CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

It is said that those who conduct research belong to a community of scholars, each of whom has journeyed into the unknown to bring back an insight, a truth or a point of light. What they have recorded of their journeys and findings will make it easier for others to explore the unknown: to help others to discover an insight, a truth or a point of light.

In order to conceive a clear understanding of the research problem a review of the relevant literature is necessary. This research study aimed to investigate empirically variables influencing expatriate managers' job attitudes and to examine the relationships between job attitudes and expatriate managers' intention to return prematurely or resign during or shortly after a foreign assignment. The literature review focuses on **job attitudes** and their key role in the **labour turnover** process.

The *purpose of this chapter* is to review the accumulated knowledge related to attitudes in general as well as the constructs of the job-attitudes: job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment. The behavioural manifestations of job attitudes, the measurement of job attitudes and the researched relationship between job attitudes and labour turnover will also be discussed.

2.2 ATTITUDES

Dawes and Smith (in Kruger, Smit & Le Roux, 2005:151) pointed out that psychologists have found it difficult to formulate an acceptable definition of an attitude, as it is not clear whether an attitude should be considered to be a simple or multiple phenomenon. The simple definition describes an attitude as a favourable or unfavourable feeling towards an object. Supporters of this view are of the opinion that the fundamental component of an attitude is feelings or emotions. An example of the simple definition can be found in Robbins and Judge (2007:74), who state that

attitudes are evaluative statements or judgments – either favourable or unfavourable – concerning objects, people or events. Breckler (1984:1191) views attitudes as a multiple phenomenon, comprising three components: cognition, affect and behaviour. An example of a multiple definition can be found in Gibson *et al*. (2006:104) who define an attitude as "a positive or negative feeling or mental state of readiness, learned and organised through experience, that exerts specific influence on a person's response to people, objects and situations". This definition has the following implications: "(1) attitudes are learned; (2) attitudes define our predispositions towards given aspects of the world; (3) attitudes provide the emotional basis of our interpersonal relations and identification with others; and (4) attitudes are organised and are close to the core of personality" (Gibson *et al*., 2006:104).

Robbins and Judge (2007:74) claim that viewing attitudes as made up of cognition, affect and behaviour, is helpful in understanding their complexity and the potential relationship between attitudes and behaviour. Figure 2.1 illustrates how the three components of an attitude are closely related.

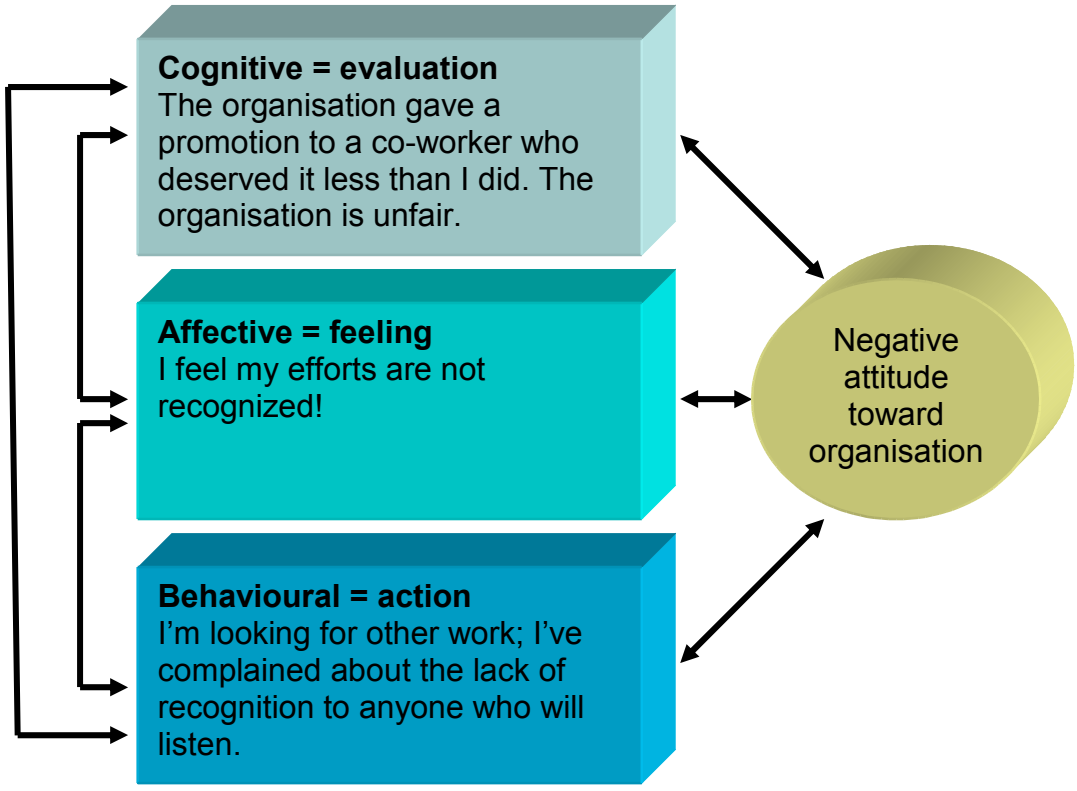

Figure 2.1: The components of an attitude (Robbins and Judge, 2007:75)

In this example, an employee did not get a promotion he thought he deserved; a co-worker got it instead. The employee's attitude towards this situation is illustrated as follows:

- **Cognitive** (the employee thought he deserved the promotion).
- **Affective** (the employee feels his efforts are not recognized).
- **Behavioural** (the employee is looking for another job).

Robbins and Judge (2007:74) argue that although we often think that cognition causes affect which then triggers behaviour, in reality these components are often difficult to separate. As Rosenberg (in Gibson *et al*., 2006:105) states: "cognition, affect and behaviour determine attitudes and attitudes determine cognition, affect and behaviour". Werner (2007:62) adds that knowledge of the three components is useful when measuring or trying to change attitudes.

According to Schermerhorn *et al*. (1997:60) and Werner (2007:61), attitudes are influenced by values. Values are principles or standards that we adopt as behavioural guidelines for all situations. Attitudes reflect our response to a specific situation, object or person therefore attitudes focus on specific people or objects. Conversely values have a more general focus (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998:136). Recognising employees' efforts is a value; your positive or negative feeling about your job because of the recognition you receive is an attitude. It is important to remember that an attitude, like a value, is a hypothetical construct i.e. one never sees, touches or actually isolates an attitude. Attitudes are inferred from the things people say – their opinions and what they do – their behaviour (Schermerhorn *et al*., 1997:60). Attitudes can be stable or unstable. Werner (2007:62) contends that stable or central attitudes are very closely linked to our values therefore they are less likely to change, whereas unstable or peripheral attitudes are more likely to change as our experiences and knowledge expands. Cook and Hunsaker (2001:181) support this view by stating that some attitudes are persistent and enduring whereas other attitudes, like all other psychological variables, are subject to change. Baron and Byrne (1991) maintain that general and weak attitudes do not predict behaviour clearly, while specific and strong attitudes or attitudes that are very important to someone, predict behaviour much more reliably.

Figure 2.2 shows attitudes accompanied by antecedents and results. According to Schermerhorn *et al*. (1997:60), the belief and value antecedents in the figure form the cognitive component of an attitude. Beliefs represent ideas about someone or something and the conclusions people draw about them. "My job lacks responsibility" is a belief shown in the figure. The beliefs may or may not be accurate. "Responsibility is important" is a corresponding aspect of the cognitive component, which reflects an underlying value. The affective component of an attitude is a specific feeling regarding the personal impact of the antecedents. This is the actual attitude itself, such as "I don't like my job." The behavioural component is an intention to behave in a certain way based on your specific feelings or attitudes. This intended behaviour is a result of an attitude and is a predisposition to act in a specific way, such as "I'm going to quit my job."

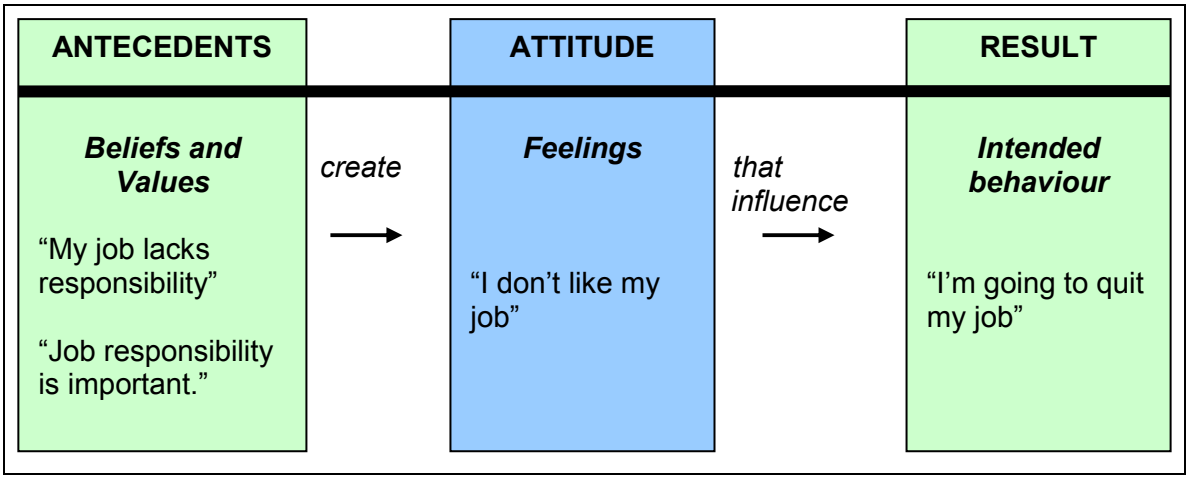

Figure 2.2: A work-related example of the three components of an attitude (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 1997:61)

Schermerhorn *et al*. (1997:60) argue that the link between attitudes and behaviour is tentative. Although an attitude results in intended behaviour, this intention may or may not be carried out in a given situation. Even though attitudes do not always predict behaviour, the link between attitudes and potential or intended behaviour is important for managers to understand. It is not uncommon to hear concerns expressed about someone's "bad attitude". These concerns typically reflect displeasure with the behavioural consequences with which the bad attitude is associated. Unfavourable job attitudes can result in costly labour turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, and even impaired physical or mental health. Therefore one

of the manager's responsibilities is to recognize attitudes and to understand both their antecedents and their potential implications.

According to Robbins and Judge (2007:75), research has generally concluded that people seek consistency among their attitudes, and between their attitudes and their behaviour. When individuals seek to reconcile divergent attitudes and align their attitudes and behaviour, they appear rational and consistent. When there is an inconsistency, forces are initiated to return the individual to a state of equilibrium in which attitudes and behaviour are consistent. This can be done by altering either the attitudes or the behaviour, or by developing a rationalization for the discrepancy (Kruger *et al*., 2005:158).

In 1957 Leon Festinger proposed the theory of cognitive dissonance (Lahey, 2007:622). This theory attempts to explain the link between attitudes and behaviour. The term cognitive dissonance refers to any incompatibility that an individual might perceive between two or more of his or her attitudes, or between his or her behaviour and attitudes. For example, an expatriate manager might be dissatisfied with his or her job (attitude), yet not decide to quit his or her job (behaviour). Festinger predicts that such an inconsistency results in discomfort and a desire to reduce or eliminate it by (1) changing the underlying attitude; (2) changing future behaviour; or (3) developing new ways of explaining or rationalizing the inconsistency (Cook & Hunsaker, 2001:182; Elliot & Devine, 1994:382). The degree to which people will attempt to create consistency will be determined by the importance of the elements creating dissonance, the degree of influence the individual believes he or she has over the elements, and the magnitude of the rewards that may be involved in dissonance. If the element creating dissonance is relatively unimportant, the pressure to correct this imbalance is not significant. The degree of influence that individuals believe they have over the element will have an impact on how they will react to dissonance. If they perceive dissonance as something over which they have no control, they are unlikely to be receptive to attitude change. While dissonance exists, it can be rationalized and justified. Rewards also influence the degree to which individuals are motivated to reduce dissonance. High rewards accompanying high dissonance tend to reduce the tension inherent in dissonance. The rewards act to reduce dissonance by increasing the

consistency side of the individual's balance sheet. These moderating factors suggest that, just because individuals experience dissonance, they will not necessarily move directly towards consistency, that is, towards elimination of dissonance. If the issues underlying the dissonance are of minimal importance; if an individual perceives that the dissonance is externally imposed and is substantially uncontrollable or if rewards are significant enough to offset the dissonance, the individuals will not be under great pressure to reduce the level of dissonance. The greater the level of dissonance (after the moderating factors are taken into account) the more likely it is that the individual will change behaviour. (Gibson *et al*., 2006:106; Lahey, 2007:622-623; Robbins & Judge, 2007:76-77).

In the proceeding discussion, the researcher has presented the debate that ***attitudes affect behaviour***. Robbins and Judge (2007:77) claim that early research work assumed that attitudes were causally related to behaviour, i.e. that the attitudes that people hold, determine how they behave. Common sense, too, suggests a positive relationship between attitudes and behaviour. However, in 1969, this assumed relationship between attitudes and behaviour (A-B) was challenged by Wicker (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003:75). Based on an evaluation of a number of studies that investigated the A-B relationship, Wicker concluded that attitudes were unrelated to behaviour or, at best, only slightly related. More recent research has demonstrated that attitudes significantly predict future behaviour and confirms Festinger's original belief that the relationship can be enhanced by taking moderating variables into account (Kraus, 1995:58; Sutton, 1998:1317).

Robbins and Judge (2007:78) identified the most powerful moderators as: (1) the importance of the attitude; (2) its specificity; (3) its accessibility; (4) whether there are social pressures; and (5) whether a person has direct experience with the attitude. Important attitudes are ones that reflect fundamental values, self-interest or identification with individuals or groups that a person values. Attitudes that individuals consider important tend to show a strong relationship to behaviour. The more specific the attitude and the behaviour, the stronger the link between them. For instance, asking someone specifically about her intention to stay with the organisation for the next six months is likely to predict turnover for that person more accurately than if you asked her how satisfied she was with her pay. Attitudes that

are easily remembered are more likely to predict behaviour than attitudes that are not accessible to memory. Interestingly, you are more likely to remember attitudes that are frequently expressed. Discrepancies between attitudes and behaviour are more likely to occur where social pressures to behave in certain ways hold exceptional sway. Finally, the attitude-behaviour relationship is likely to be much stronger if an attitude refers to something of which the individual has direct personal experience.

Another view is that that ***behaviour influences attitudes***. Robbins *et al*. (2003:75) report that although most attitude-behaviour studies yield positive results, researchers have achieved still higher correlations by pursuing another direction – looking at whether or not behaviour influences attitudes. In this view, called the self-perception theory, when asked about an attitude toward some object, individuals often recall their behaviour relevant to that object and then infer their attitude from their past behaviour. Self-perception theory, therefore, makes sense of an action that has already occurred rather than as a device that precedes and guides action. Contrary to the cognitive dissonance theory, attitudes are just casual verbal statements. When people are asked about their attitudes and they don't have strong convictions or feelings, self-perception theory says they tend to create plausible answers (Robbins & Judge, 2007:78-79; Robbins *et al.,* 2003:75). The self-perception theory is well supported. While the traditional attitude-behaviour relationship is generally positive, the behaviour-attitude relationship is as strong. This is particularly true when attitudes are vague and ambiguous. If you have had few experiences regarding an attitude issue or have given little previous thought to it, you will tend to infer your attitudes from your behaviour. However, when your attitudes have been established for a while and are well defined, those attitudes are likely to guide your behaviour (Tybout & Scott, 1983:474).

Another approach to job attitudes is the ***social learning approach*** developed by Albert Bandura (Furnham, 2004:303). According to Albert Bandura, people acquire new behaviour by imitating role models (Gibson *et al*., 2006:161). Olson and Zanna (1993:117) state that the origins of most attitudes are obvious: "We learn them directly from our personal experiences and we learn them from others". Baron and Byrne (1991) are also of the opinion that attitudes and behaviour are formed through

observation and imitation of other people's behaviour, as well as a result of direct personal experiences. According to Furnham (2004:304), social learning theory claims that employees use other people as sources of information for selecting appropriate attitudes and behaviours. Employees' attitudes, at least in part, are thus copied from, reflected or modelled on the attitudes of other co-workers. By observing co-workers, workers form their attitudes towards the organisation, the job as a whole and specific job facet. People perceive certain co-workers, usually those with similar jobs and interests, or those who are believed to be successful or powerful, as role models, and base their own attitudes on what they believe theirs to be. The theory claims that job satisfaction is not determined internally, but externally. Several studies conducted by Weiss (Furnham, 2004:304) examine the social learning of work attitudes. Weiss and Shaw found that subjects who overheard positive comments during task execution had more favourable attitudes after performing the task than did those who overheard negative comments (Weiss & Shaw, 1979:126). Precisely how long these positive attitudes last is not known, nor are the causes, of the various individual differences that Weiss and Shaw observed, known. Social learning appears, though, to be a means by which people develop attitudes.

From the above debates, it can be concluded that employee attitudes are important to organisations as they are reasonably good predictors of behaviour. They provide clues to an employee's behavioural intentions or inclinations to act in a certain way. Positive job attitudes help to predict constructive behaviour while negative job attitudes help to predict undesirable behaviour. When attitudes are negative, they are a sign of underlying problems and a contributory cause to forthcoming difficulties in an organisation, whereas management desires favourable attitudes as they tend to be connected with some of the positive outcomes that managers want.

2.3 JOB ATTITUDES

Furnham (2004:204) argues that because work is such an important part of people's lives, quite naturally people have strong, complex and diverse attitudes towards it. Most of the research in organisational behaviour has been concerned with three attitudes related to one's job and the organisation: job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement (Robbins & Judge, 2007:79; Werner, 2007:334).

These work-related attitudes contain positive or negative evaluations that employees hold about aspects of their work environment. As attitudes are important in organisations because of their behavioural component, it makes sense to try to understand these attitudes. A job attitude that is currently attracting attention from researchers is perceived organisational support. This attitude will be mentioned briefly as it is not part of the stated research question in this study, but it does have an influence on expatriate adjustment.

2.3.1 Job satisfaction

Rayton (2006:139) noted that job satisfaction has been the most heavily researched job attitude over the last fifty years. This resulted in job satisfaction being a primary concept in most work behaviour and motivation theories (Smucker & Kent, 2004:27). When people speak of employees' attitudes, more often than not they mean job satisfaction. In fact, the two are frequently used interchangeably. Locke (in Naumann, 1993a:62) defines job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". Spector (1997) states that job satisfaction can be considered a global feeling about the job (univariate concept) or a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job (multidimensional concept). Werner (2007:334) points out that job satisfaction is a measure of the feeling towards work of a specific individual rather than that of a group of workers. A person with high job satisfaction reveals positive attitudes towards the job, while one who is dissatisfied with his or her job reveals negative attitudes towards the job.

According to Cohrs, Abele and Dette (2006:364), theoretical conceptualizations on the determinants of job satisfaction can be divided into a situational approach, a dispositional approach and an interactionist approach. According to the situational approach, job satisfaction reflects certain characteristics of the job (favourable job characteristics should lead to higher job satisfaction). In the dispositional approach, job satisfaction is a function of individual dispositions. Some individuals will have higher job satisfaction than others, irrespective of working conditions. Situational and dispositional approaches are not mutually exclusive because they are integrated into the interactionist approach, conceptualizing the interplay between situational and

dispositional variables. The interactionist approach is better known in literature as the person-job fit approach. This approach concludes that for different persons, different situational characteristics inspire job satisfaction (Schneider, 2001:141).

An obvious example of the situational approach is the 'Job Characteristics Model' of Hackman and Oldman. This model concludes that job satisfaction depends on five core job characteristics: task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy and feedback (Robbins & Judge, 2007:227). A meta-analysis study conducted by Fried and Ferris (1987:287) shows that the five job characteristics relate significantly to job satisfaction. The dispositional approach is supported by results that suggest job satisfaction is moderately stable over time and across job changes (Staw & Ross, 1985:57). This is influenced by individual variables, such as personality (Judge, Bono & Locke, 2000:237). Positive correlations have been found by Judge and Bono (2001:80) with the core self-evaluations (self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, internal locus of control and emotional stability). These are conceptualized as feelings about the self that have a general effect on emotional reactions to the environment. Judge and his colleagues (Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002:530) found interesting correlations between job satisfaction and the 'Big Five personality factors' - neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness (Lahey, 2007:460). In a meta-analysis by Judge *et al.* (2002:538) neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness emerged as unique predictors of job satisfaction.

Salanick and Pfeffer (1978:224) claim that job attitudes are developed through interaction with other workers within the context of the work environment. Furnham (2004:297) states that the context of the work environment is multidimensional, with the major constructs being job/task characteristics, organisational characteristics and personal characteristics.

- **Job/ task characteristics.** Aspects such as overall workload, skill variety, autonomy, feedback and the physical nature of the work environment.
- **Organisational characteristics.** Aspects such as the reward system (the perceived equity of pay and promotions), supervision and decision-making practices, and perceived quality of supervision.

- **Personal characteristics.** Aspects such as personality, self-esteem, ability to tolerate stress and general life satisfaction probably determine job satisfaction.

The interaction of these constructs collectively results in an environment unique to a particular organisation and set of employees (Lee & Liu, 2006:754). Job attitudes (the variable under study during this research project) may thus result from the characteristics of the expatriate (the population in the study) in conjunction with the job/task characteristics and organisational characteristics.

Kreitner and Kinicki (1998:206-207) note that five predominant models of job satisfaction specify its causes:

- **Fulfilment of needs**. These models propose that satisfaction is determined by the extent to which the characteristics of a job allow an individual to fulfil his or her needs.
- **Discrepancies**. These models propose that satisfaction is a result of met expectations. Met expectations represent the difference between what an individual expects to receive from a job and what he or she actually receives. When expectations are greater than what is received, a person will be dissatisfied. In contrast, the model predicts that individuals will be satisfied when they attain outcomes above and beyond expectations.
- **Value attainment**. Satisfaction results from the perception that a job provides opportunities for fulfilment of an individual's important work values. Managers can thus enhance employee satisfaction by structuring the work environment and its associated rewards and recognition to reinforce employees' values.
- **Equity.** In this model, satisfaction is a function of how "fairly" an individual is treated at work. Satisfaction results from one's perception that work outcomes, relative to inputs, compare favourably with a significant other's outcomes/inputs.
- **Trait and genetic components**. Some employees appear to be satisfied in a variety of job circumstances, whereas others always seem dissatisfied. The trait/genetic model is based on the belief that job satisfaction stems from both personal traits and genetic factors. As such, this model implies that stable individual differences are just as important in explaining job satisfaction as are characteristics of the work environment.

Since the purpose of this study is to identify factors, related to the job and the organisation, that may predict job satisfaction, two dimensions of the work environment – job/task characteristics and organisational characteristics needed to be investigated. Although the third dimension (dispositional approach) of the work environment – personal characteristics – does not receive attention in this research study, it is worthwhile to mention the role of personality in attitudes.

Furnham (2004:296-298) argues that it seems self-evident that there should be major individual differences in job satisfaction. Gibson *et al*. (2006:104) assert that attitudes are an intrinsic part of a person's personality. The issue of, whether personality (and other individual differences) is a main factor, or interacts with the job to produce job satisfaction, comes to mind (Judge & Larsen, 2001:67). Furnham (2004:296) presents the following equation: *JS = f (P*J*PJE*E).* JS = Job satisfaction, P = Personality, J = Job characteristics, PJF = Person-job-fit and E = Error. The equation implies that:

- If it can be shown that some personality types are more satisfied (or dissatisfied) irrespective of the nature of the job, presumably the main effect of personality accounts for a good deal of the variance.
- If it can be shown that some jobs cause their incumbents to be more satisfied (or dissatisfied) irrespective of the personality (skills, abilities, etc.) of the incumbents. The main effect of the job probably accounts for a good deal of the variance.
- If it can be shown that a particular fit (or misfit) between a person (personality) and the job (demands) leads to particular sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The interaction between person and job is presumably the major source of the variance.

Unfortunately, the equation is made somewhat more complicated by the fact that both personality and job satisfaction are multidimensional. There will be considerable debate on whether the P or J factor accounts for the bigger percentage of the variance. Steel and Rentsch (1997:873) support the role of personality by arguing that the expression of job satisfaction seems to be a relatively stable individual trait even across different job situations. The dispositional model of job satisfaction states

that people who are satisfied with one job tend to be satisfied with other jobs as well over a long period of time (Judge & Larson, 2001:67; Judge *et al*., 2000:237). Strumpher, Danana, Gouws and Viviers (1998:99) identify a positive but complex correlation between negative and positive dispositions and the various components of job satisfaction.

According to Naumann (1993a:63), job satisfaction is not an univariate concept, but rather a multidimensional concept. Job satisfaction has been conceptualized as satisfaction with various dimensions of the job, but the number of dimensions differs significantly. Depending on the particular theorist one reads or the measures that one adopts, there may be varying numbers of dimensions of job satisfaction, although the dimensions are related. Kreitner and Kinnicki (1998:206) supply the following examples:

- Researchers at Cornell University developed the widely-used Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to assess one's satisfaction with the following five job dimensions: the work itself, pay, promotions, co-workers and supervision (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969).
- Researchers at the University of Minnesota conclude there are 20 different dimensions underlying job satisfaction. These dimensions are rated on a standardized scale and then added up to create an overall job satisfaction score (Weiss, Davis, England & Lofguist, 1967).
- Hackman and Oldman identify five core job characteristics that are associated with job satisfaction: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback from the job (Hackman & Oldman, 1975).

It is clear that job satisfaction is influenced by many different factors. This implies that a person can be relatively satisfied with one aspect of his or her job and dissatisfied with one or more other aspects of the job. If a person is satisfied with most of the factors that he or she considers relevant, the person will experience job satisfaction.

While numerous dimensions have been associated with job satisfaction, the following in particular are crucial characteristics (Schleicher, Watt & Greguras, 2004:165):

- **The job itself**. The extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the opportunity to be responsible and accountable for results.
- **Promotional opportunities**. The opportunities for promotion and advancement in the organisation, not necessarily associated with hierarchical progress in the organisation, but including opportunities for lateral movement and growth.
- **Supervision**. The ability of the supervisor to provide emotional and technical support and guidance with work-related tasks.
- **Co-workers**. The extent to which fellow workers are technically, emotionally, and socially supportive.
- **Working conditions**. The extent to which the general work context facilitates job satisfaction. The context may refer to psychological as well as physical conditions.
- **Pay**. The remuneration received and the degree to which this is viewed as equitable compared to that of another person in a similar position within or outside the organisation.

As seen from the above debate, job/task characteristics play a major role in job satisfaction. Two organisational behaviour researchers, Richard Hackman and Greg Oldham, played a central role in developing the job characteristics approach (Hackman & Oldman, 1975:159-170). According to Kreitner & Kinnicki (1998:202–209), these researchers tried to determine how work can be structured so that employees are internally (or intrinsically) motivated. Internal motivation occurs when an individual is “turned on to one’s work because of the positive internal feelings that are generated by doing well, rather than by being dependent on external factors for the motivation to work effectively.” These positive feelings propel a self-perpetuating cycle of motivation shown in Figure 2.3. Research overwhelmingly demonstrates a moderately strong relationship between job characteristics and satisfaction (Morley & Heraty, 1995:56-63). A study by Morris (1996:59-60) of managerial, technical and professional employees in manufacturing, services and government also indirectly

support the job characteristics model. Managers are likely to find noticeable increases in the quality of performance after a job redesign programme. Results from 21 experimental studies revealed that job redesign resulted in a median increase of 28% in the quality of performance (Kelley, 1990:191-208). Two separate meta-analyses support the practice of using the job characteristics model to help managers reduce absenteeism (Fried & Ferris, 1987:287) and labour turnover (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985:342). These results are supported by studies conducted by Glick, Jenkins and Gupta (1986) and Loher, Noe, Moeller and Fitzgerald (1985).

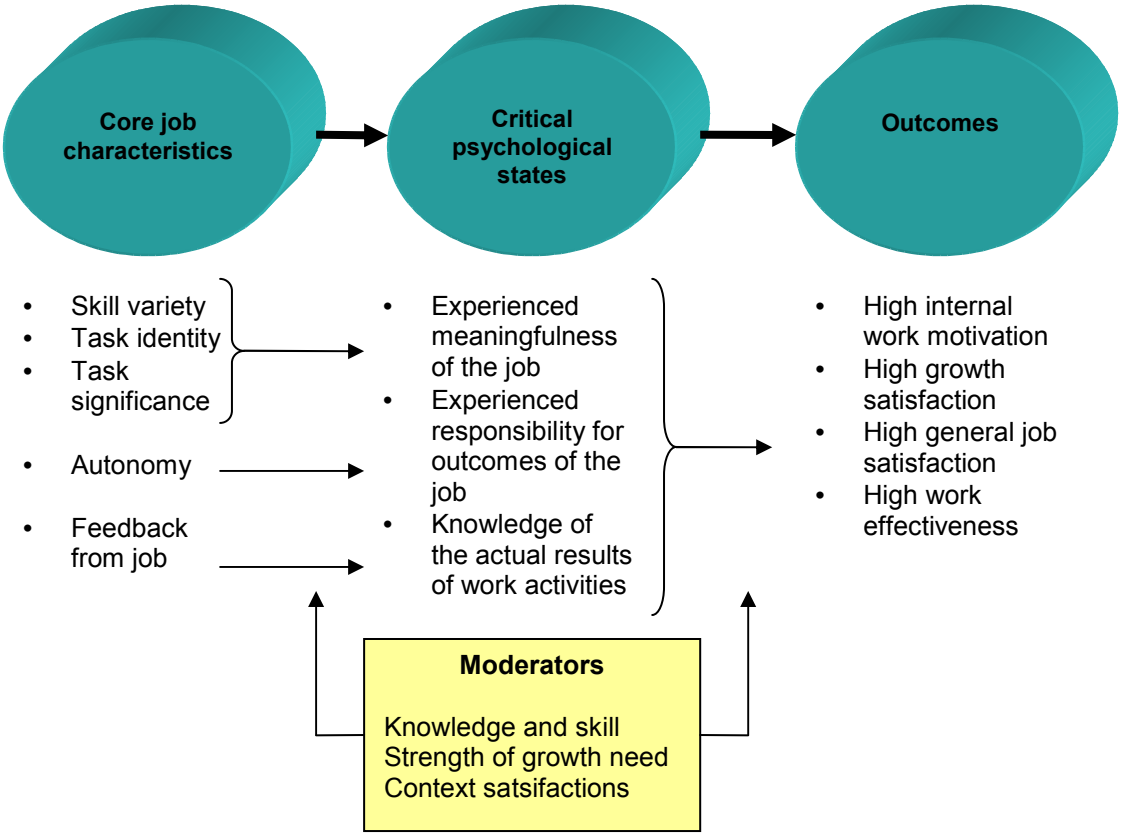

Figure 2.3: The job characteristics model (Robbins and Judge, 2007:227)

Robbins and Judge (2007:226-228) and Smit and Cronje (1999:326-328) describe the major components of the model as follows:

- **Experienced meaningfulness.** The individual must perceive his work as worthwhile and important.
- **Experienced responsibility.** The individual must believe that he/she is solely accountable for the outcomes of his/her efforts.

- **Knowledge of results.** The individual must be able to determine, on some fairly regular basis, whether or not the outcomes of his/her work are satisfactory.

These psychological states generate internal work motivation. Moreover, they encourage job satisfaction and perseverance, because they are self-reinforcing. If one of the three psychological states is ignored, motivation wanes. In general terms, core job dimensions are common characteristics found to a varying degree in all jobs. These psychological states are fostered by the presence of five core job dimensions. Three of the job characteristics combine to determine experienced meaningfulness of the job. Experienced responsibility is elicited by the job characteristic of autonomy, while knowledge of results is fostered by the characteristic of feedback.

- **Skill variety.** The extent to which the job requires an individual to perform a variety of tasks that require him or her to use different skills and abilities.
- **Task identity.** The extent to which the job requires an individual to perform a whole or completely identifiable piece of work. In other words, task identity is high when a person works on a product or project from beginning to end and sees a tangible result.
- **Task significance.** The extent to which the job affects the lives of other people within or outside the organisation.
- **Autonomy.** The extent to which the job enables an individual to experience freedom, independence and discretion in both scheduling and determining the procedures used to complete the job.
- **Feedback.** The extent to which an individual receives direct and clear information about how effectively he or she is performing the task.

As seen in Figure 2.3, the object of this approach is to promote high internal motivation and increase job satisfaction by designing jobs that possess the five core characteristics (Hackman & Oldman, 1976:250). Robbins and Judge (2007:228) and Kreitner and Kinicki (1998:203) report that Hackman and Oldham devised a self-report instrument to assess the extent to which a specific job possesses the five core characteristics. With this instrument it is possible to calculate a motivating potential score for a job. The **motivating potential score** (MPS) is a summary index that

represents the extent to which the job characteristics foster internal work motivation. Low scores indicate that an individual will not experience high internal work motivation from the job. Such a job is an obvious choice for job redesign. High scores reveal that the job is capable of stimulating internal motivation.

The **motivating potential score** (MPS) is computed as follows:

$$\textbf{MPS} = \frac{(\text{Skill variety} + \text{Task identity} + \text{Task significance})}{3} \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback}$$

Judging from the equation, since MPS equals zero when autonomy or feedback is zero, it could be said that both autonomy and feedback are more important respectively in determining the motivational potential of a job. Not all people may want enriched jobs (Reif & Luthans, 1972:30). Hackman and Oldham incorporated this conclusion into their model by identifying three attributes that have an effect on how individuals respond to jobs with a high MPS. Hackman and Oldham proposed that people will respond positively to jobs with a high MPS when (1) they have the knowledge and skills necessary to do the job; (2) they have high growth needs; and (3) they are satisfied with various aspects of the work context, such as pay and co-workers (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998:204). Robbins and Judge (2007:228) conclude that overall, it appears that jobs that have the intrinsic elements of variety, identity, significance, autonomy and feedback are more satisfying, and generate higher performance than that generated by people in jobs that lack these elements.

Given that organisational factors obviously contribute to job satisfaction, the question may be asked: “Which organisational practices lead to higher job satisfaction?” Locke (in Furnham, 2004:298) identified practices to increase job satisfaction on eight job counts (See Table 2.1). Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Rayton and Swart (2005:9) argue, though, that in terms of satisfaction with human resource practices and commitment to the organisation, “one size does not fit all”. Their research findings pose a challenge to the universalistic model of human resource management and have implications for those seeking to design practices that will improve organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

Table 2.1: Job values and ways to implement them (Furnham, 2004:298)

Job aspect	Job value	Ways to implement
Work	Personal interest Importance Chance to use skills Responsibility Autonomy Variety Achievement, progress Feedback Clarity Harmony Participation Pressure Fatigue avoidance	Recruitment, selection, placement, job enrichment, goal-setting, participation in decision-making Design of workplace
Pay and benefits	Fairness Job security	Job analysis, wage surveys, objective work measurement or performance ratings, high pay and benefits, incentive plans Human resource planning
Promotions	Fairness	Promotions on merit
Recognition	Recognition	Praise and credit for work and effort
Working conditions	Resources Hours Shift work Safe physical conditions Privacy	Provide resources Flexitime, four-day working week Compensation (through pay, time off) Remove hazards, safety programmes Closed office design
Co-workers/ subordinates	Similarity Competence, co-operation	Recruitment, selection, placement Same as above, plus training
Management/ supervision	Respect Trust Two-way communication Provision of above values	Honesty with employees Concern about employee needs Consistent honesty Listening to employees Participation, influence
Unions	Pay	Higher pay, benefits

No literature review will be complete without looking at the controversial work of Frederick Herzberg in the 1950s. Furnham (2004:299-303) reports that Herzberg studied 200 accountants and engineers employed by organisations near Pittsburgh in the USA. He concluded that there were systematic correlations between workers' attitudes and their behaviour, but that these relationships had gone unnoticed because researchers had confused job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

According to Herzberg job satisfaction depends on one set of conditions, whereas job dissatisfaction depends on an entirely different set of conditions. Although it is possible to think of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as two extremes on a single continuum, they are determined by different factors. It may be more helpful to consider them as two separate factors. From this the two-factor theory of motivation developed. The two factors are the dissatisfiers and satisfiers, the hygiene factors and motivators, or the extrinsic and intrinsic factors, depending on who is discussing the theory (Gibson *et al*., 2006:138). Herzberg maintains that the factors that give rise to job dissatisfaction and are related to job context are labelled hygiene factors, and factors that give rise to job satisfaction and are related to the job content are labelled motivators (Smit & Cronje, 1999:311). Table 2.2 illustrates the differences between the two types of factors as described by Herzberg's theory.

Table 2.2: Herzberg's two-factor theory (Smit and Cronje, 1999:312)

Satisfiers/Motivators/Intrinsic	Dissatisfiers/Hygiene factors/Extrinsic
Needed to build high level of job satisfaction (related to job content)	**Needed to maintain a level of no dissatisfaction (related to job context)**
➢ Feeling of achievement ➢ Meaningful work ➢ Opportunities for advancement ➢ Increased responsibility ➢ Recognition ➢ Opportunities for growth	➢ Pay ➢ Status ➢ Job security ➢ Working conditions ➢ Fringe benefits ➢ Policies and procedures ➢ Interpersonal relations

Herzberg's theory has been so severely criticized that it is surprising that it has withstood the test of time. It is still popular with managers as a potential applied approach to motivation (Lacey, 1994:6-8). The managerial implication of Herzberg's theory is apparent: to prevent low performance, high absenteeism and high labour turnover, managers should make drastic changes by adding hygiene factors and motivators to the job. Herzberg puts forward job enrichment as a way to build satisfiers into the job content (Gibson *et al*., 2006:141). According to Schermerhorn *et al*. (1997:93), Herzberg's point of view is well summarized in the following statement: "If you want people to do a good job, give them a good job to do".

So far we have assumed that all people have the same concerns. A study by Silverthorne (1992) on work motivation across Chinese, American and Russian cultures, identified significant differences in the motivational factors impacting on employees. The Chinese sample reported job security and good wages (identified as hygiene factors by Herzberg), as their top motivators. The American sample reported appreciation for work done and "feeling in" on things (identified as motivators by Herzberg) as their top motivators. The Russian sample reported promotion and growth in the organisation as well as "feeling in" on things (identified as motivators by Herzberg as their top motivators.

Considering the work of Hofstede, Hui (in Furnham, 2004:661) concludes that managers from different countries and cultures are likely to have different concerns. Foley, Ngo and Loi (2006:38) confirm that different cultural types affect work-related attitudes, as individuals with different cultural values may have different goals, expectations and needs at work (See Table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Concerns of managers in different countries (Furnham, 2004:661)

Managers in <u>low-collectivism</u> countries place much emphasis on: ➢ contribution to society ➢ independence at work ➢ influence in the organisation
Managers in <u>moderate-collectivism</u> countries place much emphasis on: ➢ independence at work ➢ job status ➢ meaningful job
Managers from <u>high-collectivism</u> countries place much emphasis on: ➢ Benefits, vacation, sick leave, pension, insurance, etc. ➢ Fellow workers who are pleasant and agreeable ➢ Job security ➢ Pay input ➢ Recognition for doing a good job ➢ Work conditions

Measured in different ways and within various employment settings, job satisfaction has been consistently identified as an important predictor of work behaviour. Many behavioural researchers have investigated the sources of job satisfaction.

Scott (2006:131) summarizes some of the major sources of job satisfaction: “Being female, married and having good health have all been associated with higher levels of job satisfaction. A positive relationship between age and job satisfaction is a common finding, although there has been debate as to whether it is linear or U-shaped. Race seems less useful in predicting job satisfaction and distinctions in job satisfaction among workers with varying educational backgrounds are unclear. It has been demonstrated that education translates into high earnings and upward mobility, but its correlation with job satisfaction is usually negative. A possible explanation is that people who have received advanced education have higher job expectations, which if unfulfilled result in diminished satisfaction with the job”.

Job satisfaction is also produced by certain workplace conditions. For instance, having flexibility and control over one’s work activity is connected to higher job satisfaction levels. A direct correlation between wages and job satisfaction has not been found. However, workers tend to measure their earnings and benefits in relation to their peers or the market’s “going rate”, and the correlation between perceived equity of a job’s economic returns and job satisfaction is positive. In a study conducted by Witt and Nye (1992:910), employees perceive a significant correlation between fairness of pay and promotions and job satisfaction. Several studies link elevated job satisfaction levels to a senior position, receptivity to job training, perceived opportunity for advancement and job tenure.

2.3.2 Organisational commitment

Lee and Goa (2005:377) comment that in the past two decades the construct organisational commitment has commanded an impressive amount of scholarly attention. It has been heavily researched as an important variable affecting job outcomes such as turnover, job effort and performance.

Mowday, Porter and Steers (in Lee & Goa, 2005:377) describe organisational commitment as "the relative strength of a person's identification with the values and goals of the organisation and loyalty to the organisation". Although this description of organisational commitment, or other versions of it, appears frequently in literature, researchers are not in agreement over a definition of organisational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001:299; Suliman & Isles, 2000b:71). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:299) indicate that the definition of organisational commitment depends on the approach to commitment that one adheres to. They state that organisational commitment can be conceptualized as either unidimensional or as multi-dimensional.

Examples of unidimensional approaches can be found in the work of: Blau (1985a), Brown(a) (1996) and Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979). Examples of multi-dimensional approaches can be found in the work of: Angle and Perry (1981), Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich (1993), Mayer and Schoorman (1992), Meyer and Allen (1991) O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and Penley and Gould (1988).

According to Robbins and Judge (2007:80), most researchers support the approach that organisational commitment is a multi-dimensional construct. Table 2.4 presents a summary of multi-dimensional models of organisational commitment appearing in literature and illustrate the dimensions of organisational commitment identified by each model.

Table 2.4: Dimensions of organisational commitment within multi-dimensional models (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001:304)

Authors	Dimensions of organisational commitment	Description of the dimension
Angle and Perry (1981)	Value commitment Commitment to stay	Commitment to support the goals of the organisation. Commitment to retain organisational membership.
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986)	Compliance Identification Internalization	Instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards. Attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organisation. Involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organisational values.

Penley and Gould (1988)	Moral Calculative Alienative	Acceptance of and identification with organisational goals. A commitment to an organisation which is based on the employee's receiving inducements to match contributions. Organisational attachment which results when an employee no longer perceives that there are rewards commensurate with investments; yet he or she remains due to environmental pressures.
Meyer and Allen (1991)	Affective Continuance Normative	The employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. A feeling of obligation to continue employment.
Mayer and Schoorman (1992)	Value Continuance	A belief in and acceptance of organisational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation. The desire to remain a member of the organisation.
Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich (1993)	Affective Continuance Moral	The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, sense of belonging, fondness, pleasure, and so on. The degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high cost of leaving. The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an organisation through internalization of its goals, values and missions.

From Table 2.4 it is evident that there is some disagreement on the dimensionality of organisational commitment. The multidimensionality of organisational commitment reflects its highly complex nature. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:303) are of the opinion that differences among the multi-dimensional frameworks in table 2.4, stem from different motives and strategies during the development phase of the framework. Another reason is the different foundations on which the frameworks were built. As all the forces that attribute to the variables associated with the different forms of commitment co-exist in an organisation, it can be assumed that the types of commitment can also co-exist. It is important to realize that the various dimensions of organisational commitment are not mutually exclusive. An employee can foster one or any combination of the aspects of commitment.

The most popular multi-dimensional approach to organisational commitment is that of Meyer and Allen. In 1984, Meyer and Allen introduced the dimension of continuance commitment to the already existing dimension of affective commitment. As a result, organisational commitment was regarded as a bi-dimensional concept that included an attitudinal aspect as well as a behavioural aspect (Meyer & Allen, 1984:372). In 1990, Meyer and Allen added a third component, normative commitment, to their two dimensions of organisational commitment. They concluded that organisational commitment as a form of psychological attachment has the following three forms: affective, continuance and normative (Meyer & Allen, 1991:61). Meyer and Allen (1991:67) define affective commitment as "an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation", continuance commitment as "commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organisation", and normative commitment as "an employee's feeling of obligation to remain with the organisation". Each of these three dimensions represents a possible description of an individual's attachment to an organisation. Meyer and Allen (1991:61) argue that one of the most important reasons for defining different forms of organisational commitment is that they have very different implications for behaviour.

- **Affective commitment**

Meyer and Allen (1991:67) argue that an individual will develop emotional attachment to an organisation when he/she identifies with the goals of the organisation and is willing to assist the organisation in achieving these goals. They further explain that identification with an organisation happens when the employee's own values are congruent with organisational values and the employee is able to internalize the values and goals of the organisation. In addition there are a psychological identification- and a pride of association with the organisation. Shore and Tetric (1991:637) claim that in affective commitment there is a positive interaction between the individual and the organisation because both have similar values. Abbott, White and Charles (2005:549) confirm the link between work values and affective commitment. Employees build affective and normative commitment by aligning their own values to the perceived values of their current organisation. This is more likely to happen when the organisation's values embrace prosocial clusters

such as vision and humanity. Jaros *et al*. (1993:954) indicate that affective commitment can be associated with feelings of loyalty, affection, warmth, belonging, fondness and pleasure. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:310) report that affective commitment has been found to correlate with a wide range of behavioural outcomes such as labour turnover, absenteeism, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour.

- **Continuance commitment**

Continuance commitment is based on Becker's side bet theory. The theory posits that as individuals remain in the employment of an organisation for longer periods, they accumulate investments, which become costly to lose the longer they remain (Meyer & Allen, 1984:372). These investments include time, job effort, organisation-specific skills that might not be transferable, costs of leaving the organisation that discourage seeking alternative employment, work friendships and political deals. Meyer and Allen (1991:67) describe continuance commitment as a form of psychological attachment to an organisation that reflects the employee's awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. This then forms the employee's primary link to the organisation and his/her decision to remain with the organisation is an effort to retain the benefits accrued. Continuance commitment develops because of any action or event that increases the costs of leaving the organisation. This is true only when the employee recognizes that these costs have been incurred. Meyer and Allen summarize these actions and events in terms of two sets of antecedent variable: investments and employment alternatives. Romzek (1990:649) describes this type of attachment as a transactional attachment. He argues that employees calculate their investment in the organisation according to what they have put into the organisation and what they stand to gain if they remain with the organisation. In addition to the fear of losing the investment, individuals develop continuance commitment because of a perceived lack of alternatives. A perceived lack of alternatives occurs when an employee starts to believe that his/her skills are not marketable or that he does not have the skill required to compete for positions in the field. Such an employee would feel tied to his current organisation. Unlike affective commitment, which involves emotional attachment, continuance commitment reflects a calculation of the costs of leaving versus the benefits of

staying. Continuance commitment thus refers to the state in which the employee feels bound to the organisation because the costs (financial, social and emotional) are so great that he/she has no option but to commit (Kamfer, Venter & Boshoff, 1994:2).

Calculative commitment refers to an employee's intention to remain in an organisation, based on the recognition of costs and benefits. In a sense, an employee becomes bound to a firm not because he/she identifies with the latter or shares its norms and values, but because he/she cannot find better alternatives (Penley & Gould, 1988:46). This type of commitment is identical to the notion of continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991:67).

- **Normative commitment**

"Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel they ought to remain with the organisation" (Meyer & Allen, 1991:67). Randall (1990:361) regards normative commitment in terms of the moral obligation the employee develops after the organisation has invested in him/her. They argue that when an employee starts to feel that the organisation has spent either too much time or money developing and training him/her, such an employee may feel an obligation to stay with the organisation. O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991:487) on the other hand define and measure normative commitment in terms of values. They argue that congruence between an individual's and organisation's values leads to the development of organisational commitment. In support of this view are Mayer and Schoorman (1992:673) who describe value commitment as an employee's acceptance of an organisation's goals and values. Jaros *et al*. (1993:955) refer to normative commitment as moral commitment. They emphasize the difference between moral commitment and affective commitment. Moral commitment reflects a sense of duty, or obligation or calling to work in the organisation and not emotional attachment. They describe it as the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an organisation through internalization of its goals values and missions. This type of commitment differs from continuance commitment because it is not dependent on the personal calculations of invested costs.

According to Allen and Meyer (1990:14), normative commitment may develop as a result of the psychological contract between an employee and the organisation. A psychological contract refers to the beliefs of the parties involved in a two-way relationship regarding their reciprocal obligations (Gibson *et al*., 2006:122). Meyer and Allen (1997) also refer to the possible role that early socialization experiences may have in the development of normative commitment. Socialization refers to the process by which organisations bring new employees into the organisational culture (Gibson *et al*., 2006:41). They suggest that socialization can carry with it all sorts of messages about the appropriateness of particular attitudes and behaviours within the organisation. Amongst these attitudes could be the idea that employees owe it to the organisation to continue employment. Meyer and Allen (1997) assume internalization to be the process involved in the development of normative commitment during the early days of assuming employment with an organisation. They reason that through a complex process involving both conditioning and role modelling, individuals can develop normative commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest that normative commitment develops on the basis of a particular investment by the organisation in an employee, which the employee finds difficult to reciprocate. For example, if an organisation paid an employee's tuition, the employee may feel uncomfortable and indebted. Given the norms of reciprocity, the employee could develop feelings of obligation to the organisation as he/she tries to rectify the imbalance. Cultural and individual differences exist in the extent to which people will internalize reciprocity norms therefore the extent of organisational investment will lead to feelings of indebtedness.

Meyer, Becker and VandenBerghe (2004:994) point out that the three forms of commitment have different bases for development. "The primary bases for the development of affective commitment are personal involvement, identification with the specific organisation and value congruence. Normative commitment develops as a function of cultural and organisational socialization and the receipt of benefits that activate the need to reciprocate. Continuance commitment develops as the result of accumulated investment and side bets that will be lost if the employee quits as well as a lack of alternative employment options".

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:317-319) propose a general model of workplace commitment, incorporating all aspects outlined in the previous discussions. See Figure 2.4.

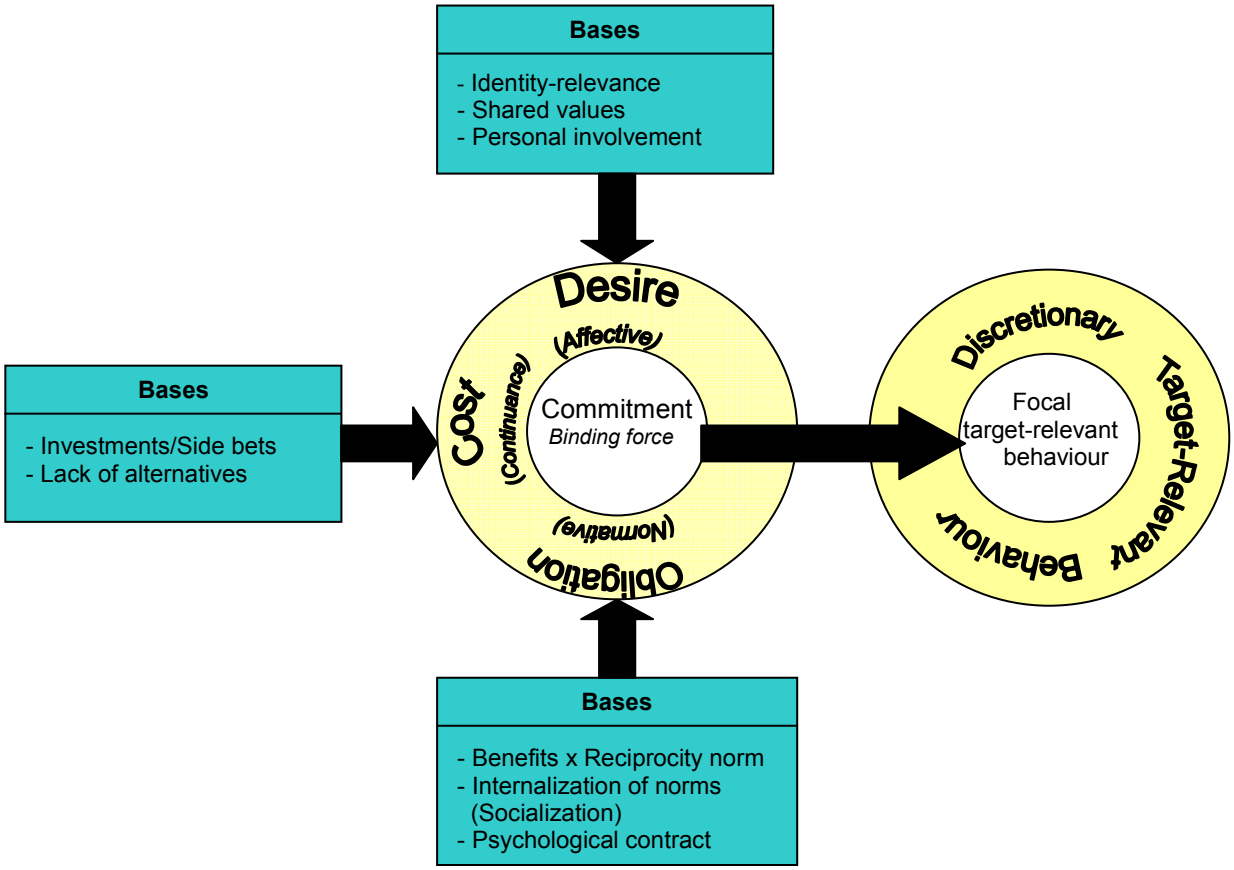

Figure 2.4: A general model of workplace commitment (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001:317)

Another model that has generated considerable research on organisational commitment, is the model developed by O'Reilly and Chatman. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986:493) also support the notion that organisational commitment should be seen as a multidimensional construct. They base their multidimensional approach on the assumption that commitment represents an attitude toward the organisation, and that various mechanisms can lead to the development of attitudes. They argue that commitment can take three distinct forms: compliance, identification and internalization. They believe that compliance will occur when attitudes and corresponding behaviours are adopted in order to attain specific rewards. Identification will occur when an individual succumbs to influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship. Lastly, internalization will occur when the attitudes

and behaviours that one is encouraged to adopt are congruent with one's own values.

Angle and Perry's (1981:4) model makes the distinction between value commitment and commitment to stay. This model id based on the results of a factor analysis on items in the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter. Mowday *et al*. (1979:226) mention three characteristics of organisational commitment: "(1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goal and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (3) a strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation". Within this approach, the factors associated with commitment include positive work experiences, personal characteristics and job characteristics while the outcomes include increased performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced employee turnover. Although the approach of Mowday and his colleagues to organisational commitment is generally considered a unidimensional measure, Angle and Perry's analysis reveals two factors underlying the OCQ – one is defined by items addressing willingness to stay (commitment to stay) and the other by items addressing support for organisational goals (value commitment). The work of Angle and Perry shows similarities to the work of Mayer and Schoorman. Mayer and Schoorman (1992:673) also suggest two dimensions, which they label continuance commitment (desire to remain) and value commitment (willingness to exert effort). Although there are similarities between the dimensions of organisational commitment identified by Angle and Perry (1981) and Meyer and Allen (1991), there is one important difference: Meyer and Allen's dimensions of commitment differ primarily in terms of the mind-set that binds the individual to the organisation, although all three dimensions have the same behavioural consequences. In contrast, Angle and Perry's make the distinction between the dimensions in terms of behavioural consequences and not mind-sets. Continuance commitment is presumed to be associated with the decision to stay or leave an organisation while value commitment is associated with the exertion of effort towards the attainment of organisational goals (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001:306-307).

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) of Mowday, Steers and Porter will be used in this research study, instead of the questionnaire developed by Meyer and Allen, for the following reasons:

- The dimension, commitment to stay, is measured by the OCQ. The intention to quit is the dependent variable in the study.
- The OCQ views the dimension of commitment from the perspective of behavioural consequences and not mind-sets. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between the behavioural intention to quit and organisational commitment.

Researchers of organisational commitment have tried to determine what the link is between what an organisation offers and the employee's experiences that influence the development of organisational commitment once the individual has membership in an organisation. As a result, a lot of empirical research has focused on the variables associated with organisational commitment. Examples of empirical research studying antecedents of organisational commitment are: Balfour and Wechsler (1996), Blau and Boal (1989), Luthans, Baack and Taylor (1987) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990). Mowday *et al*. (1979:224) have grouped the factors that may lead to greater organisational commitment into three major groups. According to them commitment depends on (1) personal factors; (2) organisational factors; and (3) non-organisational factors. Each of these categories of factors may contribute to the development of the different dimensions of organisational commitment to varying degrees.

- **Personal factors**

An analysis of the organisational commitment literature reveals a long list of demographic factors that are traditionally associated with commitment. Variables that may be significant are personal characteristics such as age, tenure, gender, family status and educational level (Thornhill, Lewis & Saunders, 1996).

Mathieu and Zajac's (1990:171-194) meta-analytic study involving 41 samples and 10 335 subjects, shows a statistically significant positive correlation of .20 ($p < .01$)

between age and affective organisational commitment. Allen and Meyer (1990:1-18) also studied the relationship between age and affective commitment. They obtained a statistically significant positive mean correlation of .36 ($p < .05$) between age and affective commitment. According to Mathieu and Zajac (1990:171-194), age has been a positive predictor of commitment for the following reasons: (1) As workers age, alternative employment options generally decrease making the current job more attractive (2) Older workers may have more commitment because they have a stronger investment and longer history with the organisation than younger workers. As far as gender is concerned, the reports are inconsistent. Mathieu and Zajac (1990:171-194) in a meta-analytic study of 14 studies with 7420 subjects involving gender and organisational commitment obtained a mean correlation of -.089 between organisational commitment and gender. Ngo and Tsang (1998:251) support the view that the effects of gender on commitment are very subtle.

Trimble (2006:349) indicates that tenure is used in the organisational literature to refer to the number of years that a person is formally associated with an organisation as an employee. Trimble's finding is that tenure in the organisation is a stronger predictor of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention than age. This implies that organisational intervention strategies should be focused on those who are recent additions to the organisations, rather than on young recruits only. Trimble (2006:358) argues that two reasons exist for tenure being such an important factor in determining job satisfaction and organisational commitment. (1) Those who are dissatisfied leave, consequently they are no longer around to complain or express negative attitudes about the organisation. The longest-term cohort is by definition composed of "stayers". (2) The longer a person participates in an organisation, the greater the bond that is formed and the stronger the person identifies with the organisation. Mathieu and Zajac (1990:171-194) reviewed 38 samples and found a positive link between organisational tenure and affective commitment. They report an overall weighted mean correlation of $r = .17$ ($p < .01$). Allen and Meyer (1990:1-18) indicate that an analysis of organisational tenure shows a mild curvilinear relationship with organisational commitment. They show that middle tenure employees exhibit a lower measured commitment than new or senior employees. Colbert and Kwon (2000:484) establish a significant relationship ($r = .11$,

$p < .05$) between tenure and organisational commitment. Employees with a longer tenure have a higher degree of organisational commitment than their counterparts.

- **Organisational characteristics**

Meyer and Allen (1991:67) suggest "that affective commitment develops as the result of experiences that satisfy employees' need to feel physically and psychologically comfortable in the organisation". These experiences include those that lead to a perception of support from the organisation. Employees who perceive a high level of support from the organisation are more likely to feel an obligation to repay the organisation in terms of affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991:67). Organisational characteristics such as structure, culture and organisational level policies, which can create perceptions of organisational support, will probably induce organisational commitment. The idea that organisational policies are related to affective commitment has some support in organisational commitment literature (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Finegan (2000:149) maintains that perceived organisational values – the values that the employee believes the organisation holds - do to some extent predict employees' level of commitment. However, different value types predict different commitment components. Finegan (2000:149) suggests that organisations may be able to increase affective and normative commitment through promoting the values of humanity (e.g. courtesy and co-operation), vision (e.g. creativity and openness), benevolence, self-direction and universality. Schwartz and Bardi (2001:268), consistent with Maslow's hierarchy of needs, argue that benevolence, self-direction and universality are values that meet fundamental human needs. Maslow's theory suggests that these values are related to the higher-order need of self-actualization at the top of the need hierarchy. If organisations paid more attention to higher-order values, employees would experience improved work environments and opportunities, organisations would experience better employee commitment and performance and possibly society would in general experience improved corporate ethics (Finegan, 2000:165).

- **Other characteristics**

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), once an employee realizes that moving to a new organisation will result in the forfeiture of benefits, the employee may decide to remain with the current organisation rather than lose the investment. Such an employee develops continuance commitment as he/she stays with the organisation as the result of a calculated decision rather than an eagerness to remain. Investment can take any form and may be either work or non-work related. Romzek (1990:651) suggests that organisations can easily convince employees that they have made a big investment in the organisation. He opines that organisations only need to offer opportunities and working conditions that are competitive with other prospective employers. Typically, investment factors include promotion prospects, development of work group network performance bonuses and the accrual of leave, sick leave, family-friendly policies and retirement benefits. If these cannot be easily matched by prospective employers, the organisation's employees will remain "stuck" in the organisation even though they are no longer optimally effective.

The other hypothesized antecedent of continuance commitment is the employment alternative. Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that an employee's perception of the availability of alternative employment will be negatively linked to continuance commitment. Furthermore employees who think they have viable alternatives will have weaker continuance commitment than those who think their alternatives are limited. The availability of alternative employment does not influence continuance commitment on its own (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999:307) as it may often work in conjunction with the extent to which family factors limit or enable an employee's ability to relocate or take up a new job.

The commitment that an employee shows to an organisation has consistently been found to be related to critical workplace behaviours. The nature and direction of the relationships are complex and depend on context and the variables under consideration (Mathieu & Zajack, 1990:171). The form of commitment (affective, continuance and normative) also influences the nature and direction of the relationship (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002:20). According to Meyer *et al*. (2002:20), although affective and normative commitments can be seen

as distinct factors, they have consistently been found to be positively linked. Both affective and normative commitment have been shown to be predictors of positive organisational behaviour, including increased work performance and satisfaction, tenure and attendance. Continuance commitment on the other hand has been found to be unrelated to affective commitment and negatively related or unrelated to positive organisational behaviours. The only similarity among the three components of commitment appears to be related to lower turnover intention or withdrawal cognition. (Abbott *et al*., 2005:532). Finegan's work provides further evidence that continuance commitment is a fundamentally different construct from affective commitment as Finegan maintains that continuance commitment is related to workplace values other than affective and normative commitment (Finegan, 2000:149-169). A meta-analysis conducted by Tett and Meyer (1993:259-293) reveals a significant and strong relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Managers are advised to increase job satisfaction in order to elicit higher levels of commitment.

Commitment to the organisation is not the only type of commitment in the workplace that underpins behaviour (Redman & Snape, 2005:301). Meyer *et al*. (2004:993-994) are of the opinion that commitment goes beyond organisational commitment therefore employees may be committed to multiple targets – or foci, for example commitment towards management (supervisor), occupation, career, profession, co-workers (team), customers and unions. Becker (1992:232) supports this notion by stating that individuals may experience commitment to multiple foci, which could predict a range of attitudes and behaviours. Becker (1992:240) shows that commitment to top management, supervisors and work groups is distinguishable from commitment to the organisation as a whole, and that commitment to these foci predicts job satisfaction, withdrawal cognitions and organisational citizenship behaviour over and above global commitment. Subsequent studies have confirmed the existence of multiple commitments and their significance as predictors of employee attitudes and behaviour (Becker, Billings, Eveleth & Gilbert, 1996; Bishop & Scott, 2000; Neubert & Candy, 2001; Reichers, 1985). The findings of Becker *et al*. (1996:464) have shown that employees' commitment to their supervisors is more strongly associated with performance than commitment to the organisation. Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1997:444) provide evidence that the three-component model

of organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) is generalizable over the different foci of commitment.

There is reason to believe that the concept of commitment may be less important to employers and employees than it once was. The unwritten loyalty contract that existed 30 years ago between employees and employers has been seriously eroded. Similarly the notion of employees staying with a single organisation for most of their career span has become increasingly rare. This suggests that organisational commitment is probably less important as a work-related attitude than it once was. In its place we could expect something akin to occupational commitment to become a more relevant variable because this reflects today's fluid workforce more accurately (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993:538). Occupational commitment is loyalty to one's profession rather than to a specific organisation (Corcoran, 2003:13). A company engineer might perceive himself as an engineer first, and then as a member of the specific organisation. Cetin (2006:79) states that occupational commitment requires three conditions: (1) commitment to the purpose of the occupation; (2) beliefs in the values of the occupation and acceptance of them; and (3) showing an effort to maintain membership with the occupation.

Meyer *et al*. (2004:994) compare the definitions of motivation and commitment and reveal obvious similarities. Both are described as energizing forces with implications for behaviour. Motivation is described by Pinder (1998:11) as "a set of energetic forces that originates both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration". Commitment is described by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:301) as "a force that binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target". This implies that motivation is a broader concept than commitment and that commitment is one among a set of energizing forces that contribute to motivated (intentional) behaviour (Meyer *et al*., 2004:994). The implication is that the literature of organisational commitment and work motivation can be integrated into a single theory. Refer to the work of Meyer and colleagues (2004) for the integration.

2.3.3 Job involvement

The construct job involvement, a more recent addition to organisational behaviour literature, is accorded much less attention than job satisfaction and organisational commitment. According to O'Driscoll and Randall (1999:199), a primary differentiation in the literature on work commitment is between the commitment to the job (referred to as job involvement) and commitment to the organisation (referred to as organisational commitment). Schermerhorn *et al*. (1997:99) explain the difference between the concepts by indicating that high job involvement means identifying with one's specific job (dedication), while high organisational commitment means identifying with one's employing organisation (loyalty). Corcoran (2003:15) indicates that job involvement is often referred to as job commitment or job attachment.

According to Blau (1985b:19), job involvement refers to the extent to which a person identifies psychologically with his/her job and considers his/her performance level as a reflection of self-worth. A person with a high level of job involvement will have a strong sense of "belonging" in the specific job, and will want to perform well. Individuals who possess high job involvement consider their jobs as being important to their self-image because they identify with and care about their jobs. Kanungo (1982:341) asserts that an individual's psychological identification with a particular job depends on the saliency of his/her needs (both intrinsic and extrinsic) and the perceptions that he/she has about the need-satisfying potential of the job. Job involvement tends to be a function of a person's present situation, and to what extent the present job can satisfy a person's present needs. Pinder (1998:11) adds that a person is involved in his job if he/she actively participates in it, holds it as a central life interest, perceives performance as central to his/her self-esteem and sees performance as congruent with his/her self-concept.

Job involvement, work involvement and employee involvement are not the same. Work involvement is a normative belief about the general value of work in one's life and is the result of one's past cultural conditioning and socialization. Employee involvement (also known as worker participation) is defined by Newstrom and Davis (1997:229) as the mental and emotional involvement of employees in group

situations that encourage them to contribute to group goals and share responsibility for them. A closely related concept is psychological empowerment, which is employees' belief in the degree to which they impact on their work environment, their competence, the meaningfulness of their job, and the perceived autonomy in their work (Spreitzer, 1995:1442).

High levels of job involvement and psychological empowerment are positively related to organisational citizenship and job performance (Chiu & Tsai, 2006:520; Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin & Lord, 2002:93). In addition, high job involvement has been found to be related to reduce absenteeism and lower resignation rates, although it seems to predict staff turnover more consistently than absenteeism, accounting for as much as 16% of the variance in turnover (Blau & Boal, 1987:290; Blau & Boal, 1989:115). A meta-analysis conducted by Brown(b) (1996:235-255) demonstrates that job involvement is moderately related to job satisfaction. Managers are thus encouraged to foster a satisfying work environment to encourage employees' job involvement. Blau and Boal (1989:123) note that job involvement is a more stable and enduring attitude than organisational commitment as differences in job involvement may flow from experiences early in the individual's socialization process including early educational experiences and parents' work ethics.

2.3.4 Perceived organisational support (POS)

Perceived organisational support (POS) is the degree to which employees believe the organisation provides them with required support, values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986:500). Employees perceive their organisation as supportive if rewards are deemed fair, if employees have a voice in decisions, and if their supervisors are seen as supportive (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001:825). Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro (1990:51) observe a positive relationship between affective commitment and perceived organisational support. Shore and her colleagues (Shore & Tetrick, 1991:637; Shore & Wayne, 1993:774) have also found a strong positive relationship with affective commitment, but a lack of correlation between support and continuance commitment. A study by O'Driscoll and Randall (1999:197) has confirmed that perceived organisational support is strongly associated with higher

levels of job involvement and affective commitment. Given that organisations typically want employees to exhibit high levels of both these behaviours, provision of support is clearly a desired mechanism for enhancing positive job attitudes.

The above discussions on the constructs job satisfaction; organisational commitment and job involvement conclude that specific aspects related to one's job and the organisation, facilitate job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement. It could thus be possible to identify the factors which would facilitate positive work-related attitudes amongst expatriate managers.

2.4 BEHAVIOURAL MANIFESTATIONS OF JOB ATTITUDES

Schermerhorn *et al*. (1997:99) argue that "the importance of job attitudes can be viewed in the context of two decisions people make about their work. The first is the decision to belong, that is, to join and then stay as a member of an organisation. The second is the decision to perform, that is, to work hard in pursuit of high levels of task performance. Importantly, not everyone who belongs to an organisation performs up to expectations". Employee dissatisfaction can be expressed in a number of ways. For example, rather than resign, employees can complain, be insubordinate, steal the organisation's property, or shirk in the execution of their responsibilities. Withey and Cooper (1989:521-539) identify four responses to the work environment that differ from one another in two dimensions: constructiveness/destructiveness and activity/passivity. These are defined as follows:

- **Exit.** An active but destructive approach, where the employee looks for another job, resigns and leaves the company. This may be an impulsive reaction that may leave a gap in the organisation in terms of valued skills.
- **Voice.** An active and constructive approach initiated by the employee to engage with the organisation to improve the situation. This response can include suggesting improvements and changes, discussing problems with superiors and some form of union activity. Dissatisfaction stemming from perceptions of pay inequities, poor supervisor-subordinate relationships and inadequate working conditions initiates and sustains union activities.

- **Loyalty.** A passive, but constructive, approach. This requires a steady, patient wait for the situation to improve, while remaining positive abut the organisation.
- **Neglect.** Is a passive and destructive approach. In this situation, the conditions are left to deteriorate and no action is taken. In fact, the employee will become more negative and act this out through behaviours such as chronic absenteeism and lateness, reduced effort and increased error rate.

Exit and neglect behaviours influence our performance variables – productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. But this model expands employee response to include voice and loyalty – constructive behaviours that allow individuals to tolerate unpleasant situations or to perk up satisfactory working conditions. It helps us to understand situations, such as those sometimes found among unionized workers, where low levels of job satisfaction are coupled with low turnover. Union members often express dissatisfaction through the grievance procedure or through formal contract negotiations. These vice mechanisms allow the union members to continue in their jobs while convincing themselves that they are acting to improve the situation (Guthrie, 2001:180).

Behavioural scientists Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen have developed a comprehensive model of behavioural intentions used widely to explain attitude – behaviour relationships (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977:888-918). Figure 2.5 depict the intention to engage in a given behaviour as the best predictor of that behaviour.

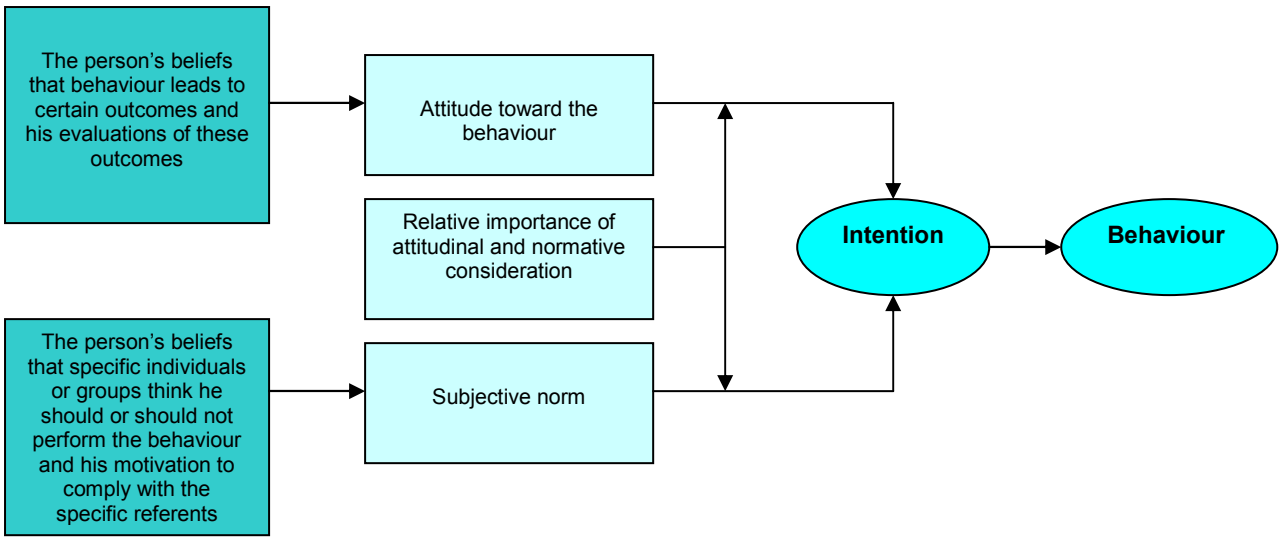

Figure 2.5: A model of behavioural intention (Kreitner and Kinicki, 1998:137)

Steel and Ovalle (1984:673) validate this direct approach, by conducting a meta-analysis of 34 studies of employee turnover involving more than 83 000 employees. The researchers found stated behavioural intentions to be a better predictor of employee turnover than job satisfaction, satisfaction with the work itself or organisational commitment. Although asking about intentions enables one to predict who will quit, it does not help to explain why an individual would want to quit. Thus, to gain a better understanding of why employees exhibit certain behaviours, such as quitting their jobs, one needs to consider their relevant attitudes. As shown in Figure 2.5, behavioural intentions are influenced by one's attitude toward the behaviour and the perceived norms about exhibiting the behaviour. In turn, attitudes and subjective norms are determined by personal beliefs (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998:136-137).

According to Naumann *et al*. (2000:229), most models of turnover include behavioural intentions as an intermediate linkage between worker attitudes and turnover. Supporting this contention, a large body of research has generally found a stronger relationship between attitudes and intentions than between attitudes and turnover (Sager, Varadarajan & Futrell, 1988:21-35). Also, the relationship between the propensity to leave and turnover is consistently strong and positive, although the range of correlation coefficients is quite wide, ranging from $r = .41$ ($p < .05$) (Griffeth & Hom, 1988:103-111) to $r = .71$ ($p < .05$) (Hom & Hulin, 1981:23-29). Steel and Ovalle's (1984:673-686) results of a meta-analysis of published and unpublished studies show a weighted average correlation of .50 between behavioural intention and employer turnover. They conclude that behavioural intentions are "becoming increasingly indispensable to empirical and theoretical work linking turnover behaviour to psychological antecedents". Due to the strength of the relationship between intention and turnover, propensity to leave (or intention to quit) has frequently been used as the dependable variable in turnover studies (Naumann *et al*., 2000:229).

Lee and Goa (2005:381) confirm that the intention to leave is considered an important work outcome variable. As a behavioural intention variable, the intention to leave, acts intermediary between worker attitudes and actual turnover (Naumann *et al*., 2000:229). The strong and positive empirical relationship between the intention to leave and actual turnover has led to frequent use of this construct in management

research. For example, many studies in the literature have specifically assessed the link between organisational commitment and intention to leave (Babakus *et al*., 1996; Jaros *et al*., 1993). In their meta-analysis, Brown and Peterson (1993:381) suggest that given the preponderance of research evidence, organisational commitment should be recognized as a direct antecedent of the intention to leave.

For the purpose of the study, the dependent variable intention to leave a foreign assignment prematurely or the intention towards undesirable turnover **will be measured through the behavioural intention to quit**. The reasons for this decision are:

- Behavioural intention to leave or stay seems to be the strongest predictors of turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Steel & Ovalle, 1984).
- Intention to quit has frequently been used as the dependent variable in turnover studies (Naumann *et al*., 2000; Sager *et al*., 1988).

This area has significant managerial implications because thousands of studies have examined the relationship between job attitudes and organisational variables. Since it is impossible to examine them all, we shall consider a subset of the more important variables from the standpoint of managerial relevance.

2.4.1 Labour turnover

Gomez-Mejia *et al*. (2001:200) define labour turnover/employee separation as “the termination of an employee’s membership in an organisation”. Labour turnover can be classified into four main types: voluntary/involuntary, desirable/undesirable, functional/dysfunctional and controllable/uncontrollable.

According to (Newstrom & Davis, 1997:262), involuntary turnover refers to a situation where an employee’s employment is terminated against his/her will, while voluntary turnover is where an employee willingly terminates his/her employment. Desirable turnover is the termination of the employment contract by mutual agreement, while undesirable turnover is where the employee quits voluntarily, but

against the will of the organisation. Staw (1980:253) indicates that turnover can have several negative/dysfunctional consequences, especially if the turnover rate is high. When people quit their jobs, valuable human resources are lost. Dysfunctional consequences of turnover can include the expenses of recruiting, selecting, training and separating as well as productivity losses caused by any operational disruptions and low morale (Gomez-Mejia *et al*., 2001:201). Often it is difficult to replace the employees, and the direct and indirect costs to the organisation of replacing workers are high. The remaining employees may be demoralized because of the loss of valued co-workers, and both work and social patterns may be disrupted until replacements are found. Also, the organisation's reputation in the community may suffer. However, some functional benefits may arise from turnover, such as more opportunities for internal promotion, the infusion of expertise from newly hired employees and the replacement of poor performers (Gomez-Mejia *et al*., 2001:202). Voluntary resignations and dismissals are classified as controllable turnover as the organisation can implement strategies to prevent these. Death, permanent illness and resignation are classified as uncontrollable turnover. The categories of labour turnover for the purpose of this study are voluntary, undesirable, dysfunctional and controllable.

Lee and Liu (2006:756) are of the opinion that domestic definitions of employee separation are too narrow for the international environment therefore they need to be broadened to include several other dimensions of turnover. Expatriate turnover often involves internal transfers across borders. Research has also indicated that many expatriate managers find the repatriation process much more stressful and frustrating than the initial expatriation process and this may cause turnover. Many expatriates develop an intention to quit while on the foreign assignment and view the transfer back as an intermediate step to leaving the organisation.

Figure 2.6 illustrates the relationship between employee attitudes toward the organisation and the organisation's attitudes toward the employee (Newstrom & Davis, 1997:262-263). Desirable turnover is represented by cells b and d. The undesirable turnover of cell c should be minimized. Situations that contribute to cell a, should be encouraged as, in this cell are valued employees who wish to remain with the organisation. The message for managers is to look beyond overall turnover

rates and examine instead the functionality of each departure. Managers need to ask themselves these questions – "Are the right people staying, and are the right people departing?" This is an extremely critical issue. However, the best approach is a preventive one, as Figure 2.6 shows.

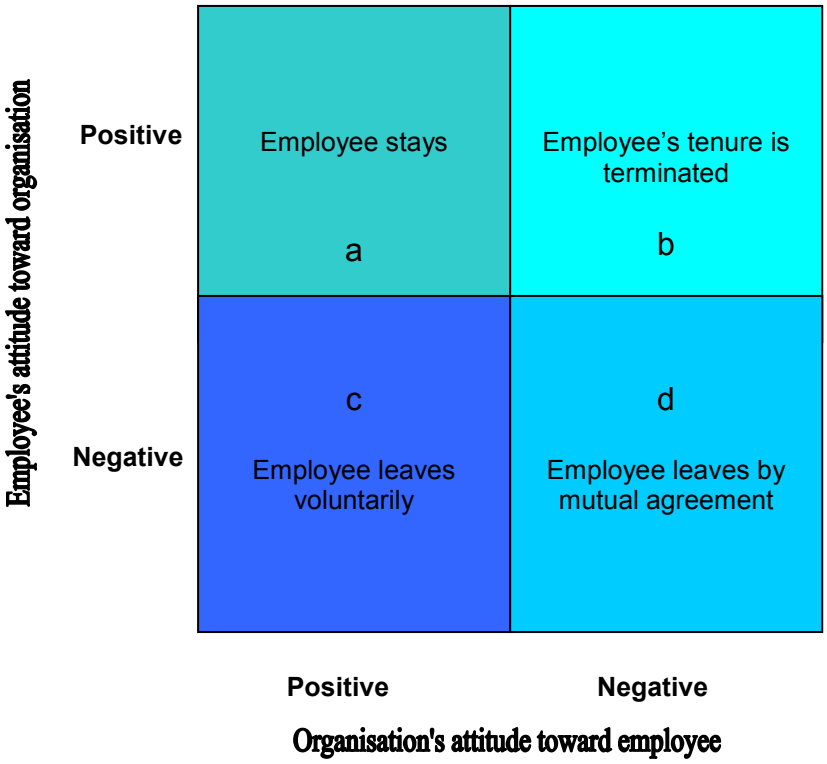

Figure 2.6: Four products of employee-organisation attitudes (Newstrom and Davis, 1997:263)

Newstrom and Davis (1997:261) indicate that higher job satisfaction is associated with lower employee turnover as, the more satisfied employees are, the less likely they are to go through a progressive process in which they consider quitting, search for a new job and evaluate their alternatives, or announce their intention to quit. As shown in Figure 2.7, among employees who have lower satisfaction, labour turnover is usually higher. They may lack self-fulfilment, receive little recognition on the job, experience continual conflicts with a supervisor or peer, or they may have reached a personal plateau in their career. As a result they are more likely to seek greener pastures and leave their employers, while their more satisfied colleagues remain. Yet, again, other factors such as labour-market conditions, expectations about alternative job opportunities, and length of tenure with the organisation are important

constraints on the actual decision to leave one's current job. Satisfaction is also negatively related to absenteeism, but the correlation is weaker than that which we find for labour turnover.

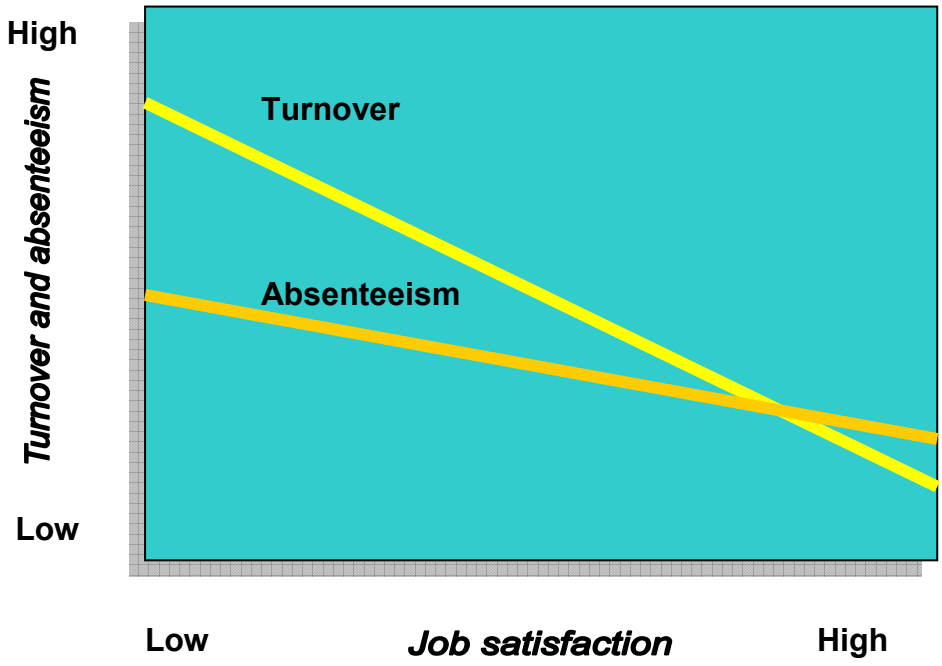

Figure 2.7: Relationship of job satisfaction to turnover and absenteeism (Newstrom and Davis, 1997:262)

A meta-analysis of 49 studies by Tett and Meyer (1993:259-293), demonstrates a moderate negative relationship between turnover and satisfaction. This negative relationship is supported by other researchers (Babakus *et al*., 1996; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Naumann, 1993b). Given the moderate strength of the relationship reported by researchers, managers should try to reduce turnover by increasing employees' job satisfaction.

For organisational commitment and job involvement, the research evidence demonstrates negative relationships between these attitudes and both absenteeism and turnover (Blau & Boal, 1989:115). In general, it seems that affective commitment is more strongly related to organisational outcomes such as performance and labour turnover, than the other two commitment dimensions. Studies demonstrate that an individual's level of organisational commitment is a better indicator of labour turnover than the far more frequently used job satisfaction predictor, accounting for as much

as 34% of the variance. Organisational commitment is probably a better predictor because it is a more global and enduring response to the organisation as a whole. An employee may be dissatisfied with his or her particular job and consider it a temporary condition, yet not be dissatisfied with the organisation as a whole. But when dissatisfaction spreads to the organisation itself, individuals are more likely to consider resigning. Evidence indicates that an important moderator of the satisfaction-turnover relationship is the employee's level of performance (Spencer & Steers, 1981:511-514)

Labour turnover sometimes arises because unrealistic expectations are created during the recruiting process. In contrast to traditional recruiting, which tries only to "sell" job candidates the organisation, realistic recruitment is the preferred approach. This method gives a realistic job preview, which gives prospective employees as much pertinent information – both good and bad – about the job as possible, with minimal distortion. Not only does this recruiting approach make sense from a staffing perspective, it is also the only ethical thing to do.

2.4.2 Absenteeism and tardiness

Kreitner and Kinicki (1998:208) confirm that managers are constantly on the lookout for ways to reduce absenteeism. One recommendation is to increase job satisfaction. If this is a valid recommendation, there should be a strong negative correlation between satisfaction and absenteeism. In other words, as satisfaction increases, absenteeism should decrease. Figure 2.7 illustrates the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. Employees who have low job satisfaction tend to be absent more often, although the relationship is weaker than with labour turnover. Hackett (1989:235-248) has tracked this prediction by synthesizing three separate meta-analyses containing a total of 74 studies. Results reveal a weak negative relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism. It is unlikely, therefore, that managers will realize any significant decrease in absenteeism by increasing job satisfaction. This result is confirmed in a more recent meta-analysis. Harrison, Newman and Roth (2006:305) have also found a moderate satisfaction-absenteeism relationship. Dineen, Noe, Shaw and Wiethoff (2007:623) argue that most of the studies of the satisfaction-absenteeism relationship have been conducted at the

individual level. Their study results indicate that relationships between absenteeism and satisfaction typically found at the individual level are not necessarily homologous at the team level of analysis. Dineen *et al*. (2007:637) report that mean levels of team satisfaction strongly relate to absenteeism. A study by Yucelt (1982:251) found, that although absenteeism is not significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction, there is a significant correlation between absenteeism and satisfaction with the supervisor and co-workers.

Another way in which employees may exhibit their dissatisfaction with job conditions is through tardiness. A tardy employee is one who comes to work, but arrives after the designated starting time. Tardiness is a type of short-period absenteeism ranging from a few minutes to several hours for each event, and it is another way in which employees physically withdraw from active involvement in the organisation. It may impede the timely completion of work and disrupt productive relationships with co-workers. Although there may be legitimate reasons for an occasional tardy arrival (like a sudden traffic jam), a pattern of tardiness is often a symptom of negative attitudes requiring managerial attention (Newstrom & Davis, 1997:264).

2.4.3 Performance

One of the most debated and controversial issues within organisational research centres on the relationship between satisfaction and job performance (Levy-Garboria & Montmarquette, 2004:135). According to Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985:251) and Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton (2001:376), three alternative points of view exist: (1) satisfaction causes performance; (2) performance causes satisfaction; and (3) no specific direction or relationship, but rather rewards intervene, that lead to both performance and satisfaction. The relationship between organisational commitment and performance is also debated in literature (Suliman & Isles (a), 2000:407).

- **Satisfaction causes performance**

There used to be a common assumption among researchers that employee satisfaction directly affects performance. This stems back to the paternalistic approach of the 1950s. But most research studies have found no significant

satisfaction-performance relationship (Yukl & Wexley, 1971:30). Herzberg though, argues that satisfaction leads to higher performance. In an attempt to resolve this controversy, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985:251) conducted a meta-analysis from 74 studies. It was discovered that satisfaction and performance were only slightly related. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1998:209), researchers claim that this result is misleading and that it understates the true relationship between performance and satisfaction. The rationale behind this claim revolves around the accuracy of measuring an individual's performance. If performance ratings do not reflect the actual interactions and interdependencies at work, weak meta-analysis results are partially due to incomplete measuring of individual-level performance. Examining the relationship between aggregate measures of job satisfaction and organisational performance is one solution to correct this problem. In support of these ideas, a study by Ostroff (1992:963-974) has found a significant, positive correlation between organisational performance and employee satisfaction. Thus, it appears that managers can positively affect performance by increasing employee job satisfaction, although the relationship holds better for professional or higher level employees than for non-professionals or those at lower levels. Blue-collar workers tend to have lower levels of job satisfaction, due to the repetitive and mundane nature of their jobs (Berning & Potgieter, 2000:5).

Schermerhorn *et al*. (1997:100) conclude that job satisfaction alone is probably not a consistent predictor of individual work performance. But satisfaction may well be an important component of a larger set of variables that can together predict performance for certain people.

- **Performance causes satisfaction**

Some organisational behaviour scholars cling to an old myth – that high satisfaction leads to high employee performance – but this assumption is strongly contested. Satisfied workers may be high, average, or even low producers, but they will tend to continue the level of performance that previously brought them satisfaction (according to the behaviour modification model). The satisfaction-performance relationship is more complex than the simple path of "satisfaction leads to performance." A more accurate statement of the relationship is that high

performance contributes to high job satisfaction. A basic model of this relationship is shown in figure 2.8. The model, which is based on the work of Edward Lawler and Lyman Porter, maintains that performance accomplishments lead to rewards that in turn lead to satisfaction.

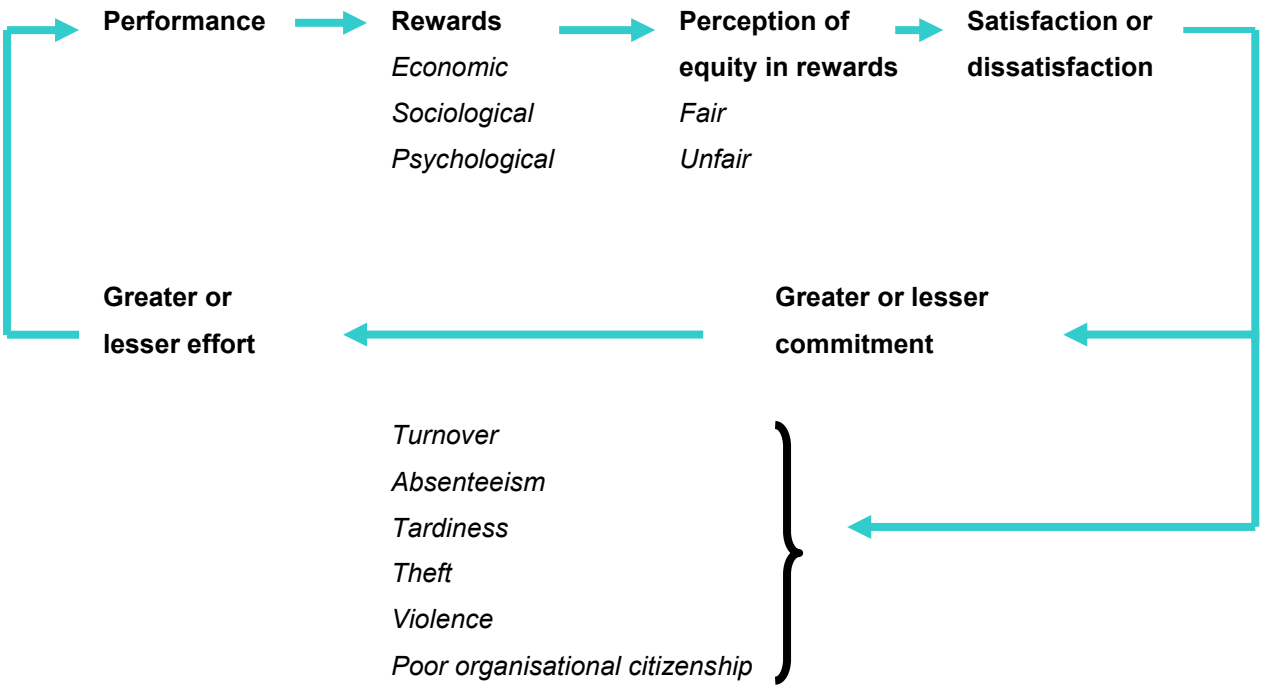

Figure 2.8: The performance-satisfaction-effort loop (Newstrom and Davis, 1997:261)

Rewards in this model are intervening variables. In other words they link performance with later satisfaction. In addition, a moderating variable - perceived equity of rewards - further affects the relationship. The moderator indicates that performance will lead to satisfaction only if rewards are perceived as equitable. If an individual experiences that his/her performance is unfairly rewarded, the performance-causes satisfaction effect will not hold (Schermerhorn *et al*., 1997:100-101). The sequence, shown in Figure 2.8, indicates that better performance typically leads to higher economic, sociological and psychological rewards. If these rewards are seen as fair and equitable, then improved satisfaction develops because employees feel that they are receiving rewards in proportion to their performance. On the other hand, if rewards are seen as unfair for the level of performance, dissatisfaction tends to arise. In either case, the level of satisfaction leads to either

greater or lesser commitment, which then affects effort and eventually performance. The results are a continuously operating performance-satisfaction-effort loop. The implication for management is to devote its efforts to enhancing employee performance, as this is likely to produce satisfaction as a by-product. Alternatively, a different scenario emerges if performance is low. Employees might not receive the rewards they were hoping for, and be dissatisfied. In these circumstances, the employee may exhibit one or more negative behaviours, such as labour turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, theft, violence or lack of organisational citizenship.

- **Rewards stimulate both performance and satisfaction**

This final argument in the job satisfaction-performance controversy is the most compelling. It suggests that proper, and the key word here is proper, allocation of resources will positively influence both performance and satisfaction. Research indicates that people who receive high rewards report higher job satisfaction. Furthermore, performance-contingent rewards (size and value of the reward is in proportion to the accomplishment) influence people's work performance (Schermerhorn *et al*., 1997: 101). The point is to consider job satisfaction and performance as two separate but interrelated work results that are affected by allocation of resources. Whereas job satisfaction alone is not a good predictor of work performance, well-managed rewards are likely to have a positive influence on performance and satisfaction.

2.4.4 Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

Of significance in the last two decades has been the emergence of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as a behavioural manifestation of job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment. Organ (1997:85) views organisational citizenship behaviour as discretionary actions that promote the success of the organisation. Organisational citizenship is often marked by its spontaneity, its voluntary nature, its constructive impact on results, its unexpected helpfulness to others, and the fact that it is optional. Volunteering for extra assignments or sharing equipment with another worker is also a demonstration of organisational citizenship. Like the thousands of grains of dry yeast that make the other ingredients in bread

dough rise, thousands of tiny bits of extra effort (helping, donating, co-operating) help organisations rise past their competitors. Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was first coined by Organ and Ryan during the 1970s and re-visited more recently (Organ & Ryan, 1995:775). OCB refers to behaviours of employees as opposed to underlying values or attitudes. OCB is also known as the good soldier syndrome (Turnipseed & Murkinson, 2000:282) because these employees arrive on time, and complete their work. This behaviour improves the quality of performance and involvement in the organisation. This, in turn, releases more creativity and innovation into the organisation (Koys, 2001:101; Lam, 2001:262). OCB is characterized by pro-social behaviour that is not rewarded or penalized by a formal performance management system, although there is a strong relationship between work environment variables, especially good interpersonal and supervisory relationships and OCB. OCB is seen as those actions that are beyond formal prescribed roles and job descriptions i.e. extra roles, rather that normal role behaviour (Lam, 2001:262). Organ and Konovsky (1989:157) claim that the above behaviours associated with OCB are more prevalent among satisfied workers. According to Chiu and Tsai (2006:518), organisational citizenship behaviour is closely related to the concept "contextual performance" and is a type of performance. Contextual performance refers to the behaviour that supports the organisational, social and psychological environment during the operating of core technologies.

OCB is made up of five key categories of behaviour (Allison, Voss & Dryer, 2001: 285):

- **Altruism.** Voluntary actions that help a fellow employee with work-related problems; e.g. help fellow employees use equipment, assist them with incomplete work, help them find information.
- **Civic virtue.** Voluntary participation in and support of organisational functions of both a professional and social nature. In general, this means looking out for the organisation's best interests; e.g. participating in organisational policy-making, attending optional meetings, attending company-sponsored events (e.g. family day).

- **Conscientiousness.** A pattern of operating well beyond the minimum required tasks; e.g. arrive at work early and leave late, avoid unnecessary breaks, be punctual, make constructive suggestions; and complete tasks before they are due.
- **Courtesy.** A discretionary act of thoughtfulness and considerate behaviour that prevents work-related problems for others; e.g. notify employer if one is going to be late or absent; notify colleagues before you do things that will affect them; and inform colleagues of delays in work progress.
- **Sportsmanship.** A willingness to accept inevitable inconveniences and impositions in the workplace in your stride without complaining; e.g. not complaining about working overtime to complete a project, having a deadline brought forward or working conditions that are uncomfortable but not dangerous.

Organisational citizenship behaviours are those beyond the call of duty. Managers would certainly like employees to exhibit these behaviours. A recent meta-analysis covering 28 separate studies revealed a significant and moderately positive correlation between organisational citizenship behaviours and job satisfaction. Moreover, additional research demonstrated that employees' citizenship behaviours were determined more by leadership and characteristics of the work environment than by an employee's willingness to exhibit citizenship behaviour. This relationship is important to recognize because organisational citizenship behaviours were positively correlated with performance ratings (LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002:52).

2.4.5 Motivation.

Schermerhorn *et al*. (1997:87) identify motivation as an internal force that accounts for the level, direction and persistence of effort expended at work. If we add the role of motivation to figure 2.8 the relationship between motivation, job performance and satisfaction becomes clear. Figure 2.9, that illustrates this integrated model of motivation to work, is based on Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler's model of motivation. The Porter-Lawler model of motivation effectively summarizes much of what we know about motivating employees at work (Werner, 2007:91-92). In the figure, job performance is determined by individual attributes such as ability and experience, organisational support such as resources and technology and work

effort – the point at which an individual's level of motivation is evident. While individual motivation directly determines work effort, the key to motivation is the ability to create a work setting that positively responds to individuals' needs and goals. Whether or not a work setting proves to be motivational for a given individual depends on the availability of rewards and their perceived value. Motivation can also occur when job satisfaction results from either intrinsic or extrinsic rewards that are felt to be equitably allocated. When gross inequity is experienced, satisfaction will be low and motivation will be reduced (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1997:101-102).

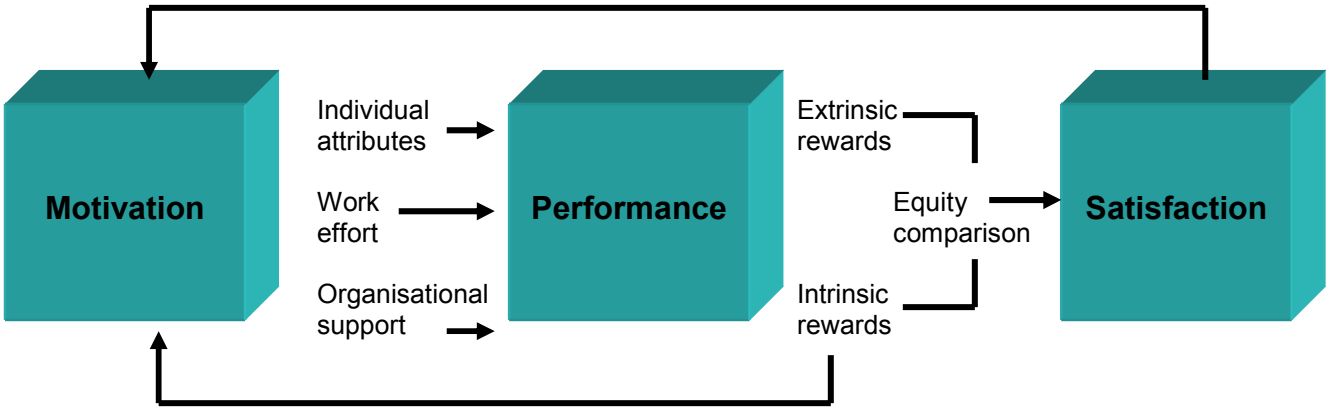

Figure 2.9: An integrated model of individual motivation to work (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 1997:102)

A recent meta-analysis of nine studies revealed a significant positive relationship between motivation and job satisfaction. Because satisfaction with supervision also correlated significantly with motivation, managers' are advised to consider how their behaviour affects employee satisfaction. Managers can potentially enhance employees' motivation through various strategies to increase job satisfaction levels (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998:207).

2.4.6 Perceived stress

Kreitner and Kinicki (1998:209) state that stress can have extremely negative effects on organisational behaviour. A meta-analysis of seven studies has revealed that perceived stress has a strong, negative relationship with job satisfaction (Blegen,

1993:36-41). It is hoped that managers will attempt to reduce the negative effects of stress by improving job satisfaction levels.

2.4.7 Violence and theft

One of the direst consequences of employee dissatisfaction is violence, or various forms of verbal or physical aggression at work. Although the source of violence can include customers and strangers, the effect is the same. Millions of workers are currently the victims of workplace violence annually, and many more live under the direct or perceived threat of attack. Ironically, work stress can be a cause of violence or the aftermath of it. Managers have to be increasingly on the lookout for signs that employee dissatisfaction might turn into verbal or physical attacks at work, therefore they have to take appropriate preventive actions (Newstrom & Davis, 1997:265).

Some employees steal goods, while, others use company services without authorization, such as making personal long-distance calls at work (thereby "stealing" both the cost of the call and their productive time). Others forge cheques or commit other types of fraud. All these acts are forms of theft, or the unauthorized removal of company resources. Although there are many causes of employee theft, some employees may steal because they feel exploited, overworked or frustrated by the impersonal treatment that they receive from their organisation. In their own minds, employees may justify unethical behaviour as a way of establishing equity, or even gaining revenge for what they consider to be ill treatment at the hands of a supervisor. In contrast to the situation relating to absenteeism and tardiness, tighter organisational control or incentive systems do not always solve the problem of theft, since these are directed at the symptoms and not at the underlying causes such as severe dissatisfaction (Newstrom & Davis, 1997:264).

Table 2.5 summarizes the relationship between job satisfaction and the discussed variables. The direction of the relationship is either positive (+) or negative (-). The strength of the relationship ranges from weak (insignificant relationship) to strong (significant relationship). Strong relationships imply that managers are able to influence the variable of interest significantly by inspiring job attitudes.

For the purpose of the study it is worthwhile to mention the correlation between job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment. In seeking to identify the different configurations of these job attitudes that are maximally effective in explaining the inter-relationships among them, researchers have focused primarily on linear relationships, even though the emerging view suggests that the relationships may be curvilinear and/or interactional (Bhuian & Menguc, 2002:1).

Table 2.5: Correlates of job satisfaction (Kreitner and Kinicki, 1998:208)

Variables related to satisfaction	Direction of relationship	Strength of relationship
Motivation	Positive	Moderate
Job involvement	Positive	Moderate
Organisational citizenship behaviour	Positive	Moderate
Organisational commitment	Positive	Strong
Absenteeism	Negative	Weak
Tardiness	Negative	Weak
Turnover	Negative	Moderate
Heart disease	Negative	Moderate
Perceived stress	Negative	Strong
Pro-union voting	Negative	Moderate
Job performance	Positive	Weak
Positive attitude	Positive	Moderate
Mental health	Positive	Moderate

A meta-analysis involving 87 different studies demonstrates that job involvement is moderately related to job satisfaction (Brown(b), 1996:235). Managers are thus encouraged to foster satisfying work environments in order to strengthen employees' job involvement. A meta-analysis of 68 studies uncovered a significant and strong correlation between organisational commitment and satisfaction (Tett & Meyer, 1993:259). Mathieu and Zajac (1990:171-194) advise managers to increase job satisfaction to elicit higher levels of commitment. In turn, stronger commitment will lead to higher productivity.

In can thus be concluded that although job attitudes do not necessarily influence quantity and quality of performance, they do influence organisational citizenship behaviour, labour turnover, absenteeism and preferences and opinions about unions. Job attitudes are important variables influencing the behavioural intentions of

individuals in organisations and are of importance to organisations as the behavioural intention to leave or stay seems to be the strongest predictor of actual labour turnover. Because of these influences managers' continue to search for techniques and programmes to improve job attitudes.

2.5 MEASURING ATTITUDES

The preceding review indicates that knowledge of employee attitudes can be helpful to managers when they attempt to predict employee behaviour. Given its importance, organisational behaviour researchers are interested in accurately measuring job attitudes and understanding the consequences for people at work. Kruger *et al*. (2005:160) note that attitudes are measured according to two dimensions: direction (this indicates whether an attitude is positive or negative) and intensity (this indicates the degree of preference or dislike for an object or person). Informally on a daily basis, managers should be able to gauge job satisfaction of others through careful observation or interpretation of what they say and do while going about their jobs. Sometimes, it is also useful to measure more formally the levels of job satisfaction among groups of workers. This is most frequently done through formal interviews or questionnaires. Increasingly, other methods are being used as well, for example focus groups, computer-based attitude surveys and management blogs (Shively, Becker-Doyle, Fabian & Hunt, 2007:79; Wymer & Carsten, 1992:71).

- **Job satisfaction**

Robbins and Judge (2007:85) indicate that approaches to measuring job satisfaction are either an overall single global rating (single-item approach) which is general or a summation score made up of a number of job facets (multiple-item approach) which is specific.

Berning and Potgieter (2000:70) state that the single-item approach attempts to ascertain general overall satisfaction with the "total package" i.e. the job. There are many questionnaires that have attempted to do this, dating back to more than 50 years. Job satisfaction is measured by asking employees one broad, global question,

for example, “Generally, how satisfied are you with your job”. The Brayfield-Rothe (1951) index is a frequently used measurement, aptly titled the “overall job satisfaction” measurement (Gibson *et al*., 2006:109). Another popular example of this approach is the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire produced by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist in 1967. The 20-item scale, relating to occupational and environmental conditions, purports to measure intrinsic (I) and extrinsic (E) motivation in different areas, but yields an overall satisfaction score. The instrument measures the various components of Herzberg’s theory of job satisfaction, such as working conditions, chances for advancement, freedom to use one’s own judgment, praise for doing a good job, and feelings of accomplishment. These factors are rated on a standardized scale and then added up to create an overall job satisfaction score. When the validity and reliability of the scale was carried out by Gillet and Schwab in 1975, the alpha coefficient was found to be 0.86932 (Cetin, 2006:81).

A study conducted by Nagy (2002:77-86) investigated the use of a single-item approach to measure job satisfaction. The study contained the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), a multi-item approach to measure job satisfaction, as well as a single-item approach which measured each of the five JDI facets. Results indicated that the single-item facet measure correlated significantly with each of the JDI facets (correlations ranged from .60 to .72 with a mean correlation of .66 across all facets). Results also indicated that the single-item approach compared favourably to the JDI and in some cases accounted for incremental variance in self-reported job performance and intention to turnover. The advantages of a single-item approach, include the notion that single-item measures may be easier and take less time to complete, may be less expensive, may have more face validity and may be more flexible than multiple-item scales. These results support the work of Wanous, Reichers and Hudy (1997:250), who have also found that single-item measures of overall job satisfaction correlate favourably with multiple-item measures of overall job satisfaction. Wanous *et al.* (1997:250) conclude that single-item measures may be preferred to multiple-item measures owing to the following conditions:

- Single-item measures take less space than multiple-measures.
- Single-item measures may be more cost effective.

- Single-item measures may contain more face validity, especially when an organisation has poor employee relations (due to negative reactions to perceived repetitious questions from scale measures).
- Single-item measures may be more effective to measure changes in job satisfaction.

Scarpello and Campbell (1983:577) believe that a single-item measuring scale is superior to summing up facet scales, because multiple-item facet scales may omit some components of a job that are important to an employee. Nagy (2002:78) points out though, that most multiple-item scales have been subjected to a tremendous amount of research to justify and validate the items used in the scales.

However, the use of a single global rating does not allow for analysis of the reasons for the stated satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Robbins and Judge (2007:85) mention, "that defining job satisfaction as an individual's general attitude towards his or her job, is a very broad definition. Yet this is inherent in the concept. Bear in mind, a person's job entails more than the obvious activities of shuffling papers, waiting on customers or driving a truck. Jobs necessitate interacting with co-workers and employers; following organisation rules and policies; meeting performance standards; accepting working conditions that are often less than ideal; etc. This means that an employee's assessment of how satisfied or dissatisfied he/she is with his/her job is a complex conglomerate of a number of discrete job elements. The current trend is to treat job satisfaction as a multi-dimensional construct. The reasons for this are largely self-evident: a worker could be highly satisfied with the wages he receives, moderately satisfied with his work-mates but very dissatisfied with his immediate supervisor. Which one, or combination of these, should be used to represent his single attitude to work? Furthermore, it is possible to imagine situations where groups of workers have similar scores on an overall measure, yet they differ widely in terms of their levels of satisfaction with different aspects of their employment. It seems likely, therefore, that studies of separate dimensions of job satisfaction will be more meaningful than research which employs a single global measure".

Robbins *et al*. (2003:77) state that the multi-dimensional approach is more sophisticated. It identifies key elements in a job and asks for the employee's feelings about each. Typical factors that would be included are the nature of the work, supervision, present pay, promotion opportunities, physical conditions and relations with co-workers. Yeager (1981:205) claims that among the job satisfaction questionnaires that have been used over the years, the most popular one is the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) described by Smith *et al*. (1969). This instrument measures levels of satisfaction on a nominal scale in five aspects of the job:

- The work itself – responsibility, interest and growth.
- Quality of supervision – technical help and social support.
- Relationships with co-workers – social harmony and respect.
- Promotion opportunities – opportunities for further advancement.
- Pay – adequacy of pay and perceived equity vis-à-vis others.

The 72-item questionnaire format is a simple one: for each area a list of adjectives or short phrases is presented, each with a blank space beside it. The subject is instructed to respond in one of three ways to each item: 'yes' if the item describes the particular aspect of his job, 'no', if it does not describe that aspect or a question mark if he cannot decide (Gibson *et al*., 2006:109).

An impressive body of data has been built up to validate the JDI which is according to Vroom (in Golembiewski & Yeager, 1978:514) without doubt a very carefully constructed measurement of job satisfaction. Specific features which appear to recommend its use are (1) the JDI has been widely in use in business and in government, (2) a strong case has been built for construct validity, both in the original source as well as in numerous other publications; and (3) the JDI dimensional structure seems stable across some occupational groupings and different demographic characteristics (Golembiewski & Yeager, 1978:515).

Although the JDI has been used widely, Smith and her colleagues in the JDI Research Group at Bowling Green State University felt that linguistic and contextual changes in the work arena necessitated revision of the instrument. In the late 1970s, they began a five-year project to revise the JDI. The subsequent revision was the

result of a multi-step process using item response theory as well as traditional psychometric methods. A few items were replaced by others that proved to be more relevant, particularly to non-manufacturing situations. This major effort was completed in 1985. The new instrument, called the Revised JDI, was characterized by the same high levels of internal consistency reliability (average scale alpha of .88) as the original. In a separate, but parallel endeavour, a new, extensively researched scale was formulated to measure satisfaction with the job in general (the JIG). This new scale was designed to provide an overall evaluation of the job, to complement the JDI's specific facet scales. Its average alpha of .91 was consistent with the high alpha levels of the Revised JDI. With the addition of the JIG, it became possible to use the JDI to assess satisfaction with six aspects of employment: supervision, pay, promotion opportunities, the work itself, co-workers and the job in general (Balzer & Smith, 1990). The Revised Job Descriptive Index (including the JIG) assesses an individual's level of job satisfaction on six scales comprising from 9 to 18 short phrases or adjectives. An individual responds to each item by circling "yes" if the item describes his or her job, "no" if the item does not describe his or her job and a question mark if he/she cannot decide. The six scales are scored separately and assess satisfaction with work, supervision, pay, promotion, co-workers and the job in general (Maghrabi & Johnson, 1995:47-48).

Embedded within the theoretical basis of the 'Job Characteristics Model' of Hackman and Oldham, the 'Job Diagnostic Survey' (JDS) was developed as a diagnostic instrument (Hackman & Oldman, 1975:150-170). The 'Job Diagnostic Survey' evolved from the job dimensions identified in the 'Job Characteristics Model' (JCM). According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1998:204), the JDS is widely used as a data collection instrument in the field of organisational development for job characteristics diagnoses. The JDS is used to diagnose existing jobs prior to job redesign, indicating whether job redesign should proceed, and to evaluate the effects of the redesign after the job redesign process.

Three major steps are to be followed when applying Hackman and Oldham's model. Since the model seeks to increase employee motivation and satisfaction, step one is to diagnose the work environment to determine whether a problem exists. This is done through a self-report instrument for managers called the job diagnostic survey

(JDS). Diagnosis begins by determining whether motivation and satisfaction are lower than is desirable. If they are, a manager will assess the motivating potential score (MPS) of the jobs being examined. If the MPS is low, an attempt is made to determine which of the core job characteristics are causing the problem. If the MPS is high, managers need to look for other factors that are eroding motivation and satisfaction. Step two is to determine whether job redesign is appropriate for a given group of employees. Job redesign is most likely to be successful in a participative environment in which employees have the necessary knowledge and skills. Step three is to consider how to redesign the job. The focus of this effort is to increase the scores of those core job characteristics that contribute to dissatisfaction. The JDS has been well researched and most of the evidence supports the theory that there is a multiple set of job characteristics that affect behavioural outcomes such as job satisfaction (Loher *et al*., 1985:280-289).

- **Organisational commitment**

According to Kacmar and Carlson (1999:976), different perspectives regarding the most appropriate definition of organisational commitment have led to some disagreement about how the construct should be measured. Various scales have been designed to measure organisation commitment (e.g. Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Mowday *et al*., 1979; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). The limited research that compared and contrasted the available measurement scales, found a great deal of overlap between the items of the various scales.

According to Lee and Goa (2005:378), many published studies have used the 15-item Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter in 1979 (Mowday *et al.,* 1979). As an illustration of the importance of the OCQ scale to research on organisational commitment, 103 out of 166 samples reported in Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analysis used the 15-item OCQ or the 9-item refinement of it. The 15-item OCQ was developed to determine three aspects of attitudinal commitment: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation' (Mowday *et al*., 1979:226). Although the OCQ comprises three underlying theoretical

aspects, the authors intended the scale to be unidimensional. A majority of researchers using this scale have reported or used a single-factor solution. The internal consistency reliability of the OCQ scores range from .82 - .93 with a mean score of .87 (Kacmar & Carlson, 1999:980).

Another example is the 9-item organisational commitment survey (OCS) developed by Balfour and Wechsler (1996). The OCS measures the degree to which individuals identify with the organisation for which they work, involving not only the acceptance of and belief in organisational values, but also a willingness to pursue organisational goals and a strong desire for organisational membership (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996:257). Respondents use a five-point Likert-type scale to indicate their responses from 1 = strong disagreement to 5 = strong agreement with each of the items in the scale. The internal consistency reliability for the OCS subscales is: *identification*, .69, *affiliation*, .73 and *exchange*, .74 (Kacmar & Carlson, 1999:980).

A third example is the instrument developed by Meyer and Allen in 1984 and revised in 1991 (Abbott *et al*., 2005:535). The original instrument contained 8 items focusing on affective commitment and 8 items focusing on continuance commitment. Affective commitment items measure the sense of belonging and emotional attachment to the organisation, identification with the organisation's problems and the feeling that the organisation adds to one's personal meaning. Continuance commitment items measure a perceived lack of alternative job opportunities, the personal sacrifice that would be required to leave the organisation and disruptions that would result from leaving (O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999:203). The revised 24-item scale is a three-component organisational commitment scale that now includes the third dimension of commitment – normative commitment. Respondents indicate their level of agreement with statements about attitudes to their organisation on a seven-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. The scale has reliabilities across many studies of .82 for *affective commitment*, .76 for *continuance commitment and* .73 for *normative commitment* (Abbott *et al*., 2005:535).

- **Job involvement**

As job involvement has been less researched than job satisfaction and organisational commitment as an independent variable in turnover studies, the measurement scales available are limited. The job involvement measurement tool most often used is the 9-item questionnaire constructed by Kanungo (1982:341-349).

- **Perceived organisational support**

Employees' perception of the amount of support they feel they receive from their organisation can be measured using a 17-item questionnaire developed by Eisenberg *et al*. (1986). Positively worded items in the questionnaire measure the extent to which respondents believe their organisation values their contribution, considers their goals and interests, makes help available to solve problems and cares about their general level of work satisfaction. Negatively worded items examine beliefs that the organisation will disregard employee interests, fail to notice their efforts and contributions and will take advantage of them when the opportunity arises (O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999:203).

Given the importance of job attitudes in understanding organisational behaviour, job attitudes are frequently measured by researchers and organisations. The result of this interest is that many reliable and valid work-related attitude questionnaires exist.

2.6 RESEARCHED RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB ATTITUDES AND LABOUR TURNOVER IN AN INTERNATIONAL SETTING

According to Naumann *et al*. (2000:228), although there is a substantial body of research available on domestic labour turnover in management literature, little attention has been devoted to international labour turnover. While turnover process models have been tested in respect of domestic labour turnover (see Cotton & Tuttle, 1986), they have not to any great extent been tested in respect of labour turnover of expatriates (see Lee, 2005; Naumann *et al*., 2000). Nevertheless, variables derived from models of domestic turnover may be relevant to turnover of expatriates.

As propensity to leave (intention to quit) is a chief determinant of labour turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Steel & Ovalle, 1984), propensity to leave (PTL) is frequently used as a dependent variable in labour turnover studies (Naumann *et al*., 2000). As a behavioural intention variable, it has been found to intermediate the linkage between worker attitudes and actual labour turnover (Naumann *et al*., 2000). The strong and positive empirical relationship between the propensity to leave and actual labour turnover has led to frequent use of this construct in management research. Table 2.6 reflects the job attitude variables associated with propensity to leave.

Table 2.6: Researched relationship between job attitudes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment & job involvement) and the propensity to leave

Determinants of propensity to leave (A)	Researchers	Relationship between (A) & (B)
Job satisfaction (B)	Locke (1976)	-
	Brown & Peterson (1993)	-
	Black, Mendenhall & Oddou(1991)	-
	Naumann (1993;2000)	-
	Tett & Meyer (1993)	-
	Birdseye & Hill (1995)	-
	Hom & Griffeth (1995)	-
	Vandenberg & Nelson (1999)	-
	Lee (2005)	-
	Bonache (2005)	-
	Harrison, Newman & Roth (2006)	-
	Lee & Liu (2006; 2007)	-
Organisational commitment (B)	Mowday, Porter & Steers (1979; 1982)	-
	Meyer and Allen (1984; 1991;1997)	-
	Blau and Boal (1989)	-
	Tett and Meyer (1993)	-
	Jaros, Jermier, Koehler & Sincich(1993)	-
	Balfour & Wechsler (1996)	-
	Vandenberg & Nelson (1999)	-
	Harrison, Newman & Roth (2006)	-
	Lee & Liu (2006; 2007)	-
	Ahuja,Chudoba & Kacmar (2007)	-
Job involvement (B)	Blau & Boal (1987)	-
	Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982)	-
	Lee & Mowday (1987)	-

While this table is non-conclusive, it reviews the turnover literature investigated for the purpose of this research report. The negative (-) relationships specified between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement and the propensity to leave are well established (Naumann *et al*., 2000). The mediating role of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement also appears in turnover models developed by Bluedorn (1982), Lee and Mowday (1987) and Hom and Griffeth (1991). Labour turnover models posit that organisational, job-related and person-related variables are predictors of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement. These are related to propensity to leave / intention to quit, which in turn is a major determinant of turnover. Table 2.7 incorporates some of the variables tested as antecedents of job attitudes.

Table 2.7: Variables tested as antecedents of job attitudes

Determinants of job attitudes (A)	Researchers	Relationship between (A) & (B)
Age (B)	Mathieu & Zajack (1990) Dineen, Noe, Shaw & Withoff (2007)	**Moderately +** **For group behaviour +**
Tenure (B)	Mathieu & Zajack (1990) Naumann *et al*. (2000) Brown & McIntosh (2003)	**+** **+** **+**
Fluency (B)	Mathieu & Zajack (1990) Naumann *et al.* (2000)	**+** **Not significant**
Met expectations (B)	Lee & Mowday (1987) Naumann *et al.* (2000)	**+** **+**
Job characteristics (B):		
➢ Role ambiguity/role conflict	Moore(2000)	**-**
➢ Task variety/significance/ identity	Naumann (1993)	**+**
➢ Autonomy	Ahuja, Chudoba & Kacmar (2007)	**+**
	Naumann *et al.* (2000)	**+**
	Idson (1990)	**+**
Organisational characteristics (B):		
➢ Expatriate training	Tung (1984)	**+**
	Naumann (1993)	**+**
	Brewster & Pickard (1994)	**+**
➢ Fairness of rewards	Clark & Oswald (1996)	**-**
	Ahuja, Chudoba & Kacmar (2007)	**-**
➢ Work family conflict	Ahuja, Chudoba & Kacmar (2007)	**-**

Tett and Meyer (1993) reported a -.70 correlation between *job satisfaction* and *labour turnover intention* in a meta-analysis of 42 studies. The mean correlation for *organisational commitment* and *labour turnover intention* was -.55 in 28 studies. Using path analysis Tett and Meyer, in figure 2.10, compared three models for predicting labour turnover intention from job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In all three models, turnover intention predicted actual turnover. In the first model job satisfaction and organisational commitment each independently predicted turnover intention. In the second model, job satisfaction predicted turnover intention, with organisational commitment mediating the relationship. In the third model job satisfaction and organisational commitment were reversed. Tett and Meyer interpreted their results, indicating that model 1 and model 3 fitted well. Trimble (2006:351) found Tett and Meyer's acceptance of only model 1 and 3 interesting, as they could according to him, have accepted all three models as the chi-square values of all three models exceeded the recommended value of .50.

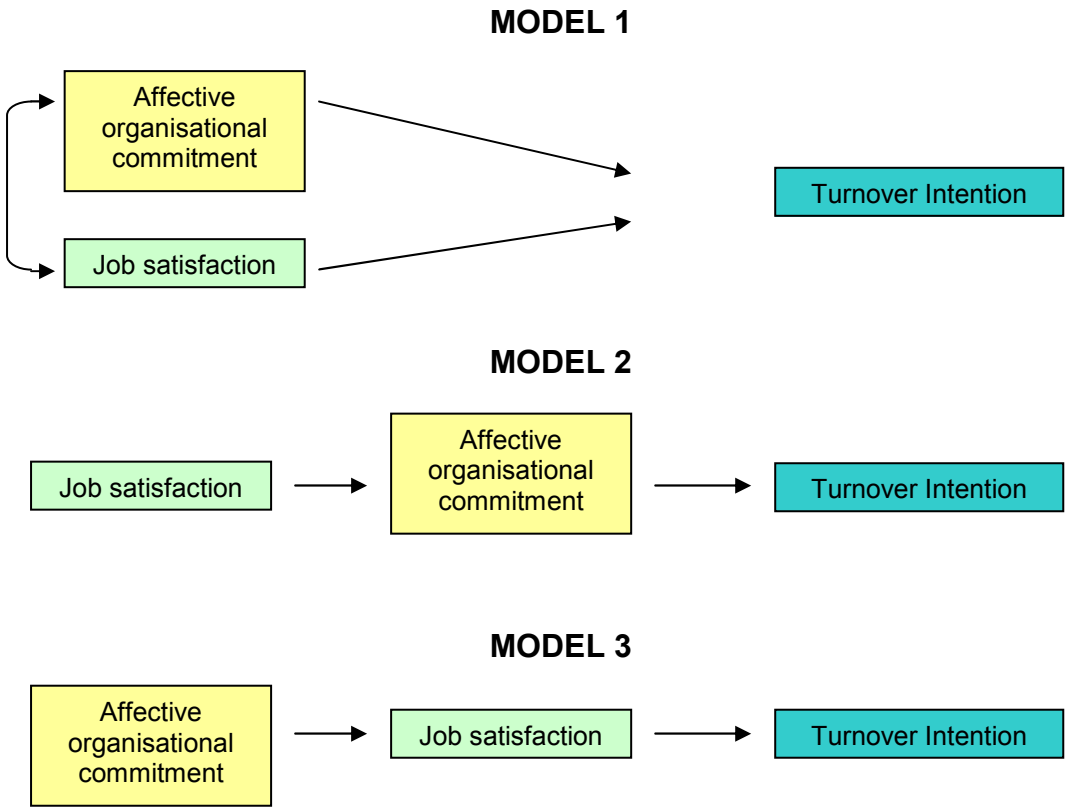

Figure 2.10: Tett and Meyer's theoretical models of the relationship between affective organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention (Tett and Meyer, 1993)

The Tett and Meyer results are confirmed by Babbakus and colleagues. Babbakus *et al*. (1996) found that job satisfaction was related to domestic employees' propensity to leave but was preceded by role conflict and role ambiguity. They also found a significant relationship between organisational commitment and propensity to leave among domestic employees. These findings on the relationship between organisational commitment and propensity to leave are similar to the findings of Ingram and Lee (1990) and McNeilly and Russ (1992).

Several studies empirically tested the effects of organisational commitment on another important work outcome, job effort. Job effort is defined as job-related physical and mental exertion, which can vary from the minimum required to maintain a work role, to working extremely hard. It is considered more reliable than performance as a behavioural outcome variable because it is less influenced by external variables (e.g. economy) than performance. Lee and Goa (2005:393) conducted a study in the Korean retail context and confirmed the following relationships: Organisational commitment is positively related to job effort and negatively related to propensity to leave the organisation (See figure 2.11).

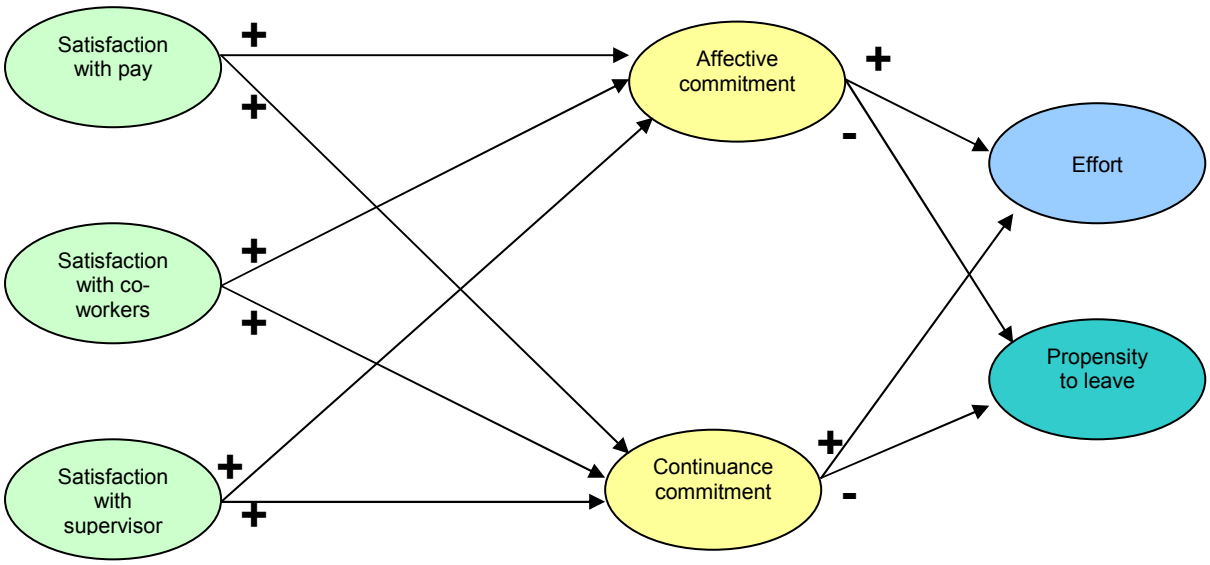

Figure 2.11: Test results of the antecedents and consequences of affective and continuance commitment (Lee and Goa, 2005:393)

Ahuja, Chudoba and Kacmar (2007:2), building on Moore's (2000) work on turnover intention, developed and tested a model that is context-specific to the Information Technology consultant. Hom and Griffeth (1995:37) suggest that context matters because their turnover meta-analysis concluded that most correlations changed across settings. For this reason Ahuja and colleagues adapted Moore's model to be context-sensitive to the information technology setting. This was done by substituting work/family conflict for Moore's role stressors (role ambiguity and role conflict) and by adding organisational commitment, both of which are critical to the information technology setting (Ahuja *et al*., 2007:3). Figure 2.12 summarizes the result of the study.

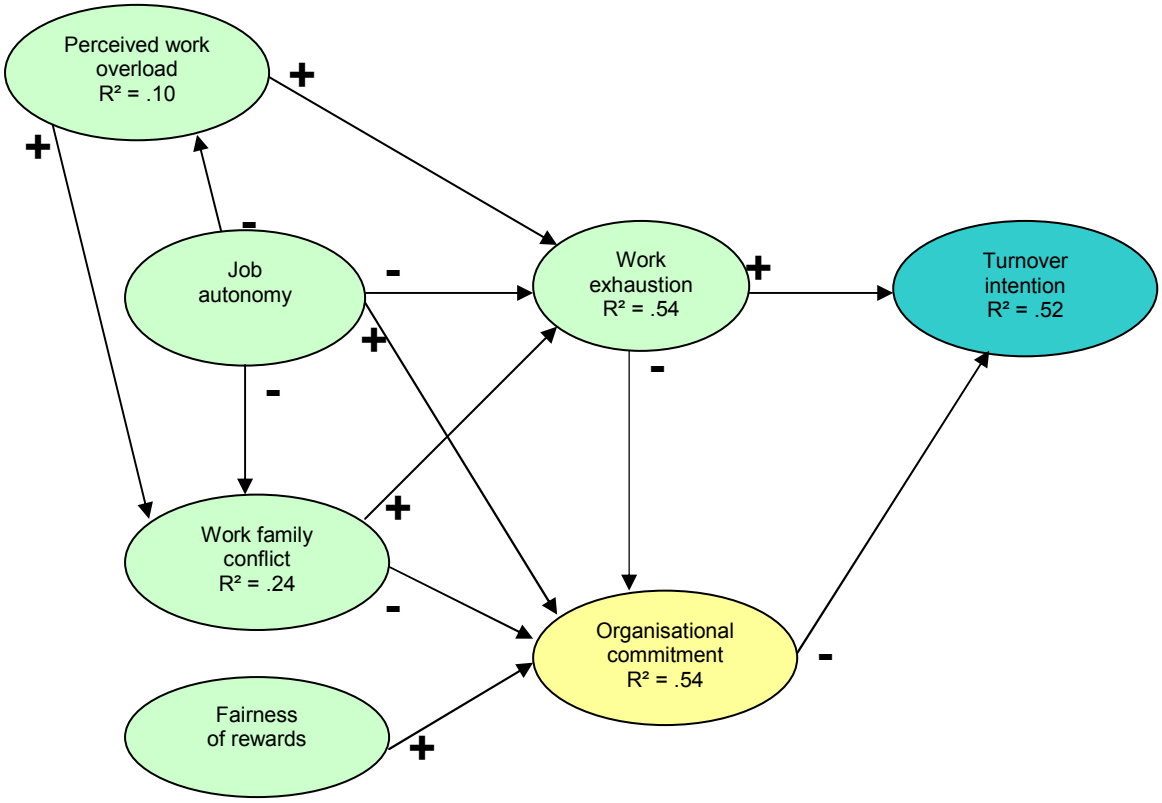

Figure 2.12: Theoretical turnover model adapted from the work of J.E. Moore. (in Ahuja, Chudoba and Kacmar, 2007:4)

The model accounts for slightly over half of the variance in turnover intention, implying that work exhaustion and organisational commitment are key turnover factors. This is confirmed by a recent study conducted by Lee and Liu (2007:122-134). Lee and Liu aimed to address the challenge of repatriate turnover by focusing on how effective repatriation adjustment, job satisfaction and organisational

commitment are at predicting the Taiwanese repatriates' intention to leave their organisation. Lee and Liu concluded that the combination of the three variables could predict approximately 58% of the variance of intent to leave and that the variables were negatively related to the intention to leave.

From the above it can be concluded that the negative relationship specified between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement and the intention to leave are well established in various previous research studies.

2.7 SUMMARY

From the literature study the following conclusions can be made:

- Employee attitudes are important to organisations as they predict behaviour.
- Specific aspects related to one's job and the organisation, facilitate job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement.
- Job attitudes influence organisational citizenship behaviour, labour turnover, absenteeism and preferences and opinions about unions. Job attitudes are important variables influencing the behavioural intention to stay or leave an organisation.
- Given the importance of job attitudes in understanding organisational behaviour, job attitudes are frequently measured through existing work-related attitude questionnaires.
- The negative relationship specified between job satisfaction; organisational commitment, job involvement and the intention to leave are well established in various previous research studies.

From all the proposed and tested research cited in this literature review, it can with great confidence be concluded that the aspects of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement are determinants of the propensity to leave an organisation. Job attitudes can thus have important implications for multinational corporations, as job attitudes influence the job behaviour of individuals and groups and how individuals and groups behave towards others. It is therefore important to know what job attitudes are, how they originate and how they are changed and

measured. Neglecting the role of job attitudes in the labour turnover process of expatriate managers appears to be a major shortcoming of international turnover research, therefore, the literature is in support of the need for this study.

Chapter 3 will aim to clarify the rationale of the research design and methods, engaged in to achieve the study objectives set out in chapter 1. The research design provides the overall structure for the procedures the researcher followed, the data the researcher collected and the data analysis the researcher conducted. This design is the researcher's blueprint for the research study.