationship between these two variables, that rank is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction. Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) found that the strongest predictors of job satisfaction were rank and age. Similarly, in a study done by Mottaz (1986), data from 1385 workers from different occupations were analysed, and the results indicated that overall satisfaction is positively related to rank. Mottaz concluded that distinctions should be drawn between workers in upper-level and lower-level occupations when making generalisations about job satisfaction.

Oshagbemi (1997b) too found that job satisfaction of academics increase progressively with each higher rank. He concludes that rank also determines salary and invariably higher rank means higher satisfaction with promotions and salary levels (Oshagbemi, 2003). In another study Holden and Black (1996) found that full professors displayed higher levels of productivity and satisfaction than associate or assistant professors. Oshagbemi (2003) argues that higher rank suggests greater academic and administrative responsibilities in addition to providing leadership with the added benefits of more opportunities and privileges, which may add to overall job satisfaction. However, he cautions against assuming a cause-effect relationship. By finding that lower rank academics are less satisfied with their jobs does not imply that rank is the cause of job dissatisfaction.

2.5

WITHDRAWAL FROM THE WORKPLACE

A number of organisationally relevant behaviours are thought to be the result of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. These behaviours have an important impact on the well being of organisations.

Withdrawal “is a general term used to refer to behaviours by which workers remove themselves, either temporarily or permanently, from their jobs or workplace” (Saal & Knight, 1988, p.313). Two of these behaviours have been prominent in the literature: absenteeism and turnover. Previous studies of withdrawal behaviours had shown that unhappy or dissatisfied workers were less likely to come to work than happy or satisfied workers and since withdrawal behaviours were costly to organisations, it would be imperative to increase job satisfaction (Landy, 1989). However, findings from recent research have come to different conclusions and researchers, according to Landy have questioned the assumption that quitting and absenteeism are similar; they have been critical of the types of absenteeism studies that were conducted and they were sceptical of the role of satisfaction in either absenteeism or turnover.

2.5.1. Absenteeism

Research has generally shown that the relationship between job satisfaction and absence is inconsistent (Gruneberg, 1979; Spector, 2000), and there is generally disagreement among researchers concerning the strength of this relationship.

Landy (1989) cites a study done by Nicholson, Brown and Chadwick in 1976, which “seriously damaged the assumed satisfaction-absence relationship” (p. 476). They reviewed 29 studies of the satisfaction-absenteeism relationship and concluded that the results that supported this relationship were ‘artifactual’ and were either due to a flawed experimental design or inappropriate analysis. Their own study on absenteeism involving 1200 workers from 16 different organisations found no

relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. They suggest that absenteeism is a social phenomenon that depends on things other than individual motivations and abilities and there is an exchange relationship between employer and employee and the absence behaviour is influenced by that behaviour.

However, Luthans (1992) found that there is a relatively strong relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism and found that conditions that influence absenteeism generally influence satisfaction and moderating variables, such as the degree to which people feel that their jobs are important, are likely to play a role.

2.5.2. Turnover

Satisfaction and commitment have been the most frequently investigated components of affect with regard to turnover decisions (Elangoven, 2001). Individuals might seek alternative employment if they are dissatisfied with certain aspects of their jobs and/or are not committed to their organisations. Many studies have shown that dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs than satisfied employees (Gruneberg, 1979; Spector, 2000).

In a study conducted by Williams and Hazer (1986), a causal modeling approach was used to analyse the determinants of organisational commitment and labour turnover. They concluded that the variables of age, perceived job characteristics, leadership style, pre-employment expectations and the consideration dimension of leadership style all influenced commitment via their effects on job satisfaction. Thus, turnover results from a lack of commitment to organisations, and commitment is influenced by the mediating effects of job satisfaction. According to Rusbult and Farrell (1993), when making turnover decisions, employees weigh the rewards and costs associated with the current job, measure their material and psychological investments and assess the quality of alternative employment. For instance, a study conducted by Nicholson and Miljus (1972) to determine the job satisfaction among liberal arts university

professors, found that promotion, salary policies and administrative practices (rewards and costs) seemed to determine staff turnover, although the researchers did not directly relate turnover to job satisfaction.

However, Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (1978) found that dissatisfaction was not the only, or most important variable that resulted in turnover. They found that job satisfaction was closely related to thoughts of quitting and intentions to search for alternative employment, and the intention to quit was significantly related to actually quitting.

Finally, Landy (1989) argues that a major controlling factor is the prevalence of unemployment generally and maintains that the more difficult it is to get a job, the less likely it is to quit the one you have.

2.6 PRODUCTIVITY

Although the relationship between satisfaction and productivity falls outside the scope of this study, an important reason for studying job satisfaction is to determine whether a person satisfied or not with his job has consequences for his or her productivity. The early conceptions of the satisfaction-performance relationship differ substantially to the more recent considerations of this issue (Landy, 1989). The causal relationship between these variables is the point of contention. Historically some researchers argued that satisfaction leads to higher performance, while more recently others argue that high performance causes satisfaction (Landy, 1989; Vecchio, 1988). One of the reasons for the inconclusive results is that it is impossible to control for other variables that might be influencing satisfaction and/or performance (Landy, 1989).

In a study conducted by McAfee *et al.* (1995), allowing employees discretion in selecting a production method and providing them with outcome (information concerning the work method used) and process feedback (information concerning the effectiveness of the work method used), over repeated production cycles, would result in higher performance and a significant increase in job satisfaction. Interestingly, the results of their study indicated that providing employees with discretion and outcome feedback only improves satisfaction, but the improvement is not, however, statistically significant. These authors argue that their results indicate that if employees know only how well they are performing a job, but not why, they are likely to feel confused and frustrated and have relatively low satisfaction.

Given the above, it appears that the relationship between satisfaction and performance still needs to be rigorously researched in order to draw meaningful conclusions.

2.7 CONCLUSION

South African higher education institutions are in the process of many changes, in particular the merger of some institutions, and confronting difficult questions on how best to reform the system. There are pressures to ensure that expansion in higher education produces a more competent workforce. It is therefore imperative, as evidenced in the above discussion, that higher education institutions investigate the factors that impact on the satisfaction of their staff members.

CHAPTER THREE

3. ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The success of an organisation and the pursuit of quality depend not only on how the organisation makes the most of human competences, but also on how it stimulates commitment to an organisation (Beukhof, de Jong & Nijhof, 1998; Thornhill, Lewis & Saunders, 1996). Commitment has been related to valuable outcomes for both employees and employers. Greater commitment can result in enhanced feelings of belonging, security, efficacy, greater career advancement, increased compensation and increased intrinsic rewards for the individual (Rowden, 2000). For the organisation, the rewards of commitment can mean increased employee tenure, limited turnover, reduced training costs, greater job satisfaction, acceptance of organisation's demands, and the meeting of organisational goals such as high quality (Mowday *et al.*, 1982).

Thornhill *et al.* (1996, p.13) contend "...the link between the pursuit of quality and the need for employee commitment has been recognized in literature relating to the management of excellence, strategic management and human resource management (HRM)". They further maintain that without commitment, the pursuit of quality will be impaired. Quality assessment and assurance procedures have received much attention in higher education in South Africa recently. Quality education is defined in Rowley (1996, p. 12) as "the success with which an institution provides educational environments which enable students effectively to achieve worthwhile learning goals including appropriate academic standards." According to Rowley, a paper by the

Further Education Model (1991) offers six criteria for a quality model, and this model indicates the central role commitment plays in quality, by harnessing the commitment of all staff.

Many authors indicate that organisational commitment plays an important role in employee's acceptance of change (Darwish, 2000; Cordery, Sevastos, Mueller & Parker, 1993). Thus the organisational commitment of employees has important ramifications for the enormous changes affecting higher education institutions in South Africa, with respect to the mergers and marketisation of institutions. Literature suggests that highly committed employees are more willing to accept organisational change if it is perceived to be beneficial, and resist change if it is a threat to the employee's benefits (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005). Indeed, research even indicates that organisational commitment is a better predictor of behavioural intentions than job satisfaction within a change context (Iverson, 1996). According to Iverson, employees with high organisational commitment are willing to put in more effort in a change project and are therefore more likely to develop positive attitudes towards organisational change. It would seem then that it is critical that higher education institutions in South Africa work towards obtaining high organisational commitment from their employees to partly ensure the success of their institutions.

3.2 DEFINITIONS AND INTERPRETATIONS OF COMMITMENT

Different authors, depending on their backgrounds, have defined and measured organisational commitment differently. All of the definitions of commitment *in general*, according to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), make reference to the fact that commitment is a stabilising or obliging force, that gives direction to behaviour (e.g., restricts freedom, binds the person to a course of action). They argue that where differences in the definitions exist, they tend to involve details concerning the nature or origin of the stabilising force that gives direction to behaviour.

A review of the following definitions as cited by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p.302), illustrates their contention:

“the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization.” (Mowday *et al.*, 1982, p.27)

“...the totality of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests.” (Wiener, 1982, p.421)

“...the psychological attainment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalises or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization.” (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p.493)

“...a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization (i.e. makes turnover less likely).” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.14)

“...a bond or linking of the individual to the organization.” (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p.171).

Mowday *et al.* (1982) contend that organisational commitment can be conceptually characterised by at least three factors: a belief in and acceptance of the values of an organisation (identification), a strong willingness to put in effort for the organisation (involvement) and a desire to remain within the organisation (loyalty). Although they view commitment as having three components, essentially commitment is viewed as a unidimensional construct focussing only on affective attachment (Mowday, 1998; Meyer *et al.*, 2001). Subsequently, Meyer and Allen (1997), proposed a three-component conceptualisation of the employees relationship with the organisation, namely, employee emotional attachment, identification and involvement (affective commitment), feelings of obligation to continue employment (normative commitment) and consideration of costs associated with leaving (continuance commitment).

It is useful to consider the concept of commitment as having both an attitudinal and behavioural component. The attitudinal or affective component focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organisation and can be thought of as a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own goals and values are congruent with those of the organisation (Brooks, 2002; Meyer & Allen 1997). It is the attitudinal approach that has been most frequently validated and used in previous studies (Lok & Crawford, 2001).

Commitment is not a unidirectional phenomenon. The conceptualisation of commitment also encompasses the attachment that employees perceive the organisation has for them (Bishop, Goldsby & Neck, 2002). This type of commitment is referred to as perceived organisational support (POS) and they define POS as “the degree to which employees believe that the organization values their contribution”, (Ibid, p.299). Due to the norm of reciprocity the individual will be inclined to reciprocate by extending greater effort on behalf of the organisation.

Morrow (1983) identified over 25 measures of commitment, which is categorised into five forms, namely:

- value focus or the intrinsic value of work to individuals as an end in itself
career focus or the perceived importance of one's career
job focus or the degree of daily absorption an individual experiences in work activity
- organisational focus or one's loyalty to and identification with one's employing organisation
union focus or loyalty and identification to one's bargaining unit

Further work by Morrow and Goetz (1988) identified a sixth category, namely:

- professional commitment or the relative strength of identification with and involvement in one's profession.

It is evident there are numerous definitions of the construct 'organisational commitment.' For the purposes of this study, it is the definition of Mowday *et al.* (1982) that will be used.

3.3 ANTECEDENTS OF COMMITMENT AND WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS

Commitment has served as both a dependent variable for antecedents such as tenure, age and level of education amongst others (Mowday *et al.*, 1982); and as a predictor of various outcomes such as turnover, intention to leave, absenteeism and performance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Reichers (1985) classified the antecedents of commitment into three categories:

- 1) Psychological – expectations, challenges, conflicts
- 2) Behavioural – irrevocable acts, volitional and
- 3) Structural – sunk costs, tenure in the organisation, lack of opportunity to leave.

Reichers suggested that each class of variables is associated with an employee's commitment of early, middle or late-career stage respectively. During the early career stage, psychological linkage might be a main antecedent of commitment. It is further hypothesised that in later career stages, psychological, behavioural and structural antecedents combine to influence the employee's commitment

The major determinants of organisational commitment can be divided into four distinct categories (Mowday *et al.*, 1982):

3.3.1 Demographic Variables

3.3.1.1 *Age*

Several authors have found that age is positively related to an employee's level of commitment (Lok and Crawford, 1999, 2001; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Rowden, 2000). Mowday *et al.* (1982) and Angle & Perry (1981) suggest that younger employees are less committed than older employees, largely due to the fact that as age increases, the individual's opportunities for alternate employment decrease. As the freedom for employment of the individual decreases, there is an increase in the perceived attractiveness of the current employer, which leads to increased psychological attachment.

Another suggestion is that people become more committed when they realise that it may cost them more to leave than to stay (Rowden, 2000). These findings are also supported by Meyer and Allen (1997), who suggest that older and longer tenured employees would tend to 'cognitively justify' their remaining in the organisation by reporting higher levels of satisfaction and commitment.

3.3.1.2 *Tenure*

As with the case of age, a vast body of research has found tenure to be positively correlated with organisational commitment (Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Luthans, 1992). These researchers hypothesized that the reason might be sought in the fact the longer an employee stayed with an organisation, the fewer opportunities the employee has to seek alternative employment and the more attached psychologically the employee becomes to the organisation

Reed, Kratchman and Strawser's (1994) study, provided a more in-depth result. They found a correlation between tenure and gender, which shows that a short tenure was positively associated with organisational commitment for men and negatively associated with organisational commitment for women. Loscocco (1990) found however, that tenure is a particularly strong predictor of commitment in female employees.

There have been researchers who have however, failed to find support for the relationship between tenure and organisational commitment. For example, Meyer and Allen (1997), maintain that if an employee's age is removed out of the relationship between tenure and commitment, correlations are reduced considerably. They argue that it is possible the link between tenure and commitment to the organisation, reported in so many studies, is really as a result of employee age.

3.3.1.3 *Education*

Research has generally found that a negative relationship exists between organisational commitment and an individual's level of education (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Rowden, 2000). The negative relationship may be due to higher qualified employees feeling that their employers are not rewarding them adequately, and so the level of organisational commitment is diminished (Lok & Crawford, 2001). Angle and Perry suggest that lower education levels tend to reduce a person's chances for alternative employment and they are therefore restricted to their present organisations.

However, a study done by Sommer, Bae and Luthans (1996) with Korean subjects found no relationship between educational level and organisational commitment. They maintained that the differences could be due to cultural values and suggested that there were no unmet expectations with respect to rewards because of the Korean

practice of linking educational qualifications and institution with organisational and vocational selection. These results are consistent with those of Lok and Crawford (1999) who found no correlation between education and commitment.

Gender

Since women are entering the labour market in increasing numbers, the research into differences in job attitudes between genders has increased significantly. However, most of these studies have offered mixed results. Some studies found that women may be more committed to work than men, some have found no differences in job attitudes by gender and then there are perceptions that men and women have different job attitudes (Singh *et al.*, 2004).

In an important study to debunk the job attitude stereotypes based on gender, Singh *et al.* (2004) re-examined the effects of gender on job attitudes using two competing perspectives, namely the job model and the gender model, and controlled for demographic job-related variables. They offer the following descriptions of these models (p. 346). The job model suggests that when women perform in the same organisational settings as men, there are no significant differences as their attitudes are shaped by the same factors. This model is based on the view that women and men form job attitudes in a similar way and the only differences are located in the organisational experiences and positions of women and men. Thus differences in job attitudes are attributable to differences in the jobs themselves. The gender model is based on the contention that gender-related differences in job attitudes represent psychological differences resulting from early socialisation of males and females and by socially determined gender roles.

Their findings show that women are more committed to their organisations even after controlling for demographic and job related variables. Thus the job model is supported, as their findings show that there are no inherent differences in the job

attitudes across gender, but rather that these differences might be explained by their experiences in the organisation. Wahn (1998) offered the argument that women may have higher organisational commitment because they feel that they have fewer job alternatives. In other words, as women perceive that they have fewer job alternatives, they will have higher levels of commitment to their current organisations than do men.

Similarly, Angle and Perry (1981) suggested that the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire, the instrument most popularly used to measure commitment, taps a *form* of commitment which is conceptually close to work involvement and research suggests that women are less involved in work than men. They too agree with Wahn that women find it more difficult to move between organisations.

These findings are inconsistent with Reed *et al's.* (1994, p. 38) argument that historical imbalances of gender equality in the workplace have made a “deep impression on current female workers as to the extent that they perceive that their particular rewards are controlled by forces outside themselves and occur independently of their own actions. Women will tend to be less satisfied than men”. Furthermore, they argue that since society perceives women as primary care-givers, it is probable that women experience greater role overload and inter-role conflict than men, which in turn leads to a decline in job satisfaction.

3.3.2 Role-related Determinants

The first set of antecedents to organisational commitment concern job characteristics and employee roles. Many studies show that employee's roles and job characteristics are important to predict commitment (Lin & Hsieh, 2002; Mowday *et al.*, 1982).

3.3.2.1 *Job Scope*

Mowday *et al.* (1982), contend that organisational commitment is a developmental process containing three different stages. They argue that job scope is a determinant of organisational commitment in the early career stage, as broader task identity evokes a greater sense of responsibility on the part of the employee. Thus in the early career stages, employees identify more strongly with their organisation and subsequently display higher levels of organisational commitment. However, employees in the late career stage find it increasingly difficult to leave their organisation voluntarily, owing to the investment of time and energy they have made. Commitment of employees in the middle and late career stages is, therefore, based mainly on their cumulative investment in the organisation and is, therefore, less sensitive to considerations of task identity (Lin & Hsieh, 2002).

3.3.2.2 *Role Stressors*

Employees experience role stress (role conflict and role ambiguity) when conflicting job demands are placed on them or when they are unsure of what is expected of them in certain job situations (Boshoff & Mels, 1995), and are unsure of which tasks have priority (Maxwell & Steele, 2003). In other words, role conflict is an incompatibility in communicated expectations that impact on perceived role performance (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970). Role ambiguity is experienced when individuals do not have a clear understanding of what is expected of them in terms of their role in the organisation (Ibid). Thus, role ambiguity refers to how clearly job tasks are identified (Maxwell & Steele, 2003).

Although a few studies have investigated the relationship between role conflict and organisational commitment, an inverse relationship has generally been found between these two variables (Boshoff & Mels, 1995; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Rizzo *et al.* 1970.) Similarly, many studies have shown that role ambiguity exerts a negative influence

on organisational commitment (e.g. Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Boshoff & Mels, 1995). An argument could be made that those who perceive higher levels of role conflict or role ambiguity, would experience higher levels of stress and would therefore be less satisfied with their jobs and therefore less committed to their organisations (Yousef, 2002).

In contrast, findings by Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell and Black (1990), indicate an indirect influence. They maintain that the relationship between role conflict and commitment is mediated by job satisfaction and role ambiguity. Other researchers believe however, that role ambiguity is not a significant independent predictor of commitment (Maxwell & Steele, 2003).

According to Mowday *et al.* (1982), however, the impact of both role conflict and role stress on organisational commitment may be positive when the employee has clear and challenging job assignments. Brooks (2002) maintains that this greater clarity of purpose may allow individuals to more clearly evaluate the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organisation.

It is evident that opinion on the effects of job/role characteristics is very diverse. In short, literature suggests, as summarised by Maxwell and Steele (2003), that:

- job scopes that allow some challenges but do not involve work overload are important to encouraging commitment and avoiding role conflict, and possibly role ambiguity, is important to generating commitment.

As is evidenced by the above discussion, role conflict and role ambiguity are important variables for further research, however the scope of this study precludes further investigation.

3.3.2.3 *Pay*

Comm and Mathaisel (2003) argue that in order to attract and retain an effective and committed workforce, higher education institutions must offer competitive levels of compensation to their faculty. They argue that commitment to the faculty enhances performance, which contributes to improving academic quality.

However, there is no agreement on the influence of the level of salary on commitment (Beukhof *et al.*, 1998). Oliver (1990) found no relationship between salary and commitment, but Morris and Steers (1980) found that a good salary has a small positive influence on commitment. On the other hand Savery (1996) found that satisfaction with quality of working life and extrinsic factors such as evaluation systems had a greater impact on commitment than pay or job security.

3.3.3 **Work Experience Characteristics**

3.3.3.1 *Organisational Dependability*

Organisational dependability "...refers to the extent to which employees feel the organisation can be counted on to look after employee interests" (Mowday *et al.*, 1982, p.34). Whilst there have not been many studies investigating the relationship between organisational dependability and commitment, Mowday *et al.* (1982) maintain that organisational dependability seems to be positively correlated with commitment. Thus the higher the experience of dependability, the more positive the impact on commitment

According to Maxwell & Steele, interpersonal trust is closely aligned to organisational dependability. Thus, if the work environment is not seen as friendly or co-operative, and the relationship between employees is generally not amicable, then individuals are unlikely to feel committed to the organisation (Ibid). In addition, building commitment can have a reinforcing effect, in that co-workers' commitment has an effect on the individual's own commitment (Steers, 1977)

3.3.3.2 *Leadership Style*

Leadership has been given an especially important role by many authors in influencing the attitudes of employees towards the organisation (Lok & Crawford, 2001). Leadership style as defined by Stogdill (1974, p.4) refers to the "...behaviour which leaders use to influence a group towards the achievement of goals" and can be seen as "...the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement".

Numerous studies have found that both leader initiating structure and leader consideration were related to organisational commitment (Mowday *et al.* 1982; Lok & Crawford, 1999; Boshoff & Mels, 1995). Furthermore, the relationship between leadership and commitment is further evidenced in Brewer's study (1996). Brewer examined employees' commitment in relation to the level of consent to, and conflict with managerial strategy. In this study the assumption is that although managerial strategy and leadership are not the same concepts, the attributes and skills required in leadership could be seen as an essential part of managerial strategy.

Indeed, Hickman and Silva (1984), cited in Lok and Crawford (2001), maintain that sustained excellent performance can only be achieved when organisational culture and leadership strategies are working harmoniously together. These findings are

supported by Peters & Waterman (1982) who argue that the leader has an important role in managing shared values that are the core of organisational culture.

In terms of the leadership style in universities, Pounder (2001) maintains that the academic leadership distinguishes universities from leadership in commercial organisations and is central to university effectiveness. Despite the crucial role of academic leaders, researchers have observed that in the United States of America, a common characteristic was the total absence of any prior managerial experience and a lack of management training (Gordon & Stockard, 1991; Thompson & Harrison, 2000). Interestingly, Thompson & Harrison found that deans emphasised the team management aspects of the heads of departments whereas the heads themselves rated managing people as individuals rather than in teams as an important aspect of academic leadership. In contrast, Gordon & Stockard found that the staff's preference was for heads that were facilitative and non-managerial, and displayed greater relationship skills.

3.3.3.3 *Rewards*

According to Grusky (1966), if employees receive rewards (for example, promotions) after overcoming some obstacles, then commitment is likely to be higher than if the rewards are automatically received (cited in Maxwell & Steele, 2003). Grusky found that high levels of pay encourage higher levels of commitment. If an employee sees that a colleague is being paid more than himself or herself for the same work, the employee is likely to be disillusioned and therefore less committed (Rhodes & Steers, 1981).

3.3.4 Structural Characteristics

Structural variables that describe aspects or features of structure, rather than organisational structure itself, have a bearing on commitment (Brooks, 2002). Formalisation, functional dependence and decentralisation are related to commitment (Mowday *et al.*, 1982), while size and span of control are not (Brooks, 2002). Employees experiencing greater decentralisation, greater dependence on the work of others and greater formality of written rules and procedures feel more committed to the organisation than employees that experience these factors to a lesser extent (Mowday *et al.*, 1982).

However, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) examined the combined works of several authors and their meta-analysis did not support the relationship with decentralisation. Furthermore, studies focussing on the effects of worker ownership, found that employees are significantly more committed when they have a vested financial interest in the organisation (Mowday *et al.*, 1982).

Brooks (2002) and Mowday *et al.*, (1982), also maintain that participation in decision-making impacts on organisational commitment. Moreover, Walton (1985) suggests that commitment will increase in a flat organisation where co-ordination and control are based more on shared goals than on rules and procedures and where employee participation is encouraged. However, Boshoff & Mels (1995) found that only an indirect positive relationship exists between participation in decision-making and organisational commitment, with the relationship between these variables being moderated by job satisfaction and role conflict.

While research has shown structural variables to be correlates of organisational commitment, they fall outside the scope of this study.

3.4 CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

A consequence of understanding the antecedents of commitment and managing them to secure employee commitment is reflected in improved performance in organisations. For an organisation to function properly, it relies on employees to behave in such a manner that they exceed their role prescriptions (Maxwell & Steele, 2003). In a higher education institution in particular, it is not sustainable for employees to operate without flexibility. Achieving organisational goals often relies on individual committed behaviours such as co-operation and unrewarded help (Ibid).

Many different consequences of commitment have been researched, some of which are explored below.

Job Performance

According to Benkhoff (1997) the main reason why commitment has been one of the most popular research subjects over the past 30 years is its assumed impact on performance. Yet, research has been inconclusive regarding the relationship between job performance and organisational commitment. For instance, Benkhof established a positive relationship between the two; Mathieu and Zajac (1990) saw no relationship, whilst Hartline and Ferrell (1996) even established a negative relationship.

According to Maxwell and Steele (2003), lack of practical evidence and the number of variables affecting employee performance makes it difficult to draw conclusions. Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that different types of commitment have different relationships to organisational behaviour and thus not all kinds of commitment are associated with high job performance. Furthermore, Benkhof (1997) argues that a lack of a relationship is due to the use of the wrong instrument, that is the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire. However, he maintains that this problem

is easily overcome with the use of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component commitment scales.

Despite the complex relationship between commitment and performance, several theoretical positions can be established, as cited in Maxwell and Steele (2003), namely:

- Commitment influences performance as committed people will be persistent in tasks set and achieve set goals, whereas non-committed people will not (Salancik, 1977).
The first likely outcome of commitment is service quality (Iverson *et al.*, 1996).
- Acceptance of organisational change can be a direct consequence of commitment, as employees who are committed to their employer are likely to exhibit trust and accept change affecting them (Iverson *et al.*, 1996). However, there is a limit to a productive level of commitment in respect of accepting change; too high a level of commitment can actually lead to resistance to change (Salancik, 1977).
Committed employees may assume extra role responsibilities (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Thus an investigation of organisational commitment seems to be worthwhile due to potential, if not guaranteed, outcomes (Maxwell & Steele, 2003).

3.4.2 Tenure

According to Mowday *et al.* (1982) a significant positive correlation exists between increased tenure and increased organisational commitment, although Reed *et al.* (1994) found mixed results. A short tenure was positively associated with job

satisfaction for women and with organisational commitment for men. A lengthy tenure was positively associated with organisational commitment for women.

3.4.3 Absenteeism

According to Mowday *et al.* (1982) motivation to attend work might be high if employees are committed to their organisations, even if they do not enjoy their jobs. Theoretically, an expectation is that highly committed individuals would be more motivated to refrain from being absent, so that they could contribute towards organisational goal attainment (Ibid). In support of this theory, research conducted indicated a negative correlation between organisational commitment and absenteeism (Luthans, 1992; Robbins, 2001).

3.4.4 Turnover

There have been mixed findings in respect of the relationship between commitment and turnover. For instance, according to Elangoven (2001), turnover intent is directly and positively related to actual turnover and with both job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Reed *et al.*, 1994). An argument offered is that employees who fail to receive tangible and intangible rewards, and who do not feel a psychological attachment to their organisations, are more inclined to quit. In contrast, Meyer and Allen (1991) found that commitment is negatively related to turnover. However, they maintain that it is important to understand the nature of commitment experienced by the employee. They caution that “not all forms of commitment are alike and organizations concerned with keeping employees by strengthening their commitment should carefully consider the nature of the commitment they instill” (p. 539). In a previous study they maintained that “employees with strong affective attachment remain because they *want to*, those with strong continuance commitment

because they *need* to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they *ought* to” (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Furthermore, they argue that where the benefits of reduced turnover are obtained at the cost of poor performance, service quality suffers, since not all forms of commitment are associated with high job performance.

Whilst the consequences of organisational commitment are crucial to the productivity and survival of organisations, the scope of this study precludes further discussion.

3.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are related with concomitant distinguishable attitudes and behaviours. Job satisfaction implies an affective response to the immediate work environment, while organisational commitment has more stable and long-term connotations (Norris & Niebuhr, 1983). That is, although employees may be temporarily dissatisfied with their jobs, they nevertheless can remain committed to their organisations. According to Reed *et al.* (1994), employees will generally remain satisfied with their jobs and committed to their organisations if they are content with the nature of the work itself, are satisfied with their supervisor and co-workers, and if they perceive current remuneration policies and future opportunities for promotion within their organisation to be adequate.

Although the relationship between job satisfaction and job commitment has received a great deal of attention in past research (Lok & Crawford, 1999; Yousef, 2002), the investigations into the causal relationship between these constructs have, however, yielded contradictory findings (Elangoven, 2001; Testa, 2001; Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001).

The controversy surrounding the relationship between the two variables is best illustrated by the following quote:

“...Porter *et al.* (1974) suggested that satisfaction represents one specific component of commitment. Later, Steers (1977) proposed that satisfaction would probably influence commitment more than would job characteristics. Meanwhile, Williams and Hazer (1986) found that satisfaction causally affects commitment, while a study by Bateman and Strasser (1984) showed that commitment is causally antecedent to satisfaction. In contrast, Curry *et al.* (1986) found no support for either of the hypothesized causal linkages between job satisfaction and commitment (i.e. neither causally affected the other). To add to the controversy, a study by Farkas and Tetrick (1989) suggested that the two variables may be either cyclically or reciprocally related” (Elangoven, 2001, p.159).

Although research has not indicated a particular direction regarding the cause-effect relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001), several authors have hypothesised that it is likely that a reciprocal relationship exists with a change in one of the attitudes affecting the other (Lok & Crawford, 2001).

It is however important that the causal relationship between these two variables is determined for several reasons. Curry, Wakefield, Price & Mueller (1986) 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 “mis-specified models, and their results are suspect ” (p.159). From a practical viewpoint, they argue, knowledge of correct causal ordering has implications for intervention strategies by managers to affect commitment and employee turnover.

3.6

CONCLUSION

According to Mowday *et al.* (1982), the extent and the quality of the link between the organisation and the employee are of central importance to the individual, the organisation and to society as a whole.

Joining and staying with an organisation provides the individual with both economic and psychological rewards. From the perspective of society, if low levels of commitment affect a large number of organisations, the level of productivity, as well as the quality of services produced will be negatively affected (Ibid).

Organisations stand to benefit most from having a committed workforce as high rates of absenteeism and turnover result in excessive costs and a decrease in productivity that most organisations cannot afford.

Benkhoff (1997) argues that it is therefore imperative that the processes involved in organisational commitment be understood to increase the benefits of all parties concerned.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 THE SAMPLE

For the purposes of the present study, the population consists of all the support and academic staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape. The size of the total population is approximately 1200 employees, with almost equal numbers of academic and support staff.

In the selection of the sample, a non-probability sampling design was utilised, in the form of convenience sampling. Thus, the elements in the population had no probabilities attached to their being selected as sample subjects (Sekaran, 2000), and the sample comprised those population elements that could be studied with the greatest convenience.

In deciding on the size of the sample to be drawn, the following issues were considered. The sample had to be representative of the academic and support staff and also had to be large enough to allow for precision, confidence and generalisability of the research findings. A total of 800 questionnaires were distributed to both academic and support staff at the higher education institution under investigation, and 245 were received back. Thus a response rate of 30.6% was achieved. Sekaran (2000) states that a response rate of 30% may be regarded as being acceptable.

4.2 DATA COLLECTION

Three self-administered questionnaires were delivered via the university's internal mail system (Appendix A). Covering letters, detailing the nature of the study and assurances of confidentiality, were included with the questionnaires. Detailed instructions were provided to respondents on how questionnaires were to be completed and returned.

Measuring Instruments

4.2.1.1 *Biographical Data*

Data was obtained by means of a self-administered questionnaire from each respondent regarding sex, age, job level, education level and tenure with the higher education institution in question.

4.2.1.2 *Job Satisfaction Measures*

Job satisfaction was measured with the aid of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), developed by Smith *et al.* (1969). The JDI has probably been the most popular facet scale among organisational researchers (Spector, 2000), and attempts to study employee reactions to several aspects or facets of the job.

These include:

- Nature and content of the job
- Pay
- Supervision
- Promotion opportunities

- Relationships with co-workers

The entire scale consists of 72 items. Each subscale is described by 18 evaluative adjectives, which is descriptive of the job, except compensation and opportunities for advancement, which consists of 9 items each. Both favourable or positively worded and unfavourable or negatively worded items are provided. Respondents are required to consider each of the items and decide whether it is applicable to them or not. The respondents mark 'Y' if the item is applicable, 'N' if it is not applicable and '?' if they are uncertain. Each dimension's score is calculated by weighting the positive items as Y=3, ? =2 and N=1 and the negative items as Y=1, ?=2 and N=3 (Spector, 1997).

The reliability of an instrument attests to the stability and consistency with which it measures the construct (Sekaran, 2000). Schreider & Dachler (1978), cited in Cockcroft (2001), established the test-retest reliability of the JDI to be between 0.45 and 0.76.

validity of a measure pertains to the accuracy with which an instrument measures, what it purports to measure (Sekaran, 2000). Smith *et al.*, (1969) tested the JDI for convergent and discriminant validity, correlations with objective measures of job satisfaction and factor analysis. Their results consistently proved the validity of the JDI as a measuring instrument.

4.2.1.3 *Organisational Commitment Measures*

The most commonly used instrument to measure organisational commitment, according to Gupta, Prinzing & Messerschmidt (1998), is the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday *et al.* (1982). Data for this study was gathered through the OCQ, as it most closely operationalises the definition

of commitment used in this study and has been tested and used previously in a third-world setting (Yousef, 2000).

The OCQ is a 15-statement instrument, which uses a 7-point scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. Statements are directed at the 3 elements of a strong belief and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort and a strong desire to maintain membership. Nine (9) of the statements are positively worded and six are negatively worded and reverse scored to reduce response bias (Mowday *et al.* 1982). The results are summed and divided by 15 to produce a summary indicator of organisational commitment.

Mowday *et al.* (1982) calculated the internal consistency of the OCQ in 3 different ways: coefficient alpha, item analysis and factor analysis. The results obtained suggest that the 15 items of the OCQ are relatively homogenous with respect to the underlying attitude construct they measure. In order to examine the stability of the OCQ over time, Mowday *et al.* (1982) computed test-retest reliabilities. The results demonstrated acceptable levels (from $r = .53$ to $r = .75$) over periods ranging from two months to four months.

Mowday *et al.*, (1982) reported evidence of three types of validity: convergent validity, discriminant validity and predictive validity.

- *Convergent Validity*

According to Mowday *et al.* (1982), evidence suggests that the OCQ possesses convergent validity. Firstly, they correlated the OCQ with the Sources of Organizational Attachment Questionnaire, as this instrument differs structurally from the OCQ and would therefore reduce the common methods variance problems in the analysis (Mowday *et al.* 1982). The convergent validities across six diverse samples ranged from .63 to .74, with a median of .70. They then examined the extent to which

the OCQ was related to employees' behavioural intentions to remain and found significant correlations. Finally, evidence emerged from 4 of their studies that a modest relationship (with correlations ranging between .35 and .45) existed between the OCQ and employees' motivation to exert high levels of energy on behalf of the organisation.

They concluded that "...the pattern of findings does serve to provide some modest evidence of the convergent validity of the OCQ" (Mowday *et al.*, 1982, p.225).

Discriminant Validity

In order to identify commitment as a unique variable in the study of organisational behaviour, it must demonstrate acceptable levels of discriminant validity when compared to other attitudes (Mowday *et al.*, 1982). They compared the OCQ with 3 other measures: job involvement, career satisfaction, and job satisfaction.

They found that the relationship between organisational commitment and a job involvement measure ranged from $r = .30$ to $r = .56$ across 4 samples. Correlations between organisational commitment and a 3-item measure of career satisfaction were .39 and .40 for 2 samples. Across 4 studies, correlations between organisational commitment and scales of the JDI ranged from .01 to .68, with a median correlation of .41. They also found that the highest relationships were between commitment and satisfaction with the work itself. They conclude that the correlations are sufficiently low as to provide some indication of an acceptable level of discriminant validity. The results indicate that the percentage of common variance shared by organisational commitment and the other measures did not exceed 50% and was generally less than 25% for most relationships.

The results of Commeiras and Fournier's (2001) study also indicate good discriminant validity for the organisational commitment and intent-to-leave constructs.

- *Predictive Validity*

Mowday *et al.*, (1982), demonstrated predictive validity by the relatively consistent relationships in the predicted direction between commitment and measures of turnover, absenteeism, tenure and to a lesser extent, performance on the job. They found that the magnitude of these relationships were frequently not high, suggesting that employee behaviour is determined by a complex set of factors and not just commitment to the organisation. They concluded from their results that organisational commitment in some cases correlates well with, *inter alia*, job satisfaction.

4.3 STATISTICAL METHODS

The statistical methods used to test the research hypotheses include product moment correlation coefficients, multiple regression analysis and analysis of variance.

4.3.1 Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the following aspects of the study:

- correlation between the job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the combined group of academic and support staff;

- correlations for the subscales of the job satisfaction scale for the combined group of academic and support staff;
- job satisfaction subscale correlations for the academic staff only;
correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the academic staff only ;
- correlations of job satisfaction subscales for support staff;
- correlation of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the support staff.

4.3.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression, (general linear modelling), according to Ghiselli, Campbell and Zedeck (1981), is an extension of simple regression and includes more than one predictor variable. Moreover, it is able to predict changes in the dependent variables in response to changes in more than one independent variable. It is thus suitable for this study, as it was possible to determine the magnitude and direction of each independent variable's relationship to the dependent variable.

This statistical technique was employed to determine the following aspects of this study:

- Job satisfaction as a dependent variable for the combined group of academic and support staff;
Organisational commitment as a dependent variable for the combined group of academic and support staff;
Linear regression on the job satisfaction subscales for the academic staff only;
Linear regression on the job satisfaction subscales for the support staff only;
- Linear regression for organisational commitment for the academic staff only;
Linear regression for organisational commitment for the support staff only.

4.3.3 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The analysis of variance is concerned with all possible differences among a set of means and indicates the likelihood that one or more mean differences can be ascribed to something other than chance (Payne, 1982). Thus mean differences are tested for statistical significance.

The analysis of variance was useful in this study, because of the need to make cross-comparisons. In this regard, this statistical technique was employed to determine the following aspects of the study:

- ANOVA for organisational commitment (difference between academic and support staff on organisational commitment);
- ANOVAs for job satisfaction (difference between the academic and support staff on job satisfaction).

4.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were developed for testing:

Hypothesis 1

There is a statistically significant difference in organisational commitment between academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape

Hypothesis 2

There is a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between academic staff and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 3

The demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, and level of education will significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction in the combined sample of academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 4

The demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, and level of education will significantly explain the variance in organisational commitment in academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results obtained in the study and provides a discussion of these results. The analysis of the results are presented against the literature review and discussions presented in the previous chapters .

Firstly, the descriptive statistics are presented to describe the profile and salient characteristics of the sample in relation to the variables included in the study. Secondly, the constructs of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are analysed and then presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The demographic data of the sample and the descriptive statistics of the research variables as collected by the three measuring instruments are provided in the sections that follow. The data pertaining to the variables included in the study are summarised by means of graphic representations and tabulations of their descriptive measures.

5.2.1 The Demographic Variables

In this section, the descriptive statistics as obtained by the demographic variables included in the biographical questionnaire are presented and interpreted. The demographic variables included in the biographical questionnaire are:

- age distribution of the sample
- gender distribution of the sample
- educational level of the sample
- job level of the sample
- length of service of the sample

The information obtained from the biographical questionnaires are graphically presented in the form of frequencies and percentages for each of the above variables..

5.2.1.1 Age distributions of sample

The subjects' responses with regard to their ages are presented graphically in Figure 5.1

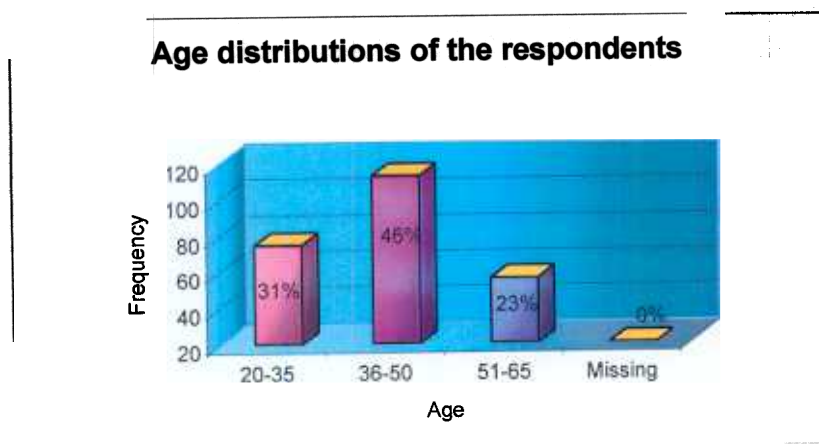


Figure 5.1

Figure 5.1 shows that the majority of individuals in the sample, (46%, n=113), are between the ages of 36 and 50 years. This category is followed by the age group 20 – 35, into which 31% (n=75) of the respondents' fall, whilst 23% (n=56) are between the ages of 51 and 65 years. Only one respondent did not specify an age category.

It can be deduced from the results that the majority of workers at the institution of higher education where the research was conducted are middle-aged (n=117). It is interesting to note, that these results are expected when the results of the tenure study are analysed (cf. Fig. 5.3.6). The latter results indicate that the majority of employees (38%, n=94) have worked at the institution under investigation for more than ten years. However, the possibility does exist that the other age categories are under-represented as a result of the sampling method employed.

5.2.1.2 Gender distributions of sample

Figure 5.2 provides a graphical representation of the gender distributions of the sample.

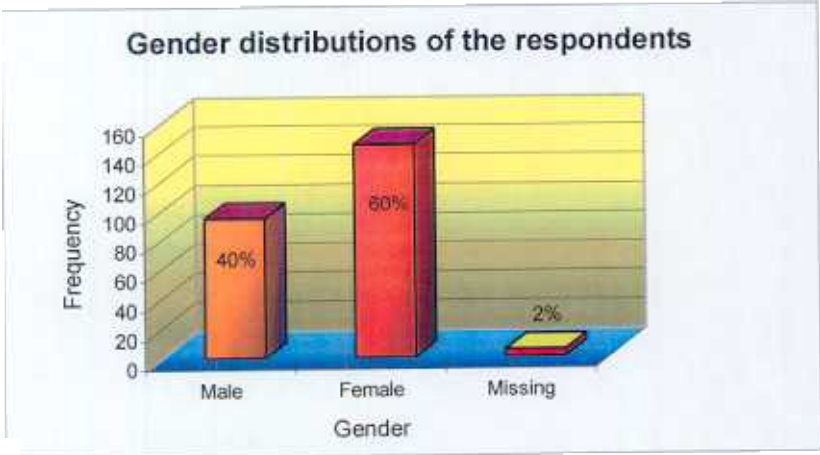


Figure 5.2.

The results indicate that the majority of the respondents are female; 60% are women (n=145), while only 39% are male (n=95). Two participants (1%) did not specify

their gender. This reflects the actual gender ratio in staff complement at the institution.

As with the analysis of the age distribution of the sample, the large differences in gender representation may be a true reflection of the population. Thus, there might be a larger number of females in the employ of the higher education institution under investigation. However, this large difference might also be the consequence of the sampling method employed or the responses that were obtained.

5.2.1.3 Education levels of sample

Figure 5.3 graphically presents the levels of education of the respondents.

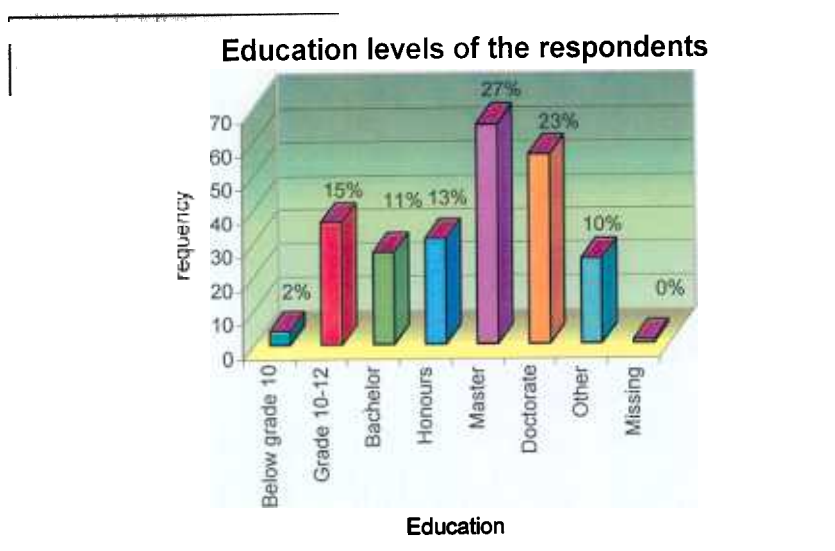


Figure 5.3

From figure 5.3, it can be deduced that the educational level of the sample is as follows:

The majority of the respondents have a tertiary education, with the largest category having a Master's degree qualification, comprising 65 respondents (27%). The latter educational category is followed closely by the category that depicts those

respondents that have obtained a Doctoral degree, 23% (n=56). Thirty-one (13%) of the respondents have an Honours degree, whilst 11% (n=27) are in possession of a Bachelor's degree.

Thirty-six of the respondents (15%) have listed their highest educational qualification as being between Grades 10 to 12, whilst a small percentage (2%, n=4) has an educational qualification below Grade 10.

Twenty-five respondents (10%) indicated that they have a qualification other than the above-mentioned categories. These qualifications largely comprise diploma courses. Only one respondent did not provide any information on an educational level obtained.

Due to the nature of the organisation at which the research was conducted, these results indicate that education is an important goal of the majority of staff members in the higher education institution under investigation.

5.2.1.4 *Job categories of sample*

The distribution of the sample with regard to job categories is presented graphically in Figure 5.4.

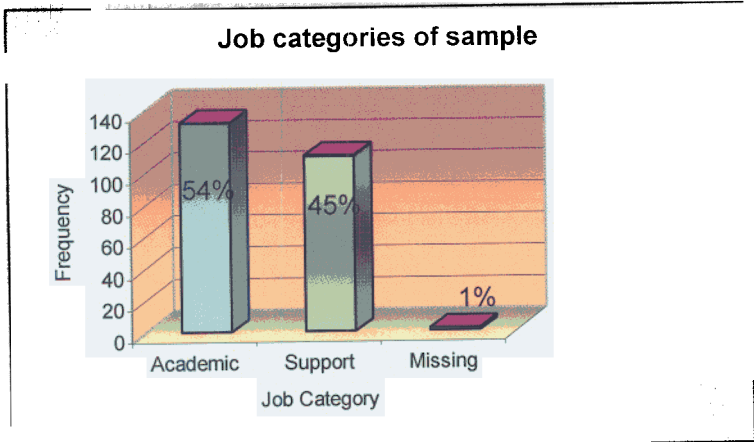


Figure 5.4

As can be seen from figure 5.4, there is a greater number of respondents that fall into the job category termed academic staff (54%, n=132) than the category support staff (45%, n=111). Only two respondents (1%) did not indicate their job categories.

The difference in the number of staff members employed as either academic or support staff, appears to be negligible, and may be due to the sampling design used.

5.2.1.5 *Job levels of academic staff*

The distribution of the sample with regard to job levels of academic staff is presented graphically in Figure 5.4.

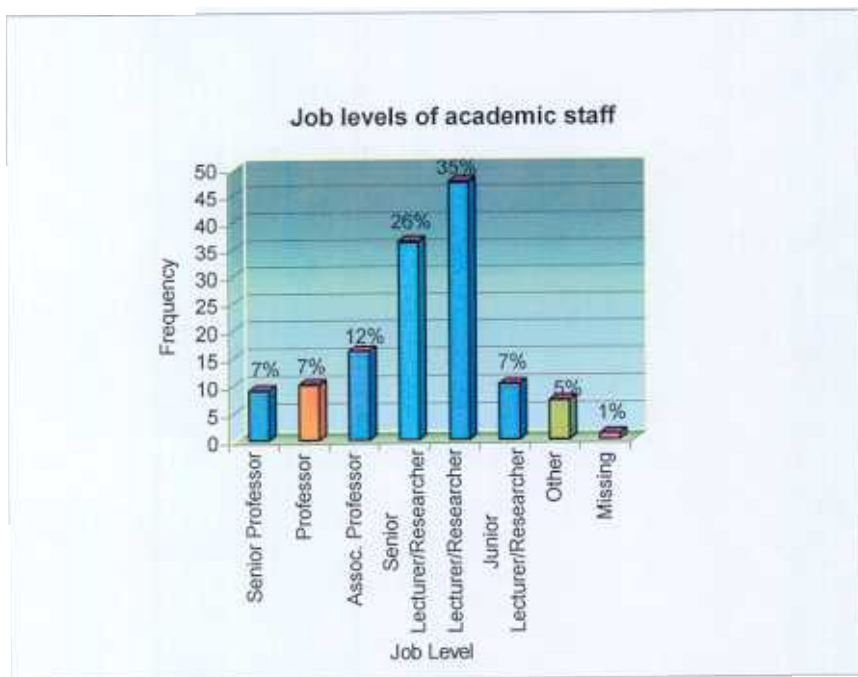


Figure 5.5

Figure 5.5 shows that the academic staff belonging to the category lecturer/researcher presents the largest proportion (35%, n=47) of the sample. This category is followed closely by the category of senior lecturer/researcher (26%, n=36). The junior lecturer/researcher category only constitutes 7% (n=10) of the sample.

Associate professors constitute 12% (n=16) of the sample, whilst the difference in numbers between the professors and senior professors is negligible. Professors constitute 7% (n=10) of the sample, whilst senior professors constitute 7% (n=9).

The category 'other' consists mainly of tutors, and research assistants and constitutes 5% (n=7) of the sample, whilst one respondent did not provide information regarding a job level.

The above percentages of respondents who occupy the different job levels probably reflects the true differences in the institution with regard to the distribution of employees on the basis of job level. There is a possibility though, that certain categories may be under-represented due to the sampling method employed.

5.2.1.6 Job levels of support staff

The distribution of the sample with regard to job levels of support staff is presented graphically in Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.6 indicates that 52% (n=62) of the sample are employed in non-managerial positions within the organisation, 20% (n=24) are in first level supervisory positions, whilst 18% (n=21) of the respondents indicated that they occupy positions at middle management level. Only 4% (n=5) fell into the top management positions. Furthermore, 5% (n=7) indicated that they occupied positions that fell into the category 'other', that consisted mainly of residential and cleaning staff. Two percent (2%, n=2) did not indicate the level of the positions they occupied.

Job levels of support staff

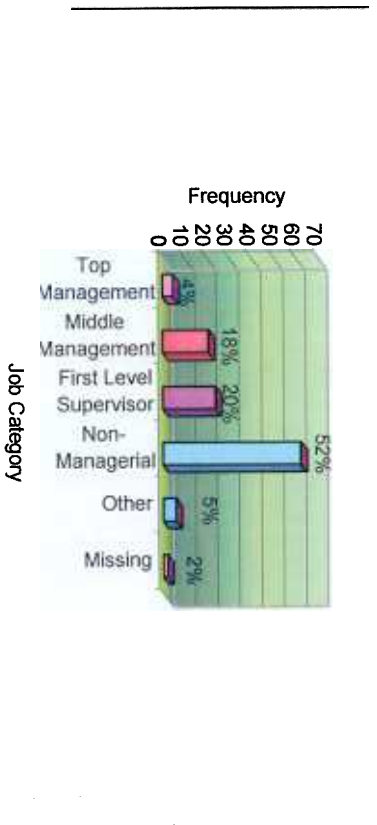


Figure 5. 6

The fact that the largest percentage of the sample occupies non-managerial positions, probably reflects the true profile in the institution with regard to the distribution of the support staff on the basis of job level. However, the non-probability sampling method used may have also resulted in a larger number of the questionnaires being completed by non-managerial staff.

5.2.1.6 Tenure

The respondents' years of service at the higher education institution under investigation are presented in Figure 5.7.

Figure 5.7 indicates that the majority of the respondents, 38% (n=94), have worked for the institution for more than ten years, whilst there are negligible differences in the other categories. Seventeen percent (17%, n=41) have worked for the institution between 6 and 10 years, 15% (n=36) have worked for the organisation between 3 and 5 years, 14% (n=35) have worked for the organisation between 1 and 2 years, and 15% (n=36) have worked for the organisation for less than a year.

With the majority of the sample having been with the institution for more than 10 years, it may be concluded that the sample represents a relatively tenured group of employees. It thus appears that the organisation experiences relatively low levels of turnover, which may possibly be associated with the levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment experienced by its employees.

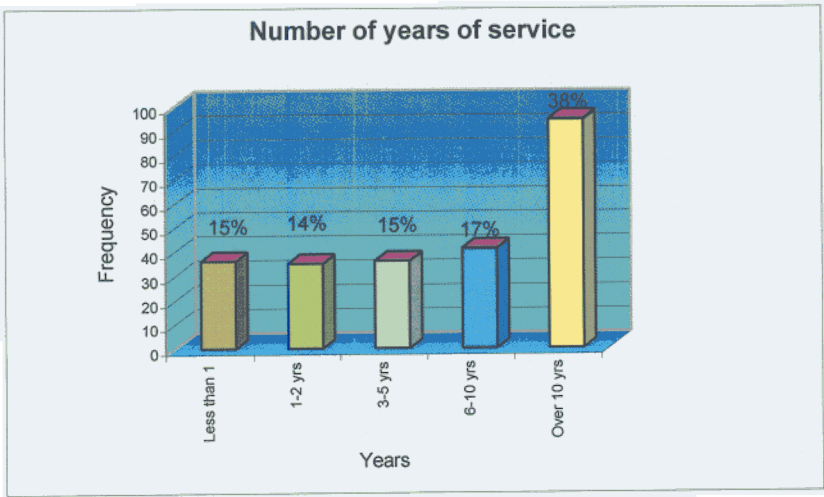


Figure 5.7

5.2.2 Results of the JDI and OCQ

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations for academic and support staff respectively, were computed for the various dimensions assessed by the JDI and OCQ.

Table 5.1 presents the results obtained for the academic staff.

Table 5.1 Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for academic staff

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std Dev</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>N</i>
<i>Organisational Commitment</i>	74.30	14.98	27	99	120
<i>Work Subscale</i>	36.36	9.78	6	54	108
<i>Supervision Subscale</i>	33.69	11.98	3	51	107
<i>Co-workers Subscale</i>	37.73	13.42	3	54	121
<i>Promotion Subscale</i>	19.76	14.66	0	54	116
<i>Pay Subscale</i>	16.96	13.08	0	50	110
<i>Overall Job Satisfaction</i>	124.82	32.40	48	181	78

With respect to the dimensions of job satisfaction assessed by the JDI for academic staff, Table 5.1 indicates that the arithmetic means for the nature of the work, supervision and co-worker subscales are 36.36, 33.69 and 37.73 respectively. An approximate mean of 36 constitutes an average level of satisfaction on these subscales. It therefore appears that academic staff in the sample are relatively satisfied with the nature of the work that they perform, as well as with their co-workers, but are less satisfied with the supervision they receive.

Means of 19.76 and 16.96 were obtained for the promotion and pay subscales respectively. Average levels of satisfaction on these subscales are represented by an approximate mean score of 18. It would thus appear that the academic staff in the sample are relatively satisfied with their promotion opportunities and less satisfied with the pay they receive.

Table 5.1 thus shows that academic staff in the sample are most satisfied with their co-workers, followed by the nature of the job itself and the supervision they receive. They are less satisfied with their opportunities for promotion and least satisfied with the compensation they receive.

Furthermore, Table 5.1 indicates that the arithmetic mean and standard deviation for the organisational commitment of the sample are 74.30 and 14.98 respectively. As a mean score of approximately 60 would constitute an average level of organisational commitment, it may be concluded that academic staff in the sample demonstrate high levels of organisational commitment as assessed by the OCQ, although the standard deviation of 14.98 is slightly high which shows that the scores are not distributed very closely to the mean

Table 5.2 presents the results obtained for the support staff.

Table 5.2 Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for support staff

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std Dev</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>N</i>
<i>Organisational Commitment</i>	74.99	16.31	23	100	104
<i>Work Subscale</i>	30.73	12.17	5	54	90
<i>Supervision Subscale</i>	32.72	12.30	7	49	98
<i>Co-worker Subscale</i>	34.15	15.37	1	54	103
<i>Promotion Subscale</i>	14.59	13.41	0	54	105
<i>Pay Subscale</i>	14.23	12.74	0	54	103
<i>Overall Job Satisfaction</i>	112.11	38.48	27	186	74

Table 5.2 indicates that the arithmetic means for the nature of the work, supervision and co-worker subscales are 30.73, 32.72 and 34.15 respectively, with respect to the dimensions of job satisfaction assessed by the JDI for support staff. As already mentioned, the approximate mean of 36 constitutes an average level of satisfaction on these subscales. It thus appears the satisfaction levels of support staff in the sample are below average levels with respect to the nature of the work that they perform, their supervision and their co-workers. Means of 14.59 and 14.23 were obtained for the promotion and pay subscales respectively. As mentioned previously, average levels of satisfaction on these subscales are represented by an approximate mean score of 18. It would thus appear that the satisfaction levels of the support staff in the sample are below the average for these scales with respect to promotion opportunities and pay received.

Table 5.2 shows that support staff in the sample are most satisfied with their co-workers, followed by their supervision and the nature of their jobs. They appear to be less satisfied with their opportunities for promotion and least satisfied with the compensation they receive.

Furthermore, Table 5.2 indicates that the arithmetic mean and standard deviation for the organisational commitment of the sample is 74.99 and 16.31 respectively. As a mean score of approximately 60 would constitute an average level of organisational commitment, it may be concluded that support staff in the sample demonstrate high levels of organisational commitment as assessed by the OCQ, although the standard deviation of 16.31 is high, showing that the scores are not distributed very closely to the mean.

INFERENCEAL STATISTICS

In order to test the research hypotheses, the product moment correlation coefficient was calculated and multiple regression and analyses of variance were performed. This section presents the results obtained by these inferential statistical techniques.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

ANOVA were computed for the purpose of testing hypothesis 1 and 2. The results are indicated hereunder.

5.3.1.1 Hypothesis 1

Null Hypothesis

There is no statistically significant difference between academic staff and support staff in organisational commitment at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Alternative Hypothesis

There is a statistically significant difference in organisational commitment between academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Table 5.3 below presents the results obtained to test hypothesis 1

Table 5.3 The relationship in organisational commitment between academic and support staff

	Mean	N	Std Deviation	Std Error
Academic	74.3	120	14.98	1.37
Support	74.9	104	16.3	1.6
F = 0.1089		F Prob=		
0.7419				

This hypothesis was assessed using analysis of variance (ANOVAS). The ratio of variance between academic and support staff with respect to organisational commitment is very low ($F=0.1089$). The similarity in organisational commitment for both groups is further borne out by comparable mean values (Mean = 74.3 ± 1.37 , SD= 14.98 and Mean = 74.9 ± 1.6 , SD = 16.3, respectively) and the F Probability value (F Prob = 0.7419; DF = 1). The F probability value indicates that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant.

The null hypothesis is therefore accepted at a 95% confidence level.

5.3.1.2 Hypothesis 2

Null Hypothesis

There is no statistically significant difference in the job satisfaction of academic staff and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Alternative Hypothesis

There is a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between academic staff and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

The table below indicates the relationship in job satisfaction between academic and support staff.

Table 5.4 The relationship in job satisfaction between academic and support

	Mean	N	Std Deviation	Std Error
Academic	124.8	78	32.4	3.7
Support	112.1	74	38.5	4.5
F = 4.8726		F Prob. =		
.0288				

staff

There is a significant difference between the means of the two groups with respect to job satisfaction; job satisfaction is higher in the academic staff group than for their support staff counterparts (Mean = 124.8 ± 3.7, SD = 32.4, and Mean = 112 ± 4.5, SD = 38.5, respectively; F Prob = .0288; DF = 1; at 95% confidence level).

The null hypothesis is therefore rejected and the research hypothesis is therefore retained.

5.3.2 Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient

The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed for the purposes of determining the following relationships:

- The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment when the academic and support staff groups are combined.

The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for academic staff.

- The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for support staff.

The table below summarises the correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment when the academic and support staff groups are combined.

Table 5.5 The relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction for academic and support staff combined

	Organisational Commitment
Job Satisfaction	0.60 (242) P = 0.00 (2-tailed significance)

There is a statistically significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment ($r = 0.60$; $p = 0.00$) for the combined group of academic and support staff. This would seem to imply that if the job satisfaction were to change, then organisational commitment would change accordingly. The coefficient of determination, ($r^2 = 0.36$), implies that 36% of the variation in organisational commitment of the combined group can be attributed to job satisfaction. The remaining 64% can be explained by other variables.

This relationship was also investigated separately for both academic and support staff. The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the academic staff group is presented in the table below:

Table 5.6 The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for academic staff

	Organisational Commitment
Job Satisfaction	0.52 (242) P = 0.00 (2-tailed significance)

There is a significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the academic staff ($r = 0.52$; $p = 0.00$). The coefficient of determination ($r^2 = 0.267$) implies that 27% of the variation in organisational commitment of the combined group can be attributed to job satisfaction, while the remaining 73% of the variation can be attributed to the influence of other variables.

The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the support staff group is presented in the table below:

Table 5.7 The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for support staff

	Organisational Commitment
Job Satisfaction	0.65 (242) P = 0.00 (2-tailed significance)

There is a significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the support staff group ($r = 0.65$; $p = 0.00$). The coefficient of determination ($r^2 = 0.415$) implies that 41.5% of the variation in organisational commitment for the support staff group can be attributed to job satisfaction, while the remaining 58.5% of the variance can be attributed to the influence of other variables.

Multiple Regression

Having established that job satisfaction accounts for some measure of organisational commitment in both groups, that is 41.5% for the support staff group and 27% for the academic staff group, the effect of demographic factors on this relationship, for each group, was determined.

For the purpose of testing hypothesis 3 and hypothesis 4, multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the extent to which the demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, job level and level of education will explain the variance between the combined sample of academic and support staff in terms of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

5.3.3.1 Hypothesis 3

Null Hypothesis

The demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, and level of education will not significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction in the combined sample of academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Alternative Hypothesis

The demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, and level of education will significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction in the combined sample of academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

The results of the multiple regression analysis regressing demographic variables against job satisfaction, as dependent variable, for the combined sample of academic and support staff groups are presented in Table 5.8. In considering demographic variables, job level was excluded in this instance, since job levels for academics and support staff vary from those of support staff.

The coefficient of multiple correlation between the demographic variables and job satisfaction, as indicated by Multiple R in Table 5.8 is 0.32. R^2 , the coefficient of multiple determination, is 0.10005. Therefore, only 10% of the variance in job satisfaction can be accounted for by these demographic variables.

Furthermore, the F statistic of 3.18 and 143 degrees of freedom is statistically significant at the 99% level, ($p < 0.01$). On the basis thereof, it may be concluded that the demographic variables significantly explain 10% of the variance in job satisfaction in academic and support staff combined. However, nearly 90% of the variance in job satisfaction must be explained by factors not considered in this study. Further, the variation in job satisfaction is not affected by the job category, ($p > 0.05$).

The null hypothesis may therefore be rejected. It is accepted that the demographic variables of age, gender, tenure and education level significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction in academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Table 5.8 also indicates that when the other variables are controlled, two of the demographic variables are significant. With a Beta-value of -0.305887 , tenure reaches

statistical significance at the 0.05 level, and is the best predictor of job satisfaction. Age, with a Beta-value of .217017 is also significant at the 0.05 level. Consequently, age too, is a significant predictor of job satisfaction

Table 5.8 Results of multiple regression analysis regressing demographic variables against job satisfaction (as dependent variable) for a combined academic and support staff group

Overall Job Satisfaction					
Variable(s) Entered on Step Number					
1..	AGE				
2..	EDUCATION				
3..	GENDER				
4..	JOB LEVEL				
5..	TENURE				
Multiple R .31630					
R Square .10005					
Adjusted R Square .06858					
Standard Error 34.78462					
Analysis of Variance					
		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	
Regression		5	19234.87394	3846.97479	
Residual		143	173025.70325	1209.96995	
F = 3.17940		Signif F = .0094**			
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T Sig	T
GENDER	-6.962193	6.289439	-.095056	-1.107	.2702
EDUCATION	-1.976216	2.138643	-.086091	-.924	.3570
TENURE	-7.353274	2.298401	-.305887	-3.199	.0017*
CATEGORY	-10.489781	6.768922	-.145928	-1.550	.1234
AGE	10.293997	4.926160	.217017	2.090	.0384*
(Constant)	150.081633	24.755461		6.063	.0000
* p < 0.05					
** p < 0.01					

As tenure carries a negative Beta weight, the suggestion is that an inverse relationship exists between tenure and job satisfaction, with more tenured employees experiencing

lower levels of satisfaction. Age carries a positive Beta weight, suggesting that the older the employee, the higher the level of satisfaction experienced.

Table 5.8 further shows that neither gender nor educational level was found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 levels. Moreover, it further appears as though level of education, with a Beta-value of -0.086091 is the poorest predictor of job satisfaction between academic and support staff groups in the sample. Given the very different role played by education in the academic and support job requirements, it is not surprising that the education level is not a meaningful predictor in the combined sample. It can thus be concluded that while tenure and age are significant predictors of job satisfaction for academic and support staff in a institution of higher education in the Western Cape, gender and educational level have little ability to predict this variable.

5.3.3.2 Hypothesis 4

Null Hypothesis

The demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, and level of education will not significantly explain the variance in organisational commitment in academic and support staff as a combined sample at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Alternative Hypothesis

The demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, and level of education will significantly explain the variance in organisational commitment in academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

The results of the multiple regression analysis in which the demographic variables are regressed against organisational commitment, are presented in Table 5.9. In

considering demographic variables, job level was excluded in this instance, since job levels for academics vary from those for support staff

Table 5.9 Results of multiple regression analysis regressing demographic variables against organisational commitment (as dependent variable) for a combined group of academic and support staff

Overall Organisational Commitment					
Variable(s) Entered on Step Number					
1..	AGE2				
2..	EDUCATION				
3..	GENDER				
4..	TENURE				
5..	CATEGORY				
Multiple R .23336					
R Square .05446					
Adjusted R Square .03247					
Standard Error 15.39761					
Analysis of Variance					
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square		
Regression	5	2935.65673	587.13135		
Residual	215	50973.58309	237.08643		
F = 2.47644 Signif F = .0332*					
----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
GENDER	.067028	2.270427	.002083	.030	.9765
EDUCATION	-.126246	.744758	-.013126	-.170	.8656
CATEGORY	2.681065	2.416155	.085633	1.110	.2684
TENURE	-2.043843	.805562	-.193491	-2.537	.0119*
AGE	5.664482	1.751104	.262954	3.235	.0014**
(Constant)	61.808295	9.100228		6.792	.0000
* p < 0.05					
** p < 0.01					

From Table 5.9 it can be seen that the coefficient of multiple correlation between the demographic variables and organisational commitment, as indicated by Multiple R is 0.23336. R^2 , the coefficient of multiple determination, is 0.05446. Therefore, only 5.4% of the variance in organisational commitment can be accounted for by these demographic variables.

Furthermore, the F statistic of 2.47644 at 5 and 215 degrees of freedom is statistically significant at the 95% level, ($p < 0.05$). On the basis thereof, it may be concluded that the demographic variables significantly explain 5.4% of the variance in organisational commitment between academic and support staff. However, nearly 94.6% of the variance in organisational commitment may be explained by variables not considered in this study. Further, the variation in organisational commitment is not affected by job category ($p > 0.05$).

The null hypothesis may therefore be rejected and it is accepted that the demographic variables of age, tenure, educational level and gender significantly explain the variance in organisational commitment for academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Table 5.9 also indicates that when the other variables are controlled, two of the demographic variables are significant. Age has a Beta-value of 0.262954 and reaches statistical significance at the 0.01 level, and is therefore the best predictor of job satisfaction. Tenure, with a Beta-value of -0.93491 is also significant at the 0.05 level. Consequently, tenure too, is a significant predictor of job satisfaction.

Similar to the results obtained with job satisfaction, tenure carries a negative Beta weight. The suggestion is that an inverse relationship exists between tenure and organisational commitment, with more tenured employees experiencing lower levels of organisational commitment. Age carries a positive Beta weight, suggesting that the older the employee, the higher the level of organisational commitment.

Furthermore, Table 5.9 shows that neither gender nor educational level was found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 levels. Moreover, it further appears that gender with a Beta-value of 0.002083, is the poorest predictor of organisational commitment between academic and support staff groups in the sample. It can thus be concluded that while tenure and age are significant predictors of organisational commitment between academic and support staff in a institution of higher education in the Western Cape, gender and educational level have little ability to predict this variable.

The statistical significance of the relationships between demographic variables and job satisfaction for each group, academic staff and support staff, was determined next. This procedure was then repeated for organisational commitment.

Table 5.10 present the results obtained from the multiple regression analysis, when the five demographic variables of age, gender, job level, level of education and tenure were regressed against job satisfaction for academic staff.

Table 5.10 indicates that the coefficient of multiple correlation between the demographic variables and job satisfaction in academic staff, as indicated by Multiple R is 0.36636. R², the coefficient of multiple determination is 0.13422, thus suggesting that 13.4% of the variance in job satisfaction can be accounted for by the demographic variables of age, gender, education, tenure and job level.

However, the F statistic of 2.20144 at 5 and 71 degrees of freedom is not statistically significant at the 95% level, ($p > 0.05$). On the basis thereof, it may be concluded that the demographic variables do not significantly explain 13.4% of the variance in job satisfaction in academic staff. Nearly 86.6% of the variance in job satisfaction may be explained by variables not considered in this study.

Table 5.10 Results of multiple regression analysis regressing the five demographic variables against job satisfaction in academic staff

JOB SATISFACTION - ACADEMIC STAFF					
Multiple R		.36636			
R Square		.13422			
Adjusted R Square		.07325			
Standard Error		31.38690			
	DF	Sum of Squares		Mean Square	
Regression	5	10843.59935		2168.71987	
Residual	71	69944.76429		985.13753	
	201	Signif F =	063		
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
GENDER	+15.366383	7.806401	-.237179	-1.968	.0529
EDUCATION	.314400	4.395690	.009127	.072	.9432
TENURE	-6.712971	3.026235	-.305412	-2.218	.0297*
AGE	-6.353444	6.634241	-.143423	-.958	.3415
JOBLEVEL	-1.644267	4.000979	-.065760	-.411	.6823
(Constant	96.904073	42.194772		4.667	.0000

p < 0.05

Furthermore, tenure has a Beta-value of $-.305412$ and reaches statistical significance at the 0.05 level. It is therefore the best predictor of job satisfaction amongst academic staff members in the sample.

As tenure carries a negative Beta weight, the suggestion is that an inverse relationship exists between tenure and job satisfaction, with more tenured academic staff experiencing lower levels of job satisfaction.

Furthermore, Table 5.10 shows that neither gender, age, educational level or job level were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 levels. Moreover, level of education, with a Beta-value of 0.009127 is the weakest predictor of job satisfaction in the academic staff group in the sample.

It can thus be concluded that while tenure is a significant predictor of job satisfaction in academic staff in a institution of higher education in the Western Cape; gender, educational level, job level and age have little ability to predict this variable.

The table below, (5.11) presents the results obtained from the multiple regression analysis, when the five demographic variables of age, gender, job level, level of education and tenure were regressed against job satisfaction for academic staff.

Table 5.11 indicates that the coefficient of multiple correlation between the demographic variables and job satisfaction in support staff, as indicated by Multiple R is 0.49450. R^2 , the coefficient of multiple determination is 0.24453, thus suggesting that 24.5% of the variance in job satisfaction can be accounted for by the demographic variables of age, gender, education, tenure and job level for support staff.

Furthermore, the F statistic of 4.14303 at 5 and 64 degrees of freedom is statistically significant at the 99% level, ($p < 0.01$). On the basis thereof, it may be concluded that the demographic variables significantly explain 24.5% of the variance in job satisfaction in support staff. In fact, 75.5% of the variance in job satisfaction of support staff in the sample may be explained by variables not considered in this study.

Table 5.11 also shows that age has a Beta-value of 0.49742 and reaches statistical significance at the 0.01 level, whilst tenure has a Beta-value of -0.367561 and reaches

statistical significance at the 0.05 level. Age is therefore the best predictor of job satisfaction amongst support staff members in the sample.

Table 5.11 Results of multiple regression analysis regressing the five demographic variables against job satisfaction in support staff

JOB SATISFACTION – SUPPORT STAFF					
Variable(s) Entered on Step Number					
1..	SUPPORT LEVEL				
2..	TENURE				
3..	EDUCATION				
4..	GENDER				
5..	AGE				
Multiple R	.49450				
R Square	.24453				
Adjusted R Square	.18551				
Standard Error	35.30620				
Analysis of Variance					
			Sum of Squares		Mean Square
Regression	5		25821.99906		5164.39981
Residual	64		79777.77237		1246.52769
F = 4.1430 Sig. F = .025**					
----- variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig. T
GENDER	10.501520	10.116085	.123902	1.038	.3031
EDUCATION	-3.718933	2.625189	-.162285	-1.417	.1614
TENURE	-9.631708	3.423211	-.367561	-2.814	.0065*
AGE	28.909694	7.731627	.497492	3.739	.0004**
SUPPORT LEVEL	11.269706	5.763554	-.236087	-1.955	.0549
Constant	106.437261	35.790245		2.974	.0041*
* p < 0.05					
** p < 0.01					

As tenure carries a negative Beta weight, the suggestion is that an inverse relationship exists between tenure and job satisfaction, with more tenured support staff

experiencing lower levels of job satisfaction. Age carries a positive weight, with job satisfaction increasing with age among support staff in the sample.

Table 5.11 further shows that none of the categories of gender, educational level and job level were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 levels. Moreover, gender, with a Beta-value of 0.123902, is the weakest predictor of job satisfaction among the support staff in the sample.

It can thus be concluded that while age and tenure are significant predictors of job satisfaction among support staff in a institution of higher education in the Western Cape; gender, educational level and job level have little ability to predict this variable.

Table 5.12 present the results obtained from the multiple regression analysis, when the five demographic variables of age, gender, job level, level of education and tenure were regressed against organisational commitment for academic staff.

Table 5.12 indicates that the coefficient of multiple correlation between the demographic variables amongst support staff, as indicated by Multiple R, is 0.25086. The R^2 value is 0.06293, thus suggesting that 6% of the variance in organisational commitment can be accounted for by the demographic variables of age, gender, education, tenure and job level

Furthermore, the F statistic of 1.49087 at 5 and 111 degrees of freedom is not statistically significant at the 95% level, ($p > 0.05$). On the basis thereof, 6% of the variance in organisational commitment amongst academic staff cannot be explained by the demographic variables. Furthermore, almost 94% of the variance in job satisfaction amongst support staff in the sample may be explained by variables not considered in this study.

Table 5.12 also shows that tenure has a Beta-value of -0.274089 and reaches statistical significance at the 0.05 level

Table 5.12 Results of multiple regression analysis regressing the five demographic variables against organisational commitment for academic staff

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT – ACADEMIC STAFF					
Multiple R		.25086			
R Square		.06293			
Adjusted R Square		.02072			
Standard Error		14.93159			
	Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	
	Regression	5	1661.96533	332.39307	
	Residual	111	24747.72698	222.95250	
	Significance				
			F		Sig
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
GENDER	-.375990	3.017662	-.012410	-.125	.9011
EDUCATION	2.042708	1.744607	.125697	1.171	.2442
TENURE	-2.872333	1.187225	-.274089	-2.419	.0172*
AGE	1.751534	2.541286	.077951	.689	.4921
JOB LEVEL	.231369	1.482248	.020684	.156	.8762
Constant	67.669044	17.498616		3.867	.0002
* p < 0.05					
** p < 0.01					

Tenure carries a negative Beta weight, thus an inverse relationship exists between tenure and organisational commitment, with more tenured academic staff experiencing lower levels of organisational commitment

Table 5.12 further shows that none of the categories of gender, educational level, age or job level were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 levels. Moreover, gender, with a Beta-value of 0.012410, is the poorest predictor of organisational commitment among the academic staff in the sample.

It can thus be concluded that while tenure is a significant predictor of job satisfaction amongst academic staff in a institution of higher education in the Western Cape, gender, educational level, age and job level have little ability to predict this variable.

Table 5.13 present the results obtained from the multiple regression analysis, when the five demographic variables of age, gender, job level, level of education and tenure were regressed against organisational commitment for the support staff.

Table 5.13 shows that the coefficient of multiple correlation between the demographic variables amongst support staff, as indicated by Multiple R is 0.38947. The R^2 value is 0.15168, thus suggesting that 15% of the variance in organisational commitment can be accounted for by the demographic variables of age, gender, education, tenure and job level

Furthermore, the F statistic of 3.43308 at 5 and 96 degrees of freedom is statistically significant at the 99% level, ($p < 0.01$). It may thus be concluded that the demographic variables significantly explain 15% of the variance in organisational commitment amongst support staff. Approximately 85% of the variance in organisational commitment among support staff in the sample may be explained by variables not considered in this study.

Table 5.13 also shows that age has a Beta-value of 0.379009 and reaches statistical significance at the 0.05 level. Age can thus be regarded as the best predictor of organisational commitment amongst support staff in the sample.

As age carries a positive Beta weight, the suggestion is that organisational commitment increases with age among support staff in the sample

Table 5.13 Results of multiple regression analysis regressing the five demographic variables against organisational commitment for support staff

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT - SUPPORT STAFF					
Multiple R	.38947				
R Square	.15168				
Adjusted R Square	.10750				
Standard Error	15.55730				
Analysis of Variance					
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square		
Regression	5	4154.53709	830.90742		
Residual	96	23234.83546	242.02954		
F = 3.43308 Signif F = .0067**					
----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
GENDER	1.782388	3.573157	.050470	.499	.6190
EDUCATION	-.767723	.879356	-.086332	-.873	.3848
TENURE	-1.622724	1.221051	-.148283	-1.329	.1870
AGE	8.643163	2.644574	.379009	3.268	.0015*
JOBLEVEL	-2.984197	1.814783	-.170354	-1.644	.1034
(Constant)	67.592547	12.351404		5.472	.0000
* p < 0.05					
** p < 0.01					

Furthermore, Table 5.13 shows that neither gender, educational level, tenure or job level was found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 levels. Moreover, gender, with a Beta-value of 0.050470, is the poorest predictor of organisational commitment among the support staff in the sample.

It can thus be concluded that while age is a significant predictor of job satisfaction amongst academic staff in at a higher education institution in the Western Cape; gender, educational level, tenure and job level have little ability to predict this variable.

CHAPTER SIX

6. CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter presents a discussion of the results obtained and conclusions are drawn on the basis of these results. The chapter concludes by presenting limitations of the study and conclusions.

6.2 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The discussion of the results of this study will be organised into sections per hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: There is a statistically significant difference in organisational commitment between academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

The results of the present study demonstrate that there is no significant difference in organisational commitment between academic and support staff. The implication is that the relative strength of the academic and support staff's identification with and involvement in the higher education institution under investigation are similar. Furthermore, based on the results, it can be assumed that both academic and support staff will act in a similar manner to meet the institution's goals and interests. It can be concluded that both groups have similar psychological states that would either bind them to the institution or increase the likelihood of turnover. Unfortunately, the findings of this study cannot be compared to literature, due to a paucity of similar studies.

Hypothesis 2: There is a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

The results obtained in the present study demonstrate that job satisfaction is higher in the academic group than for their support staff counterparts. Furthermore, academic staff in the sample are relatively satisfied with the nature of the work that they perform, as well as with their co-workers and opportunities for promotion, but are less satisfied with the supervision and compensation they receive. Support staff in the sample are most satisfied with their co-workers, followed by their supervision and the nature of their jobs. They appear to be less satisfied with their opportunities for promotion and least satisfied with the compensation they receive.

In order to increase job satisfaction in its staff, these results suggest that the higher education institution in question should investigate alternatives to:

- improve supervision received by academic staff members
- improve the compensation received by both academic and staff members
- improve the opportunities for promotion for support staff members.

An important finding in this study is that both academic and support staff are least satisfied with their pay. Research findings in the literature suggest that compensation policies and amounts influence level of absenteeism, turnover decision and employee decisions on productivity (Oshagbemi, 2000a).

The finding that staff are least satisfied with pay is consistent with Oshagbemi's (2000c) results of a study done in the UK. The author found that within the university work environment, out of eight aspects of job satisfaction, employees were most dissatisfied with their pay. Klein and Maher (1966) also found that higher education is generally associated with relative dissatisfaction with pay (Ibid). Similar findings

were arrived at by Comm and Mathaisel (2003) in the United States, who found that 51 percent of the faculty do not believe they are fairly compensated.

Hypothesis 3: The demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, and level of education will significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction in the combined sample of academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Since the demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, education and job level have been shown to be significant predictors of both job satisfaction and organisational commitment in literature (Robbins, 1998), it was deemed necessary that the effects of these variables be considered to gain greater insight into the correlates of satisfaction and commitment.

The results obtained indicate that the selected demographic variables have a weak, but statistically significant, influence on job satisfaction for the academic and support staff when combined into one group. This is in accordance with Oshagbemi's (2003) observation that in higher education there are fairly objective criteria to assess achievements, and that there are no plausible reasons why any of these criteria should affect the overall job satisfaction of staff members.

When the demographic factors were regressed in this combined group to determine job satisfaction, only two variables, tenure and age, were found to be significant predictors of employee satisfaction, with tenure being the best predictor. It is possible that satisfaction increases with time and that benefits that increase in time, such as security and experience, are likely to have an important influence on employee satisfaction (Chambers, 1999). In contrast, Oshagbemi (2003) found that tenure was negatively related to job satisfaction. An explanation he offers is that longer serving members of staff are less satisfied due to the increasing bureaucratic workload of higher education institutions which limits their time to do research, and that they were

not subjected to the same pressures in the past. This finding contradicts an earlier finding where he found length of service to be positively and significantly related to overall job satisfaction (2000d).

Furthermore, this study demonstrated that when academic and support staff are combined, education is the weakest predictor of satisfaction. Research findings in this area have been inconclusive (Loscocco, 1990). It is possible however, that no significant relationship exists between educational level and satisfaction, hence the inability of education to predict satisfaction .

The present study also failed to establish gender as a significant predictor of job satisfaction. There have however, been numerous studies across a variety of occupational settings, which have found no significant gender differences in job satisfaction. These results are similar to those of Oshagbemi (2003), who found no relationship between gender and job satisfaction, except when gender was combined with rank.

Hypothesis 4: The demographic variables of age, gender, tenure and level of education will significantly explain the variance in organisational commitment between academic and support staff at a higher education institution in the Western Cape.

Results of the present study demonstrate that the selected demographic variables significantly explain the variance in organisational commitment between academic and support staff in the sample. However, only tenure and age were found to be significant, with age being the best predictor of commitment.

Several other authors have also found that age is positively related to an employee's level of commitment (Lok & Crawford, 1999; 2001; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Rowden, 2000). Drawing from literature, numerous explanations may be posited for the present

findings. For example, Mowday *et al.* (1982) suggest that younger employees are less committed than older employees, largely due to the fact that as age increases, the individual's opportunities for alternate employment decrease. As the freedom for employment of the individual decreases, there is an increase in the perceived attractiveness of the current employer, which leads to increased psychological attachment.

Contrary to expected results, an inverse relationship was found between tenure and organisational commitment. It is possible though that longer tenure is not positively associated with commitment, when age is controlled (Cramer, 1993). Also, the under-representation of certain categories could have influenced the results obtained. The sample consisted of a majority of employees with long tenure, with 55% having been with the institution for more than 6 years.

The results of the study also demonstrate that neither gender nor education significantly account for the variance in organisational commitment between academic and support staff. The inability of these variables to significantly predict organisational commitment may be due to the fact that significant relationships do not exist between these variables (Loscocco, 1990; Ngo & Tsang, 1998; Wahn, 1998). However, the under-representation of certain categories might account for the obtained results. For instance, 73.3% of the respondents in the sample are graduates, of which 62% are post-graduates.

It would be prudent to conclude with a discussion on the results obtained in determining the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction when the academic and support staff groups are combined, and when the groups are separated.

The results obtained indicate that there exists a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the combined group of academic

and support staff, as well as for individual academic and support staff groups. The implication of this finding is that if job satisfaction were to change, then organisational commitment would change accordingly.

Furthermore, 10% of the variance in job satisfaction may be explained by the demographic variables for the combined group. However, when separated into individual groups, the results indicate that 13.4% of the variance in job satisfaction of the academic staff, and 24.5% of the variance in job satisfaction of the support staff, can be accounted for by the demographic variables.

In addition, 5.4% of the variance in organisational commitment may be explained by the demographic variables for the combined group. However, when separated into individual groups, the results indicate that 6% of the variance in organisational commitment of the academic staff, and 15% of the variance in organisational commitment of the support staff, can be accounted for by the demographic variables. The findings of this study thus suggest that demographic variables appear to be better predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the support staff than they are for the academic staff.

6.3 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion of the present investigation, some comments on the limitations of this study are appropriate, and where possible, recommendations are offered for future research.

There are very few job satisfaction and organisational commitment studies carried out within the university environment. Furthermore, studies conducted in the higher education environment are more focused on academic staff as evidenced by the literature review. Thus a comparison with similar studies is therefore constrained by a

paucity in available material. It would be prudent to conduct a similar study after the mergers of institutions for comparative purposes and to inform future policy.

In addition, the number of participants in this study, although adequate for statistical testing, represents a relatively low response rate. The external validity can be enhanced by the selection of a larger sample.

Furthermore, the sample was drawn from a higher education institution in the Western Cape. This study may be limited in its generalisability to other higher education institutions and those outside of the Western Cape. Ecological validity can be improved if the selection of the sample is representative of a variety of higher education institutions nationally and these findings would contribute much to confirming the results of this study.

As the study was quantitative in nature, further qualitative research is needed to better understand the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in terms of academic and support staff.

Moreover, as the potential extraneous variables such as marital status, personality characteristics, role conflict, and role ambiguity were not controlled, they may have impacted on the organisational commitment and job satisfaction of employees, thereby raising possible doubts about the internal validity of the study. By utilising research designs that allow for the control of extraneous variables, the internal validity will be improved, thereby ensuring more confidence in the results obtained.

Finally, this study did not explore the relationships between some of the outcomes of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, such as turnover, productivity and organisational success, which impact on university staff. However, understanding the levels and dynamics of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in higher

education is an important first step to further exploration, as these variables are important indicators of organisational effectiveness.

Despite the limitations, the results of the present study confirmed previous theoretical speculation.

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APPENDIX



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14 April 2003

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I am a Masters student in Industrial Psychology at the University of the Western Cape. I am presently engaged in a comparative study exploring job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst support and academic staff at an institution of higher education.

In this regard I am seeking your help in furthering my research. I am attaching three questionnaires for your kind attention: a biographical questionnaire, a job satisfaction questionnaire and an organisational commitment questionnaire. The information you provide will contribute to a better understanding of satisfaction and commitment processes in institutions of higher education. You are kindly requested to complete the attached questionnaires by following the instructions provided. All completed questionnaires should be returned on or before 13 June 2003 to:

S. Mcwatts
Education Policy Unit
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X17
Bellville
7535

Any information provided by you is provided anonymously and will be kept strictly confidential.

Thank you very much for your time and co-operation. It is greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely

Ms. S. Mcwatts

JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that you may have about your present job. There are no right or wrong answers.

Your responses will be treated as strictly confidential.

A. Think of your present work. What is it like most of the time? How well do the words below describe your work? Please circle the most appropriate response next to each word.

Y for YES if it describes your work
N for NO if it does not describe your work
? if you cannot decide.

WORK IN PRESENT JOB

1. Fascinating	Y	?	N
2. Routine	Y	?	N
3. Satisfying	Y	?	N
4. Boring	Y	?	N
5. Good	Y	?	N
6. Creative	Y	?	N
7. Respected	Y	?	N
8. Hot (temperature)	Y	?	N
9. Pleasant	Y	?	N
10. Useful	Y	?	N
11. Tiresome	Y	?	N
12. Healthful	Y	?	N
13. Challenging	Y	?	N
14. On your feet	Y	?	N
15. Frustrating	Y	?	N
16. Simple	Y	?	N
17. Endless	Y	?	N
18. Gives a sense of accomplishment	Y	?	N

B. Think of the pay you are receiving now. How well does each of the following words describe your present pay? Please circle the most appropriate response next to each word.

Y for YES if it describes your work
 N for NO if it does not describe your work
 ? if you cannot decide.

PRESENT PAY

Income adequate for normal expenses	Y	?	N
2. Satisfactory profit sharing	Y	?	N
3. Barely live on income	Y	?	N
4. Bad	Y	?	N
5. Income provides luxuries	Y	?	N
6. Insecure	Y	?	N
7. Less than I deserve	Y	?	N
8. Highly paid	Y	?	N
9. Underpaid	Y	?	N

C. Think of the supervision you are receiving now. How well does each of the following words describe your present supervision? Please circle the most appropriate response next to each word.

Y for YES if it describes your work
 N for NO if it does not describe your work
 ? if you cannot decide

SUPERVISION ON PRESENT JOB

1. Asks my advice	Y	?	N
2. Hard to please	Y	?	N
3. Impolite	Y	?	N
4. Praises good work	Y	?	N
5. Tactful	Y	?	N
6. Influential	Y	?	N
7. Up-to-date	Y	?	N
8. Doesn't supervise enough	Y	?	N
9. Quick tempered	Y	?	N
10. Tells me where I stand	Y	?	N
11. Annoying	Y	?	N
12. Stubborn	Y	?	N
13. Knows job well	Y	?	N
14. Bad	Y	?	N
15. Intelligent	Y	?	N
16. Leaves me on my own	Y	?	N
17. Lazy	Y	?	N
18. Around when needed	Y	?	N

D. Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words describe your present opportunities for promotion? Please circle the most appropriate response next to each word.

Y for YES if it describes your work
 N for NO if it does not describe your work
 ? if you cannot decide

PRESENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

1. Good opportunities for advancement	Y	?	N
2. Opportunities somewhat limited	Y	?	N
3. Promotion on ability	Y	?	N
4. Dead-end-job	Y	?	N
5. Good chance for promotion	Y	?	N
6. Unfair promotion policy	Y	?	N
7. Infrequent promotions	Y	?	N
8. Regular promotions	Y	?	N
9. Fairly good chance for promotion	Y	?	N

Think of the majority of the people that you are working with at the moment. How well does each of the following words describe these people? Please circle the most appropriate response next to each word.

Y for YES if it describes your work
 N for NO if it does not describe your work
 ? if you cannot decide

PEOPLE IN YOUR PRESENT JOB

1. Stimulating	Y	?	N
2. Boring	Y	?	N
3. Slow	Y	?	N
4. Ambitious	Y	?	N
5. Stupid	Y	?	N
6. Responsible	Y	?	N
7. Fast	Y	?	N
8. Intelligent	Y	?	N
9. Easy to make enemies	Y	?	N
10. Talk too much	Y	?	N
11. Smart	Y	?	N
12. Lazy	Y	?	N
13. Unpleasant	Y	?	N
14. No privacy	Y	?	N
15. Active	Y	?	N
16. Narrow interests	Y	?	N
17. Loyal	Y	?	N
18. Hard to meet	Y	?	N

Section 3

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that you may have about the *company* for which you are working.

With respect to your own feelings about the organization for which you are now working please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling the number which is most applicable to you.

1. Strongly Disagree
2. Moderately Disagree
3. Slightly Disagree
4. Neither Disagree nor Agree
5. Slightly Agree
6. Moderately Agree
7. Strongly Agree

Your responses will be treated as strictly confidential.

-
- | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful. | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| B | I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| C | I feel very little loyalty to this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| D | I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| E | I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| F | I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| G | I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work were similar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| H | This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| J. | I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| K. | There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| L. | Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on the important matters relating to its employees. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| M | I really care about the fate of this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| N. | For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| O. | Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
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Please ensure that all questions have been answered and then return the questionnaires as arranged.

Thank you very much for your time and co-operation.