



# The impact of work-nonwork balance on turnover intention: Evaluating the Great Resignation in South Africa after COVID-19

**A research report submitted by**

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**Abstract**

Retaining critical employees has become increasingly important with the growing competition for valuable skills and employees' increasing discernment of employment acceptability criteria. Significantly, changing working circumstances to work-from-home, necessitated by social distancing protocols under COVID-19 regulations, caused people to reevaluate their employment circumstances. As a result, organisations have recorded many resignations among knowledge and skilled workers in South Africa. In addition, knowledge work has swiftly transformed into mobile knowledge work, enabled by digital technologies, adding complexity to the balance between employee roles in work and life.

This research empirically quantified the factors driving knowledge workers' voluntary turnover. Specifically, the research investigated the role of work-life balance in turnover motivation. The research's first objective was quantitatively measuring the impact of work-nonwork balance on turnover intention. The second research objective investigated the moderating behaviour of the influence of employment equity practices in South Africa on the balance-to-intention relationship. The sample for the research contained 218 knowledge or skilled workers.

The empirical evidence from this study shows that work-nonwork balance is significantly associated with employees' voluntary termination of employment. Furthermore, the study found that employment equity practices' influence did not moderate the relationship between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention. The findings contribute to the human resource management literature, justifying businesses' investment in non-financial reward programmes.

**Keywords:** Work-life balance, work-nonwork balance, perceived work-nonwork balance, turnover intention, employment equity regulations

**Declaration**

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

Troy Thiel 01 November 2022

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## Chapter 1: Review of the topic

“Nothing is so painful to the human mind as a great and sudden change”.
(Shelley, 1818)

### 1.1 The Great Resignation, changing perceptions of work and life roles, and local labour market regulations

The American psychologist, Anthony Klotz, coined the term “Great Resignation” in May 2021 when he predicted that realisations about life and work gained during the COVID-19 pandemic would motivate many people to resign from their jobs to find more favourable employment conditions. Although it may seem predictable that a global pandemic would lead to people re-evaluating their priorities, the scale of the Great Resignation has gone beyond what the experts foresaw. For example, a record 4.5 million Americans, or 3% of the entire United States workforce, resigned in November 2021 alone (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2022). South Africa has also seen indicators of this trend (as reported by Remchannel, an employment research division of Old Mutual), with resignations increasing to 60% of labour turnover between April and September 2021 (BusinessTech, 2021).

Researchers have described the profound impact that COVID-19 has had on workers, identifying it as a significant disruptive event that prompted many people to assess the state of their careers (Akkermans et al., 2020). However, there is a difference between who is resigning in the United States compared to South Africa. Low-wage workers are driving the Great Resignation in the United States, as they are supported by stimulus and unemployment benefits, while in South Africa, mass resignations are being seen amongst skilled workers, in particular because of the newly gained modal changes of remote work and flexible schedules (Daniel, 2022). The context that has enabled both situations is a job market with a higher demand for employees than supply (Elting, 2021). According to Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) interviews conducted in 2020, the most in-demand occupational clusters in South Africa are finance, information technology, engineering and manufacturing, and training and services (Rasool, 2021).

A parallel trend, termed the “Great Acceleration” (Bradley et al., 2020), describes how the profit gap between the best-performing corporates and the rest of the market widened during the COVID-19 crisis. Amankwah-Amoah et al. (2021) expanded the scope of this trend to encompass changes in how we do business, where we wish to live and how we like to work, sparked by rapid digitalisation and the adoption of emerging technologies. For example, the change in working circumstances to work from home, necessitated by social distancing protocols under COVID-19 regulations, has caused knowledge work to swiftly transform into mobile knowledge work, enabled by digital technologies (Howe & Menges, 2022; Rudnicka et al., 2020; Waizenegger et al., 2020). This advancement has fuelled the rise of digital nomadism for knowledge workers (Wang et al., 2020). Consequently, changes to where and when employees work have affected their expectations of the employment relationship (Baranchenko et al., 2020; Kakar et al., 2019).

Current reporting on the “Great Resignation” has identified work-life flexibility as the predominant phenomenon affecting voluntary turnover amongst knowledge workers in South Africa (Buthelezi, 2022; Daniel, 2022). Powell et al. (2019) identified four trends that drive changing perceptions of the interface between work and life, and the first is changes in gender roles. Education for women has increased substantially, and women have progressed beyond the primary family role of “homemakers” (Galinsky et al., 2013). In conjunction, men’s primary focus, especially younger generations, is no longer that of the work-focused “breadwinner”. As a result, changes in gender roles are increasingly blurring the differences between what was once considered “suitable” for employees of different gender (Powell et al., 2019).

Next, the nature of families is changing. As gender roles change, families are now most likely to be headed by dual-earner married or unmarried couples, followed by female-headed families. These changing structures have adjusted people’s thoughts and actions relating to self-development, community, friendships and leisure (Greenhaus & Powell, 2016).

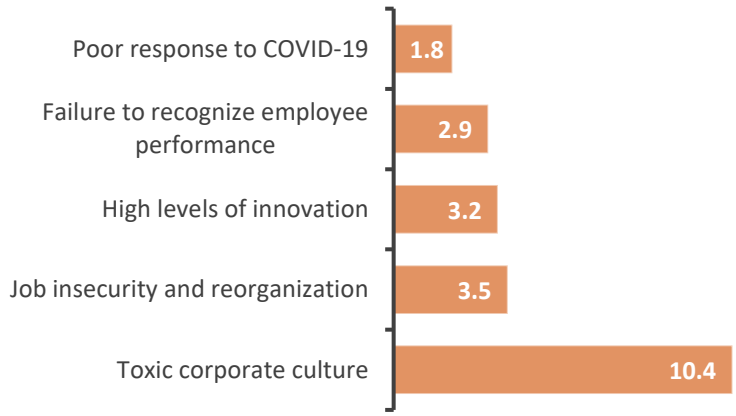
The third trend is how the nature of work is changing. Due to the softening of physical boundaries between work and nonwork, remote employees struggle more with the

interface between their personal and work lives (T. D. Allen et al., 2014). Finally, the nature of careers has changed, as they no longer follow the conventional model of upward mobility within a single organisation (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). Researchers characterise career alternatives as “boundaryless”, where employees identify more with their profession than an employer; “protean”, where an employee regards their career concerning its role in their whole life; or “customised”, where personal circumstances define how a career is designed (Powell et al., 2019).

In analysing how business leaders can best retain valued employees, Sull et al. (2022) measured company attrition elements within respective industries. Then, they compared them to establish their relative predictive power against compensation as a benchmark. Figure 1 shows the salient determinants of attrition in the workforce during the Great Resignation, as extrapolated from data gathered on the culture of organisations between April and September 2021.

**Figure 1: Attrition element importance relative to compensation**

Source: Sull et al. (2022)




As per Figure 1, a toxic corporate culture predicts a company's employee attrition 10.4 times more often than compensation. This phenomenon highlights the critical transformational element of maintaining an attractive employee value proposition. Sull et al. (2022, p.2) identified the principal factors leading to a toxic corporate

culture: “failure to promote diversity, equity, and inclusion; workers feeling disrespected; and unethical behaviour.”

In South Africa, promoting diversity, equity, and inclusion is complex. People have disparate attitudes, and there are varying outcomes for those currently advantaged or disadvantaged by the incumbent system or labour market regulations, which were put in place in an attempt to redress the effects of the apartheid system. On the other hand, an organisation offering attractive employment for scarce talent in a competitive market may be ethical or unethical depending on an employee's viewpoint around diversity, equity, and inclusion.

In considering the final factor identified as contributing to a toxic culture, workers may feel disrespected in a work-life flexibility context if they perceive the form of flexible work arrangement on offer to be impractical to them and, therefore, ineffective for supporting the process of balancing work and personal life demands. This example highlights a lack of understanding by an organisation of the personal implications to an employee when broad policies are applied. In particular, the inability to capitalise on offered flexibility due to other employment factors effectively makes the employment arrangement impersonal, contributing to a perception of disrespect.

Local labour market regulations affect employee relationships with their employers in South Africa (Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008). Similarly, due to discovering significant differences between groups of people when studying how demographic variables affect voluntary turnover, Wöcke and Heymann (2012) recommended that contemporary turnover models include differentiation to cater for distinct employee demographics. For instance, Wöcke and Sutherland (2008) demonstrated that a willingness to change employers presented differently for three main social identity groups in South Africa (black Africans, white males, and the remaining group of previously disadvantaged people), contingent on their attitudes towards transformation regulations. The study showed that white males were least likely to leave their organisations. This group had the lowest perceived job mobility in the market due to employment equity regulations. Recently, the availability of more remote work internationally has lowered the switching costs for these individuals,

affecting job mobility perceptions. However, it is unclear how this phenomenon may impact the three social identity groups in South Africa differently. Therefore, how labour market conditions impact different demographic groups may moderate the impact of work-nonwork balance on voluntary turnover.

The South African Employment Equity Commission's intended pace of transformation has not been attained; thus, to accelerate the process, stakeholder engagements have been underway since 2020 to entrench the targets developed for each economic sector (Commission for Employment Equity, 2020). This process indicates that the Commission for Employment Equity (CEE) anticipates that employment equity regulations will have an increasing impact on the labour market in South Africa.

### 1.2 Research purpose

The field of this study is human resource management and managerial psychology. This research aimed to demonstrate the relevance of work-nonwork balance as an emergent construct affecting voluntary turnover. The research investigated if employees' more significant emphasis on work-nonwork balance impacts their decision to leave an organisation. In addition, the research considered whether employment equity legislation moderates the relationship between work-nonwork balance and voluntary turnover. Answering these questions provides insight into what is driving the resignations of knowledge workers after the career shock event of COVID-19 in South Africa.

### 1.3 Research scope

This research investigated the characteristics of work-nonwork balance for knowledge workers in South Africa following the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. The study population was limited to knowledge workers, as they are the principal constituents reported in South Africa as participating in the Great Resignation. These workers were also more accessible to the researcher. This research did not attempt to build a better prediction model for employee turnover but instead focused on the role of work-nonwork balance in the Great Resignation.

## 1.4 Research aim

As an explanatory study, this research investigated the relationship between work-nonwork balance and employees terminating their employment. The research assessed the role that elements of work-life balance have in signalling employees' intention towards leaving an organisation. Moreover, the study analysed the participants' demographics and attitudes toward labour market legislation to ascertain if one moderates the other. The research question in this study was: "What is the nature of the relationship between perceived work-nonwork balance and turnover intention in a South African business environment?" The research aimed to understand the following:

- Is there a relationship between perceived general work-nonwork balance and an employee leaving an organisation?
- Is there a relationship between perceived work-nonwork involvement balance and an employee leaving an organisation?
- Is there a relationship between perceived affective work-nonwork balance and an employee leaving an organisation?
- Is there a relationship between perceived work-nonwork effectiveness balance and an employee leaving an organisation?
- Do employment equity regulations moderate all these relationships?

## 1.5 Research implications

The researcher designed this study to empirically understand the nature of the relationship between perceived work-nonwork balance and turnover intention. Local labour legislation may moderate this relationship in the South African context.

### *1.5.1 Business motivation*

The short supply of, and increasing demand for, knowledge workers is an intensifying employment challenge for organisations in South Africa (BusinessTech, 2022;

Institute of People Management, 2022; Plaatjies & Mitrovic, 2014). This research complements studies that describe remuneration preferences when retaining knowledge workers (Bussin & Brigman, 2019; Bussin & Toerien, 2015); there is substantial evidence that compensation only moderately impacts employee turnover (D. G. Allen et al., 2010; Rubenstein et al., 2018; Sull et al., 2022). Direct costs to business (lost time, recruiting and onboarding) for the loss of an employee are estimated to be between one and a half and two and a half times that of an employee's annual salary (Cascio, 2006). This study investigated the non-financial reward component of work-life balance and its role in driving recent resignations.

The flexible work arrangements (FWA) theory outlines varying approaches to where (flexplace) and when (flextime) employees perform work. Work-life flexibility is a construct that builds on this theory, advocating for a balance in the relationships between personal life, family and work (T. D. Allen et al., 2013; L. Golden, 2008; Kossek et al., 2010). Hayman (2009) reported that flextime work creates a significantly higher work/life balance for employees than those who remain on fixed hours. Although De Menezes and Kelliher (2011) could not describe a successful business case for using FWAs, recent research shows benefits such as job-related well-being, job satisfaction and organisational commitment improving employee retention (Felstead & Henseke, 2017). However, the advantages of increased flexible work may accompany costs for employees (work intensification and the inability to switch off), contributing to employee turnover. At the same time, organisations worry that employee-controlled flexibility is detrimental to teamwork and productivity (Kossek & Thompson, 2016). Consequently, how employers offer work flexibility to employees is complex and requires contextual understanding to ensure that the offer creates beneficial flexibility for all parties.

Employers are finding increased competition for skilled people to fulfil their organisation's goals. Organisations face significant challenges with the high demand for knowledge workers combined with a limited supply and the complexity of employees' changed work-life flexibility expectations.

### *1.5.2 Theoretical relevance*

This research sought to contribute to the literature by examining the role of work-nonwork balance in the recent trend of high turnover for knowledge workers, with the added lens of demographics-based differences entrenched by labour market regulations.

In a study by Moen et al. (2017), the authors questioned whether aspects of flexibility and support can reduce turnover intentions. Significantly, their findings indicated that such organisational interventions are effective, indicating that how organisations decide to offer flexibility may stem the tide of resignations currently being experienced in South Africa.

Powell et al. (2019) found that studies are beginning to meet the demand for innovative work-life theories to match the explosion of work-life research, eliciting a review of the work-life theory effort. In addition, the authors discussed a component of the work-life field that is devoted to societal work-life decisions, arguing that studies should consider laws and policies and their impact on people's work-life decisions.

The following chapter examines relevant academic literature to establish a theoretical basis for research. In addition, it provides insight into the current debates and theories related to the research questions.

## Chapter 2: Literature review

> Human reasoning has its fallacies, biases, and indulgence in mythology. But the ultimate explanation for the paradox of how our species could be both so rational and so irrational is not some bug in our cognitive software. It lies in the duality of self and other: our powers of reason are guided by our motives and limited by our points of view. (Pinker, 2021, p. 317)

### 2.1 Introduction

This research aimed to assess the impact of work-nonwork balance on whether workers choose to leave their current employment voluntarily. Local environmental factors may also affect the degree of this impact. This literature review aimed to determine the theoretical basis for the research and discusses the propositions and arguments that helped frame the questions in this study. The literature review includes the following:

Firstly, as the new phenomenon of job turnover increased from recent events that have impacted how people think about employment, this review outlines recent academic literature on career shocks and how such events change individual behaviours. Studies in this field have identified elements that influence the initiation, rate and scope of change in employment for employees.

Next, reviewing the reward literature assesses research on non-financial reward components such as work-life balance. The review then defines the concept of work-life balance through career development literature. In particular, this examination describes the emerging framework for categorising and measuring workers' perceptions of work-nonwork balance. (Casper et al. (2018) suggested that nonwork is a less ambiguous term to describe the work-life balance concept.) The review then analyses turnover intention studies to understand how work-life balance relates to this theory.

Following this, organisations have changed working arrangements in response to events and growing trends; therefore, the nature and effectiveness of these

interventions are explored in the literature to assess how this may affect employees. At the intersection of these interventions and the changed perceptions of employees is the concept of work-life flexibility. Research on this topic identifies how organisational efforts attempt to create flexibility to support employee well-being.

After that, the review investigates employment equity regulations in South Africa to establish what studies have discovered about this legislation's impact on employees' perceptions of work. Lastly, an overview summarises the key outcomes that inform the research questions and approach.

### 2.2 Career shocks

Akkermans et al. (2018) defined a career shock as:

> … a disruptive and extraordinary event that is, at least to some degree, caused by factors outside the focal individual's control and that triggers a deliberate thought process concerning one's career. The occurrence of a career shock can vary in terms of predictability, and can be either positively or negatively valenced. (p. 4)

Examining the reciprocity between individual agency and unexpected chance events offers a more holistic approach to understanding subsequent career decisions, as observed by Akkermans et al. (2018). The authors acknowledge that theories such as the Chaos Theory of Careers and Happenstance Learning Theory currently acknowledge the impact of chance events. However, Akkermans et al. (2018) argue that further theoretical development in the career development field should include an individual's disposition to reach a combined account of both personal and environmental impacts on career outcomes. Akkermans et al. (2020) identify the profound impact that COVID-19 has had on personnel as a career shock, predicting that the significant disruptive nature of the event has prompted many people to assess the state of their careers.

In applying the conservation of resources (COR) theory as a framework for analysing career shocks, Wordsworth and Nilakant (2021) found in their research of a natural disaster that participants entered into a "spiral of resource loss", diminishing their

resilience and ability to keep their career and life plans on track. The COR theory states that resource losses are more common than gains (Halbesleben et al., 2014), and a sustained loss of resources results in physiological strain, stress, burnout and emotional exhaustion. Consequently, Wordsworth and Nilakant (2021) advised managers to monitor employee stress, well-being levels and access to essential resources rather than other turnover predictors such as job dissatisfaction.

In conjunction, managing an employee's career has increasingly shifted to be driven by the individual in question (Baruch & Rousseau, 2019). With the rise of mobile working necessitated by COVID-19, it is noteworthy that research by Gazit et al. (2021) demonstrated that virtual employees had lower expectations and felt they had less manager support in managing their career development. However, few examinations of how career shocks impact an employee changing jobs exist (Akkermans & Kubasch, 2017).

Akkermans et al. (2018) suggested that qualitative exploration into the impact of career shocks is appropriate as the field is still in an emerging phase. Of particular significance for this study, the authors noted that research should consider that career shocks impact differently among demographic target groups. For example, older workers are historically less likely to lose their jobs (Adams, 2020), yet, when they do, their unemployment durations are significantly longer than for younger workers. This factor may impact their choices around when to retire or when changes in employment may be attractive.

### 2.3 Reward preferences amongst knowledge workers

In a study of Information Technology employees as a subset of knowledge workers, Bussin and Toerien (2015) found that reward preferences apply differently in terms of employee attraction, retention, and motivation, and the demographic characteristics of workers significantly impact these preferences. Building on their findings, the authors created a competitive rewards model that positions flexible work arrangements and work-life balance as one of three (along with fixed and incentive remuneration) minimum talent qualifiers underpinning the attraction, retention and motivation of knowledge workers. Significantly, flexible working and work-life balance

were ranked third behind remuneration aspects for the retention of employees in this study.

In an experimental investigation of how attractive non-financial rewards are for knowledge workers, Schlechter et al. (2015) verified that work-life balance, learning, and career advancement meaningfully affect the perception of a job's attractiveness to employees. Of particular interest, the study found no significant difference in attitudes toward non-financial rewards for the demographic aspects of age and race but did find this for gender, with women more attracted to non-financial reward elements. Their research finally emphasised the inclusion of non-financial rewards as integral to an attractive total rewards package for all employees.

Conversely, Pregnolato et al. (2017), when assessing demographic preferences toward retention by reward packages, observed that for Generation Y, work-life balance is relatively more important than career advancement, indicating that different age groups differentiate between non-financial rewards. Their study further indicated that access to learning opportunities was the least valued reward for retaining non-managerial employees or those with a matric as their highest qualification. The researchers concluded that the research on perceptions of rewards would deliver different results, favouring more actualisation needs under more stable conditions. This study argues that a relative time of stability, as is being experienced when compared to the crisis of the COVID-19 pandemic, has created conditions where actualisation needs, such as work-life balance, are directly impacting employment decisions for workers.

### 2.4 The development of the work/life balance construct

The discourse around the Western-originating social construct formulated as work/life balance began around the 1990s (Lewis et al., 2007), however the difficulties of managing paid work and other parts of one's life, particularly family responsibilities, have been researched for decades. The work/life balance field was established in the early 2000s when the construct became differentiated from related fields (Fisher-McAuley et al., 2003). In particular, the work/life balance concept expanded on work/family conflict constructs with a more inclusive framing to include

people without apparent family obligations. For example, the emerging construct included the mutual aspects of work/personal life interference and work/personal life enhancement (Fisher, 2001).

When assessing work/life balance research, two established theories are relevant. First, role theory describes a person's life as being comprised of several roles. When two or more sets of pressure coincide, role conflict arises. Although some researchers have focussed on the impact of role conflict (Amstad et al., 2011; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002), others have investigated the positive effects of multiple roles (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Secondly, the conservation of resources theory proposes that an environment with potential or actual resource loss threats produces a stress reaction.

Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003) synthesised these two theories arguing that competition for resources such as time and energy creates stress that impacts job satisfaction or personal well-being when balancing multiple roles, while Fisher (2001) developed a scale to measure employees' perceptions of work/life balance that was guided by these theories. As a result, three dimensions emerged: "work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work, and work/personal life enhancement" (Fisher, 2001).

### *2.4.1 Boundary theory*

Bulger et al. (2007) applied the principles of boundary theory to work/personal life balance to identify where boundaries may be permeable or flexible and the degree to which concerns are segmented or integrated. Permeable boundaries exist if elements from one domain require a behavioural response when an individual is in another. Boundary flexibility relies on the possibility that the boundary could be relaxed to meet another domain's demands. Due to the concept of boundary flexibility containing the perception of the ability to strengthen or weaken the boundary, Matthews and Barnes-Farrell (2010) described flexibility-willingness and flexibility-ability as functions representing an individual's ability and willingness to cross domains to deal with demands.

In their research, Bulger et al. (2007) demonstrated that lower flexibility-ability in the work domain combined with personal life permeating into work predicts work interference with personal life (WIPL). Additionally, lower flexibility-willingness and flexibility-ability added to the permeation of work into personal life as related to personal life interference with work (PLIW). Bulger et al. (2007) suggested "that the two flexibility measures predict permeability". In particular, they proposed that individual norms, rules, or fellow participants in the specific domain affect "flexibility-ability".

In investigating work-nonwork boundary management for workers who changed to remote work due to the COVID-19 pandemic, (T. D. Allen et al., 2021) found that workers who prefer to segment their roles experience a more significant work-nonwork balance. Improved balance was also associated with those who have fewer household members and dedicated office space within the home. However, a relatively simple instrument was used in the study to measure work-nonwork balance.

### *2.4.2 Border theory*

Border theory investigates the boundaries dividing places, times, and the people associated with work or personal life (Clark, 2000). Borders delineate domains and take three forms: where role-domain behaviour occurs, defines physical borders; when an individual performs role-specific work, determines temporal borders; and when certain thinking, behaviour or emotions are appropriate for the domain, creates psychological borders (T. D. Allen et al., 2014). Clark (2000) contributed to border theory by adding a blending dimension noting that border blending is present where permeability and flexibility are abundant.

Border keepers are domain members who play the role of boundary management. Supervisors at work and spouses at home are examples of border keepers (T. D. Allen et al., 2014). Under COVID-19 conditions where remote work increased, more flexible borders between domains followed (Oksanen et al., 2021). As remote working creates weaker work-life borders, this necessitates skilful work-life balancing (Fonner & Stache, 2012). During COVID-19, the role of border keeper became

subsumed or disappeared entirely, making the work-life balance situation untenable in the longer term, which may have led to subsequent harsher enforcement of boundaries.

### *2.4.3 Advancing the field and defining work-nonwork balance*

Casper et al. (2018) argued that conflict and enrichment constructs in the field are well understood, but how to measure and define balance is less clear. Meta-analysis of the field reveals balance relating to family, life, and job satisfaction. With balance measures demonstrated as strongly relating to satisfaction, Casper et al. (2018) suggested separating balance concerns from enrichment and conflict measures. In particular, their study emphasised the value of studying balance and its influence on mindsets because the "corrected effect sizes for balance were higher than those for conflict and enrichment" (Casper et al., 2018).

In a similar expansion in the field to when work-life balance emerged from work-family conflict concepts, Casper et al. (2018) advocated for replacing the word "life" with "nonwork" in the naming of the construct to make it more inclusive. Nonwork encompasses a person's multiple identities that are not work-related, which suggests that work is not a component of life. The recognition of the multiplicity of nonwork builds on what was proposed by Hall et al. (2013) who criticised the dichotomous nature of work-life research, arguing that "life outside of work and career is indeed multidimensional". This viewpoint expresses the complexity of forming a unitary conceptualisation of work-nonwork balance and an endeavour to reflect a holistic view of individuals' multiple role experiences.

Jingle fallacies are erroneous assumptions that two distinct things are the same as they bear the same name. In contrast, jangle fallacies are the erroneous assumption that two similar things are unique because they bear different labels. In eliminating the impact of Jingle and Jangle Fallacies in the literature and ensuring the inclusion of satisfaction, involvement, effectiveness, and fit aspects as the most common meanings for balance, Casper et al. (2018) arrived at a definition of work-nonwork balance as:

> Employees' evaluation of the favorability of their combination of work and nonwork roles, arising from the degree to which their affective experiences and their perceived involvement and effectiveness in work and nonwork roles are commensurate with the value they attach to these roles. (p. 197)

In departing from previous theories, which separated the directional concerns when roles interacted with each other, Casper et al. (2018, p. 197) offered a summarised definition, i.e., "a nondirectional perception of how one manages work and nonwork simultaneously".

Integrating existing work-family balance concepts, Wayne et al. (2017) provided a framework with four conceptualisations. First, additive and multiplicative spillovers are two approaches to describe the shared effects of directional conflict and enrichment. Next, balance satisfaction and effectiveness are two global balance approaches that describe attitudes toward resource allocation and appraisal of the fulfilment of expectations across roles. These two concepts are those that Casper et al. (2018) regarded as separate from balance concerns, which was confirmed by Wayne et al.'s (2017, p. 204) findings that the "combined spillover approaches are antecedents to, rather than indicators of, balance". In contrast, the latter approaches align with concepts Casper et al. (2018) suggested for inclusion when considering work-nonwork balance, confirming the preference for this suggested global approach. Finally, of interest for this study, Wayne et al. (2017) found that balance satisfaction is a stronger predictor of turnover intention than balance effectiveness.

Wayne et al. (2021) built a measure around the conceptual definitions suggested by Casper et al. (2018) of global balance and the three aspects of involvement, affective, and effective balance to capture the composite nature of the work-nonwork balance construct. In predicting balance outcomes, the structural equation modelling applied by Wayne et al. (2021) indicated that turnover intention is significantly related to involvement balance. However, the authors cautioned against confidence in this interpretation of the results due to bivariate correlations. A study which isolates turnover intention measured against the work-nonwork balance instrument may produce more reliable results.

### *2.4.4 Turnover intention*

Accepting Tett and Meyer's (1993) definition of turnover intention as "a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation", subsequent studies have shown that behavioural intention is a reliable determining factor of actual behaviour. As a result, researchers have argued that turnover intention is a substitute for labour turnover (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Muliawan et al., 2009; Tett & Meyer, 1993). This connection allows the measurement of turnover intention to simulate employee willingness to leave an organisation.

In a study investigating the factors influencing turnover intention, Alkahtani (2015) identified eight factors related to turnover: "organisational commitment, job satisfaction, training, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, organisational climate, employees' benefits and opportunities, and organisational justice." Many of these identified factors relate directly to employees' perception of work-nonwork balance. As observed by Rashmi and Kataria (2021) in their review of work-life balance literature, it has been well established that conflict between work and nonwork demands has job-related consequences such as turnover. Furthermore, empirical studies have all confirmed a relationship between work-life balance and turnover intention (Fayyazi & Aslani, 2015; Jaharuddin & Zainol, 2019; Kaushalya & Perera, 2018; Oosthuizen et al., 2016; Suifan et al., 2016). However, all these studies took place before the COVID-19 pandemic and utilised measurement tools that did not incorporate the differentiated work-nonwork balance construct.

## 2.5 Fluidity, flexible work arrangements, and work-life flexibility

When examining organisational fluidity, Alcover et al. (2017) note the increase of "non-traditional employment relationships such as part-time, temporary, flexible, virtual, triangular and contract types of work". For many organisations grappling with business restrictions due to COVID-19, offering more flexible employment relationship types has been key to surviving or even prospering under current circumstances. This phenomenon has changed the nature of the job market available to an employee, with predictions that 60% of the workforce in the United States of

America will be mobile by 2024 (IDC, 2020). Due to increasing competition for knowledge workers (Ewers et al., 2021; Glen, 2006; Kerr, 2020; Lumley et al., 2011), the impact of the valence of more easily attainable mobile work may be workers' reassessment of obligations toward a current employer measured against work-life flexibility offerings from competitors. Correspondingly, Baranchenko et al. (2020) verify a positive relationship exists between external job mobility and psychological contracts.

Hayman (2009) evaluated the relationship between work-life balance and the perceived usability of flexible work schedules. The research linked the three dimensions of work-life balance to the perceived usability of work schedules. The study concludes that flexible work schedules have a marginal impact on employees' work-life balance. However, the perception of the availability and usability of schedules and the inclusion of a schedule containing flexitime is pivotal to employees achieving work-life balance. This finding is confirmed by Galea et al. (2014) and Kossek and Lautsch (2018), who add further nuance to what effective, flexible work practices contain. Furthermore, these findings align with expectations when considering the comprehensive definition of work-nonwork balance by Casper et al. (2018).

In discussing sustainable flexibility implementation, Kossek et al. (2015) offer the perspective that while meeting business or customer needs, employees, co-workers, and the organisation must all be respected to obtain balance. Kossek and Lautsch (2018) describe work-life flexibility "as employment scheduling practices that are designed to give employees greater control over when, where, how much or how continuously work is done".

Using prior joint research and including salient themes from the field around what flexibility offerings work best under particular circumstances, Kossek et al. (2015) suggest managers avoid the following known drawbacks. First, an unintended consequence of adopting flexible work arrangements is reducing the amount of interaction and physical contact between co-workers. Besides workers feeling isolated and perceiving reduced respect (Bartel et al., 2012), managers now have

added challenges in monitoring and supporting virtual workers (Lautsch et al., 2009). Second, inequality in the ability to access flexibility may lead to repercussions among co-workers. For example, in their role as border keepers, supervisors often think that only high-performing employees, those with known family demands, or employees in less critical roles should be allowed flexibility (Kossek et al., 2016). T. Golden (2007) found that office-bound employees were less satisfied with work and more likely to quit their jobs for a high-tech company due to increasingly mobilised co-workers. In this situation, Lautsch et al. (2009) also confirm that any perception of workload transferral due to employees utilising flexibility leads to co-worker resentment. Finally, an organisation's culture can be impacted if flexible work arrangements are unilateral, either in favour of employers or employees. Finding an appropriate flexibility program ensures employees do not avoid flexibility because it is not aligned with work norms, is discouraged by leaders or may impact career prospects. Conversely, introducing work flexibility may reduce organisation performance if employees cut down on hours and work from home to reduce stress (Kossek et al., 2015).

Kossek and Lautsch (2018) report that different flexibility types provide varying work-life flexibility to employees in different occupational groups. There is an incongruence between the availability of different types of flexibility at different organisational levels and where employees need it most. Therefore, Kossek and Lautsch (2018) suggest that for an organisation to achieve sustainable outcomes, flexibility should be approached with variability and an understanding of which choices are appropriate for particular employees.

### 2.6 Employment equity regulation

Transformation legislation in South Africa impacts the link between job satisfaction and labour turnover, but mainly for those who benefit from the legislation (Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008). For example, employment equity legislation positively impacts the gender wage gap and the inflow of females from diverse industries (Landman & O'Clery, 2020). However, critics of the legislation have found that most Employment Equity legislation amendments adversely affect the business performance of SMEs and that the skills shortage in South Africa exacerbates this problem (Utete, 2020).

In South Africa, relationships between employers and employees in the private and public sectors are dismal (Ntimba et al., 2021). For example, when assessing the labour market flexibility in the Global Competitiveness Report 2019, South Africa was rated 139 out of 141 countries for cooperation in labour-employer relations (Schwab, 2019). Furthermore, in a study of the relationship between employment equity, the psychological contract and the intention to leave, Snyman et al. (2019) found no significant effect of employment equity legislation and practices on the employee's psychological contract or intention to leave. In conclusion, the authors note only a moderate impact of the legislation on the employment relationship. However, the researchers conducted the study at a higher education institution; therefore, the intrinsic meritocracy nature of academia may have influenced the effects measured.

Nzukuma and Bussin (2011) found that job-hopping amongst Black-African senior management was mainly explained by this group of people not trusting organisations with their career development. De Beer et al. (2016) corroborated this finding. Further, they concluded in their study that the greater job insecurity experienced by white males compared to their black male counterparts did not associate with turnover intention. These insights have led to the conclusion that though employment equity regulation has an environmental impact on the employment relationship, the nature of this influence may be more of a moderating one. In contributing to the notion of "White fragility", Ng et al. (2020) found that white people experience more negative psychological effects from perceived discrimination than other employee groups. However, the researchers conducted the study in an environment where white people are the majority, so the phenomenon may or may not transfer to the South African context.

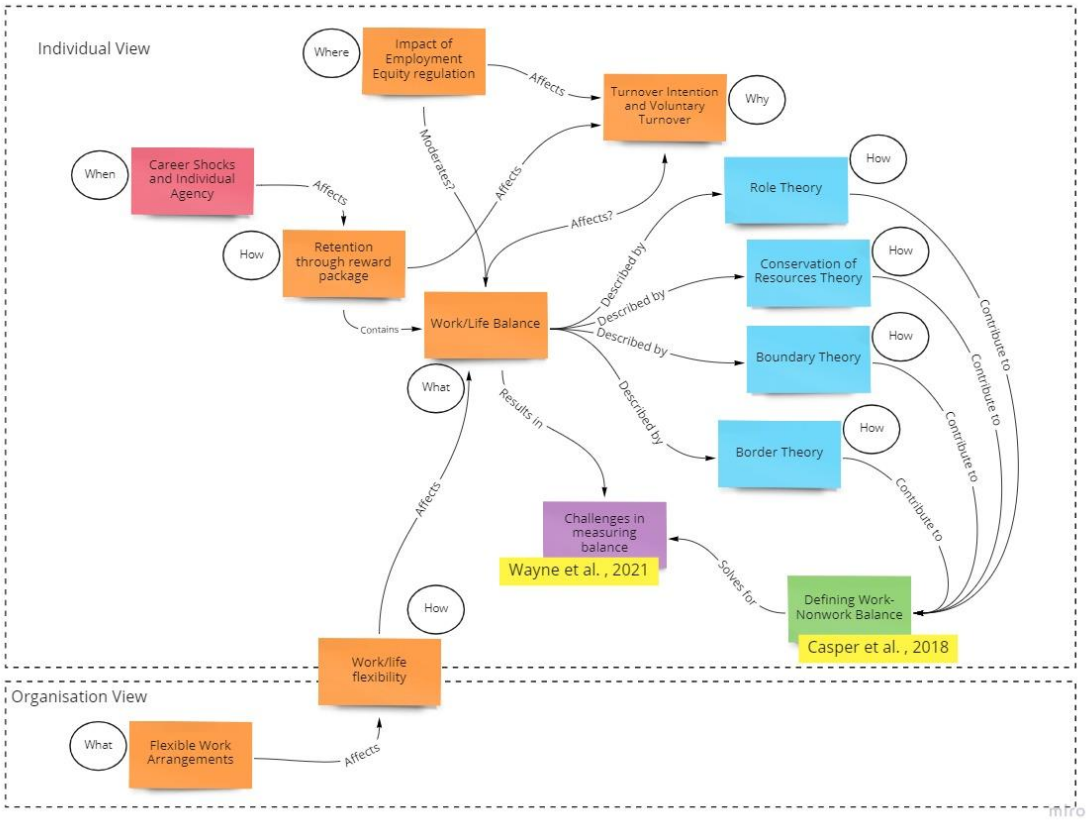
### 2.7 Literature review conclusion

Current circumstances have changed the effect of non-financial rewards, such as work-nonwork balance, on retaining employees. Work-life flexibility offerings by companies have made a competitive market for knowledge workers. Previous studies found a significant relationship between work-life balance and turnover intention, but recent media articles report an increasing focus on this reward

component. Therefore, measuring if a significant relationship exists between the components of work-nonwork balance (using a recently defined measurement tool) and turnover intention will benefit the body of knowledge in the field.

Furthermore, the literature review highlighted that employment equity legislation in South Africa could change the relationship between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention. However, existing research does not clarify how environmental factors such as local labour legislation alter this relationship. This study, therefore, also aimed to establish how perceptions of the impact of employment equity regulation may moderate the nature of the relationship between perceived work-nonwork balance and turnover intention. Figure 2 illustrates the relationships of the examined literature and how they contribute to the development of a construct and instrument to answer the questions outlined in 1.4.

**Figure 2: Literature review model**




Chapter six compares the research findings to this literature evaluation. The chapter evaluates the comparisons and differences between the research findings and

existing literature. The chapter also gauges where the research results add to existing knowledge in the field.

## Chapter 3: Research questions and hypotheses

Chapters one and two discussed how working conditions have changed recently and that many knowledge workers are resigning in South Africa. The chapters further outlined that research is required to understand whether work-nonwork balance contributes to this turnover and that local labour legislation impacts the working relationship. Therefore the study investigated how individuals, after the career shock experience of COVID-19 conditions, perceived their work-nonwork balance, whether they intended to stay with their organisation, and whether they perceived these aspects as affected by employment equity legislation. A set of hypotheses were formulated based on the research questions in Chapter One and the discussion in the literature review.

### 3.1 Hypothesis one – General balance

The first research question was: *Is there a relationship between perceived general work-nonwork balance and an employee leaving an organisation?*

Hypothesis one refers to turnover intention as a proxy of labour turnover. The research explored this hypothesis in conjunction with ascertaining the moderating effect of perceptions of the impact of employment equity regulations.

> **Null Hypothesis ($H1A_0$):** General work-nonwork balance is not a significant variable in the prediction of turnover intention.
>
> **Alternate Hypothesis ($H1A_{Alt}$):** General work-nonwork balance is negatively associated with turnover intention.

The researcher proposed the following hypothesis to understand the impact that transformational legislation has on this relationship:

> **Null Hypothesis ($H1B_0$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between general work-nonwork balance and turnover intention.
>
> **Alternate Hypothesis ($H1B_{Alt}$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between general work-nonwork balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not

benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit.

### 3.2 Hypothesis two – Involvement balance

The second research question was: *Is there a relationship between perceived work-nonwork involvement balance and an employee leaving an organisation?*

Hypothesis two refers to turnover intention as a proxy of labour turnover. The research explored this question in conjunction with ascertaining the moderating effect of perceptions of the impact of employment equity regulations.

> **Null Hypothesis ($H2A_0$):** Work-nonwork involvement balance is not a significant variable in the prediction of turnover intention.
>
> **Alternate Hypothesis ($H2A_{Alt}$):** Work-nonwork involvement balance is negatively associated with turnover intention.

The researcher proposed the following hypothesis to understand the impact that transformational legislation has on this relationship:

> **Null Hypothesis ($H2B_0$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between work-nonwork involvement balance and turnover intention.
>
> **Alternate Hypothesis ($H2B_{Alt}$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between work-nonwork involvement balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit.

### 3.3 Hypothesis three – Effectiveness balance

The third research question was: *Is there a relationship between perceived work-nonwork effectiveness balance and an employee leaving an organisation?*

Hypothesis three refers to turnover intention as a proxy of labour turnover. The research explored this question in conjunction with ascertaining the moderating effect of perceptions of the impact of employment equity regulations.

> **Null Hypothesis ($H3A_0$):** Work-nonwork effectiveness balance is not a significant variable in the prediction of turnover intention.
>
> **Alternate Hypothesis ($H3A_{Alt}$):** Work-nonwork effectiveness balance is negatively associated with turnover intention.

The researcher proposed the following hypothesis to understand the impact that transformational legislation has on this relationship:

> **Null Hypothesis ($H3B_0$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between work-nonwork effectiveness balance and turnover intention.
>
> **Alternate Hypothesis ($H3B_{Alt}$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between work-nonwork effectiveness balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit.

### 3.4 Hypothesis four – Affective balance

The fourth research question was: *Is there a relationship between perceived work-nonwork affective balance and an employee leaving an organisation?*

Hypothesis four refers to turnover intention as a proxy of labour turnover. The research explored this question in conjunction with ascertaining the moderating effect of perceptions of the impact of employment equity regulation.

> **Null Hypothesis ($H4A_0$):** Work-nonwork affective balance is not a significant variable in the prediction of turnover intention.
>
> **Alternate Hypothesis ($H4A_{Alt}$):** Work-nonwork affective balance is negatively associated with turnover intention.

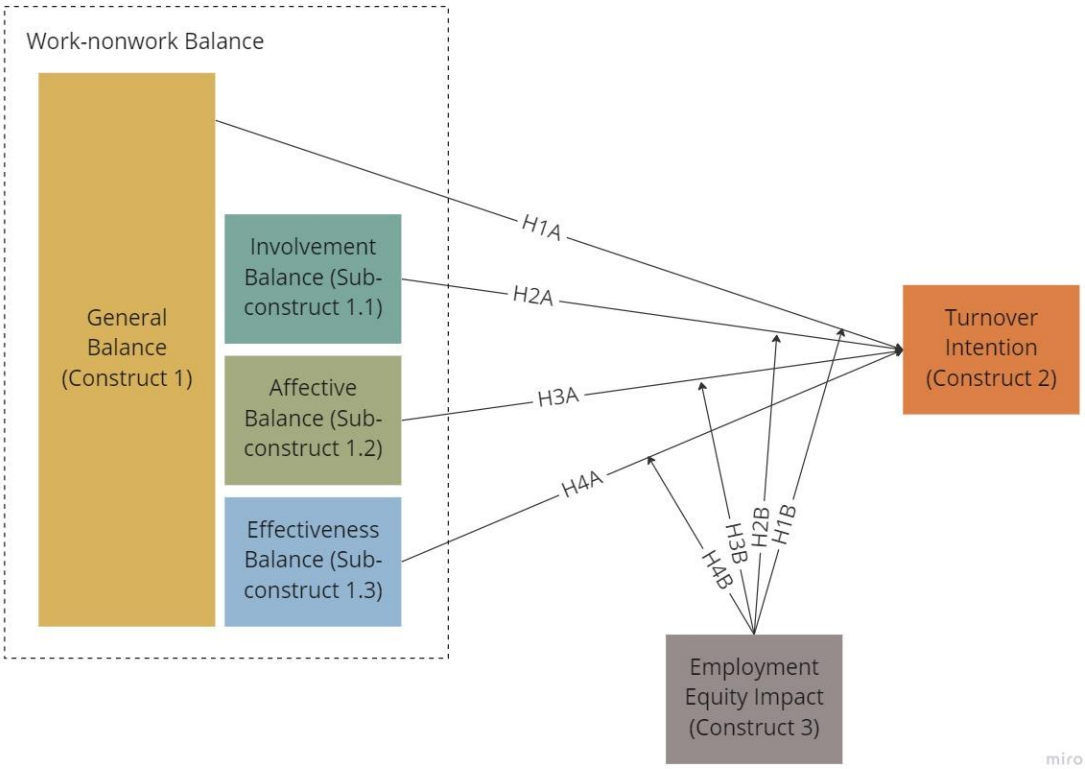
The researcher proposed the following hypothesis to understand the impact that transformational legislation has on this relationship:

> **Null Hypothesis ($H4B_0$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between work-nonwork affective balance and turnover intention.
>
> **Alternate Hypothesis ($H4B_{Alt}$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between work-nonwork affective balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit.

### 3.5 Conclusion

The arguments provided were narrowed down by employing theory to formulate the research hypotheses, effectively applying a process of deductive reasoning. Figure 3 illustrates a hypothesised theoretical model indicating the hypotheses tested in the research to understand the relationships between constructs.

**Figure 3: Hypothesised theoretical model**


Work-nonwork Balance
General Balance (Construct 1)
Involvement Balance (Sub-construct 1.1)
Affective Balance (Sub-construct 1.2)
Effectiveness Balance (Sub-construct 1.3)
H1A
H2A
H3A
H4A
H4B
H3B
H2B
H1B
Turnover Intention (Construct 2)
Employment Equity Impact (Construct 3)
miro

## Chapter 4: Research design and methodology

### 4.1 Introduction

This study's principal goal was to understand the relationship between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention. The purpose of the study was explanatory research achieved by quantitatively analysing results through statistics. Explanatory research answers questions about why phenomena occur (de Vaus, 2001), and the study investigated causal associations between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention. This chapter describes the research design used to attain the discussed aims. Furthermore, this chapter discusses the methodology used to achieve the design, including aspects of the research sample, measuring instrument, how data was collected and analysed and identified limitations to the chosen approach.

### 4.2 Research design

#### *4.2.1 Philosophy*

A positivist research paradigm was applied as the study identified explanatory associations. The study originated from theory in literature and then established testable hypotheses, operationalised variables, and executed an empirical analysis. These characteristics align the study with the hypethetico-deductive model, ascribed to positivism (Park et al., 2020). The study examined causal relationships in the collected data on work-nonwork balance and turnover intention to inform universal rules to help explain and predict behaviour. This approach aligns with a positivist philosophy as described by Saunders and Lewis (2018, pp. 107-108).

#### *4.2.2 Approach*

The research followed a deductive approach to theory development. A vital characteristic of a deductive approach is that researchers develop research questions from general theory and specify how respondents may answer the questions (Saunders & Lewis, 2018, p. 112). The researcher based this study on a current understanding of the relationship between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention. Participants then completed a questionnaire using recently developed questions from measurement tools created to capture the study's various constructs. The subsequent defining characteristic of a deductive approach is that

data is then collected using the operationalised questions and analysed to confirm or modify the existing general theory (Saunders & Lewis, 2018, p. 112). The collected questionnaire data were analysed using structural equation modelling to understand the interaction of variables. Further deductive analysis was applied to reveal whether there are differential attitudes in the moderator of perception of the impact of employment equity regulation for particular social identities in knowledge workers in South Africa.

### *4.2.3 Methodological choice*

The research applied a mono-method quantitative approach, appropriate for a study using a single primary data source to investigate causality between two variables and a moderating variable and appropriate for the timeframe available to execute the research. In addition, time constraints on the research project limited the ability to triangulate across research approaches to investigate phenomena more granularly.

### *4.2.4 Strategy and time horizon*

Using the description of an experimental research design reported by Podsakoff and Podsakoff (2019) and confirmed by a consensus of behavioural scientists, the cause-effect relationship in the study is confirmed by: whether there is a change in one variable (components of work-nonwork balance as independent variables), is there a change in the other (turnover intention as the dependent variable), does change in one variable precede change in the other, and have any other explanations of the relationship been eliminated. The study applies the same experimental design for the moderating variable of the perception of the impact of employment equity regulation on the relationship between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention.

Structured data was collected using a survey across an appropriate sample of respondents from the population to measure the outcomes of the hypotheses designed for the experiment (as described in chapter 3). The selection of this strategy was appropriate as it enabled “the collection of data about the same things from a large number of people in a cost-effective manner” (Saunders & Lewis, 2018, p. 121). The study utilised a standardised questionnaire administered online, which simplified the processes of collecting data and increased the probability of achieving better

results due to the format being more agreeable to participants who can select when and where they wish to complete the survey. The researcher further describes the questionnaire in 4.3.4 Measurement Instrument. The study was cross-sectional, as data was collected only for the current career shock caused by COVID-19 in a single survey.

## 4.3 Research Methodology

### *4.3.1 Population*

The population in this study is knowledge workers who are currently employed or recently resigned from their organisations but are still residents of South Africa. Irrespective of whether participants have personally experienced or only been aware of a work-from-home model during the COVID-19 social distancing restrictions, the nascent change in understanding of what work-nonwork balance should entail has permeated the population. However, distinguishing between those who have the most agency to capitalise on the advantages of mobile work and those who do not should negate the effects of this assumption and protect against spurious results when assessing how work-nonwork balance perceptions under current conditions impact turnover.

Prior empirical studies of a similar nature in the field focused on populations in specific industries (Oosthuizen et al., 2016; Suifan et al., 2016) or were mainly among a younger age group (Jaharuddin & Zainol, 2019). In addition, this study may be disposed to survivorship bias as employees who felt a work-nonwork imbalance may have resigned and left South Africa, excluding them from the surveyed population.

### *4.3.2 Unit of analysis*

The unit of analysis for this study was individual persons. Despite the research identifying social identity groups as functional strata in the measurement, the statistical treatment of the data was on an individual knowledge worker level. The choice of this analysis unit ensured measurement of the primary intention of the research, which was understanding how different work-nonwork balance perceptions may impact an individual employee’s turnover intentions.

### *4.3.3 Sampling method and sample size*

Employing sampling in research ensures the study generates findings that are typical of the entire population at a reduced cost. In addition, obtaining responses from all employees who are knowledge workers in South Africa is also not practically achievable. Therefore, as attaining a complete list or sampling frame of all these individuals is exceedingly tricky, as indicated by Saunders and Lewis (2018, p. 141), the study was unable to estimate the chance a participant in the population had of participating in the study. This characteristic identified the non-probability sampling technique as most appropriate for the research.

Non-probability sampling, where a researcher asks sample members to self-identify as appropriate to the research and volunteer to participate, is known as self-selection sampling (Saunders & Lewis, 2018, p. 147). The study by design did not focus on a single organisation or industry; therefore, the researcher applied self-selection sampling to reach the target population. Consequently, due to time constraints and digital convenience, the researcher invited knowledge workers to participate in the study using social media networks (WhatsApp groups, LinkedIn, and FaceBook). Due to the selection of this sampling, the researcher applied caution in interpreting the results, as participants in self-selection samples may be prone to affinity bias. Screening questions were employed to ensure employees engaged in the required skills were selected and protect against the gathering of responses from inappropriate participants. This protection led to the research excluding 2 of the total 220 responses as the participants self-identified the type of work they do as manual work. The remaining cohort contains knowledge or skilled workers appropriate to the study.

The sampling approach selected in this research differs from the recent studies of a similar nature (Jaharuddin & Zainol, 2019; Oosthuizen et al., 2016; Suifan et al., 2016), which focused on specific populations and were, therefore, able to apply probability sampling. However, in their study of how local labour legislation impacts psychological contracts, Wöcke and Sutherland (2008) employed a non-probability approach. They used snowball convenience sampling to gather the research sample.

Yang et al. (2020), in a study of the effects of adverse shocks on psychological contracts, used a sample of 210 graduate students. Suifan et al. (2016) used a sample of 363 respondents, Jaharuddin and Zainol (2019) 213 participants, and Oosthuizen et al. (2016) had a sample size of 79. An average of these sample sizes approximates a sample selection of 216 respondents for similar research.

### *4.3.4 Measurement Instrument*

The measurement instrument for this research was an online self-administered questionnaire. The introduction to the questionnaire explained the voluntary and confidential nature of participation in the research and provided an estimated duration. Following this, the questionnaire contained sections for different functional reasons:

**Section 1** – This section used screening questions to verify whether an individual met the criteria to proceed.

**Section 2** – This section assessed the employee's work-nonwork balance using Wayne et al.'s (2021) multidimensional measure to establish the employees' perceptions and experiences of work-nonwork balance components.

**Section 3** – This section examined a respondent's behavioural intention in terms of intention to leave employment. Intention to leave is measured using a six-item version of the turnover intention scale as validated by Bothma and Roodt (2013).

**Section 4** – This section contained a nine-item questionnaire developed by Maharaj et al. (2008) to measure the influence of employment equity practices on the described situation.

**Section 5** – This section asked for demographic information: age, gender, race, marital status, number of underage dependents, and employment details.

This report provides a sample of the measurement instrument in Appendix B. The study used questions in sections 2, 3, and 4 to answer the research questions. The researcher designed the research questionnaire to gather information from each respondent on six latent variables:

- Perceived global work-nonwork balance;
- Perceived work-nonwork involvement balance;

- Perceived work-nonwork balance effectiveness;
- Perceived work-nonwork affective balance;
- Turnover intention; and
- Perceived impact of employment equity regulation.

Each of these constructs was measured using questions derived from the literature.

**4.3.4.1 Development of the work-nonwork balance measurement instrument**. Based on the proposal by Casper et al. (2018) that the work-nonwork balance constructs "be assessed both as a global unidimensional reflective construct (general global balance) and as a multidimensional formative construct (affective, involvement, and effectiveness balance)" Wayne et al. (2021) interpreted the concept and provided the definitions in Table 1.

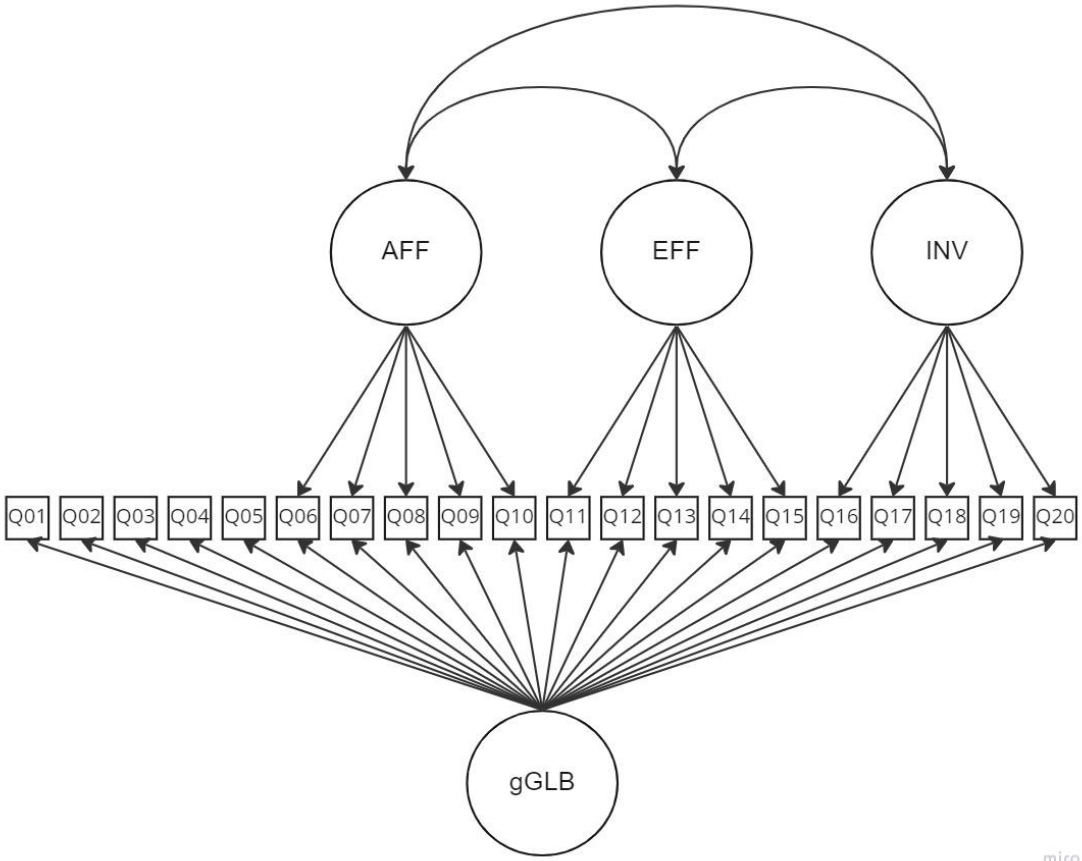
**Table 1: Description of the dimensions of work-nonwork balance**

| **Dimension** | **Characteristic** |
|---|---|
| General balance | Balance at a global level is "the overall combination, fit, balance, harmony, or integration of one's work and nonwork roles" (Wayne et al., 2021). |
| Affective balance | "The perception that one experiences sufficiently pleasant emotions in work and nonwork roles [is] commensurate with the value attached to those roles" (Casper et al., 2018). |
| Effectiveness balance | "The perception that one's effectiveness in work and nonwork roles [are] commensurate with the value attached to the roles" (Casper et al., 2018). |
| Involvement balance | "The perception that one's involvement in work and nonwork roles is commensurate with the value attached to the roles" (Casper et al., 2018). |

To develop a measurement instrument for the work-nonwork construct Wayne et al. (2021) followed multiple steps to arrive at a comprehensive questionnaire tool. First, a group of three subject matter experts (SMEs) who have published extensively on the work-life interface selected existing items from research that comprise the three factors of affective, involvement, and effectiveness balance. The SMEs then reduced the list of items and added a set of semantic differential items to represent global balance concerns.

Next, a further group of 11 SMEs rated the list of facet and global balance items for content adequacy. This process checked both the validity and completeness of the proposed item lists. Following this, Wayne et al. (2021) performed exploratory factor analysis to refine the 43-item balance scale. This process used 209 participants selected using an online process (Amazon's Mechanical Turk) which ensures the gathering of a representative sample. This step produced the accepted 20-item measurement tool. Finally, Wayne et al. (2021) performed a study to understand the nature of the relationship between the global measure of balance and the three facets. This study confirmed that global balance is a higher-order construct shaping perceptions of each facet. Figure 4 shows the accepted model of the relationship between the factors.

**Figure 4: Validated structural model representing the relationship of constructs within work-nonwork balance across the measurement instrument (Wayne et al., 2021)**




(AFF is the affect balance factor, EFF is the effectiveness balance factor, INV is the involvement balance factor, and gGLB is the general balance factor measured by the researchers' global balance scale)

The following sub-sections provide detail on the questions to measure each variable.

**4.3.4.2 General balance**. The questions on general balance originate from the research by Wayne et al. (2021). Participants answered questions in this section using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), which the original researchers had operationalised. Table 2 indicates the specific questions from the questionnaire that measure how employees perceive the general work-nonwork balance in their lives.

**Table 2: General work-nonwork balance questions**

| **Question number** | **Question** |
|---|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| Q2.1 | There is harmony in how I blend my work and nonwork roles. |
| Q2.2 | Overall, my work and nonwork roles are integrated. |
| Q2.3 | My work and nonwork roles are combined in ways that are harmonious. |
| Q2.4 | Overall, my work and nonwork roles fit together. |
| Q2.5 | All in all, my work and nonwork roles are in harmony |
| Q2.6 | I am able to devote enough attention to important work and nonwork activities. |
| Q2.7 | I am able to be adequately involved in the work and nonwork roles that matter most to me. |
| Q2.8 | The time I spend in work and activities outside of work reflects my life priorities. |
| Q2.9 | I spend enough time on important work and nonwork activities. |
| Q2.10 | Based on what matters most to me, I devote the right amount of my time to work and nonwork roles. |
| Q2.11 | I perform well in the life roles that I really value. |
| Q2.12 | I do well in roles that are my biggest priorities. |
| Q2.13 | I am able to effectively handle important work and nonwork responsibilities. |
| Q2.14 | I am successful in work and nonwork roles that matter to me. |
| Q2.15 | I perform well in my most highly valued work and nonwork roles. |
| Q2.16 | I experience a lot of positive emotions in my most highly valued work and nonwork roles. |

| | |
|---|---|
| Q2.17 | I am happy in the work and nonwork roles that are most important to me. |
| Q2.18 | I am happy with the work and nonwork aspects of my life that are important to me. |
| Q2.19 | I feel satisfied in the work and nonwork roles that are most important to me. |
| Q2.20 | I am content with how things are going in the life roles that are my top priorities. |

The researcher changed the order of questions 2.2 and 2.3 in the questionnaire from that suggested initially by Wayne et al. (2021) after feedback from pilot participants that the questions felt repetitive and confusing.

**4.3.4.3 Involvement balance**. The questions on involvement balance originate from the research by Wayne et al. (2021). Participants answered questions in this section using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Table 3 indicates the specific questions from the questionnaire that measure how employees perceive work-nonwork involvement balance in their lives.

**Table 3: Work-nonwork involvement balance questions**

| **Question number** | **Question** |
|---|---|
| Q2.6 | I am able to devote enough attention to important work and nonwork activities. |
| Q2.7 | I am able to be adequately involved in the work and nonwork roles that matter most to me. |
| Q2.8 | The time I spend in work and activities outside of work reflects my life priorities. |

| | |
|---|---|
| Q2.9 | I spend enough time on important work and nonwork activities. |
| Q2.10 | Based on what matters most to me, I devote the right amount of my time to work and nonwork roles. |

**4.3.4.4 Effectiveness balance**. The questions on effectiveness balance originate from the research by Wayne et al. (2021). Participants answered questions in this section using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Table 4 indicates the specific questions from the questionnaire that measure how employees perceive work-nonwork balance effectiveness in their lives.

**Table 4: Work-nonwork balance effectiveness questions**

| **Question number** | **Question** |
|---|---|
| Q2.11 | I perform well in the life roles that I really value. |
| Q2.12 | I do well in roles that are my biggest priorities. |
| Q2.13 | I am able to effectively handle important work and nonwork responsibilities. |
| Q2.14 | I am successful in work and nonwork roles that matter to me. |
| Q2.15 | I perform well in my most highly valued work and nonwork roles. |

**4.3.4.5 Affective balance**. The questions on affective balance originate from the research by Wayne et al. (2021). Participants answered questions in this section using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Table 5 indicates the specific questions from the questionnaire that measure how employees perceive work-nonwork affective balance in their lives.

**Table 5: Work-nonwork affective balance questions**

| **Question number** | **Question** |
|---|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| Q2.16 | I experience a lot of positive emotions in my most highly valued work and nonwork roles. |
| Q2.17 | I am happy in the work and nonwork roles that are most important to me. |
| Q2.18 | I am happy with the work and nonwork aspects of my life that are important to me. |
| Q2.19 | I feel satisfied in the work and nonwork roles that are most important to me. |
| Q2.20 | I am content with how things are going in the life roles that are my top priorities. |

**4.3.4.6 Turnover intention**. As a contribution to the field of human resource management, Bothma and Roodt (2013) validated whether the shortened version of the turnover intention scale (TIS-6 shortened from the original 15-item scale developed initially by Roodt) is reliable, valid and predicts actual turnover. The longitudinal study used census-based sampling across a large ICT sector company in South Africa, reaching an 11% sample of the 23 000 population. The factorial validity of TIS-6 was proven using exploratory factor analysis. The overall reliability of the scale was acceptable, producing an 80% confidence level (α=0.80). Bothma and Roodt (2013) then compared mean score differences between employees who had resigned and those who remained in the organisation. The result confirmed that TIS-6 could effectively predict actual turnover.

Participants answered questions in this section of the questionnaire using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Table 6 indicates the questionnaire's specific questions measuring employee turnover intention.

**Table 6: Turnover intention questions**

| **Question number** | **Question** |
|---|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| Q3.1 | How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs? |
| Q3.2 | How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals? |
| Q3.3 | How often have you considered leaving your job? |
| Q3.4 | How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you? |
| Q3.5 | To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs? |
| Q3.6 | How often do you look forward to another day at work? |

**4.3.4.7 Employment equity practices influence**. In a study of the impact of employment equity practices on psychological contracts, Maharaj et al. (2008) developed a 9-item questionnaire to measure this construct. Their study confirmed a good reliability coefficient of 0.92 using this instrument. Though the small sample of 55 achieved for the study meant Maharaj et al. (2008) could not confirm causality for the hypotheses they were testing, an exploratory factor analysis valuably identified the three factors of rewards, relationships, and culture reflected in the employment equity practices instrument.

Participants answered questions in this section of the questionnaire using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (to a great extent). Participants then further indicated whether the impact they indicated was positive or negative. Table 7 indicates the questionnaire's specific questions measuring the impact of employment equity practices.

**Table 7: Employment equity practices' impact questions**

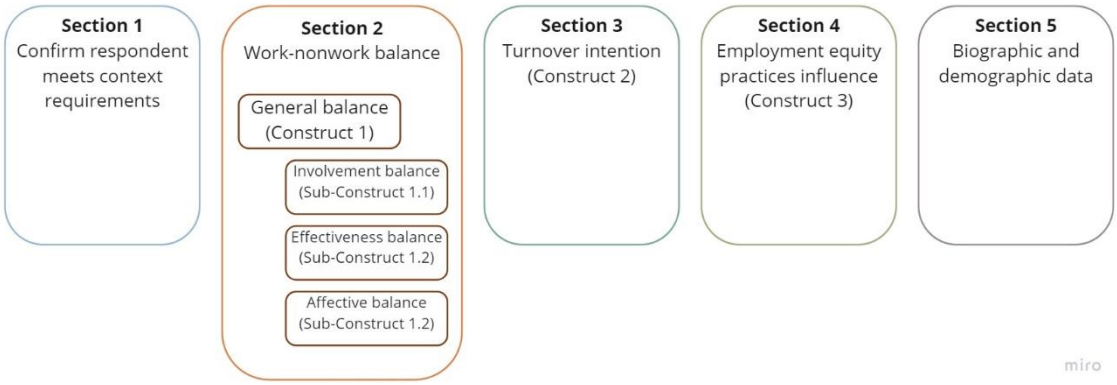
| **Question number** | **Question** |
|---|---|
| Q4.1 | Your future earning potential (positive/negative) |

| | |
|---|---|
| Q4.2 | Your current reward and remuneration (positive/negative) |
| Q4.3 | Your current training and development opportunities (positive/negative) |
| Q4.4 | Recognition and reward for your performance (positive/negative) |
| Q4.5 | Your assignment to challenging work in line with your skill and ability (positive/negative) |
| Q4.6 | Your job satisfaction (positive/negative) |
| Q4.7 | Your working relationship with colleagues (positive/negative) |
| Q4.8 | The company's organisational culture (positive/negative) |
| Q4.9 | The honesty of your senior management (positive/negative) |

To infer meaning over the measurement of this construct, Wöcke and Sutherland (2008) suggested a social identity grouping that is beneficial to understand the impact of local labour law legislation. The grouping separates employees according to how they benefit from employment equity practices. The first group contains those who do not benefit from employment equity practices (white males). The next group contains those who benefit the most (black males and females), and the final group contains the remaining people who were discriminated against under apartheid but are not the most preferential group (other racial groups and white females).

**4.3.4.8 Structure of instrument**. Based on the conceptual model for the study (Figure 3), the five sections of the survey are illustrated in Figure 5, indicating the constructs and variables measured.

**Figure 5: Structure of the measurement instrument used to collect data**




### *4.3.5 Data collection*

**4.3.5.1 Pre-testing the questionnaire.** The researcher tested the questionnaire with a pilot using a sample of five respondents. The pre-testing process allowed testing of the 50-question instrument to confirm validity and reliability, to ensure questions were easy to understand, and to identify any design concerns. The pilot participants met the population criteria and were readily available to the researcher for interviews around feedback on the questionnaire. The feedback was beneficial in eliminating technical issues with the design of the questions, particularly regarding section four, where participants needed to indicate whether experiences were positive or negative for a particular question. The order of two questions in section two was also altered after feedback that this would improve understanding of the questions in this section.

General feedback from the pilot participants was that the questions were appropriate to answer the hypotheses in the research and that the questionnaire was understandable and concise. Initial estimations were that the questionnaire would take between 15 and 20 minutes to complete, but pilot participants reported completing the questions in around 10 minutes, making the questionnaire easily approachable for participants.

**4.3.5.2 Data gathering process.** As the structured questionnaire forms the single primary data collection tool for this study, the data collection process began with capturing the questionnaire into Google Forms. The researcher then invited participants to access the survey using an URL link circulated across various social media platforms (WhatsApp, LinkedIn, and Facebook). Using this data collection method has the advantage of being faster and allowing for geographically widespread distribution. The format is also transparent around maintaining anonymity which has the advantage of improving the level of honesty by participants.

The study planned a data collection process of six weeks, but only after ten weeks did the sampling technique and gathering process produce the target data set of 220 respondents. The researcher discarded two responses as the screening process identified them unfit for use in the sample. The remaining 218 participants formed the sample for the study.

### *4.3.6 Analysis approach*

The study generated findings by analysing the collected data to reach conclusions for the research. The gathered data in this quantitative study is numerical and expressed in intervals due to the use of Likert scales. Therefore, the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel were appropriate and used to analyse the collected data. Furthermore, additional variables were created in SPSS to assist in the analyses.

To test the hypotheses in the study, the sections below indicate the steps taken to analyse the gathered data.

**4.3.6.1 Data preparation**. After data was exported from Google forms in a comma-separated file, this was imported to Excel to review the data, produce demographic summaries and cleanse data for importing into SPSS.

**4.3.6.2 Descriptive statistics**. Mode, median, mean, and frequencies were analysed to provide an overview of the data. In addition, the study assessed data distribution and factors of skewness to identify any possible impact on the statistical analysis. All of the constructs studied contained ordinal data.

**4.3.6.3 Inferential statistics**. The observed data were statistically analysed to infer levels of significance of the relationship between dependent and independent variables (Zikmund et al., 2019). The research's inferential statistics targeted null hypothesis testing at a 95% confidence interval ($p < 0.05$). In addition, the researcher tested underlying assumptions before conducting any statistical analysis to ensure the feasibility of the test approach.

*Normality*

This assumption test analysed the distribution of residuals (differences between the observed value of the dependent variable and the predicted value) of the regression for the outcome variable. The validity of this test ensures that inferences from the regression are valid. A linear regression test producing a Predicted Probability or P-Plot was used to test for normality (Hair et al., 2019). The plot displays the standardised residual on the X-axis and the standardised predicted value on the Y-axis. The linearity and concentration of the plot were analysed to assess errors in normality.

*Homoscedasticity*

This test assesses whether the residuals are equally distributed. Data is homoscedastic if it is equally distributed as expected of randomly distributed data. Standardised residual and predicted values are plotted on the Y and X-axis to produce a scatterplot representation of the data distribution. Equal distribution is present if points are equally distributed above and below zero on the X-axis and the left and right of zero on the Y-axis. Tight and wide distributions on either side of the axes would indicate heteroscedasticity in the data.

*Linearity*

Linearity indicates that the predictor variables in the regression have a straight-line relationship with the outcome variable. However, linearity is not a concern if residuals are normally distributed and homoscedastic.

*Multicollinearity*

Multicollinearity testing is applied to measure whether predictor variables are highly correlated to ensure the research can accurately associate variance in the outcome variable with the correct predictor variable. This correlation is tested by looking at Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values. These values should be below 10 to ensure multicollinearity is not a concern in the tested regression.

**4.3.6.4 Simple linear regression**. Simple linear regression analysis is performed to determine the straight-line relationship between two variables. This study tested four hypotheses using this approach: H1A, H2A, H3A, and H4A. The linear regression equation is:

$$\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1 x$$

Where: $x$ = values of the independent variable

$\hat{y}$ = estimated values of the dependent variable

$b_0$ = y-intercept coefficient (where the regression line cuts the y-axis)

$b_1$ = slope (gradient) coefficient of the regression line (Wegner, 2020)

Table 8 shows the criteria applied to assess linear regression analysis in this research.

**Table 8: Assessment criteria in simple linear regression**

| Results analysed | Criteria |
|---|---|
| Model fit and strength of the relationship | Interpreting Pearson's Correlation Coefficient: (for absolute values of R)<br>R = 0- 0.199 – very weak correlation<br>R = 0.2-0.399 – weak correlation<br>R = 0.4-0.599 – moderate correlation |

| | |
|---|---|
| | R = 0.6-0.799 – strong correlation<br>R = 0.8-1 – very strong correlation<br>These limits depend on the context of the results (Swinscow, 1997).<br><br>The coefficient of determination (Adjusted R Square) indicates the degree of association between the dependent and independent variables. |
| Coefficients | The predictive value of the sample correlation coefficient (R) is tested against the population coefficient hypothesised to be 0 (Wegner, 2020).<br>$p < 0.05$ indicates a significant predictor of the dependent variable.<br>Larger values of significance do not predict the dependent variable.<br>The regression coefficient (Beta or B) indicates the slope of the regression line. Therefore it shows whether the relationship is positive or negative and the marginal rate of change for the measure. |

**4.3.6.5 Multiple linear regression**. The assessment of a moderating factor in a model can be achieved by applying multiple regression analysis. Four hypotheses tested moderation factors in this research: H1B, H2B, H3B, and H4B. The structure of a multiple linear regression equation is an extension of a simple linear equation:

$$\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + b_3 x_3 + \cdots + b_n x_n$$

Where: $\hat{y}$ = the estimated y-value computed from the regression equation

$b_0$, $b_1$, $b_2$ etc. are regression coefficients.

The criteria applied to assess the moderating impact of a variable on the linear relationship between dependent and independent variables is shown in Table 9.

**Table 9: Assessment criteria for multiple linear regression**

| Results analysed | Criteria |
|---|---|
| Model fit and strength of the relationship | Interpreting Pearson's Correlation Coefficient: (for absolute values of R)<br>R = 0- 0.199 – very weak correlation<br>R = 0.2-0.399 – weak correlation<br>R = 0.4-0.599 – moderate correlation<br>R = 0.6-0.799 – strong correlation<br>R = 0.8-1 – very strong correlation<br>These limits depend on the context of the results (Swinscow, 1997).<br><br>The coefficient of determination (Adjusted R Square) indicates the degree of association between the dependent and independent variables. |
| Coefficients | The predictive value of the sample correlation coefficient (R) is tested against the population coefficient hypothesised to be 0 (Wegner, 2020).<br>$p < 0.05$ indicates a significant predictor of the dependent variable.<br>Larger values of significance do not predict the dependent variable.<br>The unstandardised regression coefficient (Beta or B) indicates the slope of the regression line. Therefore it shows whether the relationship is positive or negative and the marginal rate of change for the measure. |

| | |
|---|---|
| Collinearity diagnostics | Eigenvalues close to 1 were applied to establish the factor loading of variables. |

### *4.3.7 Quality controls*

A systematic and rigorous research design and methodology were applied to ensure the quality of this study (Laher, 2016). This research approach was supported by trustworthy literature in the methodology and the investigated construct fields (Khan et al., 2003). Conditions were applied during the analysis to remove responses indicative of unengaged respondents. The researcher used patterns in Likert scale data to detect such behaviour when combined with information about the time taken to complete the survey (compared to median completion time).

The study observed and adhered to all ethical protocols of the Gordon Institute for Business Science (GIBS). The following sections elaborate on the quality controls for reliability and validity.

**4.3.7.1 Reliability**. Cronbach's alpha was applied to measure the internal consistency or reliability of the constructs in the study. Hair et al. (2019) recommend a minimum Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.7 to ensure that a scale is reliable and that its constituent items adequately converge. Section 5.5.1 presents the Cronbach Alpha results for the constructs in the study.

**4.3.7.2 Validity**. The research applied factor analysis to ensure the internal validity of the components in the study. As the research used existing questionnaires and the sample was of an acceptable size Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed. The following are the criteria for acceptance of CFA.

**Table 10: Criteria for assessing model acceptance with CFA (Kline, 2015)**

| Measure | Good fit criteria |
|---|---|
| **Model chi-square ($X^2$)** | *p*-value > 0.05 |
| **Comparative fit index (CFI)** | CFI ≥ 0.90 |

| | |
|---|---|
| **Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)** | RMSEA < 0.08 |
| **Standardised root mean squared residual (SRMR)** | SRMR < 0.08 |

Where CFA failed, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was applied to assess the factor structure of the observed variables to validate suitability for testing the specific construct (Zikmund et al., 2019). The factors assessed for validity in EFA are shown in T.

**Table 11: Criteria for assessing model acceptance with EFA** (Hair et al., 2019; Zikmund et al., 2019)

| | |
|---|---|
| **Correlation matrix** | All correlations must have one loading greater than 0.3 |
| **Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy** | KMO ≥ 0.9 – Marvelous<br>0.8 ≤ KMO < 0.9 – Meritorious<br>0.7 ≤ KMO < 0.8 – Middling<br>0.6 ≤ KMO < 0.7 – Mediocre<br>0.5 ≤ KMO < 0.6 – Miserable<br>KMO < 0.5 – Unacceptable |
| **Bartlett's Test of Sphericity** | p-value < 0.05 – Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is suitable<br>P-value > 0.05 – PCA is not suitable |
| **Eigenvalue 1 rule** | The chosen factor/s must explain at least 65% of the variance of the observed variables |

The factor analysis results for the study's three constructs can be found in 5.6.

External validity refers to the extent to which results from the study can be applied to other events, groups, or situations. This concern is addressed in 7.4.

### *4.3.8 Ethical clearance*

Ethical clearance was attained from the GIBS before the questionnaire was pilot-tested and circulated for completion (See Appendix F). With the study using snowball sampling, the researcher asked participants to share the survey with potential respondents. However, the researcher offered no incentives for participating or sharing the questionnaire. Furthermore, confidentiality and anonymity were maintained, with no respondent names or contact details recorded.

As per the requirements for ethical clearance, the gathered data will be retained for a minimum of ten years post the completion of this research. The gathered data is accessible to the researcher on Google Drive (as the study utilised Google Forms for the data gathering process), a further copy of the data is stored on a hard drive, and a set of the data has been supplied to GIBS.

### *4.3.9 Limitations*

Due to respondents in the survey being limited to those the sampling approach could access, the population of respondents may not be representative of a population inclusive of those for whom work-nonwork balance has become a pivotal driving factor. Even though the suggested scales for measuring all of the constructs have been adopted successfully in other studies, future research may be improved by further refined scales.

Restrictions of the methodology and resultant insights are inevitable due to research decisions made to ensure the statistical reliability and validity of the research. Unfortunately, these decisions introduce bias and are typically made in the design elements, research method, and sampling. Therefore, to mitigate this impact, the context of the findings and potential limitations and implications are addressed in the discussion of the study's results (Ross & Bibler Zaidi, 2019).

## 4.4 Conclusion

The methodology used in this study is summarised in Table 12.

**Table 12: Summary of research methodology**

| | |
|---|---|
| **Philosophy** | Positivism |
| **Approach** | Deductive |
| **Methodological choice** | Mono-method quantitative analysis |
| **Time dimension** | Cross-sectional |
| **Strategy** | Online survey delivered through Google Forms |
| **Target Population** | Knowledge workers employed in South Africa |
| **Unit of analysis** | Individual knowledge workers |
| **Sampling method** | Self-selection sampling |
| **Sample size** | Targeted 220 respondents |
| **Data collection** | Self-completed questionnaires |
| **Analysis approach** | Descriptive statistics (mode, median, mean, frequency, and skewness)<br>Inferential statistics (correlations, T-tests, and regression) |
| **Quality controls** | Reliability – Cronbach Alpha for latent variables exceeding 0.65<br>Validity – Confirmatory Factor Analysis or Exploratory Factor Analysis for latent variables<br>Approved ethical clearance |

## Chapter 5: Research results

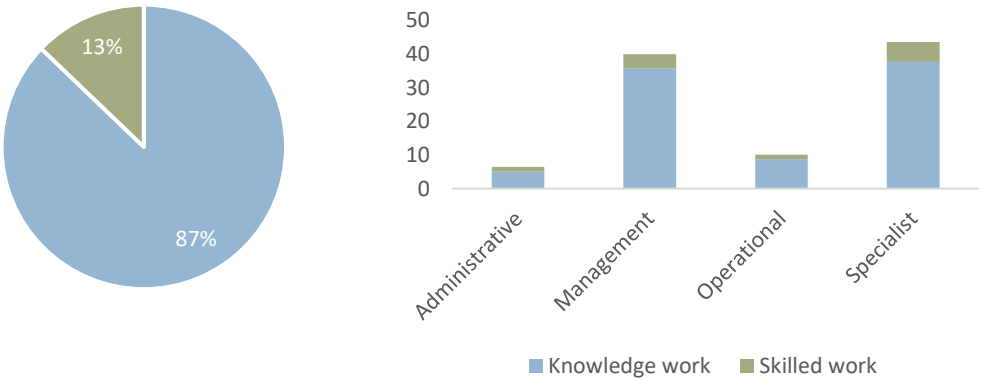
### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the data gathered from participants and findings from the tests performed over the data to answer the research questions. The chapter begins by describing the demographic and descriptive data to explain the sample composition. Then the validity and reliability of the measured constructs are discussed before the tests on the relationships between constructs are finally presented.

### 5.2 Participant demographic characteristics

The target population for the study is employees who perform knowledge or skilled work in any industry in South Africa. Accordingly, of the 218 participants, 190 (87%) in the study are knowledge workers, with Management and Specialist making up 182 (84%) of the roles fulfilled. Figure 6 depicts detail on work type and role graphically.

**Figure 6: Percentage of participants by work type indicating role detail**




The respondents indicated how they worked under COVID-19 lockdown conditions to understand whether participants had experienced a different way of performing their work duties. 170 of the 218 participants (78%) were able to work from home for a considerable period. Figure 7 illustrates working conditions for respondents under COVID-19. Of interest considering new modes of work that have subsequently been made available to employees Figure 8 illustrates the frequency of being required to be in the office with 108 participants (48%) of the sample of 218 still fairly office-bound, whereas 113 (52%) already experience work location freedom.

**Figure 7: Percentage of participants showing working conditions under COVID-19**

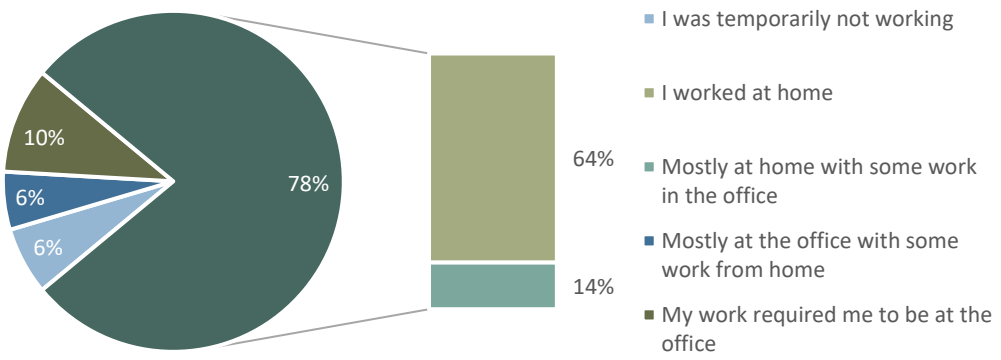
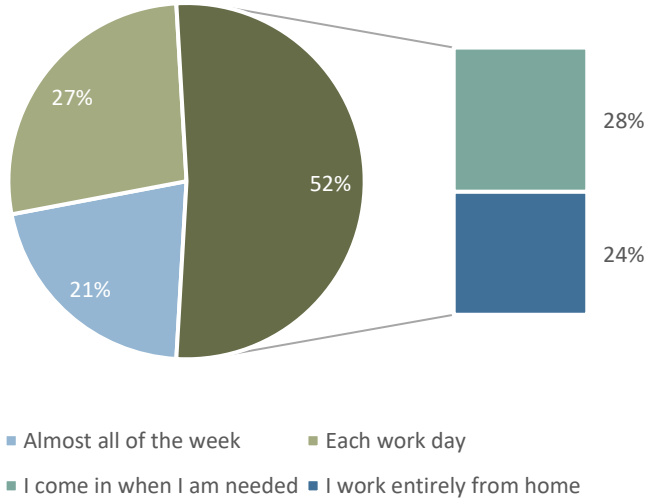



**Figure 8: Percentage of participants currently requiring office presence**




The sampling process did not target a specific industry for the study. Table 13 shows the industries where participants are employed. Markedly, due to the sampling method employed and knowledge workers' preference for specific industries, 96 of 218 participants (44%) work in Finance or Technology.

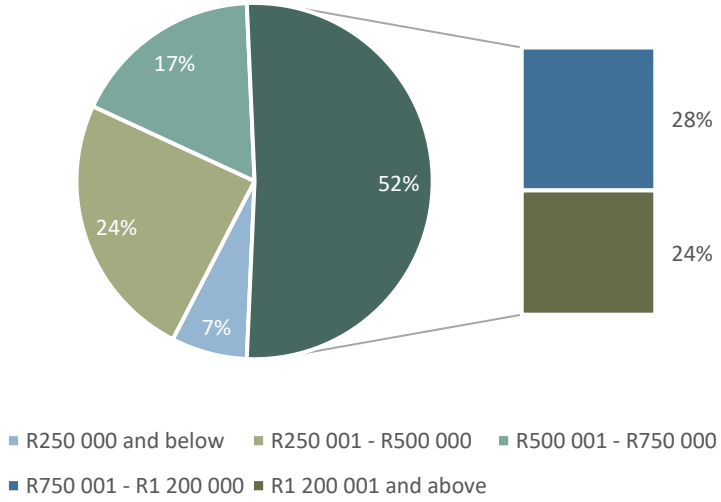
**Table 13: Participants from different industries ($n$=218)**

| Variable | Category | Frequency ($f$) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Industry** | Accommodation and Food Services | 2 | 0.9 |
| | Arts, Entertainment & Recreation | 5 | 2.3 |
| | Aviation | 1 | 0.5 |
| | Construction | 2 | 0.9 |
| | Education | 10 | 4.6 |
| | Energy and Utilities | 5 | 2.3 |
| | Engineering and Science | 13 | 6.0 |
| | Finance and Insurance | 53 | 24.3 |
| | Government or Non-profit | 6 | 2.8 |
| | Healthcare | 16 | 7.3 |
| | Manufacturing | 12 | 5.5 |
| | Media | 11 | 5.0 |
| | Professional Services | 17 | 7.8 |
| | Real Estate & Rental/Leasing | 3 | 1.4 |
| | Retail and Customer Service | 13 | 6.0 |
| | Technology | 43 | 19.7 |
| | Transportation & Warehousing | 6 | 2.8 |

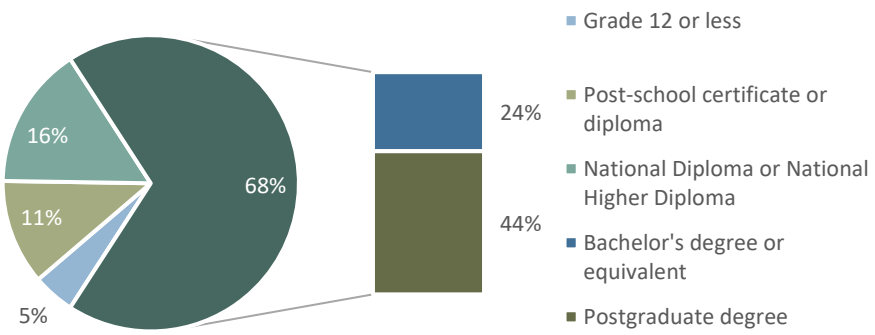
The combination of industry and the nature of the work performed are leading factors to 112 of the 218 participants (52%) reporting earnings of R750 000 or more annually. Only 15 participants (7%) earn R250 000 or below. The indicated earnings are of consequence to businesses, given that the replacement cost for this class of employees is between 1.5 and 2.5 times the employee's annual salary. Figure 9 displays the distribution of annual earnings for the respondents on the questionnaire.

**Figure 9: Percentage of participants by annual earnings**




The earnings distribution of participants in the study is congruent with their level of education. The link between education and earnings was established in theory in the last half of the 20th century, even though classical economists already speculated this was the case (Psacharopoulos & Patrinos, 2018). Of the 218 respondents, 149 (68%) have a bachelor's degree or higher. In contrast, 10 participants (7%) have a grade 12 or lower qualification. Figure 10 illustrates the level of education attained by members of the study sample.

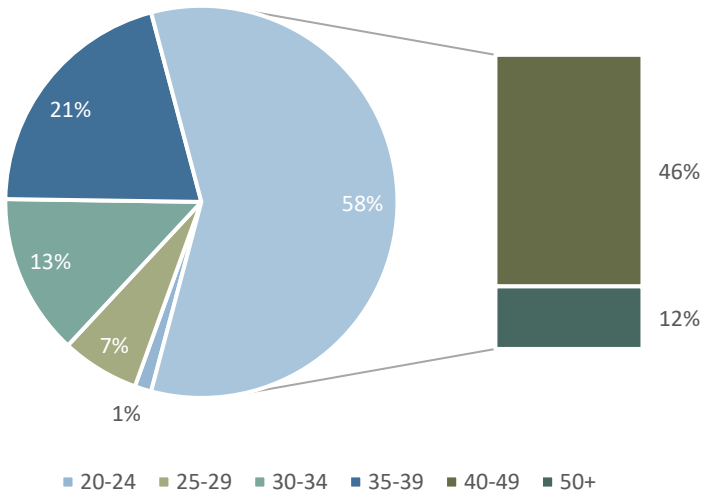
**Figure 10: Percentage of participants by level of education**



### 5.3 Participant biographical and inferred characteristics

In participant-reported biographical characteristics, 131 of the 218 respondents (60%) indicated they were male versus 85 (39%) female. Though not as balanced as would be preferred, this sample does not differ significantly from total employment statistics for South Africa, which found 43.4% of jobs occupied by women in the 2nd quarter of 2021 (Statistics South Africa, 2021). Of the 218 participants in the study, 127 (58%) reflect an older demographic, aged above 40. Figure 11 displays the age distribution for the sample.

**Figure 11: Percentage of participants by age**




Of the 218 participants, 175 (80%) live and work in the province of Gauteng in South Africa. The next most indicated province was Western Cape, with 23 (11%). This allocation aligns with expectations as the sample of knowledge workers situates mainly in the centres with the greatest concentration for this type of work. In addition, 123 or 56% of the study sample are married or cohabiting, and 135 or 62% of the participants have no children. A combined table displays the marital status and the number of dependents below age 18 in Table 14.

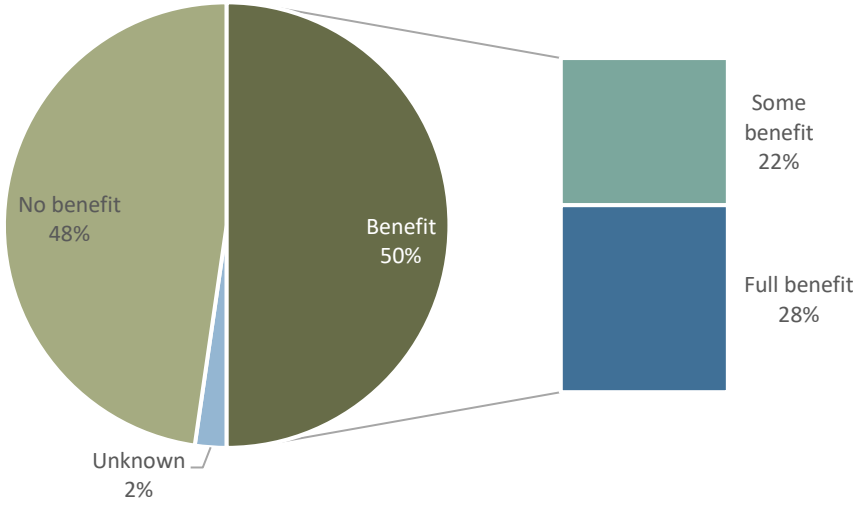
**Table 14: Participant percentages of marital status indicating the number of children**

| Marital status | Number of children | Frequency (*f*) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Married or cohabiting** | None | 60 | |
| | 1 | 19 | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 2 | 26 | |
| | 3 | 12 | |
| | More than 3 | 6 | |
| **Sub Total** | | 123 | 56.4 |
| **Single** | None | 62 | |
| | 1 | 11 | |
| | 2 | 3 | |
| | 3 | 1 | |
| | More than 3 | 1 | |
| **Sub Total** | | 78 | 35.8 |
| **Divorced or separated** | None | 11 | |
| | 1 | 2 | |
| | 2 | 1 | |
| | 3 | 0 | |
| | More than 3 | 0 | |
| **Sub Total** | | 14 | 6.4 |
| **Widowed** | None | 2 | |
| | 1 | 0 | |
| | 2 | 0 | |
| | 3 | 0 | |
| | More than 3 | 1 | |
| **Sub Total** | | 3 | 1.4 |

The research used the demographic separation of knowledge workers into the three social identity groups suggested by Wöcke and Sutherland (2008) described in 4.3.4.7. In analysing the participants using this social identity grouping, Figure 12 shows this representation in the sample:

**Figure 12: Percentage of participants by employment equity practice benefit**




The sample contains 109 (50%) participants who may benefit from employment equity practices and 104 (48%) who do not. Appendix C contains the complete participant characteristic data.

### 5.4 Construct validity

The validity of a testing instrument is a measure of how well the test measures the constituent characteristics of a construct. Bivariate correlation was calculated per construct to establish the validity of the questions (Hair et al., 2010). Pearsons's r value, as calculated in SPSS, showed a significant correlation between all the questions for each construct, confirming the testing instrument's validity. The detail of Pearson's correlation testing performed is displayed in Appendix E.

### 5.5 Instrument reliability results

#### *5.5.1 Cronbach Alpha*

Cronbach Alpha for the three latent constructs and proxies (sub-constructs) were calculated using SPSS to check internal consistency. The assessment results are summarised in Table 15, and further detail on the SPSS analysis is presented in Appendix D. Initial testing of turnover intention (Construct 2) produced a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.35. However, investigating the underlying variables in the construct identified that two questions asked a negatively worded question (reverse coded) compered to how the remainder of the construct questions were formulated.

Responses for questions Q3.5 and Q3.6 were therefore inverted, producing a Cronbach Alpha of 0.85 for turnover intention.

**Table 15: Cronbach Alpha results for the three constructs in the study (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Maharaj et al., 2008; Wayne et al., 2021)**

| Latent Constructs | Cronbach Alpha | |
|---|---|---|
| | Literature | Calculated |
| **Work-nonwork balance** | | |
| **General balance (Construct 1)** | 0.95 | 0.95 |
| **Involvement balance (Sub-construct 1.1)** | 0.91 | 0.90 |
| **Effectiveness balance (Sub-construct 1.2)** | 0.95 | 0.90 |
| **Affective balance (Sub-construct 1.3)** | 0.92 | 0.87 |
| **Turnover intention (Construct 2)** | 0.80 | 0.85 |
| **Employment equity practices influence (Construct 3)** | 0.92 | 0.90 |

## 5.6 Factor analysis

Due to multiple variables of a continuous nature constituting each construct in the study, appropriate tests were performed to ensure that the set of variables used most accurately account for the variance in the construct (to establish that factor analysis is appropriate).

### *5.6.1 Work-nonwork balance scale*

General balance (Construct 1) is a higher-order construct of balance distinct from but measured by global balance items combined with the three sub-constructs, involvement balance (Sub-construct 1.1), effectiveness balance (Sub-construct 1.2), and affective balance (Sub-construct 1.3). A correlation matrix was used to test the general balance construct, and the test found no items that did not have a correlation value of 0.3 to at least one other item in the construct. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was 0.94 placing this construct in the most favourable category for sampling adequacy. Bartlett's test for sphericity also returned a statistically significant p-value

($p$<0.05). Table 16 shows the outcomes of these tests, indicating that factor analysis is appropriate for this construct in the study.

**Table 16: Sampling adequacy for work-nonwork balance construct**

**KMO and Bartlett's Test**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | | .935 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 3205.692 |
| | df | 190 |
| | Sig. | .000 |

As the research used a preexisting instrument to measure this construct and the sample size is above 200, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was applied to the work-nonwork balance scale. The results are shown in Figure 13 and Table 17.

**Figure 13: Work-nonwork balance standardised factor loadings model**

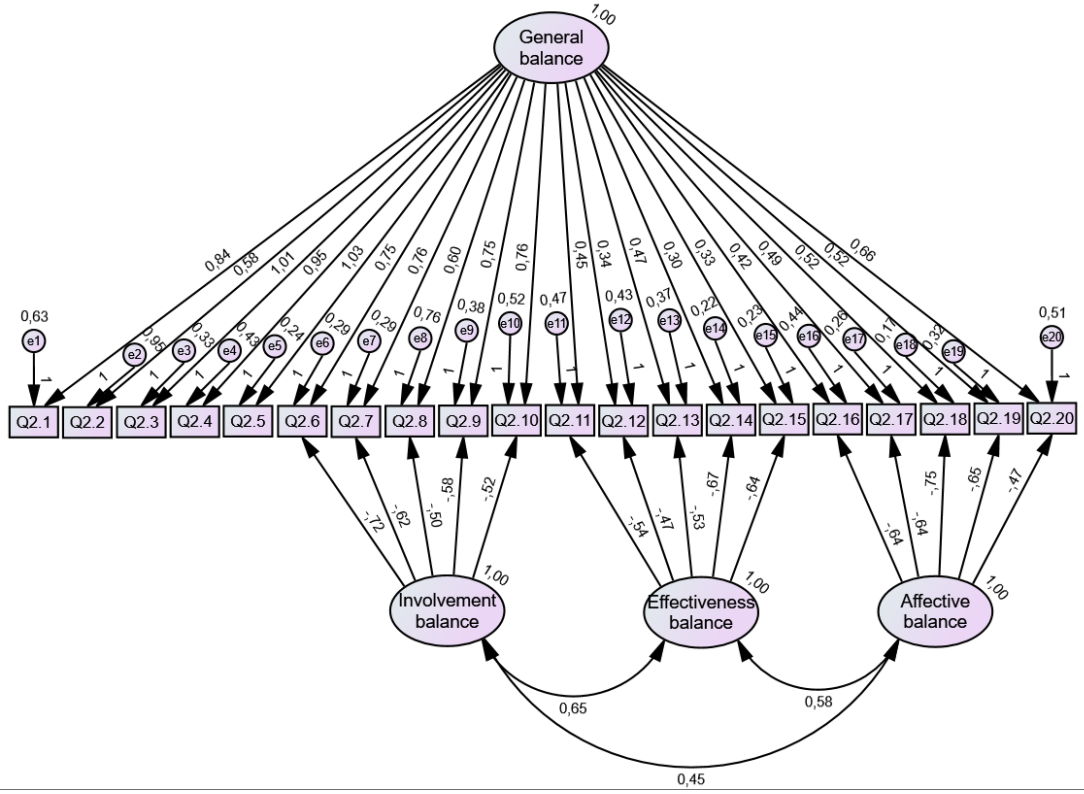



**Table 17: Work-nonwork balance model fit summary**

| Model fit test | Default model | Good fit criteria |
|---|---|---|
| **Chi-square** | 344,891 | |
| **Degrees of freedom** | 152 | |

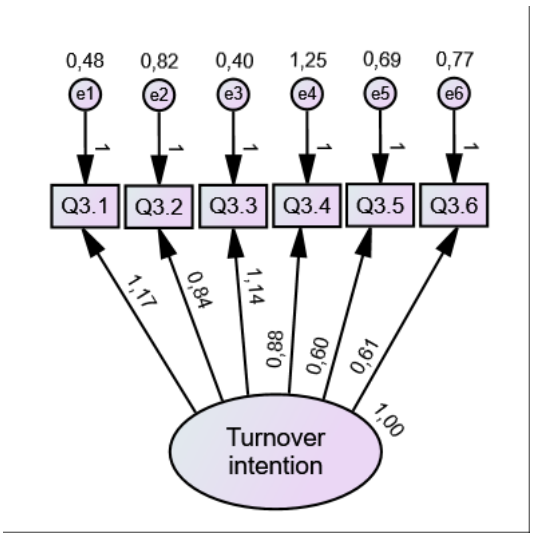
| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Probability level** | 0.00 | > 0.05 |
| **CFI** | 0.938 | ≥ 0.90 |
| **RMSEA** | 0.076 | < 0.08 |
| **RMR** | 0.053 | < 0.08 |

As all the tests met the good fit criteria, the factor structure of the observed variables in the Work-nonwork balance construct has been verified.

### *5.6.2 Turnover intention scale*

The turnover intention scale (Construct 2) applied in the study is a preexisting instrument; therefore, CFA was appropriate for verifying the structure of the factor. The results are displayed in Figure 14.

**Figure 14: Turnover intention standardised factor loadings and model fit summary**



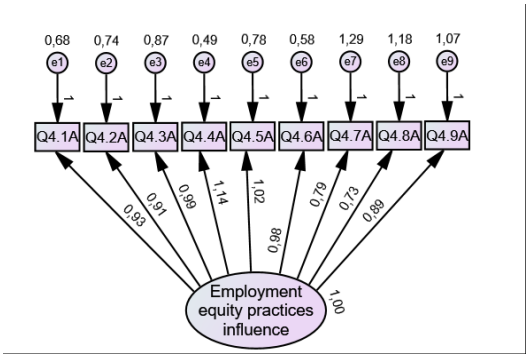

| Model fit test | Default model | Good fit criteria |
|---|---|---|
| **Chi-square** | 31,337 | |
| **Degrees of freedom** | 9 | |
| **Probability level** | 0.00 | > 0.05 |
| **CFI** | 0.959 | ≥ 0.90 |
| **RMSEA** | **0.107** | < 0.08 |
| **RMR** | 0.061 | < 0.08 |

Due to only the RMSEA test criteria for a good fit not being met, the factor structure of the observed variables in the turnover intention scale was verified as suitable.

### *5.6.3 Employment equity practices influence scale*

The study utilised a preexisting instrument for employment equity practices influence (Construct 3), and considering that more than 200 respondents participated in the sample, CFA is relevant for testing the factor structure. Fig shows the outcomes of the CFA test.

**Figure 15: Employment equity practices influence standardised factor loadings and model fit summary**




| Model fit test | Default model | Good fit criteria |
|---|---|---|
| **Chi-square** | 138,765 | |
| **Degrees of freedom** | 27 | |
| **Probability level** | 0.00 | > 0.05 |
| **CFI** | **0.892** | ≥ 0.90 |
| **RMSEA** | **0.138** | < 0.08 |
| **RMR** | **0.109** | < 0.08 |

The criteria for model fit for the employment equity practices influence (EEPI) scale were not met; therefore, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was performed on this instrument. All observed variables had at least one correlation above 0.3 within the scaled instrument. The KMO measure was 0.890, classifying the sampling adequacy as meritorious. Bartlett's test for sphericity returned a statistically significant p-value ($p < 0.05$) of less than 0.001, indicating that Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is suitable. Table 16 shows the outcomes of these tests.

**Table 18: Sampling adequacy tests for EEPI construct**

**KMO and Bartlett's Test**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | | .890 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 1052.158 |
| | df | 36 |
| | Sig. | <,001 |

Applying the Eigenvalue 1 rule, the EFA confirmed that one factor extracted would represent 56.374% of the variance amongst observable variables. The outcome of this variance test is shown in Table 19.

**Table 19: Total variance in EEPI construct using Eigenvalue test**

**Total Variance Explained**

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 5.074 | 56.374 | 56.374 | 5.074 | 56.374 | 56.374 |
| 2 | .931 | 10.347 | 66.721 | | | |
| 3 | .751 | 8.347 | 75.068 | | | |
| 4 | .589 | 6.543 | 81.611 | | | |
| 5 | .478 | 5.308 | 86.919 | | | |
| 6 | .351 | 3.895 | 90.814 | | | |
| 7 | .305 | 3.389 | 94.203 | | | |
| 8 | .288 | 3.204 | 97.407 | | | |
| 9 | .233 | 2.593 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

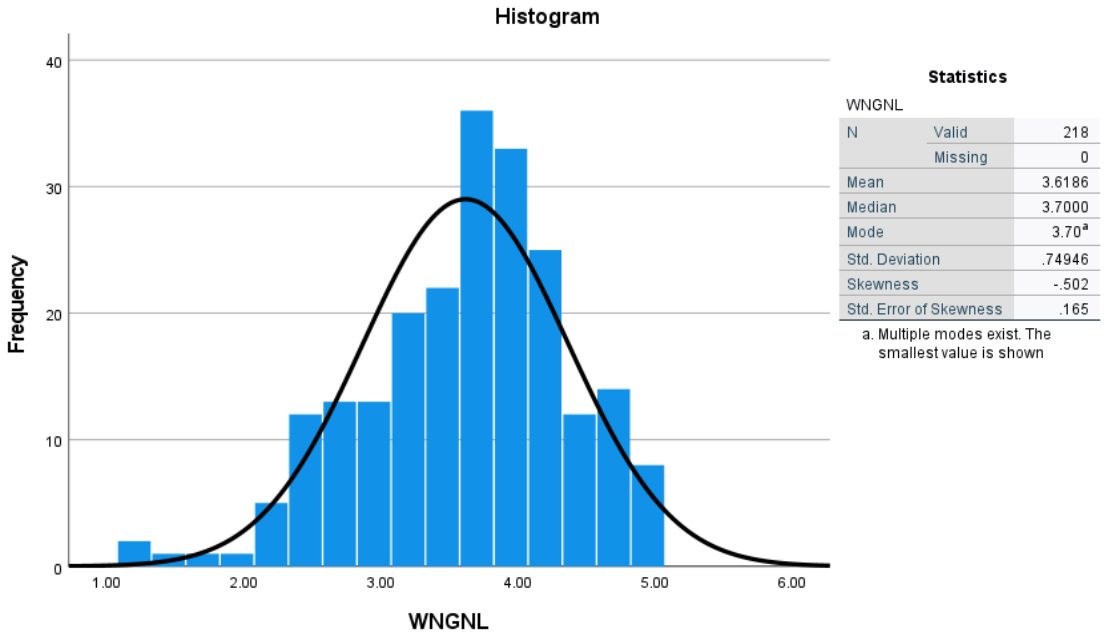
Even though the chosen factor does not satisfy 65% of the variation in the observed variables, the combination of these EFA tests has confirmed the model's suitability for the employment equity practices' influence construct.

## 5.7 Descriptive statistics for observable variables and constructs

### *5.7.1 General balance (Construct 1)*

The general balance section of the questionnaire contained 20 questions which combined allowed respondents to indicate a global measure of the work-nonwork balance they have experienced. A Likert scale quantified the level of balance across all work-nonwork constructs, ranging from 1, "strongly disagree," to 5, "strongly agree". Figure 16 shows the distribution and descriptive statistics for the general balance component.

**Figure 16: Distribution and descriptive statistics for general balance**




**Statistics**

WNGNL

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| N | Valid | 218 |
| | Missing | 0 |
| Mean | | 3.6186 |
| Median | | 3.7000 |
| Mode | | 3.70[a] |
| Std. Deviation | | .74946 |
| Skewness | | -.502 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | | .165 |

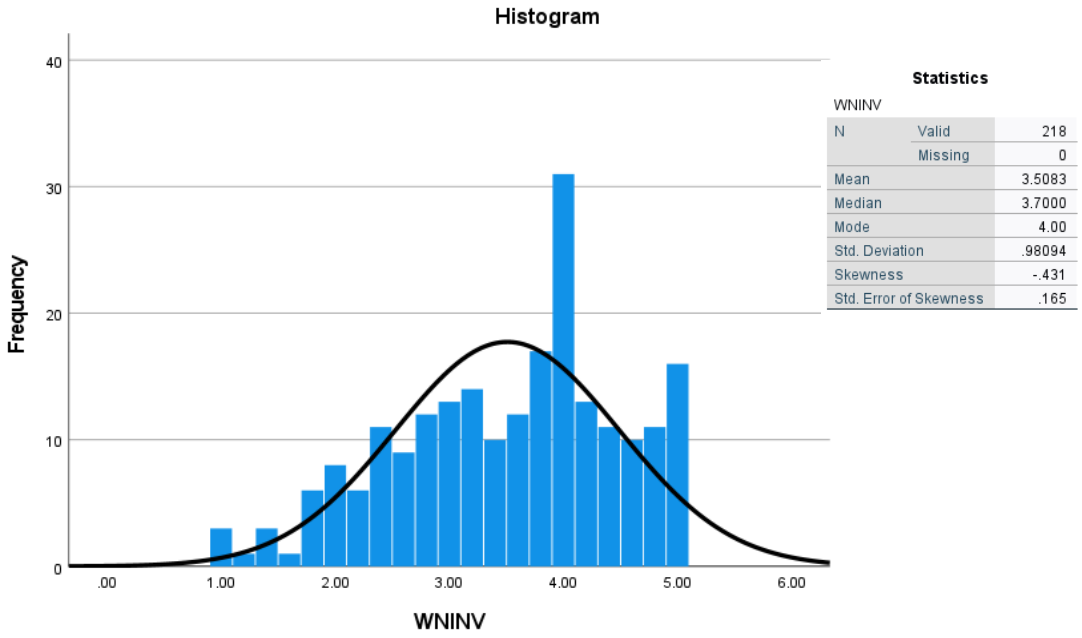
a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

The overall mean score for general balance shows that, on average, participants believed they agreed that they have a global work-nonwork balance ($\bar{x}$=3.6, $s$=0.75). Additionally, the histogram shows that less than 5 out of 218 (2%) participants strongly disagreed that they have a general work-nonwork balance. A Pearson's Coefficient of Skewness of -0.5 indicates the distribution is negatively skewed or distorted by a few small data values. However, due to time constraints in the study, it was accepted that this distribution characteristic is not significant enough to warrant any adjustment in the data for testing. The result confirms that the sample of individuals is balanced from a general work-nonwork perspective, an expected characteristic of the target population.

#### 5.7.1.1 Involvement balance (Sub-construct 1.1)

As a sub-construct of work-nonwork balance, five questions measure the degree to which participants report involvement balance. Distribution and descriptive statistics for involvement balance are shown in Figure 17.

**Figure 17: Distribution and descriptive statistics for involvement balance**




**Statistics**

WNINV

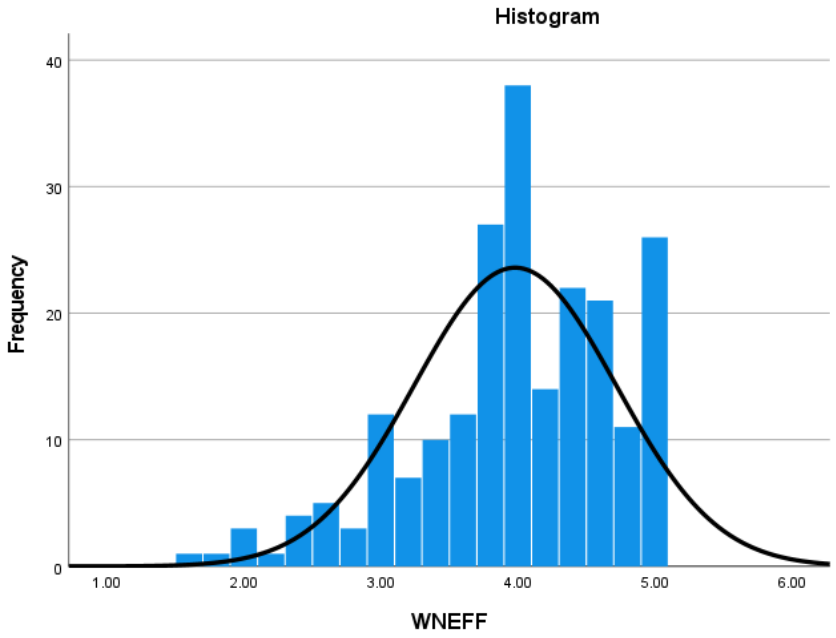
| | | |
|---|---|---|
| N | Valid | 218 |
| | Missing | 0 |
| Mean | | 3.5083 |
| Median | | 3.7000 |
| Mode | | 4.00 |
| Std. Deviation | | .98094 |
| Skewness | | -.431 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | | .165 |

The involvement balance average score indicates that participants' involvement in work and nonwork roles is commensurate with the value they attach to these roles ($\bar{x}$=3.5, $s$=0.98). Pearson's Coefficient of Skewness is slightly negatively skewed at -0.4.

#### 5.7.1.2 Effectiveness balance (Sub-construct 1.2)

Effectiveness balance is another sub-construct of work-nonwork balance measured by five questions. Figure 18 displays the distribution and descriptive statistics for effectiveness balance.

**Figure 18: Distribution and descriptive statistics for effectiveness balance**




**Statistics**

WNEFF

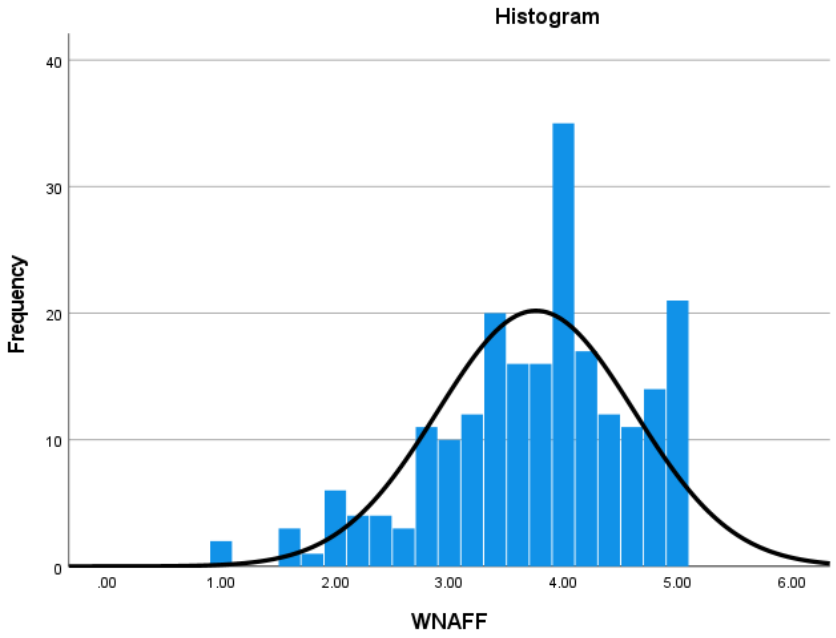
| | | |
|---|---|---|
| N | Valid | 218 |
| | Missing | 0 |
| Mean | | 3.9807 |
| Median | | 4.0000 |
| Mode | | 4.00 |
| Std. Deviation | | .73704 |
| Skewness | | -.741 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | | .165 |

The mean work-nonwork balance effectiveness score indicates that participants perceive their effectiveness in work and nonwork roles as commensurate with the value attached to the role ($\bar{x}$=4.0, $s$=0.74). Pearson's Coefficient of Skewness is negatively skewed at -0.7. This deviation from normal will be considered in the assumptions for this research.

#### 5.7.1.3 Affective balance (Sub-construct 1.3)

The final sub-construct of work-nonwork balance, affective balance, was measured by five questions. The affective balance component's descriptive statistics and distribution are illustrated in Figure 19.

**Figure 19: Distribution and descriptive statistics for affective balance**




**Statistics**

WNAFF

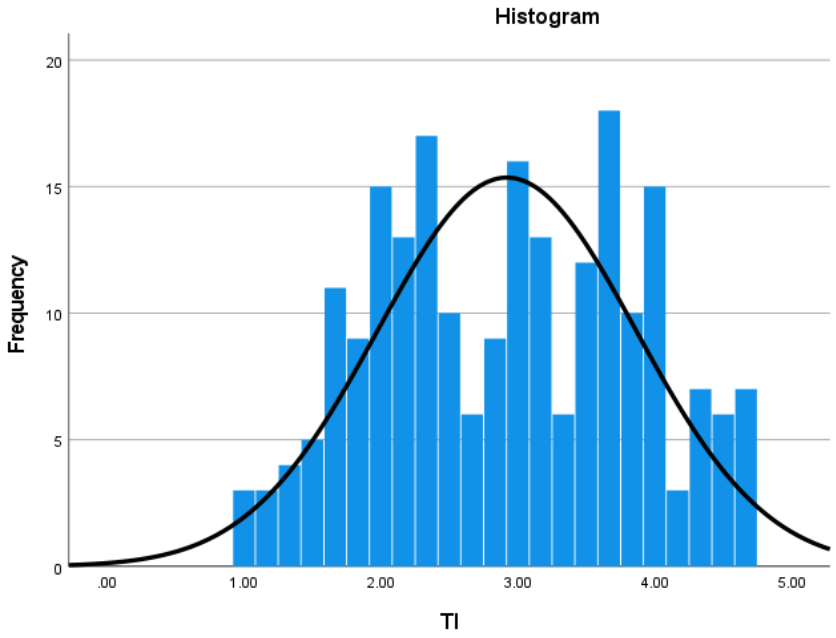
| | | |
|---|---|---|
| N | Valid | 218 |
| | Missing | 0 |
| Mean | | 3.7587 |
| Median | | 4.0000 |
| Mode | | 4.00 |
| Std. Deviation | | .86122 |
| Skewness | | -.668 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | | .165 |

On average, the mean score for participants indicates they perceive that they experience sufficiently pleasant emotions in work and nonwork roles, considering the value attached to those roles ($\bar{x}$=3.8, $s$=0.86). However, Pearson's Coefficient of Skewness is negatively skewed at -0.7. This outcome is expected as a sub-component of general balance, indicating negative skewing.

### *5.7.2 Turnover intention (Construct 2)*

Six questions in the study measured the turnover intention construct. Figure 20 describes the participant data for this construct in the study.

**Figure 20: Distribution and descriptive statistics for turnover intention**

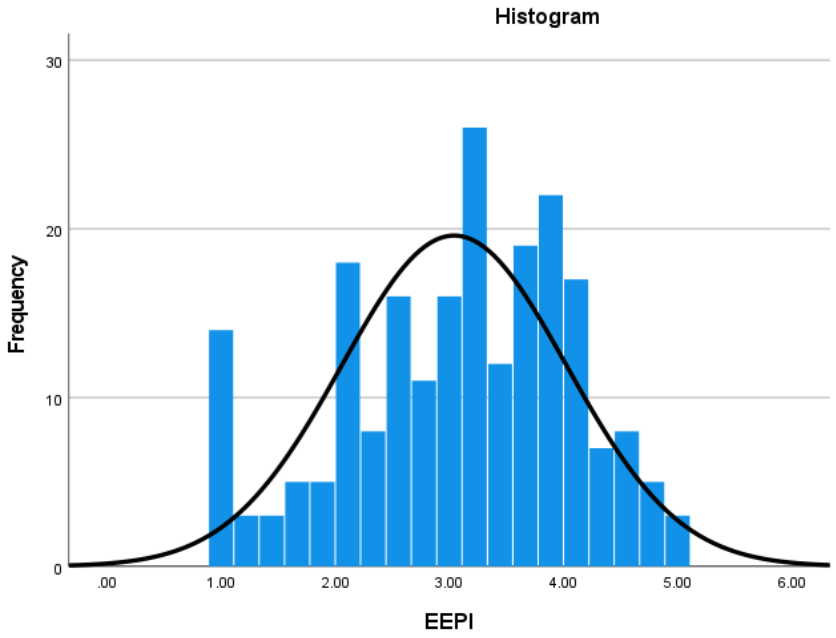



The mean of responses for turnover intention shows that, on average, the sample would rarely consider leaving their employment ($\bar{x}$=2.9, $s$=0.94). Additionally, Pearson's Coefficient of Skewness is 0 indicating a normal data distribution for this construct.

### *5.7.3 Employment equity practices influence (Construct 3)*

Nine questions in the study measured the influence of employment equity practices. Characteristics of the data for participants for the influence of employment equity practices are illustrated in Figure 21.

**Figure 21: Distribution and descriptive statistics for employment equity practices influence**




**Statistics**

EEPI

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| N | Valid | 218 |
| | Missing | 0 |
| Mean | | 3.0418 |
| Median | | 3.1111 |
| Mode | | 3.78 |
| Std. Deviation | | .98585 |
| Skewness | | -.389 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | | .165 |

The mean for responses around employment equity indicates that participants, on average, felt the practices somewhat influenced them ($\bar{x}$=3.0, $s$=0.99). Pearson's Coefficient of Skewness indicates slightly negative skewing with a value of -0.4.

## 5.8 Inferential statistics

### *5.8.1 General balance – Hypothesis 1*

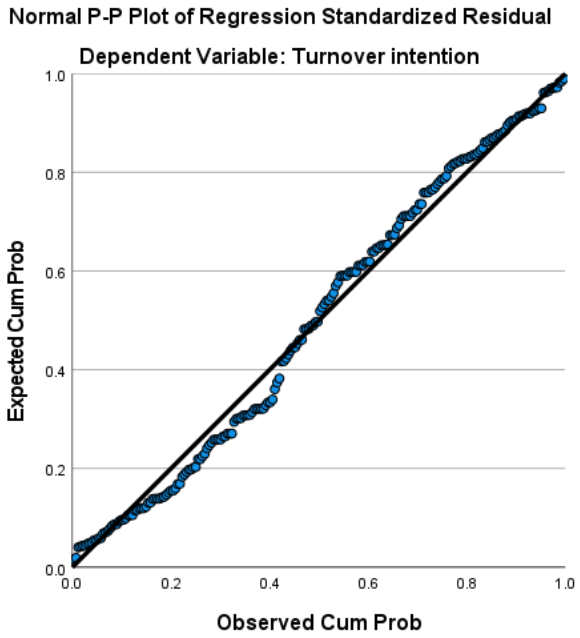
In the first hypothesis, the study established whether perceived general work-nonwork balance (Construct 1) is associated with an employee leaving an organisation (Construct 2). This association was established using linear regression analysis between the components. The second aspect tested is whether employment equity practices influence (Construct 3) moderates the relationship between these constructs. Again, multiple regression analysis was applied for this test.

**5.8.1.1 H1A correlation of general balance and turnover intention results**. The following assumptions were tested:

1. *Normality*

   Assessment of the standardised residuals plotted as points on a p-plot produced for the regression of the variables lie in a relatively straight line. Figure 22 depicts this outcome indicating no severe deviations from normality.

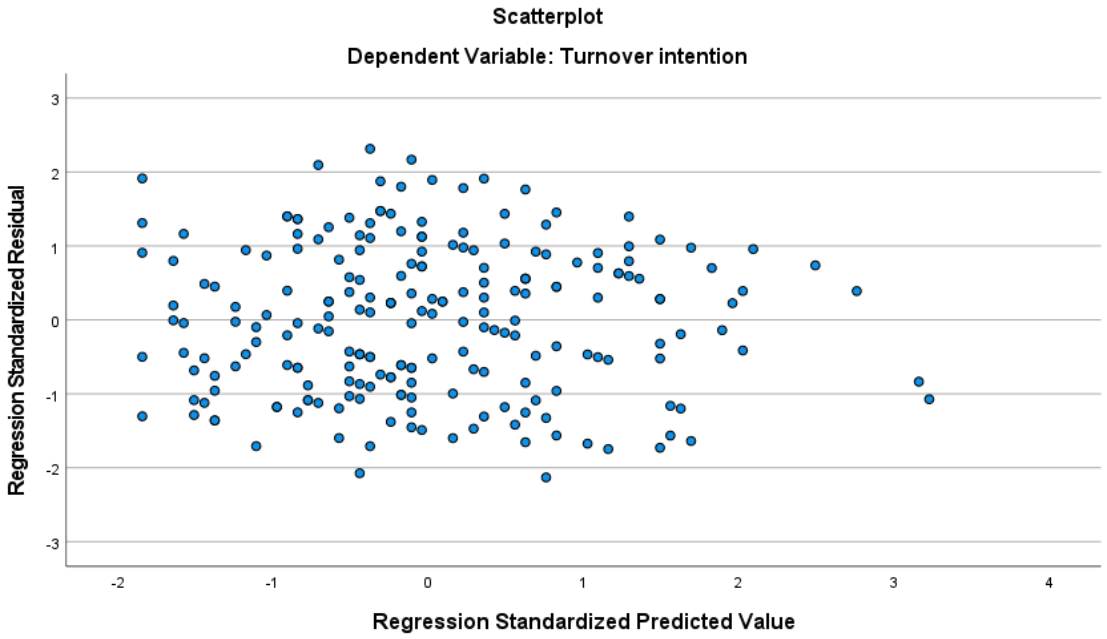
**Figure 22: H1A p-plot**




*2. Homoscedasticity*

The scatterplot in Figure 33 displays a fairly even spread of data points satisfying the assumption for homogeneity of variance in the collected data.

**Figure 23: H1A homoscedasticity**




*3. Multicollinearity*

The VIF values for the regression were analysed to confirm the absence of multicollinearity. To ensure the independent variable's variability is not explained by other independent variables, the VIF produced needs to be below 10. The produced VIF is below 10, indicating that this assumption was met. Table 20 shows the coefficients outcomes for the analysed variables.

**Table 20: Coefficients summary table for H1A regression**

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 5.118 | .277 | | 18.455 | <,001 | | |
| | General balance | -.608 | .075 | -.482 | -8.095 | <,001 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

With all assumptions satisfied, the study tested hypothesis H1A with the following outcome:

**Null Hypothesis ($H1A_0$):** General work-nonwork balance is not a significant variable in the prediction of turnover intention.

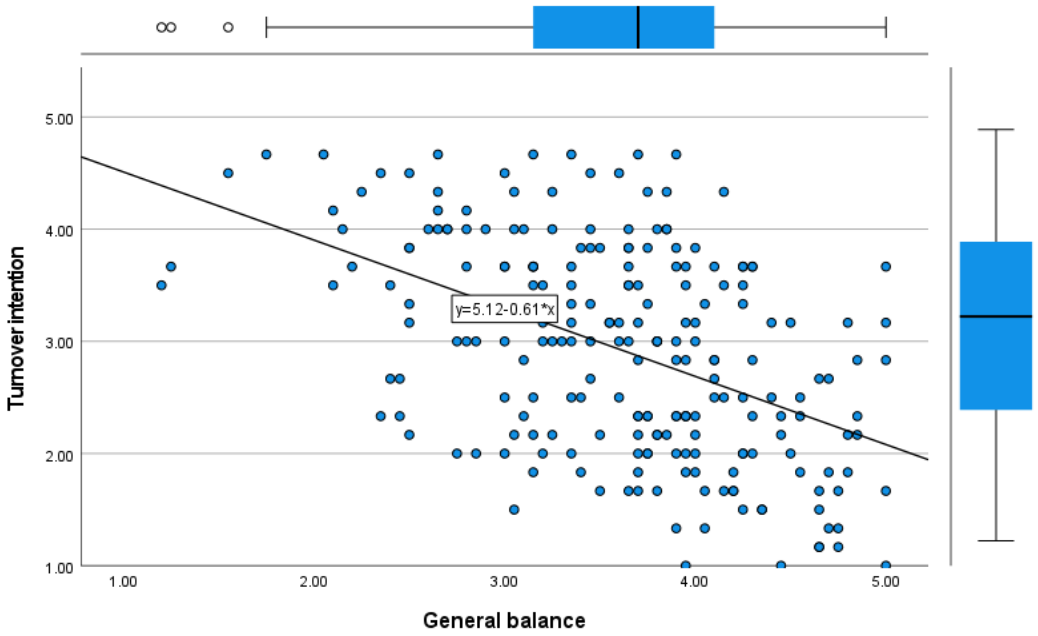
**Alternate Hypothesis ($H1A_{Alt}$):** General work-nonwork balance is negatively associated with turnover intention.

The dependent variable turnover intention was regressed against the independent variable general balance to test hypothesis H1A. The correlation between dependent and independent variables (R = 0.482) was sufficient to warrant further analysis. Moreover, the $R^2 = 0.233$ depicts that the model explains 23.3% of the variance in turnover intention. This value is an adequate correlation variance amount for a study of constructs in the field of psychology. General balance significantly correlated with turnover intention, $F(1, 216) = 65.233$, $p < 0.001$. The correlation is negative (B = -0.608) such that for every 1-unit increase in general balance, turnover intention decreased by 0.608. The strength of an association is regarded as moderate if R is between 0.40 and 0.59. Therefore, these results confirm a moderate negative association between general balance and turnover intention. Table 23 summarises the findings, and Figure 24 illustrates the relationship between the variables graphically.

**Table 21: H1A regression output summary**

| Hypothesis | Regression weights | Beta coefficient | $R^2$ | F | p-value | Hypothesis supported |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **H1A** | General balance → turnover intention | -0.608 | 0.233 | 65.523 | <0.001 | Yes |

**Figure 24: H1A scatterplot of the interaction of variables**




Due to these results the researcher rejected the null hypothesis ($H1A_0$) in favour of the alternate ($H1A_{Alt}$). Therefore the analysis suggests that general work-nonwork balance has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention.

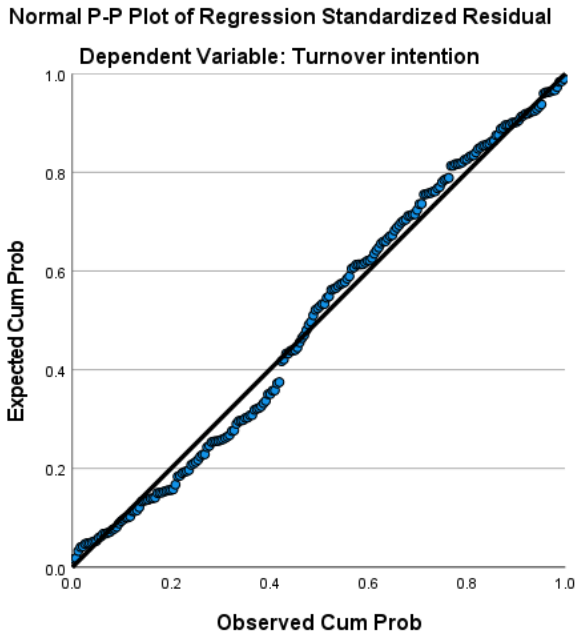
**5.8.1.2 H1B moderation of the relationship by employment equity practices influence**. The independent and moderator variables were mean-centred to improve the ease of interpretation of the moderated multiple regression analysis results.

The following assumptions were tested:

1. *Normality*

Assessment of the standardised residuals plotted as points on a p-plot produced for the regression of the variables lie in a relatively straight line. Figure 25 depicts this outcome indicating no severe deviations from normality.

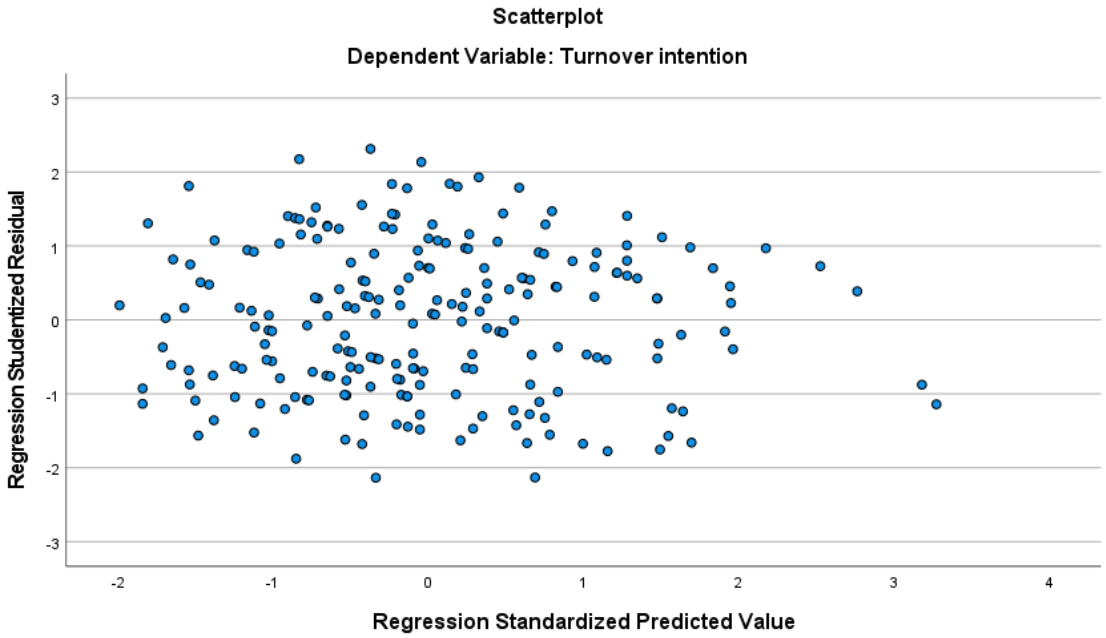
**Figure 25: H1B p-plot**




*2. Homoscedasticity*

The scatterplot in Figure 26 displays a fairly even spread of data points satisfying the assumption for homogeneity of variance in the collected data.

**Figure 26: H1B homoscedasticity**




*3. Multicollinearity*

The VIF values for the regression were analysed to confirm the absence of multicollinearity. To ensure the independent variables' variability is not explained by other independent variables, the VIF produced needs to be below 10. The produced VIF is below 10, indicating that this assumption was met. Table 22 shows the coefficients outcomes for the analysed variables.

**Table 22: Coefficients summary table for H1B regression**

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 2.917 | .057 | | 51.537 | <,001 | | |
| | Centred General balance | -.608 | .077 | -.483 | -7.939 | <,001 | .967 | 1.034 |
| | Centred EE practices influence | .034 | .059 | .036 | .579 | .563 | .941 | 1.063 |
| | Centred Interaction: General balance * EEPI | .036 | .077 | .029 | .466 | .642 | .937 | 1.067 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

With all assumptions satisfied, the study tested hypothesis H1B with the following outcome:

**Null Hypothesis ($H1B_0$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between general work-nonwork balance and turnover intention.

**Alternate Hypothesis ($H1B_{Alt}$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between general work-nonwork balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit.

The dependent variable turnover intention was regressed against the independent variables general balance and employment equity practices influence (EEPI) to test hypothesis H1B. The correlation between dependent and independent variables (R = 0.485) indicates only a 0.3% increase in variance explained by the inclusion of the moderator (compared to values 5.8.1.1). Moreover, the $R^2 = 0.2353$ depicts that the model explains 23.53% of the variance in turnover intention. However, when the significance of the moderating effect was analysed, the results revealed no significant moderating impact of EEPI on the relationship between general balance and turnover intention (b = 0.036, t = 0.466, p = 0.642). Due to the magnitude of significance not being attained, the researcher did not execute further testing of the categorical variable, indicating those who did or did not benefit from employment equity practices. Table 23 shows the summary of the findings.

**Table 23: H1B regression output summary**

| Hypothesis | Regression weights | Beta coefficient | $R^2$ | F | t-value | p-value | Hypothesis supported |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **H1B** | General balance → turnover intention | -0.608 | 0.235 | 21.945 | -7.939 | <0.001 | Yes |
| **H1B** | EEPI → turnover intention | 0.034 | 0.235 | 21.945 | 0.579 | 0.563 | No |
| **H1B** | GB*EEPI → turnover intention | 0.036 | 0.235 | 21.945 | 0.466 | 0.642 | No |

Due to these results, the researcher did not reject the null hypothesis ($H1B_0$). Therefore the analysis suggests that perceptions of the impact of employment equity

practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between general work-nonwork balance and turnover intention.

### *5.8.2 Involvement balance – Hypothesis 2*

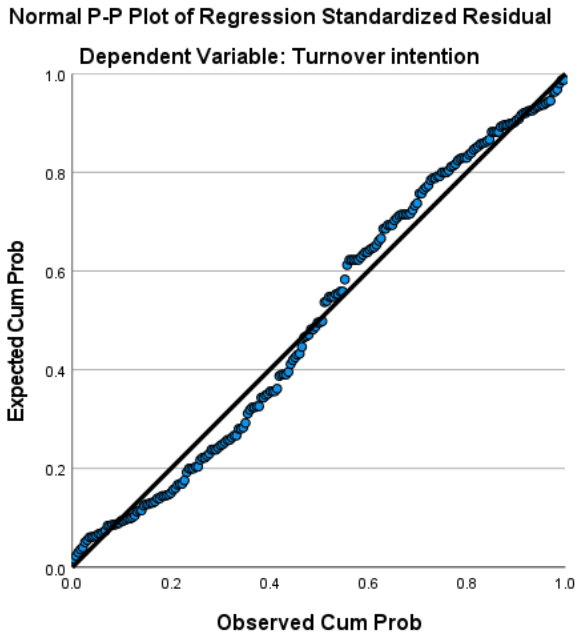
In the second hypothesis, the study established whether perceived work-nonwork involvement balance (Sub-construct 1.1) is associated with an employee leaving an organisation (Construct 2). This association was established using linear regression analysis between the components. The second aspect tested is whether employment equity practices influence (Construct 3) moderates the relationship between these constructs. Again, multiple regression analysis was applied for this test.

**5.8.2.1 H2A correlation of involvement balance and turnover intention**. The following assumptions were tested:

1. *Normality*

   Assessment of the standardised residuals plotted as points on a p-plot produced for the regression of the variables lie in a relatively straight line. Figure 27 depicts this outcome indicating no severe deviations from normality.

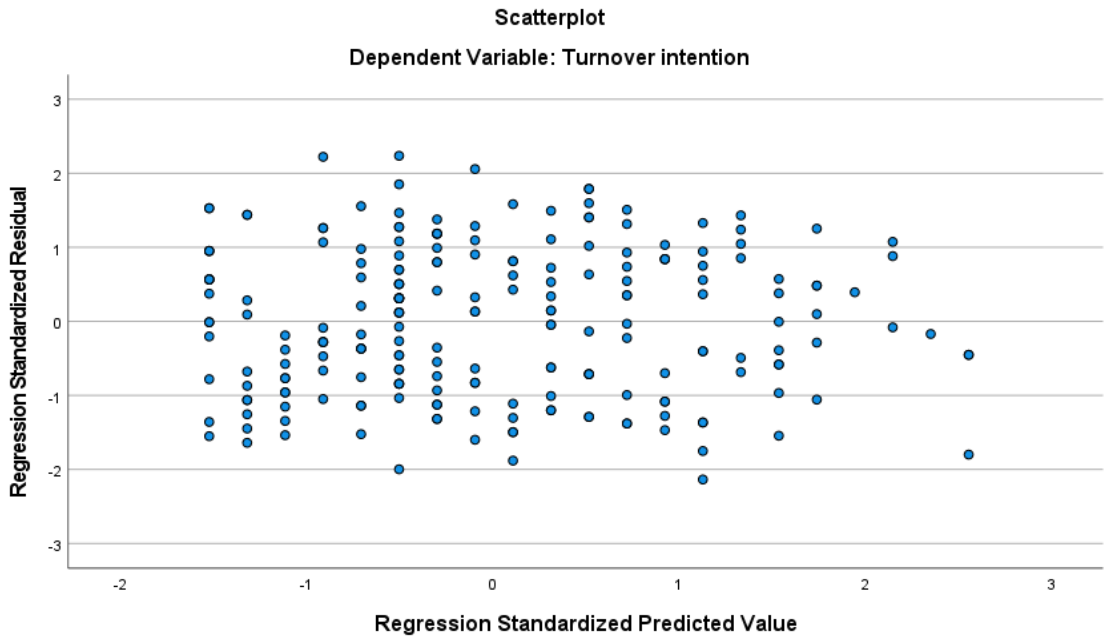
**Figure 27: H2A p-plot**




2. *Homoscedasticity*

The scatterplot in Figure 28 displays a fairly even spread of data points satisfying the assumption for homogeneity of variance in the collected data.

**Figure 28: H2A homoscedasticity**




*3. Multicollinearity*

The VIF values for the regression were analysed to confirm the absence of multicollinearity. To ensure the independent variable's variability is not explained by other independent variables, the VIF produced needs to be below 10. The produced VIF is below 10, indicating that this assumption was met. Table 24 shows the coefficients outcomes for the analysed variables.

**Table 24: Coefficients summary table for H2A regression**

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 4.278 | .218 | | 19.598 | <,001 | | |
| | Involvement balance | -.387 | .060 | -.402 | -6.460 | <,001 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

With all assumptions satisfied, the study tested hypothesis H2A with the following outcome:

**Null Hypothesis ($H2A_0$):** Work-nonwork involvement balance is not a significant variable in the prediction of turnover intention.

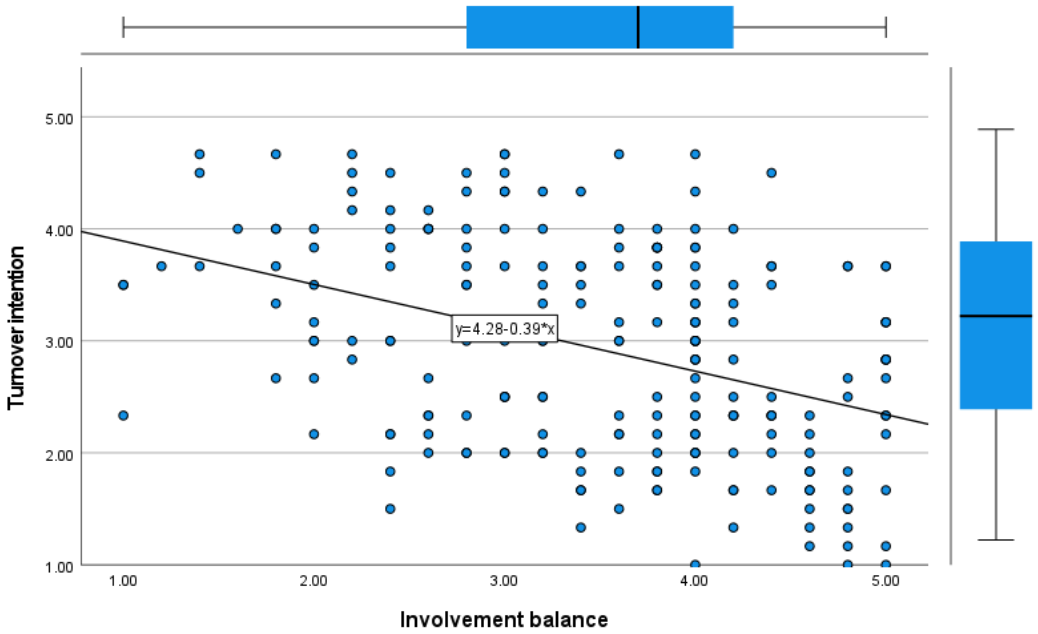
**Alternate Hypothesis ($H2A_{Alt}$):** Work-nonwork involvement balance is negatively associated with turnover intention.

The dependent variable turnover intention was regressed against the independent variable involvement balance to test hypothesis H2A. The correlation between dependent and independent variables (R = 0.402) was sufficient to warrant further analysis. Moreover, the $R^2$ = 0.162 depicts that the model explains 16.2% of the variance in turnover intention. General balance significantly correlated with turnover intention, $F(1, 216) = 41.731$, $p < 0.001$. The correlation is negative (B = -0.387) such that for every 1-unit increase in involvement balance, turnover intention decreased by 0.387. The strength of an association is regarded as moderate if R is between 0.40 and 0.59. Therefore, these results confirm a moderate negative association between involvement balance and turnover intention. Table 25 summarises the findings, and Figure 29 illustrates the relationship between the variables.

**Table 25: H2A regression output summary**

| Hypothesis | Regression weights | Beta coefficient | $R^2$ | F | p-value | Hypothesis supported |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **H1A** | Involvement balance → turnover intention | -0.387 | 0.162 | 41.731 | <0.001 | Yes |

**Figure 29: H2A scatterplot of the interaction of variables**




Due to these results, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis ($H2A_0$) in favour of the alternate ($H1A_{Alt}$). Therefore the analysis suggests that work-nonwork involvement balance has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention.

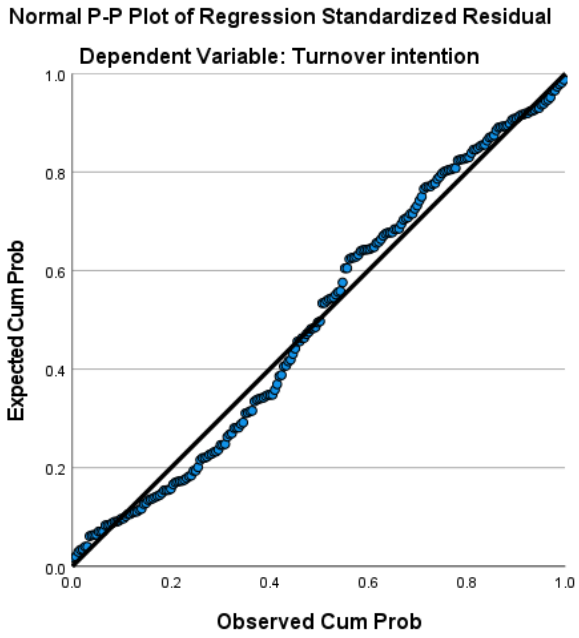
**5.8.2.2 H2B moderation of the relationship by employment equity practices influence**. The independent and moderator variables were mean-centred to improve the ease of interpretation of the moderated multiple regression analysis results.

The following assumptions were tested:

1. *Normality*

   Assessment of the standardised residuals plotted as points on a p-plot produced for the regression of the variables lie in a relatively straight line. Figure 30 depicts this outcome indicating no severe deviations from normality.

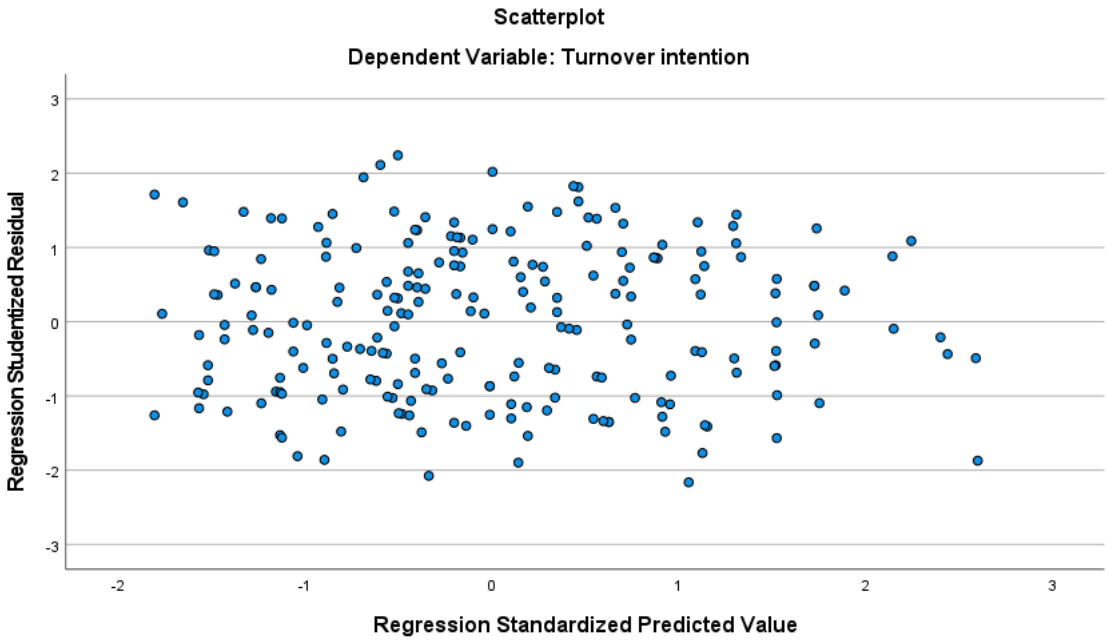
**Figure 30: H2B p-plot**




*2. Homoscedasticity*

The scatterplot in Figure 31 displays a fairly even spread of data points satisfying the assumption for homogeneity of variance in the collected data.

**Figure 31: H2B homoscedasticity**




*3. Multicollinearity*

The VIF values for the regression were analysed to confirm the absence of multicollinearity. To ensure the independent variables' variability is not explained by other independent variables, the VIF produced needs to be below 10. The produced VIF is below 10, indicating that this assumption was met. Table 26 shows the coefficients outcomes for the analysed variables.

**Table 26: Coefficients summary table for H2B regression**

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 2.915 | .059 | | 48.999 | <,001 | | |
| | Centred Involvement balance | -.391 | .061 | -.406 | -6.368 | <,001 | .957 | 1.045 |
| | Centred EE practices influence | .047 | .061 | .050 | .772 | .441 | .944 | 1.059 |
| | Centred Interaction: Involvement balance * EEPI | .033 | .060 | .035 | .545 | .587 | .957 | 1.045 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

With all assumptions satisfied, the study tested hypothesis H2B with the following outcome:

**Null Hypothesis ($H2B_0$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between work-nonwork involvement balance and turnover intention.

**Alternate Hypothesis ($H2B_{Alt}$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between work-nonwork involvement balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit.

The dependent variable turnover intention was regressed against the independent variables involvement balance and employment equity practices influence (EEPI) to test hypothesis H2B. The correlation between dependent and independent variables ($R = 0.408$) indicates only a 0.3% increase in variance explained by the inclusion of the moderator (compared to values 5.8.2.1). Moreover, the $R^2 = 0.166$ depicts that the model explains 16.6% of the variance in turnover intention. However, when the significance of the moderating effect was analysed, the results revealed no significant moderating impact of EEPI on the relationship between involvement balance and turnover intention ($b = 0.033$, $t = 0.545$, $p = 0.587$). Due to the magnitude

of significance not being attained, the researcher did not execute further testing of the categorical variable, indicating those who did or did not benefit from employment equity practices. Table 27 shows the summary of the findings.

**Table 27: H2B regression output summary**

| Hypothesis | Regression weights | Beta coefficient | Standard error | t-value | p-value | Hypothesis supported |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **H2B** | Involvement balance → turnover intention | -0.391 | 0.061 | -6.638 | <0.001 | Yes |
| **H2B** | EEPI → turnover intention | 0.047 | 0.061 | 0.772 | 0.441 | No |
| **H2B** | INV*EEPI → turnover intention | 0.033 | 0.060 | 0.545 | 0.587 | No |

Due to these results, the researcher did not reject the null hypothesis $H2B_0$. Therefore the analysis suggests that perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between work-nonwork involvement balance and turnover intention.

### *5.8.3 Effectiveness balance – Hypothesis 3*

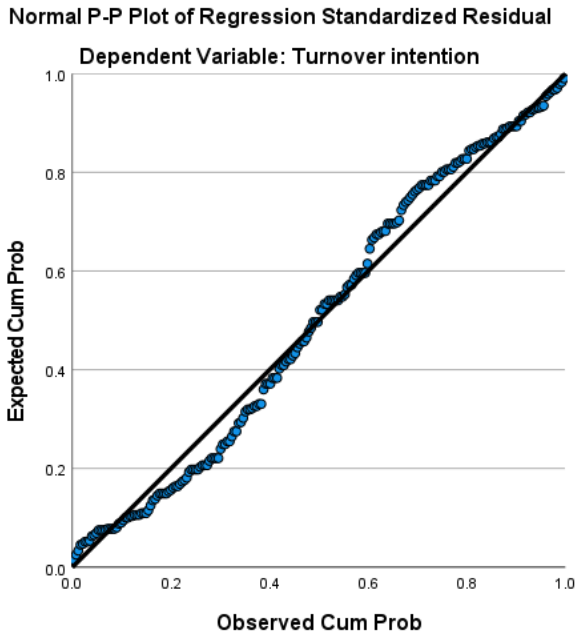
In the third hypothesis, the study established whether perceived work-nonwork effectiveness balance (Sub-construct 1.2) is associated with an employee leaving an organisation (Construct 2). This association was established using linear regression analysis between the components. The second aspect tested is whether employment equity practices influence (Construct 3) moderates the relationship between these constructs. Again, multiple regression analysis was applied for this test.

**5.8.3.1 H3A correlation of effectiveness balance and turnover intention**. The following assumptions were tested:

1. *Normality*

   Assessment of the standardised residuals plotted as points on a p-plot produced for the regression of the variables lie in a relatively straight line. Figure 32 depicts this outcome indicating no severe deviations from normality.

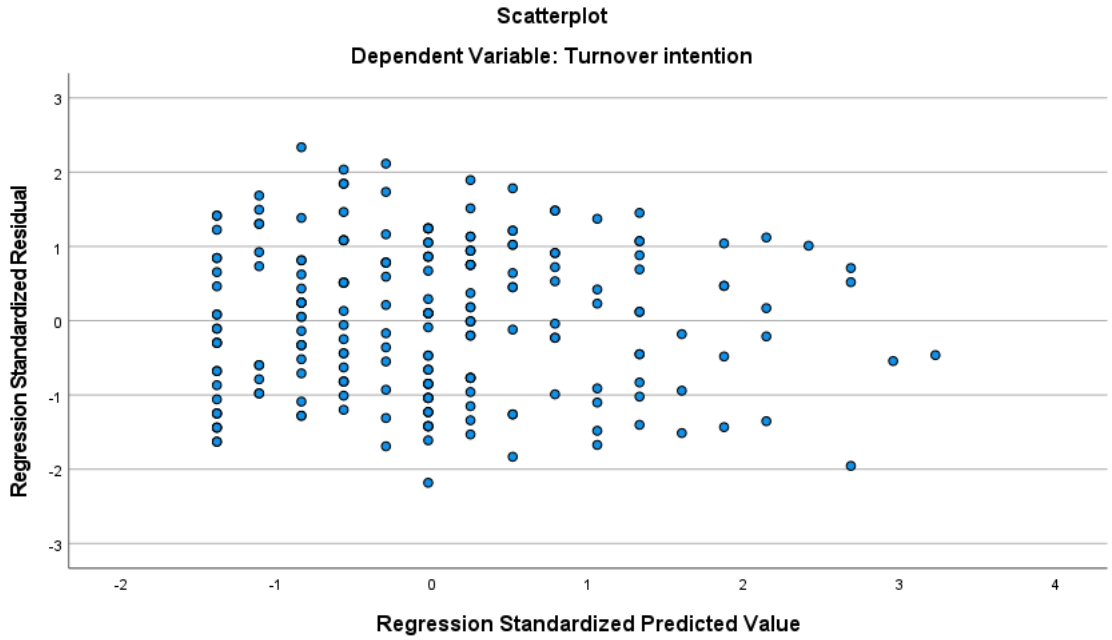
**Figure 32: H3A p-plot**




2. *Homoscedasticity*

   The scatterplot in Figure 33 displays a fairly even spread of data points satisfying the assumption for homogeneity of variance in the collected data.

**Figure 33: H3A homoscedasticity**




*3. Multicollinearity*

The VIF values for the regression were analysed to confirm the absence of multicollinearity. To ensure the independent variable's variability is not explained by other independent variables, the VIF produced needs to be below 10. The produced VIF is below 10, indicating that this assumption was met. Table 28 shows the coefficients outcomes for the analysed variables.

**Table 28: Coefficients summary table for H3A regression**

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 4.846 | .327 | | 14.839 | <,001 | | |
| | Effectiveness balance | -.484 | .081 | -.378 | -5.998 | <,001 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

With all assumptions satisfied, the study tested hypothesis H3A with the following outcome:

**Null Hypothesis ($H3A_0$):** Work-nonwork effectiveness balance is not a significant variable in the prediction of turnover intention.

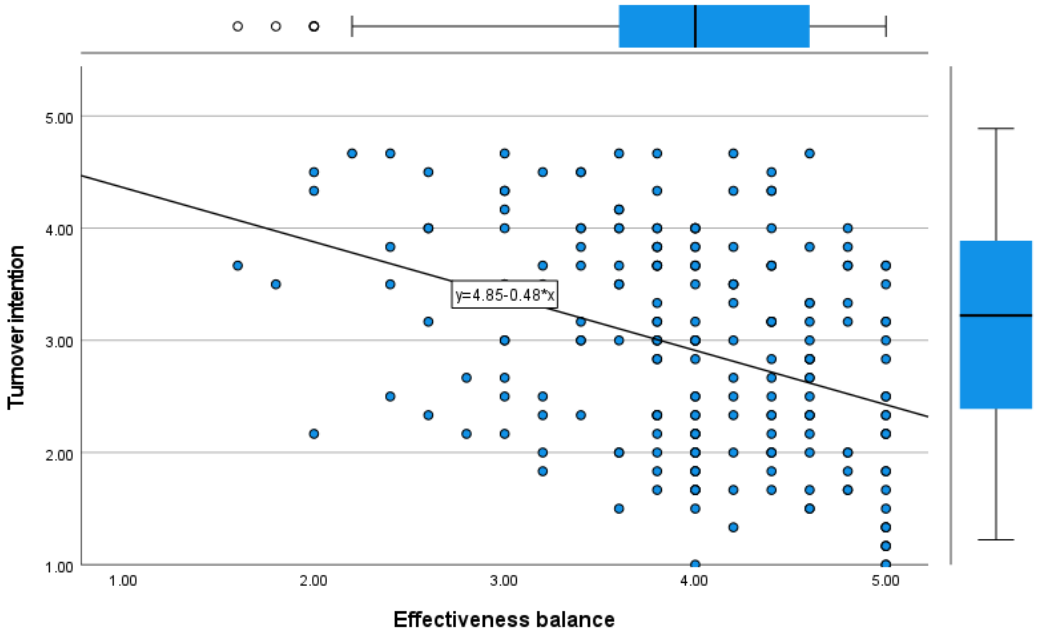
**Alternate Hypothesis ($H3A_{Alt}$):** Work-nonwork effectiveness balance is negatively associated with turnover intention.

The dependent variable turnover intention was regressed against the independent variable effectiveness balance to test hypothesis H3A. The correlation between dependent and independent variables (R = 0.378) was sufficient to warrant further analysis. Moreover, the $R^2$ = 0.143 depicts that the model explains 14.3% of the variance in turnover intention. Effectiveness balance significantly correlated with turnover intention, F(1, 216) = 35.978, p < 0.001. The correlation is negative (B = -0.484) such that for every 1-unit increase in effectiveness balance, turnover intention decreased by 0.484. The strength of an association is regarded as weak if R is between 0.20 and 0.39. Therefore, these results confirm a weak negative association between effectiveness balance and turnover intention. Table 29 summarises the findings, and Figure 34 illustrates the relationship between the variables graphically.

**Table 29: H3A regression output summary**

| Hypothesis | Regression weights | Beta coefficient | $R^2$ | F | p-value | Hypothesis supported |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **H3A** | Effectiveness balance → turnover intention | -0.484 | 0.143 | 35.978 | <0.001 | Yes |

**Figure 34: H3A scatterplot of the interaction of variables**



Due to these results, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis ($H3A_0$) in favour of the alternate ($H3A_{Alt}$). Therefore the analysis suggests that work-nonwork involvement balance has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention.

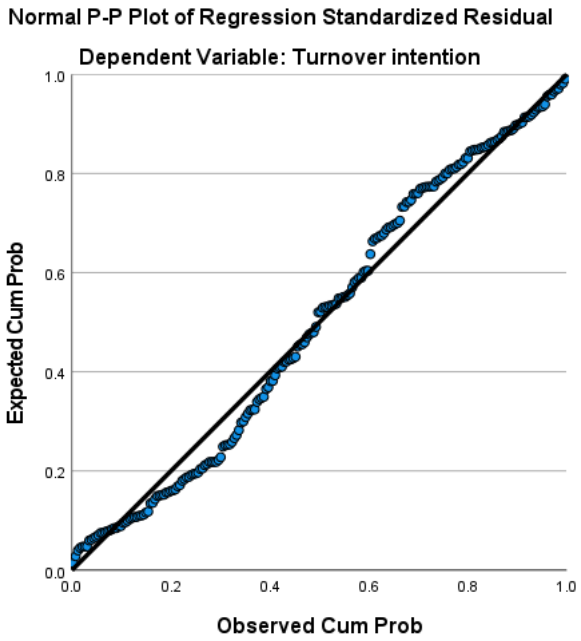
**5.8.3.2 H3B moderation of the relationship by employment equity practices influence**. The independent and moderator variables were mean-centred to improve the ease of interpretation of the moderated multiple regression analysis results.

The following assumptions were tested:

1. *Normality*

   Assessment of the standardised residuals plotted as points on a p-plot produced for the regression of the variables lie in a relatively straight line. Figure 35 depicts this outcome indicating no severe deviations from normality.

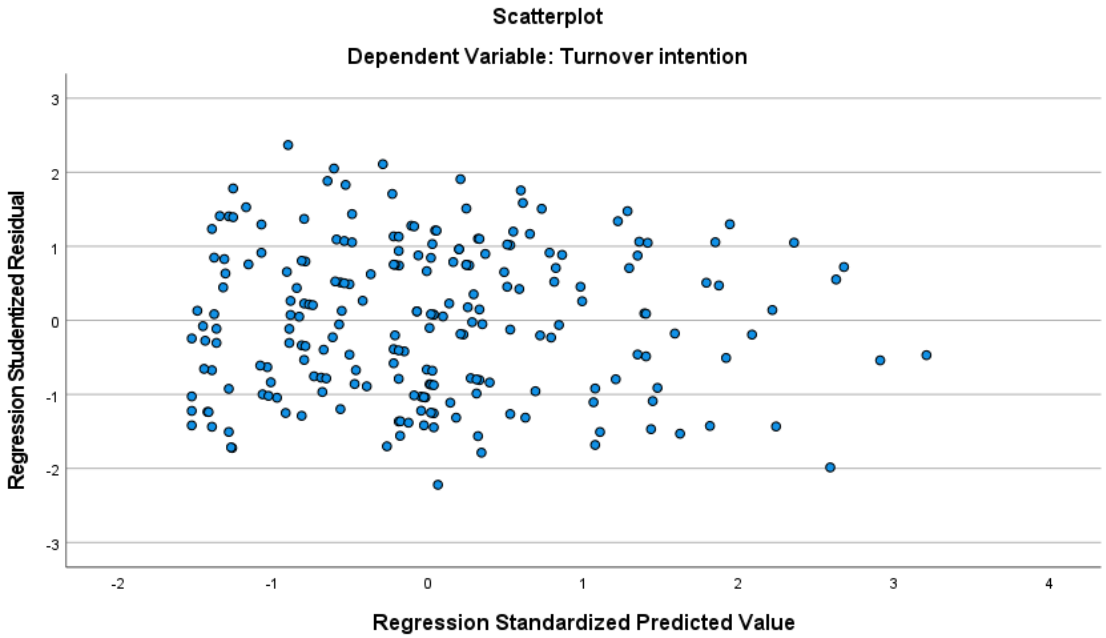
**Figure 35: H3B p-plot**




2. *Homoscedasticity*

The scatterplot in Figure 36 displays a fairly even spread of data points satisfying the assumption for homogeneity of variance in the collected data.

**Figure 36: H3B homoscedasticity**




*3. Multicollinearity*

The VIF values for the regression were analysed to confirm the absence of multicollinearity. To ensure the independent variables' variability is not explained by other independent variables, the VIF produced needs to be below 10. The produced VIF is below 10, indicating that this assumption was met. Table 30 shows the coefficients outcomes for the analysed variables.

**Table 30: Coefficients summary table for H3B regression**

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 2.920 | .060 | | 48.730 | <,001 | | |
| | Centred Effectiveness balance | -.489 | .083 | -.382 | -5.865 | <,001 | .945 | 1.059 |
| | Centred EE practices influence | .029 | .063 | .030 | .461 | .645 | .914 | 1.094 |
| | Centred Interaction: Effectiveness balance * EEPI | -.006 | .090 | -.004 | -.064 | .949 | .893 | 1.119 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

With all assumptions satisfied, the study tested hypothesis H3B with the following outcome:

**Null Hypothesis ($H3B_0$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between work-nonwork effectiveness balance and turnover intention.

**Alternate Hypothesis ($H3B_{Alt}$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between work-nonwork effectiveness balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit.

The dependent variable turnover intention was regressed against the independent variables effectiveness balance and employment equity practices influence (EEPI) to test hypothesis H3B. The correlation between dependent and independent variables (R = 0.379) indicates only a 0.1% increase in variance explained by the inclusion of the moderator (compared to values in 5.8.3.1). Moreover, the $R^2 = 0.144$ depicts that the model explains 14.4% of the variance in turnover intention. However, when the significance of the moderating effect was analysed, the results revealed no significant moderating impact of EEPI on the relationship between effectiveness balance and turnover intention (b = -0.006, t = -0.064, p = 0.949). Due to the magnitude of significance not being attained, the researcher did not execute further testing of the categorical variable, indicating those who did or did not benefit from employment equity practices. Table 27 shows the summary of the findings.

**Table 31: H3B regression output summary**

| Hypothesis | Regression weights | Beta coefficient | Standard error | t-value | p-value | Hypothesis supported |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **H3B** | Effectiveness balance → turnover intention | -0.489 | 0.083 | -5.865 | <0.001 | Yes |
| **H3B** | EEPI → turnover intention | 0.029 | 0.063 | 0.461 | 0.645 | No |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **H3B** | INV*EEPI → turnover intention | -0.006 | 0.090 | -0.064 | 0.949 | No |

Due to these results, the researcher did not reject the null hypothesis $H3B_0$. Therefore the analysis suggests that perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between work-nonwork effectiveness balance and turnover intention.

### *5.8.4 Affective balance – Hypothesis 4*

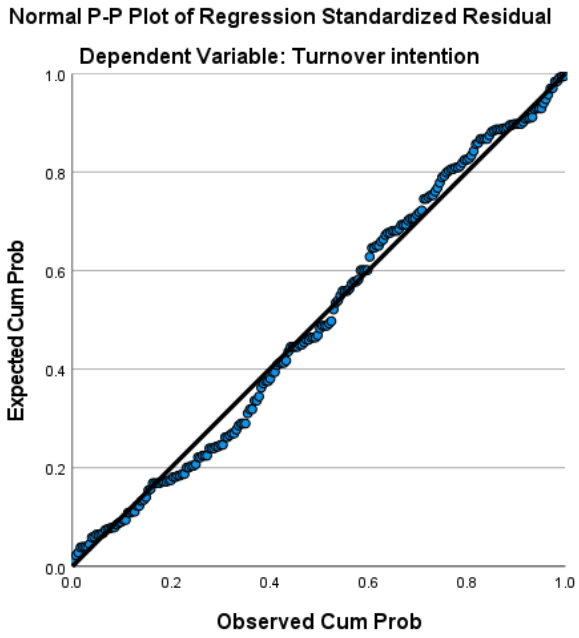
In the fourth hypothesis, the study established whether perceived affective work-nonwork balance (Sub-construct 1.3) is associated with an employee leaving an organisation (Construct 2). This association was established using linear regression analysis between the components. The second aspect tested is whether employment equity practices influence (Construct 3) moderates the relationship between these constructs. Again, multiple regression analysis was applied for this test.

**5.8.4.1 H4A association of general balance and turnover intention**. The following assumptions were tested:

1. *Normality*

   Assessment of the standardised residuals plotted as points on a p-plot produced for the regression of the variables lie in a relatively straight line. Figure 37 depicts this outcome indicating no severe deviations from normality.

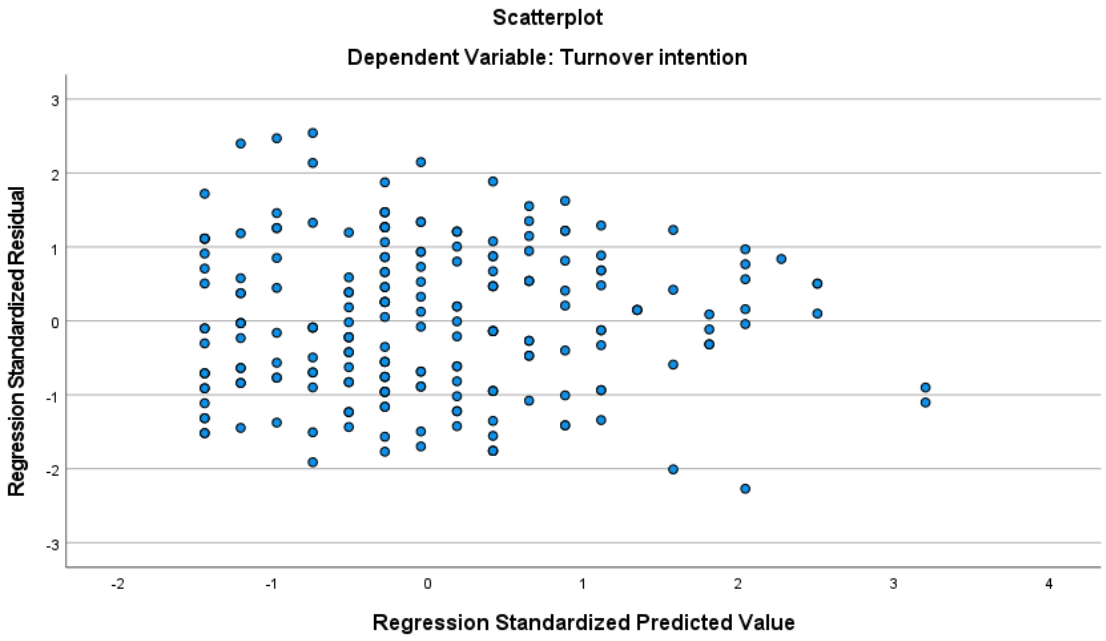
**Figure 37: H4A p-plot**




*2. Homoscedasticity*

The scatterplot in Figure 38 displays a fairly even spread of data points satisfying the assumption for homogeneity of variance in the collected data.

**Figure 38: H4A homoscedasticity**




*3. Multicollinearity*

The VIF values for the regression were analysed to confirm the absence of multicollinearity. To ensure the independent variable's variability is not explained

by other independent variables, the VIF produced needs to be below 10. The produced VIF is below 10, indicating that this assumption was met. Table 32 shows the coefficients outcomes for the analysed variables.

**Table 32: Coefficients summary table for H4A regression**

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 4.948 | .250 | | 19.775 | <,001 | | |
| | Affective balance | -.540 | .065 | -.492 | -8.315 | <,001 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

With all assumptions satisfied, the study tested hypothesis H4A with the following outcome:

**Null Hypothesis ($H4A_0$):** Work-nonwork affective balance is not a significant variable in the prediction of turnover intention.

**Alternate Hypothesis ($H4A_{Alt}$):** Work-nonwork affective balance is negatively associated with turnover intention.

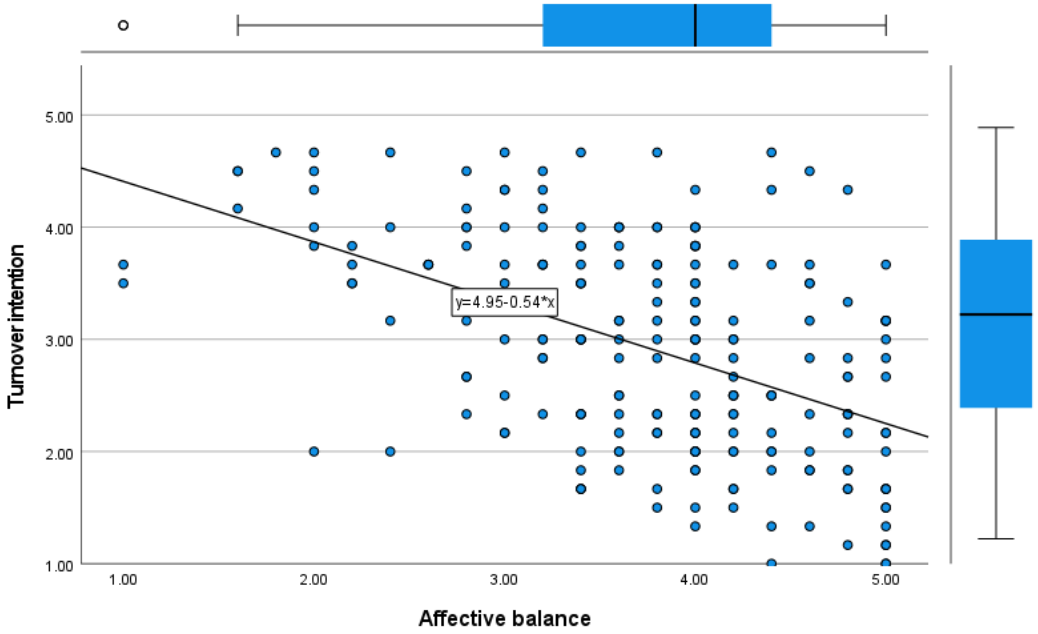
The dependent variable turnover intention was regressed against the independent variable affective balance to test hypothesis H4A. The correlation between dependent and independent variables (R = 0.492) was sufficient to warrant further analysis. Moreover, the $R^2$ = 0.242 depicts that the model explains 24.2% of the variance in turnover intention. This value is an adequate correlation variance amount for a study of constructs in the field of psychology. Affective balance significantly correlated with turnover intention, $F(1, 216) = 69.147$, $p < 0.001$. The correlation is negative (B = -0.540) such that for every 1-unit increase in general balance, turnover intention decreased by 0.540. The strength of an association is regarded as moderate if R is between 0.40 and 0.59. Therefore, these results confirm a moderate negative association between affective balance and turnover intention. Table 33 summarises the findings, and Figure 39 illustrates the relationship between the variables.

**Table 33: H4A regression output summary**

| Hypothesis | Regression weights | Beta coefficient | $R^2$ | F | p-value | Hypothesis supported |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **H1A** | Affective balance → turnover intention | -0.540 | 0.242 | 69.147 | <0.001 | Yes |

**Figure 39: H4A scatterplot of the interaction of variables**




Due to these results, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis ($H4A_0$) in favour of the alternate ($H4A_{Alt}$). Therefore the analysis suggests that work-nonwork affective balance has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention.

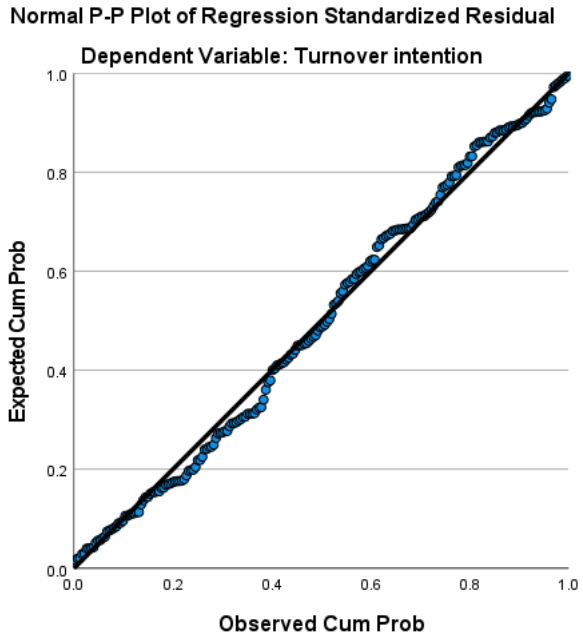
**5.8.4.2 H4B moderation of the relationship by employment equity practices influence**. The independent and moderator variables were mean-centred to improve the ease of interpreting the moderated multiple regression analysis results.

The following assumptions were tested:

1. *Normality*

   Assessment of the standardised residuals plotted as points on a p-plot produced for the regression of the variables lie in a relatively straight line. Figure 40 depicts this outcome indicating no severe deviations from normality.

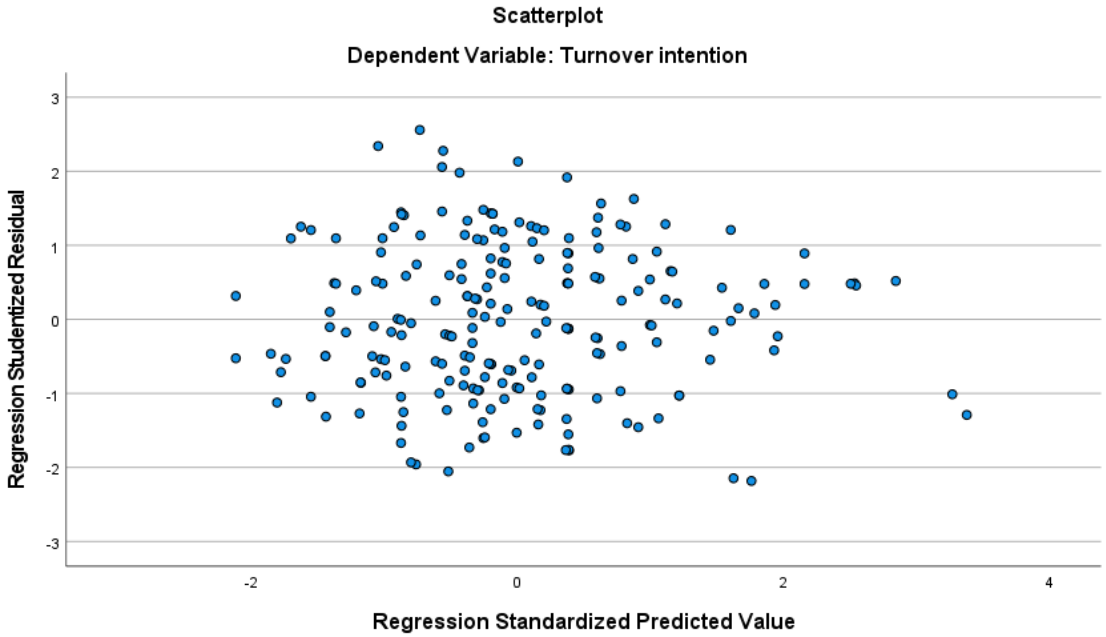
**Figure 40: H4B p-plot**




2. *Homoscedasticity*

The scatterplot in Figure 41 displays a fairly even spread of data points satisfying the assumption for homogeneity of variance in the collected data.

**Figure 41: H4B homoscedasticity**




3. *Multicollinearity*

The VIF values for the regression were analysed to confirm the absence of multicollinearity. To ensure the independent variables' variability is not explained by other independent variables, the VIF produced needs to be below 10. The produced VIF is below 10, indicating that this assumption was met. Table 34 shows the coefficients outcomes for the analysed variables.

**Table 34: Coefficients summary table for H4B regression**

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 2.909 | .056 | | 51.861 | <,001 | | |
| | Centred Affective balance | -.536 | .066 | -.489 | -8.143 | <,001 | .968 | 1.033 |
| | Centred EE practices influence | .039 | .058 | .041 | .671 | .503 | .954 | 1.048 |
| | Centred Interaction: Affective balance * EEPI | .098 | .066 | .090 | 1.490 | .138 | .961 | 1.040 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

With all assumptions satisfied, the study tested hypothesis H4B with the following outcome:

**Null Hypothesis ($H4B_0$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between work-nonwork affective balance and turnover intention.

**Alternate Hypothesis ($H4B_{Alt}$):** Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between work-nonwork affective balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit.

The dependent variable, turnover intention, was regressed against the independent variables, affective balance and employment equity practices influence (EEPI), to test hypothesis H4B. The correlation between dependent and independent variables ($R = 0.503$) indicates only a 1.1% increase in variance explained by the inclusion of the moderator (compared to values in 5.8.4.1). Moreover, the $R^2 = 0.253$ depicts that the model explains 25.3% of the variance in turnover intention. However, when the significance of the moderating effect was analysed, the results revealed no significant moderating impact of EEPI on the relationship between affective balance and turnover intention ($b = 0.098$, $t = 1.490$, $p = 0.138$). Due to the magnitude of

significance not being attained, the researcher did not execute further testing of the categorical variable, indicating those who did or did not benefit from employment equity practices. Table 35 shows the summary of the findings.

**Table 35: H4B regression output summary**

| Hypothesis | Regression weights | Beta coefficient | Standard error | t-value | p-value | Hypothesis supported |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **H4B** | Affective balance → turnover intention | -0.536 | 0.066 | -8.143 | <0.001 | Yes |
| **H4B** | EEPI → turnover intention | 0.039 | 0.058 | 0.671 | 0.503 | No |
| **H4B** | INV*EEPI → turnover intention | -0.098 | 0.066 | 1.490 | 0.138 | No |

Due to these results, the researcher did not reject the null hypothesis $H4B_0$. Therefore the analysis suggests that perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence do not moderate the relationship between work-nonwork affective balance and turnover intention.

### 5.9 Summary of results

The findings of the research are summarised in Table 36.

**Table 36: Hypothesis testing results summary**

| Hypothesis | Supported |
|---|---|
| H1A: General work-nonwork balance is negatively associated with turnover intention | Yes |
| H1B: Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between general work- | No |

| | |
|---|---|
| nonwork balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit. | |
| H2A: Work-nonwork involvement balance is negatively associated with turnover intention. | Yes |
| H2B: Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between work-nonwork involvement balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit. | No |
| H3A: Work-nonwork effectiveness balance is negatively associated with turnover intention. | Yes |
| H3B: Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between work-nonwork effectiveness balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit. | No |
| H4A: Work-nonwork affective balance is negatively associated with turnover intention. | Yes |
| Perceptions of the impact of employment equity practices' influence moderate the relationship between work-nonwork affective balance and turnover intention, such that the negative relationship is stronger for those who do not benefit from employment equity regulation than for those who do benefit. | No |

## Chapter 6: Discussion of results

### 6.1 Introduction

The discussion in this chapter answers the research questions identified in the review of the topic (Chapter 1) and operationalised through the research hypotheses (Chapter 3) by interpreting the research results (Chapter 5), taking into consideration the identified literature and theory (Chapter 2).

After the career shock event of the impact of COVID-19 pandemic conditions and changes to modes of work, voluntary turnover among knowledge workers has increased in South Africa. Work-life balance concerns have been cited as a significant driver of this trend. This research undertook to understand the relationship between work-life balance and knowledge workers' voluntary departure from employment. Furthermore, in the context of the South African employment market, and with previous studies indicating that employment equity practices influence the psychological contract between employees and employers, the study further investigated the role these practices play in current employee turnover.

A sample of 218 knowledge workers employed in South Africa participated in answering the questionnaire structured to measure the constructs within the study quantitatively. The majority of participants are experienced, 83.5% (182), working in management or as specialists and have not changed positions due to the career shock of COVID-19, as only 11.5% (25) of the participants have a job tenure under one year. The main body of the sample, 78% (170), experienced work-from-home conditions under COVID-19; surprisingly, 52% (113) of respondents now either fully work-from-home or only come to the office when required. Of this experienced long-tenured sample, 56.9% (124) participants have a work-nonwork general balance score above the average of 3.6, indicating they perceive their work and other life roles to be balanced. For participants who perceived themselves as less balanced, the concept of global balance (the harmony between and integration of roles) scored lowest.

Applying suggestions by Casper et al. (2018) that work-nonwork balance is both a unidimensional and multidimensional construct, each component was examined separately by hypotheses in the study. Furthermore, each hypothesis first established the nature of the relationship between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention (to understand differentiation in effect by various components) before investigating the influence of the environmental impact of employment equity regulation.

## 6.2 Hypothesis one

This hypothesis tested whether the perception of general work-nonwork balance is significantly associated with turnover intention and whether employment equity practices' influence moderates this relationship. Balance at this global level refers to the inclusive balance integration and harmony of the participant's work and nonwork roles.

### *6.2.1 Discussion*

Inferential statistic analysis on the first part of this hypothesis showed a significant negative relationship between general balance and turnover intention. For every unit increase in general balance, turnover intention decreased by 0.608. This observed relationship is consistent with results found by Fayyazi and Aslani (2015), Oosthuizen et al. (2016), Jaharuddin & Zainol (2019), and Wayne et al. (2021).

When employment equity practices' influence was added to the model to understand the effect on the relationship between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention, this factor was found not to have a significant moderating impact. This result was confirmed for the univariate and all multivariate components of work-nonwork balance. This finding contradicts expectations of the results; previously, Maharaj et al. (2008) and Wöcke and Sutherland (2008) found that employment equity practices impact psychological contracts with employers and turnover intentions. The research assumed that this impact on psychological contract and turnover intention would transfer to the concept of work-nonwork balance.

The outcome of testing for the first hypothesis showed that regardless of the influence of employment equity practices, there is still a significant negative relationship between general work-nonwork balance and turnover intentions. Of importance when considering turnover intention, when assessing empirical studies of related factors by Alkahtani (2015), three of the eight identified factors that reduce turnover intention are employees' organisational commitment, perceived organisational support, and organisational climate. Significantly, these factors correlate to the outcome achieved by work-nonwork balance. Consequently, work-nonwork balance significantly affects organisational citizenship behaviour (Pradhan et al., 2016), and these behaviours reduce turnover intention (Jaharuddin & Zainol, 2019).

## 6.3 Hypothesis two

This hypothesis tested whether the perception of work-nonwork involvement balance is significantly associated with turnover intention and whether employment equity practices' influence moderates this relationship. Involvement balance refers to the perception that the participant's involvement in work and nonwork roles are appropriate for the value attached to the roles.

### *6.3.1 Discussion*

Linear regression on the first part of this hypothesis showed a significant negative relationship between involvement balance and turnover intention. For every unit increase in involvement balance, turnover intention decreased by 0.387. This observed relationship is consistent with results by Wayne et al. (2021), and using an older, comparable involvement balance construct, the outcome was supported by Kaushalya and Perera (2018). Results from moderator testing are discussed in 6.2.1.

The outcome of testing for the second hypothesis showed that regardless of the influence of employment equity practices, there is still a significant negative relationship between work-nonwork involvement balance and turnover intentions. However, the impact measured for the involvement sub-construct is less than for the overall general balance.

## 6.4 Hypothesis three

This hypothesis tested whether the perception of work-nonwork effectiveness balance is significantly associated with turnover intention and whether employment equity practices' influence moderates this relationship. Effectiveness balance refers to the perception that the participant's effectiveness in work and nonwork roles are appropriate for the value attached to the roles.

### *6.4.1 Discussion*

Using inferential statistic analysis, the first part of this hypothesis showed a significant negative relationship between effectiveness balance and turnover intention. For every unit increase in effectiveness balance, turnover intention decreased by 0.484. This observed relationship is consistent with what Wayne et al. (2021) found. Outcomes from moderator testing are discussed in 6.2.1.

The outcome of testing for the third hypothesis showed that regardless of the influence of employment equity practices, there is still a significant negative relationship between work-nonwork effectiveness balance and turnover intentions. However, the impact measured for the effectiveness sub-construct is slightly less than for the overall general balance.

## 6.5 Hypothesis four

This hypothesis tested whether the perception of work-nonwork affective balance is significantly associated with turnover intention and whether employment equity practices' influence moderates this relationship. Affective balance refers to the perception that the participant experiences sufficiently pleasant emotions in work and nonwork roles aligned to the value attached to the roles.

### *6.5.1 Discussion*

Linear regression on the first part of this hypothesis showed a significant negative relationship between affective balance and turnover intention. For every unit increase in affective balance, turnover intention decreased by 0.492. This observed

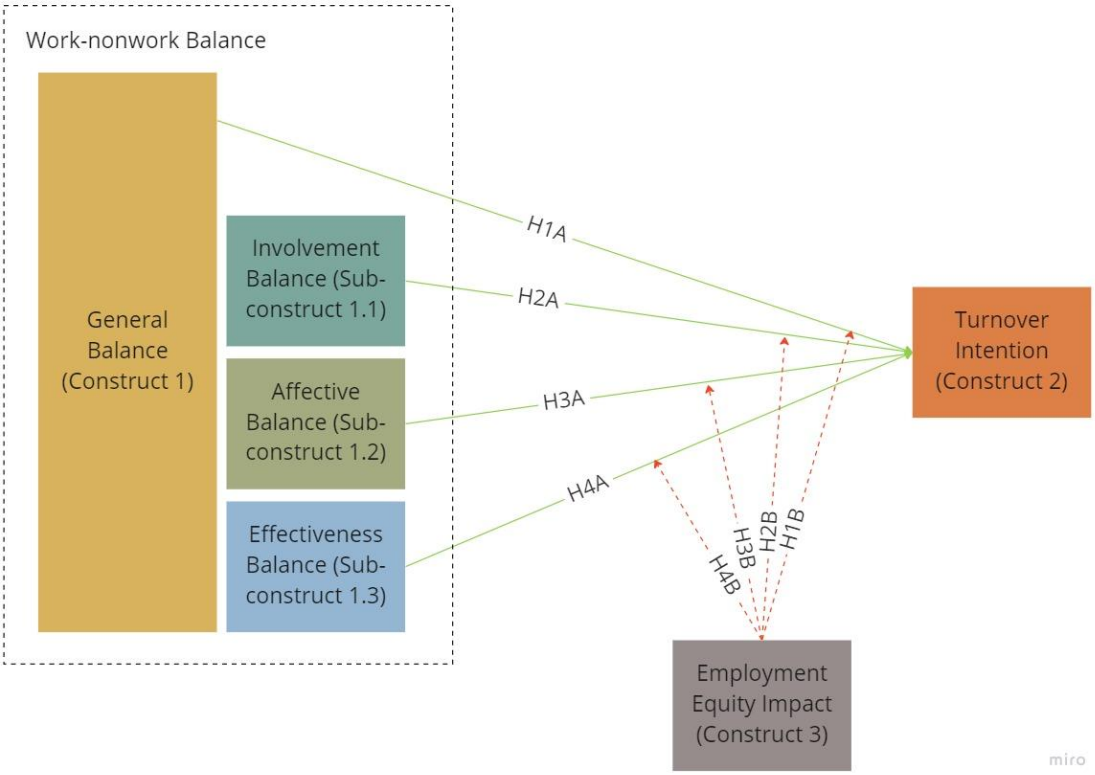
relationship is consistent with what Wayne et al. (2021) found. Outcomes from moderator testing are discussed in 6.2.1.

The outcome of testing for the fourth hypothesis showed that regardless of the influence of employment equity practices, there is still a significant negative relationship between work-nonwork affective balance and turnover intentions. However, the impact measured for the affective sub-construct is slightly less than for the overall general balance.

## 6.6 Conclusion

The research results support the notion that work-nonwork balance is both a univariate construct and contains multivariate sub-constructs; consequently, general balance measured a higher degree of negative impact on turnover intention than any of its constituent components. The outcome of this chapter is that the literature supported the negative relationship between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention; however, the research identified no moderation effect. Figure 42 shows a model of the results indicating the supported associations in solid green and not supported in red dashed lines.

**Figure 42: Supported and not supported model of hypotheses**


Work-nonwork Balance
General Balance (Construct 1)
Involvement Balance (Sub-construct 1.1)
Affective Balance (Sub-construct 1.2)
Effectiveness Balance (Sub-construct 1.3)
H1A
H2A
H3A
H4A
H4B
H3B
H2B
H1B
Turnover Intention (Construct 2)
Employment Equity Impact (Construct 3)
miro

## Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations

This research aimed to confirm earlier studies identifying a negative association between work-life balance and turnover intention by using a recently devised work-nonwork measurement instrument to gain a more nuanced understanding of this relationship. In addition, the research aimed to identify the significance of the relationship in light of the recent COVID-19 pandemic and attempt to identify the environmental impact of employment equity practices in South Africa.

The research methodology's first part of the research objective was obtained by gaining significant insights into voluntary turnover after a career shock event, and empirical evidence of the structure of the work-nonwork balance construct. The findings contribute to the fields of human resource management and managerial psychology. In the second part of the research objective, though the moderating effect of employment equity practices' influence was not confirmed in the study, this finding guides future research.

As a conclusion to this study, this chapter presents the principal findings of the research. Moreover, based on the insights gained from the principal findings, the contribution to the theoretical body of knowledge and implications for business stakeholders are discussed. Finally, the chapter presents limitations related to this study and proposes suggestions for future research.

### 7.1 Principal conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn from the four hypotheses studied:

#### *7.1.1 Hypothesis one principal finding*

The study confirmed a significant relationship between general balance and turnover intention. However, no significant correlation was found between employment equity practices' influence and turnover intention or from the interaction between employment equity practices' influence and general balance on turnover intention.

Therefore, despite employment equity practices' influence, there was still a significant negative relationship between general balance and turnover intention.

### *7.1.2 Hypothesis two principal finding*

The study confirmed a significant relationship between involvement balance and turnover intention. However, no significant correlation was found between employment equity practices' influence and turnover intention or the interaction between employment equity practices' influence and involvement balance on turnover intention. Therefore, despite employment equity practices' influence, there was still a significant negative relationship between involvement balance and turnover intention.

### *7.1.3 Hypothesis three principal finding*

The study confirmed a significant relationship between effectiveness balance and turnover intention. However, no significant correlation was found between employment equity practices' influence and turnover intention or the interaction between employment equity practices' influence and effectiveness balance on turnover intention. Therefore, despite employment equity practices' influence, there was still a significant negative relationship between effectiveness balance and turnover intention.

### *7.1.4 Hypothesis four principle finding*

The study confirmed a significant relationship between affective balance and turnover intention. However, no significant correlation was found between employment equity practices' influence and turnover intention or the interaction between employment equity practices' influence and affective balance on turnover intention. Therefore, despite employment equity practices' influence, there was still a significant negative relationship between affective balance and turnover intention.

## 7.2 Implications for theory

The findings of this study have added to the growing body of literature related to work-nonwork balance and turnover intention. In particular, the findings are valuable as the empirical evidence illuminates the association between the complex structure of work-nonwork balance and turnover intention (Casper et al., 2018; Wayne et al., 2021). Therefore, the implication is that the research confirms the emergent model of work-nonwork balance and provides a validated starting point for future research.

This research showed that work-nonwork balance reduces employee turnover intention with the correct utilisation of resources. However, what was unknown was the differentiated effect of the sub-constructs within work-nonwork—the study documents this effect which is of assistance to prospective researchers. What was also unknown is how an environmental factor such as local labour regulations plays a role in work-nonwork balance's interaction with turnover intention. Identifying that this environmental factor does not impact the relationship directly is valuable for establishing future models.

## 7.3 Implications for management

The research concludes that the reported association between work-life balance and the Great Resignation as experienced among knowledge workers in South Africa is valid. While knowledge workers benefit from this research's findings, there are also important implications for management. Further, sufficient evidence supports the claim that a work environment or arrangement impacts an employee's ability to achieve a work-nonwork balance, specifically as nonwork responsibilities increase for employees (Galea et al., 2014; Hayman, 2009; Kossek & Lautsch, 2018). When employees experience a work-nonwork imbalance, this contributes significantly to the employee's decision to change employer. Due to the shortage of knowledge workers in South Africa and increased competition for these employees (BusinessTech, 2022; Institute of People Management, 2022; Plaatjies & Mitrovic, 2014), businesses have an opportunity to assess the risk posed by the loss of critical skills by not addressing the concern of work-nonwork balance with employees. Understanding this risk will motivate programs that will mitigate the costs incurred for losing critical skills.

## 7.4 Limitations of the research

The study gathered the sample of knowledge workers using self-selection sampling. Even though the process collected a significant research sample of 218 respondents, this form of respondent selection can lead to a sample which is not representative of the target population. This bias is partially mitigated through the statistical processes applied. As research suggests that generations Y and Z are more severely impacted by the effects of work-nonwork balance (Oosthuizen et al., 2016; Pregnolato et al., 2017), gathering a younger sample would have possibly measured the strength of the relationship better (58% (127) of the respondents in the study were older than 40).

Including a longitudinal component in the study would have allowed a measurement to ascertain changes in work-nonwork balance perceptions before and after the COVID-19 pandemic. Additionally, even though the scales used for measuring the constructs in the research have been adopted successfully in other studies, future research may be improved by improved scales. Finally, the instruments applied for turnover intention and the influence of employment equity practices offer areas for further refinement.

## 7.5 Suggestions for future research

Evidence suggests that job satisfaction strongly mediates between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention (Fayyazi & Aslani, 2015). Testing of moderating factors in this model may be more successful with the inclusion of this mediator. Earlier studies have found that environmental factors moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Alniaçik et al., 2013; Pratama et al., 2022). The influence of employment equity practices may form a significant moderator in this case and is worth investigating. Identifying other significant moderators in the relationship between work-nonwork balance and turnover intention will enrich the understanding of this phenomenon.

Continuing the study of how new modes of work impact work-nonwork balance (Howe & Menges, 2022; Rudnicka et al., 2020; Waizenegger et al., 2020) will produce a greater understanding of how organisations should approach this change to achieve the most beneficial outcome for the employees they wish to retain.

### 7.6 Concluding remarks

Studies have demonstrated an association between work-life balance and employees' voluntary termination of employment with an organisation. This study was an opportunity to measure this association using the enhanced work-nonwork model combined with assessing this impact after the effects of change brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic. The effects of work-nonwork balance on employee turnover are significant, leading to the recommendation to include this non-financial factor in the design of rewards for employees, specifically for knowledge workers, which has become crucial to retaining these employees globally and in South Africa. This field is a rich area for further study, notably when including the effects of the local employment environment.

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**Appendix A: Consistency Matrix**

| Propositions/Questions/Hypotheses | Literature Review | Data Collection Tool | Analysis |
|---|---|---|---|
| Research Question 1A:<br>*Is there a relationship between perceived general work-nonwork balance and an employee leaving an organisation?*<br><br>Research Question 1B:<br>*Do perceptions of the impact of employment equity regulation moderate this relationship?* | (Casper et al., 2018)<br>(Wayne et al., 2017)<br>(Rashmi & Kataria, 2022)<br>(Hall et al., 2013)<br>(Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010)<br>(Bothma & Roodt, 2013)<br><br>(Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008)<br>(Maharaj et al., 2008)<br>(Wöcke & Heymann, 2012)<br>(Snyman et al., 2019) | Questions 2.1-2.5 in the questionnaire<br>measured against<br>questions 3.1-3.6 in the questionnaire<br><br>Responses from questions 4.1-4.9 in the questionnaire | Descriptive statistics<br>Regression analysis |
| Research Question 2A:<br>*Is there a relationship between perceived work-nonwork involvement balance and an employee leaving an organisation?*<br><br>Research Question 2B: | (Casper et al., 2018)<br>(Wayne et al., 2017)<br>(Rashmi & Kataria, 2022)<br>(Hall et al., 2013)<br>(Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010)<br>(Bothma & Roodt, 2013)<br><br>(Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008) | Questions 2.6-2.10 in the questionnaire<br>measured against<br>questions 3.1-3.6 in the questionnaire | Descriptive statistics<br>Regression analysis |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Do perceptions of the impact of employment equity regulation moderate this relationship?* | (Maharaj et al., 2008)<br>(Wöcke & Heymann, 2012)<br>(Snyman et al., 2019) | Responses from questions 4.1-4.9 in the questionnaire | |
| Research Question 3A:<br>*Is there a relationship between perceived work-nonwork affective balance and an employee leaving an organisation?*<br><br>Research Question 3B:<br>*Do perceptions of the impact of employment equity regulation moderate this relationship?* | (Casper et al., 2018)<br>(Wayne et al., 2017)<br>(Rashmi & Kataria, 2022)<br>(Hall et al., 2013)<br>(Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010)<br>(Bothma & Roodt, 2013)<br><br>(Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008)<br>(Maharaj et al., 2008)<br>(Wöcke & Heymann, 2012)<br>(Snyman et al., 2019) | Questions 2.16-2.20 in the questionnaire<br>measured against<br>questions 3.1-3.6 in the questionnaire<br><br>Responses from questions 4.1-4.9 in the questionnaire | Descriptive statistics<br>Regression analysis |
| Research Question 4A:<br>*Is there a relationship between perceived work-nonwork effective balance and an employee leaving an organisation?*<br><br>Research Question 4B: | (Casper et al., 2018)<br>(Wayne et al., 2017)<br>(Rashmi & Kataria, 2022)<br>(Hall et al., 2013)<br>(Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010)<br>(Bothma & Roodt, 2013)<br><br>(Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008) | Questions 2.11-2.15 in the questionnaire<br>measured against<br>questions 3.1-3.6 in the questionnaire | Descriptive statistics<br>Regression analysis |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Do perceptions of the impact of employment equity regulation moderate this relationship?* | (Maharaj et al., 2008)<br>(Wöcke & Heymann, 2012)<br>(Snyman et al., 2019) | Responses from questions 4.1-4.9 in the questionnaire | |

**Appendix B: Questionnaire**

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Section 1 – Your work situation | | | | | | |
| This section asks about what your work situation is like after the COVID-19 pandemic | | | | | | |
| Q1.1 | How are you currently employed? | Full-time | Part-time | Contract | Self-employed | Unemployed |
| Q1.2 | How would you describe most of the work you do? | Knowledge Work | Manual Work | Skilled Work | | |
| Q1.3 | How often do you work in the office of your organisation? | Each work day | Almost all of the week | I come in when I am needed | I work entirely from home | |
| Q1.4 | During COVID-19 lockdown conditions, how did you manage to work? | I worked at home | Mostly at home with some work in the office | Mostly at the office with some work from home | My work required me to be at the office | I was temporarily not working |
| Section 2 – Your experience of work-nonwork balance | | | | | | |
| In this study, we will refer to work/life balance as work-nonwork balance as this terminology helps ensure we do not think of our work roles as separate from the rest of life. Nonwork describes roles outside work, such as being a parent, partner, friend, or community member. | | | | | | |
| | | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
| | **Global Balance** | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q2.1 | There is harmony in how I blend my work and nonwork roles. | | | | | |
| Q2.2 | Overall, my work and nonwork roles are integrated. | | | | | |
| Q2.3 | My work and nonwork roles are combined in ways that are harmonious. | | | | | |
| Q2.4 | Overall, my work and nonwork roles fit together. | | | | | |
| Q2.5 | All in all, my work and nonwork roles are in harmony | | | | | |
| | **Involvement Balance** | | | | | |
| Q2.6 | I am able to devote enough attention to important work and nonwork activities. | | | | | |
| Q2.7 | I am able to be adequately involved in the work and nonwork roles that matter most to me. | | | | | |
| Q2.8 | The time I spend in work and activities outside of work reflects my life priorities. | | | | | |
| Q2.9 | I spend enough time on important work and nonwork activities. | | | | | |
| Q2.10 | Based on what matters most to me, I devote the right amount of my time to work and nonwork roles. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Balance effectiveness** | | | | | |
| Q2.11 | I perform well in the life roles that I really value. | | | | | |
| Q2.12 | I do well in roles that are my biggest priorities. | | | | | |
| Q2.13 | I am able to effectively handle important work and nonwork responsibilities. | | | | | |
| Q2.14 | I am successful in work and nonwork roles that matter to me. | | | | | |
| Q2.15 | I perform well in my most highly valued work and nonwork roles. | | | | | |
| | **Affective Balance** | | | | | |
| Q2.16 | I experience a lot of positive emotions in my most highly valued work and nonwork roles. | | | | | |
| Q2.17 | I am happy in the work and nonwork roles that are most important to me. | | | | | |
| Q2.18 | I am happy with the work and nonwork aspects of my life that are important to me. | | | | | |
| Q2.19 | I feel satisfied in the work and nonwork roles that are most important to me. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q2.20 | I am content with how things are going in the life roles that are my top priorities. | | | | | |
| Section 3 – Your experience of your current job | | | | | | |
| This section asks questions about how you feel about your current job. | | | | | | |
| | | Never | Rarely | Sometimes | Very Often | Always |
| Q3.1 | How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs? | | | | | |
| Q3.2 | How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals? | | | | | |
| Q3.3 | How often have you considered leaving your job? | | | | | |
| Q3.4 | How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you? | | | | | |
| Q3.5 | To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs? | | | | | |
| Q3.6 | How often do you look forward to another day at work? | | | | | |
| Section 4 – Impact of employment equity regulation | | | | | | |

| Indicate how employment equity practices such as affirmative action in your organisation have influenced the following areas. Please indicate whether this influence has been positive or negative: | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | A fair deal | To a great extent |
| Q4.1 | Your future earning potential (positive/negative) | | | | | |
| Q4.2 | Your current reward and remuneration (positive/negative) | | | | | |
| Q4.3 | Your current training and development opportunities (positive/negative) | | | | | |
| Q4.4 | Recognition and reward for your performance (positive/negative) | | | | | |
| Q4.5 | Your assignment to challenging work in line with your skill and ability (positive/negative) | | | | | |
| Q4.6 | Your job satisfaction (positive/negative) | | | | | |
| Q4.7 | Your working relationship with colleagues (positive/negative) | | | | | |
| Q4.8 | The company's organisational culture (positive/negative) | | | | | |
| Q4.9 | The honesty of your senior management (positive/negative) | | | | | |

| Section 5 – About you and your current employment | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| This section asks some demographical questions. | | | | | | |
| Q5.1 | Age | 20-24 | 25-29 | 30-34 | 35-39 | 40-49 |
| | | 50+ | | | | |
| Q5.2 | Sex | Male | Female | Prefer not to say | Other (entry field) | |
| Q5.3 | Race | Asian | Black | Coloured | Indian | White |
| | | Prefer not to say | Other (entry field) | | | |
| Q5.4 | Job Tenure (years with current employer) | 0-1 | >1<5 | >5<10 | >10<15 | 15+ |
| Q5.5 | Level of Education | Grade 12 or less | Post-school certificate or diploma | National Diploma or National Higher Diploma | Bachelor's degree or equivalent | Post Graduate Degree |
| Q5.6 | Province | Free State | Gauteng | KwaZulu-Natal | Western Cape | Other (entry field) |
| Q5.7 | Marital status | Single | Married or cohabiting | Divorced or separated | Widowed | |
| Q5.8 | Number of dependents under the age of 18 | None | 1 | 2 | 3 | More than 3 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q5.9 | Annual Salary | R250 000 and below | R250 001 – R500 000 | R500 001 – R750 000 | R750 001 – R1 200 000 | R1 200 001 and above |
| Q5.10 | Job Type | Management | Operational | Specialist | Administrative | Other (entry field) |
| Q5.11 | Industry | Accommodation and Food Services | Arts, Entertainment & Recreation | Construction | Education | Energy & Utilities |
| | | Engineering & Science | Finance & Insurance | Government | Healthcare | Manufacturing |
| | | Media | Real Estate & Rental/Leasing | Retail & Customer Service | Technology | Transportation & Warehousing |
| | | Other (entry field) | | | | |
| Q5.12 | How did you hear about this questionnaire | WhatsApp | LinkedIn | Facebook | Other (entry field) | |

**Appendix C: Participant biographical and demographic detail**

**Table 37: Biographical profile of the participants ($n$=218)**

| Variable | Category | Frequency ($f$) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Age (years)** | 20-24 | 3 | 1.4 |
| | 25-29 | 14 | 6.4 |
| | 30-34 | 29 | 13.3 |
| | 35-39 | 45 | 20.6 |
| | 40-49 | 100 | 45.9 |
| | 50+ | 27 | 12.4 |
| **Sex** | Female | 85 | 39.0 |
| | Male | 131 | 60.1 |
| | Prefer not to say | 2 | 0.9 |
| **Race** | Asian | 0 | 0 |
| | Black | 61 | 28.0 |
| | Coloured | 7 | 3.2 |
| | Indian | 16 | 7.3 |
| | White | 129 | 59.2 |
| | Prefer not to say | 5 | 2.3 |
| **Level of Education** | Grade 12 or less | 10 | 4.6 |
| | Post-school certificate or diploma | 25 | 11.5 |
| | National Diploma or National Higher Diploma | 34 | 15.6 |
| | Bachelor's degree or equivalent | 53 | 24.3 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Postgraduate degree | 96 | 44.0 |
| **Province** | Free State | 6 | 2.8 |
| | Gauteng | 175 | 80.3 |
| | KwaZulu-Natal | 8 | 3.7 |
| | Limpopo | 1 | 0.5 |
| | Mpumalanga | 2 | 0.9 |
| | North West | 3 | 1.4 |
| | Western Cape | 23 | 10.6 |
| **Marital status** | Divorced or separated | 14 | 6.4 |
| | Married or cohabiting | 123 | 56.4 |
| | Single | 78 | 35.8 |
| | Widowed | 3 | 1.4 |
| **Number of children** | None | 135 | 61.9 |
| | 1 | 32 | 14.7 |
| | 2 | 30 | 13.8 |
| | 3 | 13 | 6.0 |
| | More than 3 | 8 | 3.7 |

**Table 38: Demographic profile of the participants ($n$=218)**

| Variable | Category | Frequency ($f$) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Predominant work type** | Knowledge work | 190 | 87.2 |
| | Skilled work | 28 | 12.8 |
| **Job type** | Administrative | 14 | 6.4 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Management | 87 | 39.9 |
| | Operational | 22 | 10.1 |
| | Specialist | 95 | 43.6 |
| **Employment type** | Contract | 7 | 3.2 |
| | Full-time | 185 | 84.9 |
| | Part-time | 1 | 0.5 |
| | Self-employed | 23 | 10.6 |
| | Unemployed | 2 | 0.9 |
| **Job tenure** | 0-1 | 25 | 11.5 |
| | more than 1 but less than 5 | 61 | 28.0 |
| | more than 10 but less than 15 | 35 | 16.1 |
| | more than 5 but less than 10 | 64 | 29.4 |
| | 15 or more | 33 | 15.1 |
| **Industry** | Accommodation and Food Services | 2 | 0.9 |
| | Arts, Entertainment & Recreation | 5 | 2.3 |
| | Aviation | 1 | 0.5 |
| | Construction | 2 | 0.9 |
| | Education | 10 | 4.6 |
| | Energy and Utilities | 5 | 2.3 |
| | Engineering and Science | 13 | 6.0 |
| | Finance and Insurance | 53 | 24.3 |
| | Healthcare | 16 | 7.3 |
| | Manufacturing | 12 | 5.5 |
| | Media | 11 | 5.0 |
| | Real Estate & Rental/Leasing | 3 | 1.4 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Retail and Customer Service | 13 | 6.0 |
| | Technology | 43 | 19.7 |
| | Transportation & Warehousing | 6 | 2.8 |
| | Professional Services | 17 | 7.8 |
| | Government or Non-profit | 6 | 2.8 |
| **Annual salary** | R250 000 and below | 15 | 6.9 |
| | R250 001 - R500 000 | 53 | 24.3 |
| | R500 001 - R750 000 | 38 | 17.4 |
| | R750 001 - R1 200 000 | 60 | 27.5 |
| | R1200 001 and above | 52 | 23.9 |
| **Working condition under COVID-19 lockdown** | I was temporarily not working | 14 | 6.4 |
| | I worked at home | 139 | 63.8 |
| | Mostly at home with some work in the office | 31 | 14.2 |
| | Mostly at the office with some work from home | 12 | 5.5 |
| | My work required me to be at the office | 22 | 10.1 |
| **Office requirement (need for co-location)** | Each work day | 59 | 27.1 |
| | Almost all of the week | 46 | 21.1 |
| | I come in when I am needed | 61 | 28.0 |
| | I work entirely from home | 52 | 23.9 |

## Appendix D: Construct reliability statistical results detail

### D.1 Cronbach's alpha for General balance (Construct 1) – SPSS results

**Table 39: General balance (Construct 1) reliability statistics**

**Reliability Statistics**

| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items | N of Items |
|---|---|---|
| .947 | .947 | 20 |

**Table 40: General balance (Construct 1) item-total statistics**

**Item-Total Statistics**

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q2.1 | 68.94 | 202.264 | .639 | .590 | .945 |
| Q2.2 | 69.14 | 209.109 | .434 | .378 | .948 |
| Q2.3 | 69.30 | 201.759 | .654 | .731 | .944 |
| Q2.4 | 69.11 | 201.837 | .656 | .701 | .944 |
| Q2.5 | 69.23 | 198.705 | .762 | .764 | .943 |
| Q2.6 | 68.88 | 197.847 | .769 | .742 | .942 |
| Q2.7 | 68.77 | 198.346 | .795 | .735 | .942 |
| Q2.8 | 68.81 | 202.553 | .623 | .484 | .945 |
| Q2.9 | 68.87 | 198.816 | .769 | .708 | .943 |
| Q2.10 | 69.00 | 199.258 | .731 | .656 | .943 |
| Q2.11 | 68.51 | 206.011 | .627 | .567 | .945 |
| Q2.12 | 68.27 | 209.357 | .574 | .533 | .946 |
| Q2.13 | 68.49 | 205.578 | .679 | .602 | .944 |
| Q2.14 | 68.38 | 208.328 | .615 | .648 | .945 |
| Q2.15 | 68.32 | 208.098 | .632 | .651 | .945 |
| Q2.16 | 68.51 | 205.615 | .618 | .584 | .945 |
| Q2.17 | 68.50 | 205.145 | .678 | .703 | .944 |
| Q2.18 | 68.57 | 203.076 | .724 | .767 | .943 |
| Q2.19 | 68.67 | 203.725 | .687 | .673 | .944 |
| Q2.20 | 68.81 | 201.336 | .720 | .598 | .943 |

#### *D.1.1 Cronbach's alpha for Involvement balance (Sub-construct 1.1) – SPSS results*

**Table 41: Involvement balance (Sub-construct 1.1) reliability statistics**

**Reliability Statistics**

| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items | N of Items |
|---|---|---|
| .904 | .905 | 5 |

**Table 42: Involvement balance (Sub-construct 1.1) item-total statistics**

**Item-Total Statistics**

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q2.6 | 14.05 | 15.219 | .812 | .715 | .872 |
| Q2.7 | 13.94 | 15.692 | .802 | .693 | .875 |
| Q2.8 | 13.98 | 16.594 | .638 | .412 | .909 |
| Q2.9 | 14.04 | 15.602 | .801 | .653 | .874 |
| Q2.10 | 14.17 | 15.715 | .755 | .584 | .884 |

### *D.1.2 Cronbach's alpha for Effectiveness balance (Sub-construct 1.2) – SPSS results*

**Table 43: Effectiveness balance (Sub-construct 1.2) reliability statistics**

**Reliability Statistics**

| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items | N of Items |
|---|---|---|
| .870 | .871 | 5 |

**Table 44: Effectiveness balance (Sub-construct 1.2) item-total statistics**

**Item-Total Statistics**

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q2.11 | 16.04 | 8.694 | .676 | .498 | .848 |
| Q2.12 | 15.80 | 9.295 | .658 | .498 | .851 |
| Q2.13 | 16.02 | 8.884 | .685 | .504 | .845 |
| Q2.14 | 15.91 | 8.941 | .738 | .606 | .832 |
| Q2.15 | 15.85 | 9.060 | .721 | .609 | .836 |

### *D.1.3 Cronbach's alpha for Affective balance (Sub-construct 1.3) – SPSS results*

**Table 45: Affective balance (Sub-construct 1.3) reliability statistics**

**Reliability Statistics**

| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items | N of Items |
|---|---|---|
| .902 | .904 | 5 |

**Table 46: Affective balance (Sub-construct 1.3) item-total statistics**

**Item-Total Statistics**

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q2.16 | 14.94 | 12.484 | .699 | .522 | .893 |
| Q2.17 | 14.93 | 12.271 | .798 | .665 | .873 |
| Q2.18 | 14.99 | 11.733 | .849 | .740 | .860 |
| Q2.19 | 15.09 | 12.047 | .776 | .637 | .876 |
| Q2.20 | 15.23 | 12.251 | .673 | .466 | .900 |

### D.2 Cronbach's alpha for Turnover intention (Construct 2) – SPSS results

**Table 47: Turnover intention (Construct 2) reliability statistics**

| | Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items | N of items |
|---|---|---|---|
| Original question format | .351 | .192 | 6 |
| Q3.5 and Q3.6 inverted | .851 | .851 | 6 |

**Table 48: Turnover intention (Construct 2) original item-total statistics**

**Item-Total Statistics**

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q3.1 | 15.49 | 7.099 | .583 | .643 | -.066[a] |
| Q3.2 | 15.65 | 8.394 | .455 | .427 | .089 |
| Q3.3 | 15.80 | 7.498 | .557 | .650 | -.021[a] |
| Q3.4 | 16.05 | 7.823 | .420 | .357 | .083 |
| Q3.5 | 15.34 | 15.628 | -.430 | .373 | .588 |
| Q3.6 | 15.59 | 15.662 | -.426 | .370 | .597 |

a. The value is negative due to a negative average covariance among items. This violates reliability model assumptions. You may want to check item codings.

**Table 49: Turnover intention (Construct 2) corrected item-total statistics**

**Item-Total Statistics**

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q3.1 | 14.22 | 20.654 | .771 | .643 | .798 |
| Q3.2 | 14.39 | 23.316 | .603 | .427 | .832 |
| Q3.3 | 14.53 | 20.951 | .786 | .650 | .795 |
| Q3.4 | 14.78 | 22.514 | .557 | .357 | .844 |
| Q3.5 | 14.96 | 25.201 | .565 | .373 | .839 |
| Q3.6 | 14.71 | 24.962 | .555 | .370 | .840 |

## D.3 Cronbach's alpha for Employment equity practices influence (Construct 3) – SPSS results

**Table 50: Employment equity practices influence (Construct 3) reliability statistics**

**Reliability Statistics**

| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items | N of Items |
|---|---|---|
| .901 | .902 | 9 |

**Table 51: Employment equity practices influence (Construct 3) item-total statistics**

**Item-Total Statistics**

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q4.1A | 24.20 | 63.283 | .699 | .571 | .888 |
| Q4.2A | 24.45 | 63.861 | .661 | .562 | .890 |
| Q4.3A | 24.29 | 62.218 | .680 | .517 | .889 |
| Q4.4A | 24.57 | 60.614 | .783 | .686 | .881 |
| Q4.5A | 24.29 | 62.022 | .700 | .596 | .887 |
| Q4.6A | 24.33 | 62.325 | .755 | .585 | .884 |
| Q4.7A | 24.12 | 64.303 | .562 | .419 | .898 |
| Q4.8A | 24.30 | 65.161 | .560 | .445 | .898 |
| Q4.9A | 24.44 | 62.967 | .638 | .501 | .892 |

## Appendix E: Construct validity statistical results detail

### E.1 Pearson's correlation for General balance (Construct 1) – SPSS results

**Table 52: General balance (Construct 1) validity statistics**

**Correlations**

| | | Q2.1 | Q2.2 | Q2.3 | Q2.4 | Q2.5 | Q2.6 | Q2.7 | Q2.8 | Q2.9 | Q2.10 | Q2.11 | Q2.12 | Q2.13 | Q2.14 | Q2.15 | Q2.16 | Q2.17 | Q2.18 | Q2.19 | Q2.20 | GBTotal |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q2.1 | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .300** | .634** | .518** | .663** | .583** | .571** | .406** | .625** | .610** | .315** | .305** | .377** | .297** | .307** | .302** | .388** | .427** | .348** | .482** | .684** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.2 | Pearson Correlation | .300** | 1 | .465** | .558** | .421** | .232** | .336** | .290** | .300** | .254** | .251** | .175** | .293** | .251** | .267** | .279** | .367** | .324** | .271** | .257** | .495** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | .010 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.3 | Pearson Correlation | .634** | .465** | 1 | .756** | .784** | .493** | .547** | .434** | .529** | .507** | .340** | .296** | .347** | .235** | .243** | .297** | .419** | .390** | .402** | .482** | .697** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.4 | Pearson Correlation | .518** | .558** | .756** | 1 | .745** | .464** | .513** | .427** | .451** | .504** | .386** | .314** | .400** | .279** | .285** | .343** | .437** | .418** | .438** | .450** | .699** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.5 | Pearson Correlation | .663** | .421** | .784** | .745** | 1 | .612** | .634** | .449** | .627** | .581** | .446** | .357** | .487** | .353** | .409** | .431** | .482** | .502** | .482** | .570** | .793** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.6 | Pearson Correlation | .583** | .232** | .493** | .464** | .612** | 1 | .802** | .561** | .743** | .661** | .505** | .495** | .578** | .484** | .524** | .451** | .467** | .498** | .501** | .583** | .800** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.7 | Pearson Correlation | .571** | .336** | .547** | .513** | .634** | .802** | 1 | .554** | .692** | .686** | .557** | .470** | .572** | .491** | .549** | .480** | .501** | .528** | .496** | .575** | .822** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.8 | Pearson Correlation | .406** | .290** | .434** | .427** | .449** | .561** | .554** | 1 | .594** | .556** | .436** | .337** | .463** | .469** | .423** | .311** | .334** | .454** | .421** | .455** | .669** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.9 | Pearson Correlation | .625** | .300** | .529** | .451** | .627** | .743** | .692** | .594** | 1 | .703** | .476** | .420** | .559** | .494** | .492** | .398** | .449** | .544** | .508** | .599** | .799** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.10 | Pearson Correlation | .610** | .254** | .507** | .504** | .581** | .661** | .686** | .556** | .703** | 1 | .483** | .439** | .474** | .376** | .417** | .379** | .416** | .523** | .539** | .589** | .766** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.11 | Pearson Correlation | .315** | .251** | .340** | .386** | .446** | .505** | .557** | .436** | .476** | .483** | 1 | .621** | .488** | .576** | .560** | .450** | .367** | .423** | .448** | .449** | .666** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.12 | Pearson Correlation | .305** | .175** | .296** | .314** | .357** | .495** | .470** | .337** | .420** | .439** | .621** | 1 | .588** | .510** | .459** | .436** | .385** | .403** | .440** | .441** | .612** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | .010 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.13 | Pearson Correlation | .377** | .293** | .347** | .400** | .487** | .578** | .572** | .463** | .559** | .474** | .488** | .588** | 1 | .589** | .609** | .438** | .481** | .464** | .478** | .549** | .712** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.14 | Pearson Correlation | .297** | .251** | .235** | .279** | .353** | .484** | .491** | .469** | .494** | .376** | .576** | .510** | .589** | 1 | .739** | .521** | .487** | .514** | .428** | .400** | .651** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.15 | Pearson Correlation | .307** | .267** | .243** | .285** | .409** | .524** | .549** | .423** | .492** | .417** | .560** | .459** | .609** | .739** | 1 | .541** | .508** | .507** | .453** | .402** | .666** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.16 | Pearson Correlation | .302** | .279** | .297** | .343** | .431** | .451** | .480** | .311** | .398** | .379** | .450** | .436** | .438** | .521** | .541** | 1 | .685** | .671** | .579** | .511** | .659** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.17 | Pearson Correlation | .388** | .367** | .419** | .437** | .482** | .467** | .501** | .334** | .449** | .416** | .367** | .385** | .481** | .487** | .508** | .685** | 1 | .777** | .679** | .582** | .712** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.18 | Pearson Correlation | .427** | .324** | .390** | .418** | .502** | .498** | .528** | .454** | .544** | .523** | .423** | .403** | .464** | .514** | .507** | .671** | .777** | 1 | .773** | .643** | .755** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.19 | Pearson Correlation | .348** | .271** | .402** | .438** | .482** | .501** | .496** | .421** | .508** | .539** | .448** | .440** | .478** | .428** | .453** | .579** | .679** | .773** | 1 | .626** | .722** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.20 | Pearson Correlation | .482** | .257** | .482** | .450** | .570** | .583** | .575** | .455** | .599** | .589** | .449** | .441** | .549** | .400** | .402** | .511** | .582** | .643** | .626** | 1 | .754** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| GBTotal | Pearson Correlation | .684** | .495** | .697** | .699** | .793** | .800** | .822** | .669** | .799** | .766** | .666** | .612** | .712** | .651** | .666** | .659** | .712** | .755** | .722** | .754** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |

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

### *E.1.1 Pearson's correlation for Involvement balance (Sub-construct 1.1) – SPSS results*

**Table 53: Involvement balance (Sub-construct 1.1) validity statistics**

**Correlations**

| | | Q2.6 | Q2.7 | Q2.8 | Q2.9 | Q2.10 | INVTotal |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q2.6 | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .802** | .561** | .743** | .661** | .886** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.7 | Pearson Correlation | .802** | 1 | .554** | .692** | .686** | .876** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.8 | Pearson Correlation | .561** | .554** | 1 | .594** | .556** | .769** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.9 | Pearson Correlation | .743** | .692** | .594** | 1 | .703** | .876** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.10 | Pearson Correlation | .661** | .686** | .556** | .703** | 1 | .848** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| INVTotal | Pearson Correlation | .886** | .876** | .769** | .876** | .848** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |

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

### *E.1.2 Pearson's correlation for Effectiveness balance (Sub-construct 1.2) – SPSS results*

**Table 54: Effectiveness balance (Sub-construct 1.2) validity statistics**

**Correlations**

| | | Q2.11 | Q2.12 | Q2.13 | Q2.14 | Q2.15 | EFFTotal |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q2.11 | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .621** | .488** | .576** | .560** | .808** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.12 | Pearson Correlation | .621** | 1 | .588** | .510** | .459** | .782** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.13 | Pearson Correlation | .488** | .588** | 1 | .589** | .609** | .808** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.14 | Pearson Correlation | .576** | .510** | .589** | 1 | .739** | .837** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.15 | Pearson Correlation | .560** | .459** | .609** | .739** | 1 | .825** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| EFFTotal | Pearson Correlation | .808** | .782** | .808** | .837** | .825** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |

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

### *E.1.3* Pearson's correlation for Affective balance (Sub-construct 1.3) – SPSS results

**Table 55: Affective balance (Sub-construct 1.3) validity statistics**

**Correlations**

| | | Q2.16 | Q2.17 | Q2.18 | Q2.19 | Q2.20 | AFFTotal |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q2.16 | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .685** | .671** | .579** | .511** | .810** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.17 | Pearson Correlation | .685** | 1 | .777** | .679** | .582** | .871** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.18 | Pearson Correlation | .671** | .777** | 1 | .773** | .643** | .908** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.19 | Pearson Correlation | .579** | .679** | .773** | 1 | .626** | .861** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q2.20 | Pearson Correlation | .511** | .582** | .643** | .626** | 1 | .799** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| AFFTotal | Pearson Correlation | .810** | .871** | .908** | .861** | .799** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |

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

## E.2 Pearson's correlation for Turnover intention (Construct 2) – SPSS results

**Table 56: Turnover intention (Construct 2) validity statistics**

**Correlations**

| | | Q3.1 | Q3.2 | Q3.3 | Q3.4 | Q3.5 | Q3.6 | TITotal |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q3.1 | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .610** | .755** | .552** | .489** | .442** | .860** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q3.2 | Pearson Correlation | .610** | 1 | .601** | .349** | .406** | .356** | .733** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q3.3 | Pearson Correlation | .755** | .601** | 1 | .552** | .481** | .507** | .866** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q3.4 | Pearson Correlation | .552** | .349** | .552** | 1 | .331** | .368** | .718** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q3.5 | Pearson Correlation | .489** | .406** | .481** | .331** | 1 | .530** | .682** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q3.6 | Pearson Correlation | .442** | .356** | .507** | .368** | .530** | 1 | .679** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| TITotal | Pearson Correlation | .860** | .733** | .866** | .718** | .682** | .679** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |

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

## E.3 Pearson's correlation for Employment equity practices influence (Construct 3) – SPSS results

**Table 57: Employment equity practices influence (Construct 3) validity statistics**

**Correlations**

| | | Q4.1A | Q4.2A | Q4.3A | Q4.4A | Q4.5A | Q4.6A | Q4.7A | Q4.8A | Q4.9A | EEPITotal |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q4.1A | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .687** | .505** | .642** | .502** | .576** | .395** | .403** | .495** | .768** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q4.2A | Pearson Correlation | .687** | 1 | .519** | .649** | .504** | .564** | .347** | .336** | .398** | .737** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q4.3A | Pearson Correlation | .505** | .519** | 1 | .647** | .601** | .545** | .381** | .460** | .431** | .758** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q4.4A | Pearson Correlation | .642** | .649** | .647** | 1 | .681** | .652** | .392** | .423** | .560** | .838** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q4.5A | Pearson Correlation | .502** | .504** | .601** | .681** | 1 | .620** | .535** | .319** | .429** | .773** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q4.6A | Pearson Correlation | .576** | .564** | .545** | .652** | .620** | 1 | .546** | .441** | .541** | .812** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q4.7A | Pearson Correlation | .395** | .347** | .381** | .392** | .535** | .546** | 1 | .434** | .412** | .664** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q4.8A | Pearson Correlation | .403** | .336** | .460** | .423** | .319** | .441** | .434** | 1 | .595** | .657** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| Q4.9A | Pearson Correlation | .495** | .398** | .431** | .560** | .429** | .541** | .412** | .595** | 1 | .725** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | | <,001 |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |
| EEPITotal | Pearson Correlation | .768** | .737** | .758** | .838** | .773** | .812** | .664** | .657** | .725** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | <,001 | |
| | N | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 | 218 |

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

## Appendix F: Ethical clearance approval

Ethical Clearance Approved External Inbox ×

**Masters Research** <MastersResearch@gibs.co.za> Wed, 27 Jul, 15:00

to me, Masters


**Gordon Institute of Business Science**
University of Pretoria

**Ethical Clearance Approved**

Dear Troy Thiel,

Please be advised that your application for Ethical Clearance has been approved.
You are therefore allowed to continue collecting your data.
We wish you everything of the best for the rest of the project.

Ethical Clearance Form

Kind Regards

This email has been sent from an unmonitored email account. If you have any comments or concerns, please contact the GIBS Research Admin team.

**Masters Research**

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