

**The relationship between job insecurity, job
satisfaction and organisational commitment
in a mining organisation**

By

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ABSTRACT

Title: The relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation.

Keywords: Job insecurity, job performance, job work attitudes, job involvement, organisational commitment, organisational uncertainty, organisational withdrawal tendencies, organisational efficiency and psychological and physical health.

Companies throughout the world are faced with continual changes in order to remain competitive and survive. These changes are caused by economic uncertainty, globalisation, mergers and acquisitions. The results are unemployment or transfer of workers to the different areas of the organisation. These changes have unprecedented effect on workers, especially the survivors of retrenchments or downsizing, resulting in a feeling of job insecurity.

Insecurity is concerned with the continued existence of jobs for the employees in the organisation. It is characterised by feelings of powerlessness, uncertainty and fear. Consequently, job insecurity has emerged as an important stressor in modern organisations. Studies indicate that job insecurity leads to physical and psychological health problems. Further employees who experience feelings of job insecurity are more likely to display undesirable organisational outcomes such as withdrawal behaviours, job dissatisfaction and low organisational commitment.

The empirical objective of this study was to determine the possible relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Also, whether job insecurity can predict job satisfaction and organisational commitment

A survey design was used to realise the research objectives. The study population consisted of 121 employees in a mining organisation. The Job Insecurity Questionnaire, the Revised/Short-version of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire, were used as measuring instruments.

Reliability and construct validity of all three questionnaires were found to be acceptable. It was found that respondents experienced below average levels of job

insecurity. They further showed above average levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The findings indicate that a relationship exists between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Practically significant differences of medium to large effect were established for race, respondents having qualifications of less than Std 10, semiskilled, grade C3, 4 and 5 and E, DL and DU, and who are affiliated to NUMSA, which means that they experience more job insecurity compared to other groups. Through regression analysis, it was established that job insecurity predicts 44% of total variance of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Limitations were identified and recommendations with regard to future research and recommendations for the organisation were made.

OPSOMMING

Titel: Die verhouding tussen werksonsekerheid, werkstevredenheid en organisasieverbondenheid in 'n mynbou-organisasie.

Sleutelwoorde: Werksonsekerheid, werksprestasie, werkhoudings, werksbetrokkenheid, organisasieverbondenheid, organisasieonsekerheid, organisasie-onttrekking neiginas, organisasie effektiwiteit, psigologiese – en fisieke gesondheid.

Organisasies kom wêreldwyd te staan voor voortdurende verandering ten einde kompetend te wees en te oorleef. Hierdie veranderinge word deur ekonomiese onsekerheid, globalisering, oornames en samesmeltings veroorsaak. Die resultate hiervan is werkloosheid of oorplasing van werkers na ander afdelings in die organisasie. Hierdie veranderinge het 'n beduidende effek op werkers, veral die oorblywendes na personeelvermindering of afskaling, en laat 'n gevoel van werksonsekerheid.

Onsekerheid is gemoeid met die volgehoue bestaan van poste vir die werknemers in die organisasie. Dit word gekenmerk deur gevoelens van magteloosheid, onsekerheid en vrees. Gevolglik het werksonsekerheid ontstaan as 'n belangrike *stressor* in moderne organisasies. Studies toon aan dat werksonsekerheid tot fisieke- en psigiese gesondheidsprobleme lei. Voorts blyk dit werknemers wat werksonsekerheid ervaar, meer geneig is tot onwenslike organisasiegedrag soos ontrekkingsgedrag, werksontevredenheid en lae organisasieverbondenheid.

Die empiriese doelwit van hierdie studie was om te bepaal of daar 'n moontlike verhouding tussen werksonsekerheid, werkstevredenheid en organisasieverbondenheid bestaan.

'n Opname-ontwerp is gebruik om die empiriese doelwit te bereik. Die steekproef het bestaan uit 121 werknemers in 'n mynbou-organisasie. Die Werksonsekerheidsvraelys, die hersiene verkorte Minnesota

Werkstevredenheidsvraelys, en die Organisasieverbondenhuidvraelys is in die ondersoek gebruik as meetinstrumente.

Die geldigheid en betroubaarheid van al drie die meetinstrumente is bepaal en aanvaarbaar gevind. Daar is gevind dat die deelnemers lae vlakke van werksonsekerheid ervaar, en bo-gemiddelde vlakke van werkstevredenheid en organisasieverbondenheid. Voorts is 'n verband tussen werksonsekerheid, werkstevredenheid en organisasieverbondenheid verkry.

Praktiese beduidende verskille van medium- tot groot effek is tussen ras, respondente met 'n kwalifikasie laer as St. 10, semi-geskoolde gradering C3, 4 en 5 en E, DL en DU en vakbondmaatskys gevind, wat dui op 'n hoër mate van werksonsekerheid in vergelyking met ander groepe. Deur middel van regressie analise is bepaal dat werksonsekerheid 44% van die totale variansie van werkstevredenheid en organisasieverbondenheid voorspel.

Beperkings is geïdentifiseer en aanbevelings met betrekking tot toekomstige navorsing en in die organisasie is gemaak.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH METHOD

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this mini-dissertation is to investigate the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of personnel in a mining organisation.

In this chapter the problem statement, the research objectives and the research method will be discussed. Thereafter, a chapter division will be given.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Companies continuously monitor and change structures of their operations due to external and internal factors (Jacobson & Hartley, 1991). Globalisation and competition result in companies adapting their operations through downsizing, rightsizing, restructuring and outsourcing of non-core functions (Sparks, Faragher & Cooper, 2001). These events cause uneasiness, which manifests itself as job insecurity, low job satisfaction and low commitment to the organisation and related organisational outcomes such as turnover and absence (De Witte, 1997). Research suggests that job insecurity could be an important stressor. However, the psychological impact of job insecurity has not been studied intensely (De Witte, 1997).

Over the last four decades of the 20th century, the nature of work has changed for some people, with globalisation, mergers, acquisitions, strategic alliances and privatisation becoming common occurrences (Sparks et al., 2001). While recession results in fewer jobs overall, restructuring involves fewer jobs in certain sectors as economic activity shifts from less to more profitable areas (Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans, & Van Vuuren, 1991). Outsourcing and sub-contracting also increased (Felstead, Burchell & Green, 2000). This view is also supported by

Tyson (1996) with the emphasis that outsourcing is increasing substantially in the United States of America.

Based on research findings the trend for restructuring and downsizing in many organisations has led to an increase in perceived job insecurity particularly for white-collar workers (Sparks et al., 2001).

Job security perceptions are related to job satisfaction (Nighswonger, 2001). Job satisfaction plays an important role in an employee's acceptance of change (Yousef, 2000a). According to Nighswonger (2001) the following conclusion was reached regarding job security and job satisfaction:

- Job security perceptions are related to job satisfaction.
- Job satisfaction is related to safety knowledge.
- Job satisfaction is related to high levels of safety motivation.

Job insecurity can be defined as the concern felt by a person for continued existence of his/her job (De Witte, 1997). Some people may have a subjective experience or perception of job insecurity when there is no objective reason to feel insecure. Job insecurity concerns uncertainty about the future. The feeling of job insecurity occurs when there are possibilities of plant closure or transfer and reduction of jobs from a non-profitable area to the more profitable one, but no final decision has been taken. Lastly, job insecurity may result in uncertainty about continued existence of the content or substance of the job. Job insecurity is also consistently associated with reduced levels of job satisfaction. The research conducted by Ashford, Lee and Bobko (1989) involving a heterogeneous sample of employees, found a significantly lower job satisfaction among those who felt insecure about their jobs. The literature also shows that job insecurity has an impact on three crucial variables, namely: psychological well-being, job insecurity and commitment to the organisation (De Witte, 1997).

According to Stanley (2001), **job satisfaction** is a person's attitude towards his/her job. Employees continuously appraise and evaluate the quality of their jobs and they possess heartfelt beliefs about their job and organisations. Job

satisfaction is a complex construct and is often measured as a global attitude of an employee towards his/her work (Lopopolo, 2002). In this regard there is no commonly agreed upon theoretical generalisation which explains job satisfaction. However, job satisfaction can be defined as the extent to which an employee feels positively or negatively towards his/her job. (Yousef, 2000b). According to Stanley (2001), high job satisfaction can bring out the creative spark that resides in all employees, lower rates of absenteeism, reduce turnover and increase productivity.

Organisational commitment is defined as the employee's feeling of obligation to stay with the organisation, feelings resulting from internalisation of normative pressure exerted on an individual prior to entry or following entry (Yousef, 2000b). Organisational commitment takes three distinctive forms (Allen & Meyer, 1990). **Affective commitment** refers to identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the organisation in the sense that employees with strong affective commitment remain with the organisation because they want to. **Continuance commitment** refers to the commitment based on employees' recognition of the cost associated with leaving the organisation. Employees with strong continuance commitment remain with the organisation because they have to, either because of perceived unfavourable alternatives or because of high personal sacrifice associated with leaving the organisation. **Normative commitment** refers to the commitment based on sense of obligation to the organisation. Therefore, those with strong normative commitment remain with the organisation because they feel they ought to do so (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Yousef, 2000b).

The problem arises that job insecurity has a deleterious effect and it does not only affect the jobholder but also the household to which the jobholder belongs (Felstead et al., 2000). It has also been established that job insecurity is the major source of psychological ill health, with long lasting effects.

Several research findings have indicated that job insecurity; job satisfaction and organisational commitment are related (De Witte, 1997; Hartley et al., 1991; Testa, 2001). Organisational commitment is affected by job insecurity. Insecure employees feel less pride in working for the company, their trust in the company is decreased and they have increased intention to leave the company. In addition,

job insecurity is also associated with increased tendency to oppose changes in the company (Lord & Hartley, 1998). Job insecurity implies that job security is diminished. Job security is one of the components of the “psychological contract” between the employee and the employer. Reduced job security, organisational commitment and job satisfaction have negative consequences for the company. When employees feel that their job security is eroded they may attempt to restore the imbalance by showing less commitment, interest and motivation (De Witte, 1997). The results of reduction in organisational commitment and job satisfaction are increased absenteeism and turnover. Employees who psychologically withdraw from their company are less motivated to devote themselves to that company (De Witte, 1997). As such productivity and organisational effectiveness of the company are decreased and its competitive strength is undermined. Organisations may also suffer financially from heightened employee perception of job insecurity due to associated costs of increased absenteeism and sickness resulting from lowered employee well-being (Sparks et al., 2001).

Companies in the Republic of South Africa are undergoing dramatic and unprecedented changes since democratisation of the country in 1994 and globalisation. Companies in the mining industry are not immune to these changes (Marais & Schepers, 1996). Companies are becoming lean and mean, outsourcing non-core operations and mechanising to improve efficiency and effectiveness.

The organisation in which the research will be undertaken has undergone restructuring and downsizing during 2001 and 2002, the intention of which was to implement multiskilling and ultimately self-directed work teams. Company management and NUMSA worker representatives agreed that all Paterson A level grade positions are to be phased out. However, no employee will be retrenched. Staff reduction will take place by means natural attrition. Despite these assurances, employees seem to be experiencing job insecurity and absenteeism (through sick leave and absence without permission) has increased.

On the basis of the exposition of the problem statement above, this study will attempt to answer the following questions:

- How is job insecurity, job satisfaction, organisational commitment conceptualised in literature?
- What is the level of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation?
- What is the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment?
- Can job insecurity predict job satisfaction and organisational commitment?

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objective of this research will be divided into a general and specific objectives.

1.3.1 General objective

Based upon the above formulation of the problem, the general objective of this research is to determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation and to establish whether job insecurity can predict job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

The specific research objectives are to:

- To conceptualise job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment from literature.
- To determine the level of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation.
- To determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation.
- To determine whether job insecurity can predict job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

1.4 RESEARCH METHOD

The research shall be undertaken through two phases, namely a literature study and an empirical investigation

1.4.1 Phase 1: Literature study

Literature sources will focus on conceptualisation of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and the possible relationships between these constructs.

1.4.2 Phase 2: Empirical study

The empirical study entails that the specifically stated objectives can be achieved as follows:

1.4.2.1 Step 1: Deciding on a research design

A quantitative survey design will be used to achieve the objectives of this research. The cross-sectional design is a specific design whereby a sample is drawn from a population at time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). Information collected is used to describe the population at that time. This design can also be used to assess interrelationships among variables within the population. This design is ideally suited when the aim of the study is predictive and descriptive.

1.4.2.2 Step 2: Selecting the study population

The study population consists of all employees at the mine ($N=345$) and is dependent on the availability of the respondents. A stratified sample will be drawn from the total population and will include employees graded at various levels according to the Patterson band grading. The sample will be representative of all departments, namely maintenance, production, services and administration, and mining. Employees at the lowest level of the Patterson grading will be excluded from the study due to poor or no reading and writing skills, that might contaminate data.

1.4.2.3 Step 3: Deciding on the measuring instruments

The following standardised instruments will be used in this research

- **Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ)** by De Witte (2000), consisting of 8 items, will be used to measure the perceived job insecurity of participants. Items encapsulate both the cognitive and affective dimensions of job insecurity and are arranged along a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 = strongly agree, 3 = unsure and 5 = strongly disagree. De Witte (2000) reported Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,92 (total), for the affective scale 0,85 and for the cognitive, 0,90 using the same instrument. Heymans (2002) obtained alpha coefficient of 0,81. Also, Elbert (2002) reported an alpha coefficient of 0,84.
- **The Revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (JSQ)** by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967) will be used to give employees the opportunity to indicate how they feel about their present work over all. The shorter or the revised version of this questionnaire, consisting of 20 items, will be employed. Cronbach alpha coefficients higher than 0,90 are reported in South African studies (Coetzee, 1998). Research results support the reliability and validity of the questionnaire (Schepers, 1997). Heymans (2002) obtained an alpha coefficient of 0,89.
- **The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)** of Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) will be used to measure the organisational commitment of the participants. The questionnaire is based on the premise that organisational commitment is a multi-dimensional construct comprising of 18 items, which include affective, continuance and normative commitment. Cronbach Alpha coefficients were consistently above 0,80 for every one of the subscales (Suliman & Iles, 2000a). Inter-correlations between populations were often above 0,90, which indicates that the combined factor is congruent. Results from South African studies support the reliability and validity of the questionnaire (Bagraim & Hayes 1999). Heymans (2002) obtained Alpha coefficient of 0,80 for organisational commitment.

1.4.2.4 Step 4: Statistical analysis

The SAS-program (SAS Institute, 2000) will be used to carry out statistical analysis regarding reliability and validity of the measuring instruments, descriptive statistics, t-tests, analysis of variance, correlation coefficients and multiple regression analysis.

The reliability and validity of the measuring instruments will be assessed with the use of Cronbach alpha coefficients and mean inter-item correlation coefficients (Clark & Watson, 1995). Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations and kurtosis) will be used to analyse the data. A cut off point of $p = 0,05$ will be set for the statistical significance of the results. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients will be used to specify the relationships between the variables. A cut-off point of 0,30 (medium effect) (Cohen, 1988) will be set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients. A multiple regression analysis will be conducted to determine the percentage of the variance in the dependent variables that is predicted by the independent variables.

1.4.2.5 Step 5: Research procedure

The measuring battery will be compiled and appointments will be made with the participants to conduct the study, either individually or in a group relation. A letter from the researcher, approved by the Operations Director, and indicating the purpose of the study (for research purposes only), the confidentiality of the data as well as the basis for participation (voluntary) will be given to all participants. The results will be analysed and feedback will be given to all the departments including individuals who request feedback.

1.5 CHAPTER DIVISION

The chapters are presented as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction, problem statement, research objectives and research method

Chapter 2: Job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Chapter 3: Empirical study

Chapter 4: Results and discussion

Chapter 5: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations

1.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the motivation for the present study and the steps in the research process were stated. The problem statement, aims of the study and the research method have been discussed. Also, a prospective chapter division was indicated.

In Chapter 2 job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment will be discussed.

CHAPTER 2

JOB INSECURITY, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1, which serves as an introduction, the problem statement, purpose of the study research methodology and procedure were provided and discussed. It was indicated that the constant organisational change evokes feelings of job insecurity, which in turn has an effect on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

In this chapter the concepts of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment will be conceptualised from literature. Firstly, job insecurity will be discussed by defining it, analysing the phases, antecedents, consequences and outcomes thereof. Secondly, the concept of job satisfaction will be discussed by defining, outlining its importance, and discussing the causes and components contributing to it. Lastly, after defining organisational commitment, the discussion of the multidimensional approach, importance of determinants and the outcomes of organisation commitment will be presented. Thereafter, a chapter summary will be presented.

2.2 JOB INSECURITY

Companies are faced with consistent and continuous pressure to introduce efficiencies and restructuring initiative to safeguard their competitive advantages. Consequently, they have accepted this relentless change as a norm and forces of global competition do not show any signs of diminishing. For organisations to be flexible and responsive they have to reduce costs by outsourcing non-core operations or restructure internally (Ashford et al., 1989; Holbeche, 1998; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002).

Whilst organisations have accepted uncertainty and change as a norm, employees on the other hand feel betrayed by these changes. The foundation on which a psychological contract between and employer and employee is based, is shaken. The prospects of long-term career and full-time secure employment is disappearing. The result is there is confusion and job insecurity.

A growing amount of research has been devoted to phenomena such as stress and burnout among workers and the psychological consequences of employment, (De Witte, 1997). It concerns people who feel threatened by the prospects of unemployment and this concept has received less attention in contrast with its importance to society. Flexible employment contracts are contributing to the feeling of job insecurity (Brittan, 2000).

2.2.1 Definition of job insecurity

From the exposition of problem statement in Chapter 1 it appears that feelings of job insecurity are aroused by both the internal organisational changes as well as changes that are taking place in the external environment. According to Howard (cited by Sverke & Hellgren, 2002), the nature of work has changed dramatically since the late 1970s as a result of economic recessions, industrial restructuring, technological change and an intensified global competition. The nature of work has changed for some people, with globalisation, mergers, acquisitions, strategic alliance and privatisation becoming common occurrences.

From an organisational perspective, these changes are instituted in attempt to reduce labour costs and improve competitiveness, thereby providing the organisation with the functional and numerical flexibility that are necessary to adapt to the changing environment (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). However, from the individual perspective, the negative consequences are apparent and have dominated the psychological literature (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). According to Jacobson and Hartley (1991), millions of workers have been displaced while others have become involuntarily part-time employed, hired on temporary contracts, or have experienced a fundamental and involuntarily change in their set of beliefs about the employing organisation and their place in it. Consequently, changes in working life that took place over the last two decades have caused

feelings of insecurity concerning the nature and future existence of their jobs (Hartley et al., 1991).

Despite the importance of job insecurity, the understanding of job insecurity and its consequences is hampered by conceptual as well as empirical ambiguities (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). This view is supported by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) when they argue that lack of a commonly agreed-upon theoretical generalisation of job insecurity, as a construct, has deterred progress. Also, a variety of theoretical perspectives regarding the meaning of job insecurity have been advanced in the organisational literature (De Witte, 1999). Job insecurity constructs have often been treated in an ad hoc manner, by including it in many studies as secondary or incidental focus (De Witte, 1999).

Job insecurity usually has been defined from two perspectives namely the uni-dimensional (global) view or the multidimensional view. From the uni-dimensional viewpoint Van Vuuren (1990) defines job insecurity as a concern felt by a person for the continuance of his/her job. According to Jacobson and Hartley (1991), job insecurity reflects a discrepancy between the levels of security a person experiences and the level she/he might prefer. Van Vuuren (1990) describes job insecurity as the concern felt by a person for the continued existence of his/her employment. She emphasises that there are three components, namely subjective experience, perception of uncertainty about the future and doubts about continuation of the job itself. From a multidimensional perspective, job insecurity is not merely concerned with sustaining one's job, but encompasses various aspects of the entire job. Specifically, the change is from a belief that one's position in the organisation is safe to a belief that it is not (Jacobson & Hartley 1991; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). It is an anticipation that something detrimental or unpleasant is going to happen in one's job. The individual continuously appraises the situation within the organisation. In this regard, the employee undertakes a cognitive appraisal of the situation (Hui & Lee, 2000).

Job insecurity can be defined as the concern felt by a person for continued existence of his/her job (De Witte, 1997). Some people may have subjective experience or perception of job insecurity when there are no objective reasons to

feel insecure. Job insecurity concerns uncertainty about the future. Therefore, the feeling of job insecurity occurs when there are possibilities of plant closure or transfer and reduction of jobs from a non-profitable area to the more productive one, but where no final decision has yet been taken (De Witte,1997). Job insecurity may result from uncertainty about continued existence of the content or substance of the job. Similarly, Petzall, Parker and Stoeberl (2000) describe job insecurity as the perception of the potential loss of continuity in a job situation that ranges from permanent loss of features of the job to loss of the job itself. This loss must be involuntary, for if it is not, the individual is not powerless to maintain the continuity of the position and therefore true job insecurity would not be experienced (Petzall et al., 2000)

Also, job insecurity can be defined as perceived powerlessness to maintain continuity in a threatened job situation and the severity of such a threat will depend on the scope and importance of the potential loss and the subjective probability of its occurrence (Greenhaigh & Rosenblatt, 1984). To feel insecure an employee must be powerless to counteract these threats (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002).

Job insecurity is characterised by the individual's concerns about the future existence of his/her job. In addition, the individual may be concerned about the possible loss of dimensions or contents of his job. This concern may be aroused by the events taking place within the organisation (Kinnunen, Mauno, Natti & Happonen, 2000). Also, job insecurity refers to employees' negative reactions to the changes concerning their jobs (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002).

The phenomenon of job insecurity is characterised by uncertainty, anxiety and tension about the continued existence of the job or the valued contents of the job. (Jacobson, 1991). It is a perceptual phenomenon that lacks social visibility and role clarity as it takes place within the individual's job settings (Jacobson, 1991). As result, the individual experiencing job insecurity is deprived of social support. It is imbued in ambiguity and it takes place within an individual. Therefore, job insecurity can be described as an internal process (Hui & Lee, 2000).

Also, job insecurity is a subjective phenomenon, in that it is based on the individual's perception and interpretations of the immediate work environment (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hartley et al., 1991).

Sverke and Hellgren (2002) argue that there are two aspects of job insecurity i.e. quantitative (worries about losing the job itself) and qualitative (worries about losing important features of the job itself). Quantitative job insecurity may be regarded as globalisation of the construct while qualitative job insecurity pertains to perceptions of potential loss of quality in the employment relationship, such as deterioration of working conditions, demotion, lack of career opportunities, decreasing salary, development and concerns about person-organisation fit in the future.

Borg and Elizor (1992) distinguished between cognitive job insecurity, which is likelihood of job loss, and affective job insecurity, which refers to fear of job loss. According to Sverke and Hellgren (2002) job insecurity is an anticipation of a stressful event in such a way that the nature and continued existence of one's job are perceived to be at risk. The multidimensional nature of job insecurity refers to threat of imminent job loss and to loss of valued job features, demotion, and career insecurity (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002).

The process of job insecurity may be divided into three stages or sequences, i.e. the anticipatory stage, termination and unemployment phase (Jacobson, 1991). In the beginning an individual experiences confusion and discomfort; accompanied by shock if the loss is unexpected and severe, and this is followed by a brief period of sadness and despair (Brammer, 1992).

A person's perception of the severity of the loss, availability of coping resources and cultural attitude influence the length of feelings of depression. In this regard it is important for the affected individual to receive supervisor support and appropriate counselling (Brammer, 1992).

The anticipatory stage is usually associated with planned but unannounced redundancies. During this stage the job loss has not yet materialised. The individual is uncertain when job loss will take place and under what circumstances

it will happen. At this stage, reliable information is not yet available and the individual hovers between hope and despair (Jacobson, 1991). Furthermore, an affected person is uncertain whether to start looking for another job or not. Therefore, the feeling of uncertainty is heightened and the individual is more likely to experience traumatic reactions. This stage is characterised by the threat of impending unemployment.

The next stage is the termination phase. This phase refers to the stage where an employee is given notice of termination of employment. As a result the individual is certain about what is going to happen and anxiety and stress reactions are diminished and minimised. This stage finally leads to actual job loss and unemployment (Jacobson, 1991). During the actual job loss or unemployment phase, the individual is certain of the job and no anxiety is experienced (Jacobson, 1991).

In summary, job insecurity arises out of a negative reaction to perceived fundamental and involuntary change in the situation after a cognitive or subjective appraisal of events in the organisation. It appears that anxiety is aroused by ambiguity and lack of information.

It is clear from the explanation of the phases that job insecurity is experienced more during the anticipatory phase. In this study, focus is on this phase as it has negative consequences for the individual and organisation. Managers need to inform employees about future developments in the organisation timeously in order to avert subjective feeling of insecurity (Kinnunen et al., 2000). In the next section factors that influence job insecurity are outlined.

2.2.2 Factors influencing job insecurity

Employees observe events taking place within their own environment and draw conclusions about them. When changes such as restructuring are taking place in an organisation, employees may perceive the result as threatening to their continued employment in the organisation (Jacobson & Hartley, 1991). Factors influencing perceived job insecurity exist on different levels and include environmental and organisational conditions as well as the employee's individual

and positional characteristics (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Kinnunen et al., 2000; Klandermans, Van Vuuren & Jacobson, 1991). Environmental and organizational conditions include organisational change and communication. Factors relating to an employee's individual and positional characteristics refer to age, marital status and socio-economic status while factors relating to the employee's personality refer to an internal versus an external locus of control, optimism versus pessimism and sense of coherence (Van Vuuren, Klandermans, Jacobson & Hartley, 1991).

Furthermore, Van Vuuren et al., 1991 found that external locus of control, low self-esteem, and a generally pessimistic outlook seems to increase feelings of job insecurity. Failure by company management to effectively communicate organisational change, when there are signals of threats, for example rumours of reorganisation or change of management, inevitably leads to perceived job insecurity.

Also, feelings of job insecurity emanate from cognitive appraisal of the situation. The perception of increased insecurity could be a function of unemployment and temporary contracts (Smithson & Lewis, 2000). The youngest and oldest members of the workforce hold the strongest feelings of job insecurity (Smithson & Lewis, 2000). The shift in employment conditions has resulted in violation of psychological contract especially among older workers.

There is a continued decrease in job features due to environmental and organisational changes such as economic recession; restructuring, technological changes and these events consequently increase perception of job insecurity (Van Vuuren et al., 1991).

The nature of work has changed due to intensified global competition (Sparks et al., 2001). This has forced organisations to cut production costs and become flexible (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). This situation is also applicable to the organisation in which this research is taking place, as this company has embarked on multi-skilling and the introduction of new technologies, which have lead to less labour intensive production processes since 2001. This has decreased employment alternatives of less skilled workers. However the organisation has

recently announced its intention to expand. The researcher is of the opinion that this announcement may have a moderating effect on the employees' feelings of job insecurity. Other factors influencing job security are changes of government policies, and computerisation of the manufacturing processes. Consequently, there is also a demand for a new type of skill and employment contract (Holbeche, 1998; Van Vuuren et al., 1991).

In this study the focus is on predictors at organisational level, especially organisational change and their effects on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In the preceding section factors influencing job insecurity were discussed. Antecedents of job insecurity will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.3 Antecedents of job insecurity

Job insecurity has its own particular antecedents and is manifested in actions and attitudes (Jacobson, 1991). Also, a plethora of events taking place within the organisation and externally result in employees experiencing perceptions of job insecurity.

Most organisations have embraced new technology in order to remain competitive and to ensure survival (Felstead et al., 1998; Sparks et al., 2002). According to Jacobson and Hartley (1991) the introduction of new technology may either eradicate jobs altogether or raise the educational level, with the result that employees whose educational levels do not comply are at risk of losing their jobs. Consequently, the introduction of new technology may cause feelings of job insecurity in employees regarding their continued employment in the organisation. According to Smithson and Lewis (2002) a pool of semi-skilled and unskilled work has dried up in Britain due to growth in technology. This accelerated uncertainty for young people entering the labour market. There is also an increase in use of non-permanent contracts (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002).

The combined effects of the processes of downsizing, restructuring and reengineering in effort to reduce expenditure, together with technological change, automation, outsourcing and alternative organisation structures result in fear and absence of loyalty by employees (Burchell, Lapido & Wilkinson, 2002).

Tyson (1996) stated that companies, government bodies and universities are outsourcing more tasks to outside firms and cutting wages as well. Consequently this has fuelled a sense of insecurity among the United States labour force. Layoffs and downsizing evoke feelings of job insecurity among survivor employees (Davy, Kinicki & Scheck, 1997; Wiesner, Vermeulen & Littler, 1999).

Dashwood (1992) noted that the introduction of flexible employment and working practices, the purpose of which is to retain competitiveness, also fuel job insecurity. Pfeffer (as cited by Jacobson, 1991) gives a description of a movement away from long-term employment. This movement results in prevalence of shorter tenure, limited duration contracts, subcontracting and home-working. Dashwood (1992) stated that employees in short term contracts are desperate to get permanent jobs. Growth of the small business sector is another antecedent of job insecurity. According to Jacobson and Hartley (1991) employees working in a small business generally have lower levels of fringe benefits and small businesses have high mortality rate, which creates a greater risk of job losses.

Sverke and Hellgren (2002) indicated that organisations have shown increased interest in employing workers on the basis of short or fixed term contracts. In addition, downsizing survivors have to make do with fewer resources, then work load increases and uncertainty regarding task performance is likely to be prevalent (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002).

In this section, antecedents of job insecurity were discussed. It was noted that job insecurity is caused by various factors, based on the individual's interpretation of events. Also, it became apparent that a person's reaction depends on the individual's circumstances such as age and education. In the next section the consequences of job insecurity will be discussed.

2.2.4 Consequences of job insecurity

The literature shows that job insecurity has impact on three crucial variables, being psychological well being, job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Van Vuuren, 1990; De Witte 1997). Also, job insecurity has negative consequences for the individual and organisation (Kinnunen et al, 2000).

Empirical research found that job insecurity has a negative effect on an individual's psychological well-being, it arouses avoidance behaviour and negative individual and collective actions (Van Vuuren, 1990). In a corporate study by De Witte (1997), insecure employees felt more depressed and reported psychosomatic complaints and negative emotional feelings.

Workers are more likely to engage in collective action such as strikes if they believe that the outcome thereof may influence management's decision against embarking on organisational change (De Witte, 1997). People who experience feelings of job insecurity are troubled by fatigue, headache, sleeplessness and tension. Job insecurity is also associated with poor mental health, such as nervousness, anger, guilt and sadness (Ashford et al, 1989). Also, the results of Dutch and Israeli studies demonstrated that the feelings created by job insecurity are accompanied by lower job satisfaction and weaker commitment to the organisation (Van Vuuren et al., 1991).

Cooper (1999) noted that work is increasingly changing into a short-term contract culture, with longer hours, job insecurity and declining sense of loyalty to the employer. The result of this is deteriorating employee health, accompanied by rising sickness absence. In addition, the 1998 survey of UK managers found that 72% of managers surveyed indicated that long hours adversely affected their relationship with their spouses/partners and 73% stated that it damaged their relationship with their children (Cooper, 1999).

Worrall and Cooper (as cited by Cooper, 1999) concluded that the impact of the considerable amount of restructuring taking place in UK organisations had a considerable negative effect on employee morale, motivation and a particular perception of job insecurity. Another individual response is the tendency to put increased effort in by working long hours or accepting increased workloads (Van Vuuren et al., 1991).

People with feelings of job insecurity do indeed exhibit avoidance behaviour by psychologically withdrawing from their work (Van Vuuren et al., 1991). Avoidance behaviour includes little motivation to go to work, which manifests itself by

employee propensity to be absent from work, no interest in own work, no dedication and no interest in the company situation (Van Vuuren et al., 1991).

Job insecurity has a serious impact on individual commitment to the organisation. Individuals who experience feelings of job insecurity may engage in job-seeking behaviour by seriously looking for another job or gathering information about other jobs in the market.

In this section, it was indicated that the consequences of job insecurity have serious consequences for the organisation and the individual. Workers experiencing job insecurity may undermine the effectiveness of the organisation through absence for sickness and possibly through engaging in individual action. In the next section, the outcome of job insecurity will be discussed.

2.2.5 Outcomes of job insecurity

The outcomes of job insecurity are undesirable for both employer and employee. The employee may engage in disruptive behaviour such as individual and collective actions (Van Vuuren et al., 1991). Individual actions include psychological withdrawal behaviour such as absence and tardiness. Employees engage in collective action by participating in strikes. Employees engage in collective action if they believe that the benefits of their participation outweigh the costs thereof. If an employee reasons that he is likely to be dismissed for participation in strike action he/she is more likely to avoid such participation.

Baron and Greenberg (as cited by Lord & Hartley, 1998) argue that employees with particularly high organisational commitment might oppose organisational changes because it threatens to undermine the circumstances in which they have prospered and gained job security.

2.2.6 Summary regarding job insecurity

Considering the description of job insecurity, the researcher regards job insecurity as the concern by workers regarding continued existence of their jobs. This concern does not arise in isolation, but is caused by perceived threatening organisational changes. Job insecurity is usually accompanied by ambiguity,

uncertainty and powerlessness to control the effects of the perceived threat. Furthermore, job insecurity is caused by changes in the work environment such as restructuring, downsizing or mergers and acquisitions. It was also indicated that job insecurity has serious consequences in the organisation and the individual.

From the organisation perspective job insecurity undermines organisational effectiveness through employee absence from work through sickness. In addition, research indicates that employees who also experience job insecurity exhibit reduced job satisfaction and lowered organisational commitment, which are associated with turnover intentions and lack of loyalty. Consequently, workers are likely to become engaged in undesirable behaviour such as industrial actions.

In this section, job insecurity was conceptualised, followed by an outline of phases, factors that influence it, antecedents, consequences, outcomes and the summary of job insecurity. In the next section defining job satisfaction, outlining its importance, the causes thereof and approaches will be discussed.

2.3 JOB SATISFACTION

2.3.1 Introduction

Job satisfaction is the most often-researched work attitude in the organisational behaviour literature (Blau, 1999). However, many causal relationships concerning antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction are still open to question (Cranny, Smith & Stone, 1992). It is the intention of this study to answer and identify important factors affecting overall job satisfaction.

Employees in any organisation form attitudes about many things such as pay, co-workers, and benefits, training opportunities, job security and working hours (Erasmus & Sadler, 1998). Therefore, it is important to know which of these attitudes are more important than others and to what extent they determine how satisfied people are with their jobs (Erasmus & Sadler, 1998). This study is intended to contribute to the understanding of job satisfaction with reference to its relationship with organisational commitment and its impact on job insecurity.

To fully grasp the construct of job satisfaction, various definitions of job satisfaction will be provided.

2.3.2 Definition of job satisfaction.

It is generally accepted that there is no simple commonly agreed upon theoretical generalisation which explains job satisfaction (Visser, Breed & Breda, 1997). Woolliams and Moseley, (1999) stated that attempting to understand job satisfaction is not easy as it is a complex concept that can mean a variety of things for different people. In addition, the literature available suggests that there is no general comprehensive theory that wholly explains this concept.

Although there are some variations in the definitions of job satisfaction, there seems to be general consensus that job satisfaction can be described as affective or emotional reaction to a job resulting from a comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired, expected or felt to be deserved (Cranny et al., 1992). Similarly, Robbins (1998) defines job satisfaction as a general attitude towards one's job; the difference between the amount workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive. Also Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) regard job satisfaction as a feeling about a job that is established by the difference between the amount of a valued outcome that employees receive and the amount of the outcome that they feel they should receive (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 1994). Hence, employees compare expected outcome with perceived real outcome and if the perceived outcome was less than that expected, the employee would experience a negative emotional response towards the job, which leads to dissatisfaction. Gordon (1991) defines job satisfaction as the degree to which individuals perceive that they are equitably rewarded by various aspects of their work situation and the organisation to which they belong.

Job satisfaction is the extent to which one feels positively or negatively about intrinsic or extrinsic aspects of one's job (Bhuyan & Mengue, 2002). According to Testa (2001), job satisfaction represents various facets of the work environment. Employees constantly assess the situation within their working environment and the result of this assessment is an emotional response. Job satisfaction refers to the degree to which an employee likes his/her job (Mulinge, 2001).

Greene, Adam and Ebert, (1985) define job satisfaction as those attitudes related to the person's positive and negative feelings about the job and his or her emotional response. It is the degree to which an employee likes his or her job.

Dawis and Weitzel (1979) describe satisfaction, including job satisfaction, as an attitude, an expression or feeling of being favourable, neutral or unfavourable towards an object. It is an evaluation or judgement. Furthermore, job satisfaction can be regarded as a positive or negative emotional response to work resulting from individual needs that must be fulfilled (Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr, 1981).

According to Van Vuuren and Schepers (1993), the concept of job satisfaction is not one-dimensional but multi-dimensional and complex in nature. Thus, in defining job satisfaction it is important to distinguished between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with components of a job. Job satisfaction can be regarded as an attitude or internal state, which is associated with achievement recognition, challenging work responsibility, success and happiness (Mullins, 1995; Boden, 1998). In addition, job satisfaction is affected by a wide range of variables related to individual, social, cultural, organisational, environmental and outcomes valued by the individual, and satisfaction with components of a job (Mullins, 1995). There seems to be a general consensus among researchers that job satisfaction can be viewed as a multidimensional concept encompassing an individual's general attitude towards work or to specific facets of the work (Greenberg & Baron, 1993; Longenecker & Pringle, 1984; Reyers & Shin,1995; Tosi, Rizzo & Carrol, 1994).

To further elaborate on these concepts, (Visser et al., 1997) report the following common elements in the definition of job satisfaction:

- Employee satisfaction is an attitude or feeling which is based on the evaluation of conditions of employment (Hayeship, 1982; Robbins, 1993; Steers & Porter, 1975).
- These reactions and perceptions are individualistic in nature (Dubin & Champoux, 1977; Heron, 1952; Lasswell, 1968).

- Based on the fact that attitudes and situations can change and due to the fact that they pertain to a particular context and content, the attitudes of individuals concerning satisfaction are time bound (Gurin, Veeroff & Feld, 1960; Stoner & Freeman, 1992; From the preceding section various definitions of job satisfaction were provided. However, common elements that describe job satisfaction merged.

Job satisfaction is a worker's effective response to his job. It is as a result or consequence of the worker's experience on the job in relation to his own values and in relation to what he wants or expects from it. It is an affective orientation on the part of individual to his job (Fleischmann, 1967). Gellerman (1967) stated that satisfaction is subjective feelings of relief or pleasure that are reported by the person who experiences them, but cannot be observed directly by anyone else.

For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction can be described as an internal appraisal of the expected outcome against the individuals' ideal criteria. If the outcome received, for example, pay, is less than inputs, such as time and effort, then the individual would be dissatisfied. However, if the real perceived outcome is greater or equal to individual's inputs, the individual would be satisfied. In the next section the importance of job satisfaction is discussed.

2.3.3 Importance of job satisfaction

The literature reveals that job satisfaction has an effect on productivity, absenteeism, turnover and physical and mental well being of employees. Stanley (2001) indicates that job satisfaction is important because it affects tardiness, productivity and organisational effectiveness. One major importance of job satisfaction studies is to assist the organisation in dealing with problems that affect the ability of the organisation to be efficient and affective (Dawis & Weitzel, 1979).

Stanley (2001) maintains that employees who are satisfied at work will have high levels of productivity and employees who are satisfied have high job satisfaction. Therefore regardless of how job satisfaction is measured, high job satisfaction is related to high productivity (Stanley, 2001). Also Brown (2002) maintains that the key to productivity lies on keeping job satisfaction high. Low job satisfaction is

associated with high absenteeism and turnover (Stanley, 2001). According to Milkovich and Boudreau (1997) organisations prefer satisfied employees because this will contribute to a better work environment. In addition employees who are satisfied with their jobs are more likely to be better ambassadors for the company and show more organisational commitment.

According to Woods and Weasmer (2002) job satisfaction may reduce attrition rates. Lopopolo (2002) concluded that job satisfaction and commitment have been shown to influence an employee's work and related organisational outcomes such as motivation, job performance and turnover. Yousef (2000a) found that satisfaction with certain facets of the job directly or indirectly (via different dimensions of organisational commitment) influences different dimensions of attitudes towards organisational change. For example, satisfaction with pay will increase continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives). This will contribute to a positive effect on productivity.

2.3.4 Causes of job satisfaction

Furnham (1997) indicates that there are five dominant areas in terms of job satisfaction:

- *Need satisfaction.* This area states that employee needs satisfaction experience depends on the opportunities the work provides to an individual to satisfy his needs.
- *Value attainment.* This area can be regarded as the opportunity for the employee to work according to his values.
- *Generic component.* This area postulates that job satisfaction is the function of both personal and generic factors. Robbins (1998) refers to this model as consisting of self-image and the ability to handle stress.
- *Challenging work.* Employees choose more challenging work and tasks that give them opportunities to develop skills in a variety of levels. Freedom in the work situation is also important, as well as the degree of freedom which is received.

- *Supportive working conditions.* Robbins (1998) mentions that friendly and supportive colleagues lead to a greater level of job satisfaction. The more workers are satisfied with their jobs can be an indication that they are also happy with their social environment.

According to Byers and Rue (1997), other factors that can have an effect on job satisfaction are health, age, ambitions, social status, political belief and social activity. Therefore, job satisfaction is caused by multiple factors. Furthermore other factors that cause job satisfaction are grouped according to social, individual, cultural and organisational effects (Mullins, 1996).

In the preceding section it was indicated that five dominant areas cause job satisfaction. However, these causes do not occur in isolation but are in constant interaction with each other. Although multiple causes have been discussed, in the present study the main focus is on overall satisfaction. In the next section three approaches that cause job satisfaction will be discussed.

2.3.5 Approaches to job satisfaction

In this section three approaches that cause job satisfaction, namely dispositional, situational and interactional will be discussed.

2.3.5.1 Dispositional causes of job satisfaction

Dispositionists state that work attitudes and behaviours are determined by, or are at least directly linked to individual attributes. House, Shane and Herold (1996) describe dispositions as psychological rather than having physical dimensions or being objectively assessable, namely: personality characteristics, need states, attitudes, preferences, and motives, which result in tendencies to respond to situations, or classes of situations in a particular predetermined manner. The essence of the dispositional approach is that the individual possesses stable traits that significantly influence their affective and behavioural reactions to organisational setting (Strümpfer, Danana, Gouws & Vivier, 1998).

Dispositional variables refer to an individual's inherent variable and may be responsible for the behavioural sets and attitudes towards the job. According to

Manz and Neck (1999) employees choose to work in the environments that are compatible with their dispositions. Consequently, if an individual is in an environment that is not compatible with their disposition they will be dissatisfied. Also Judge, Locke, Durnham and Kluger (1998) distinguished between internal and external core evaluations. Internal evaluations refer to evaluations concerning self; external core evaluations refer to evaluations concerning other people and the world.

2.3.5.2 Situational causes of job satisfaction

In direct contrast with dispositional approach to job satisfaction, the situational approach states that job characteristics, organisational and economic conditions affect people more strongly than individual differences (Strümpfer et al., 1998). As a result, employee job satisfaction is influenced by external issues such as job design, supervisors, peer characteristics and other organisational factors (Hackman & Oldhan, 1980; Roberts & Foti, 1998; Strümpfer et al., 1998)

Empirical findings by Kinnear and Sutherland (2000) confirm that financial reward and recognition are primary motivators. Workers value knowledge and learning from professional colleagues and development in their special areas.

According to Strümpfer et al. (1998), in direct contrast to the dispositional view or the causes of job satisfaction, the situational approach argues that the world of work, job characteristics, organisational situations and economic conditions affect people much more strongly than individual differences, to the point that they consider dispositional affects to be negligible (Strümpfer et al., 1998).

2.3.5.3 Interactional causes of job satisfaction

The interactional approach can be viewed as the combination of the dispositional approach and the situational approach in determining attitudes and actions of individual employees (Roberts & Foti, 1998; Smith, 1992). The interactional approach regards the individual and situation as central to job satisfaction. It is a combination of situational and dispositional variables.

Various aspects that cause job satisfaction and have an impact on the individual level of satisfaction were discussed. It became apparent that job satisfaction is caused by a combination of environmental and individual disposition.

In this section causes of jobs satisfaction were discussed with specific references to dispositional, situational and interactional variables. Next, the components of job satisfaction will be discussed.

2.3.6 Components contributing to job satisfaction

The literature reveals that there are four components contributing to job satisfaction, namely, work determinants, organisational determinants, social determinants and biographical determinants.

2.3.6.1 Work determinants

- **Task variety**

Variety is the degree to which a job allows employee to undertake a wide range of options in their work. Task variety addresses the extent to which employees do an entire piece of work and can identify with the results of their efforts.

According to Cooper (1976) variety describes the amount of physical differentiation in the job and its immediate surroundings, namely, differentiation in prescribed work place, in physical location of work, in prescribed work operations and in the number of people available for interaction in the working area. Similarly, Gerber, Nel and van Dyk (1995) define task variety as the amount of competencies that there must be in one job.

Also, variety describes the complexity of the spatial environment (the amount of variety of operations performed and features outside work itself, such as number of people) and temporal variety, which is characterised by a change in the type of work such as job rotation in scheduled stoppages. This variation in task fulfilment results in the job incumbent utilising a variety of relevant competencies.

- **Recognition and feedback**

Recognition satisfies esteem and status needs. People like to be appreciated and complemented for their efforts in that recognition is critical for satisfying esteem and status needs (Grant, 1984).

Feedback assesses the degree to which employees receive information as they are working, that also reveals how well they are performing on the job. According to Bhuian and Menguc (2002) scholars have theorized and established the linear and direct effect of job characteristics and organisation commitment.

Recognition and feedback are important factors influencing the job satisfaction of the employees since they denote an act of notice, blame, praise or criticism and involves attention.

- **Achievement**

Robbins (1998) defines achievement as a sense of accomplishment or successful closure of a task or activity. Achievement is related to employees' desire to excel and succeed in competitive situations (Stoner & Wankle, 1986).

- **Responsibility**

Responsibility is defined in terms of employees' acceptance of ownership of the results of their work, in the sense that they feel personally accountable and responsible for the results of their work (Xaba, 1996).

According to Esterhuizen (1989), responsibility has an important influence on the jobs satisfaction of employees in that it presents employees with the opportunity to experience autonomy, to develop in their work with the view to be interesting. The reason for this is the fact that responsibility might increase employee's self-esteem and self-confidence through its impact on their feelings of autonomy and importance which should directly make the job more challenging, worthwhile and satisfying.

- **Creativity**

According to Lester (1987) creativity refers to the freedom to institute innovative materials and to utilise your skills in designing your own work.

The difference between ordinary work and creative work lies in the fact that in creative work employees are allowed to determine their own goals and tasks, whereas in ordinary work, the tasks and goals are determined by an external source (Jacques, 1970). Du Toit (1994) stated that opportunities for creativity and autonomy are aspects of challenging work and satisfaction.

The work environment of the organisation in which the research is undertaken is not conducive to creativity due to the fact that machinery is being used. As a result safety rules and regulations do not make provision for variation in work processes especially among employees at lower grades.

- **Utilisation of ability**

According to Locke and Latham (1990), ability limits the individual's capacity to respond to a challenge. An individual will be motivated to perform if the goal is achievable and the difficulty thereof is within the individual's ability. According to Visser (1990) employees' jobs give them opportunity to utilise their abilities and skills. Most employees have a need to be intellectually stimulated in the work environment. Du Brin (1994) stated that employees are more satisfied in their jobs if their abilities, be they cognitive or physical, are used optimally. Naude (1999) stated that the utilisation of employees' abilities and skills leads to pride and feelings of competency and self-confidence.

- **Activity**

According to Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquist (1967), the opportunity to stay busy at work is an important component enhancing employees' experience of job satisfaction in their jobs. In addition, the opportunity to stay busy is closely related to components like task variety, which helps combat boredom in the job.

2.3.6.2 Organisational determinants

The job satisfaction of employees depends on the following organisational determinants:

- **Promotion**

Bozionelos (1996) found that the amount of promotion and the perception of the opportunity for promotion relates closely with career satisfaction.

Satisfaction with promotion can be viewed, like pay, as a function of the frequency of promotion in relation to what is desired and the importance of promotion to the individual. The roots of the desire for promotion would include the desire for psychological growth (Bozionelos, 1996).

- **Compensation**

Equity theory generally states that an employee's satisfaction with his pay is determined by his perceptions of fairness or equity of pay. Feelings of equity (and thus satisfaction) are determined by perceived balance between the employee's pay and other employee's pay taking into account differences in inputs such as education and skills (Erasmus & Sadler, 1998). Thus for an employee to be satisfied with his pay he must consider it to be equitable and fair in relation to his input.

- **Work conditions**

Work design includes: Work load, task variety, autonomy, decision-making and responsibility (Grant, 1984).

A good physical working environment has a positive impact on employee satisfaction, to make employees feel comfortable at work and protect employees against dangerous equipment and facilities (Grant, 1984).

Weiss et al., (1967) described working conditions as the physical environment in which employees work. The basic needs underlying employees' preference for pleasant working conditions are:

- The need for physical comfort, based on physical needs; and
- The need for facilities which would assist employees in accomplishing their aims.

Research indicates that employees prefer more average working conditions when compared to extreme working conditions concerning temperature, humidity, ventilation, lighting and noise, because these physical needs influence their ability effectively (Robbins, 1998). The research is going to measure whether working conditions have any effect on job satisfaction, as the majority of workers below supervisor level are working rotating shifts.

- **Job security**

Job security helps employees to satisfy their safety and security needs. During periods of high unemployment, people value job security more than when jobs are plentiful (Grant, 1984).

Where change levels are highest in practice, dissatisfaction is strongest (Brown, 2002). Change also affects the psychological contracts.

In many ways the question of security is more fundamental to job satisfaction than any other aspect of the job. Whatever the defects of the actual job being carried out, whatever the defects of pay and conditions, the major dichotomy in our society is between those with a job and those without. Davy, Kinicki and Scheck (1997) defined job security as the expectations regarding the continuity in a job situation. The definition includes more than just the concern for keeping the job, it also includes the concern over the loss of certain job characteristics, pertaining to the limitation of advancement opportunities, the current working conditions and long-term career opportunities (Borg & Elzur, 1992).

According to Hoy and Miskel (1991) job security is an important factor in the job satisfaction of employees and relates to the desire for a peaceful, smoothly running and stable society, free from anxiety and chaos. Yousef (1998) hypothesised there is a significant positive relationship between satisfaction and

job security. This finding indicates that employees are more satisfied with the work that provides job security (Yousef, 1998).

2.3.6.3 Social determinants

Job satisfaction of employees can be defined on the following social determinants:

- **Supervisory behaviour**

Supervisory behaviour may cause employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Grant, 1984).

Modern managerial concepts such as participatory management, job design, job involvement, job enrichment and descriptions are designed to achieve organisational goals by improving employee job satisfaction (Edem & Lawal, 1999).

Research by Locke (2001) found a statistically significant correlation between leadership behaviour and productivity. He further noted that leadership behaviour is key to productivity and satisfied workers with great organisational commitment are crucial to delivering quality service. In addition he found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are correlated with leadership behaviour. Similarly, empirical studies found that transformational leadership behaviour is positively related to important organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction and organisational citizenship (Fallen, Morrison, Jones, Bridger & Brown, 1999).

The literature shows that harmonious co-operation between employees and supervisors is very important in creating employee job satisfaction and employees prefer supervisors who are employee-centred (Lickert, 1961; Locke, 1976; Steyn, 1990). This is also supported by Howard and Frink (1996) when stating that supervisors must continue to interact with their employees, and if they can explain what is occurring, as well as the opportunities that will remain, the benefits are potentially remarkable.

Based on the above research findings, it can be concluded that supervision and the consequent relationships between supervision and employees are important components of the job satisfaction of employees.

- **Co-workers**

Stanley (2001) noted that low job satisfaction is associated with low pay and lack of respect by colleagues. Massie (1971) stated that factors such as people's need to belong, their need to establish meaningful relationship with others and the influence of the group on the individual can have as much impact on employees' attitudes, behaviour and performance as incentives that management provides. This is also supported by Oshagbemi (1999) when stating that managers in academic institutions, perhaps like other managers, depend very much on their co-operation and positive attitudes to get their units' function accomplished.

- **Social status**

Grant (1984) suggests that working for a well-known company with a good reputation satisfies the employee's self-esteem and status needs but also security needs and actualisation needs.

According to Coetzee (1998) social status can be described as the social position, rank and prestige that somebody holds in society. Esterhuizen (1989) describes status in terms of the status symbols attached to aspects like the job title, the size of an office, and the view that status is seen as reward which depends heavily on the salary factors.

Social status affects employees' job via its effects on their self-confidence, prestige, self-esteem and respect (Xaba, 1996). Steyn (1990) similarly found that the social status of employees can be improved by providing better salaries and service conditions, opportunities for advancement, recruitment, feedback and training.

- **Social service and moral values**

According to Gordon (1991) employees would be more satisfied with their jobs when professional standards in the production and marketing of products are upheld. It is also believed that when employees can be of service to their fellow human beings and when the work is not perceived as incompatible with their moral values, their job satisfaction would improve. Davis (1992) found that employees would experience job satisfaction if they do not feel that their work is morally wrong according to their values or well-known accepted values.

2.3.6.4 Biographical determinants

Although there are a number of biographical determinants that have an impact on job satisfaction, for the purpose of this study, only selective biographical determinants are going to be discussed and measured in this study, namely age and qualification.

- **Age**

According to Stanley (2001) steady promotions and scheduled pay increases are important to job security aspects for older workers whereas young workers desire recognition, quick promotions and good pay.

It is generally believed that job satisfaction increases linearly with age (Naude, 1999). Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999) stated that younger employees are more dissatisfied than older workers simply because they demand more than their job can provide. The expectations, which younger employees have, could be higher than what an organisation can provide. Secondly, they suggested that there was an influence from job change. Older workers possess seniority and work experience, which enable them to move into more rewarding and satisfying jobs. However, in the empirical study by Luthans and Thomas (1989) the nature of the relationship between age and job satisfaction was found to be curvilinear instead of the linear findings of earlier researchers. They have provided three explanations for the lower level of satisfaction for their sample after the age of forty:

- That this might be due to the process of accommodation and resignation in the sense that older workers may become increasingly disappointed in recognising that their expectations and aspirations are becoming more and more limited.
- Perhaps it may be due to an individual's attempt to cope with the idea of early retirement.
- Another explanation is that an older worker may experience increased pressure from factors such as changing technologies, role overload, or an increasing emphasis on objective productivity measures.

Kong, Chye and Hian (1993) examined the effect of age on the level of job satisfaction of accountants in Singapore, and the result shows that there is a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction. Thus Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999) concluded that there appears to be some evidence of a relationship between employee age and job satisfaction. However, the nature of the relationship remains unsettled.

- **Qualification**

Dautzker (1994) found the qualification level is a strong determinant of job satisfaction. He stated that more qualified employees have a tendency of having a low level of job satisfaction compared to their counterparts. He justified his finding by stating that more qualified employees have a feeling that they can be more easily employed than those with lower levels of qualification. Yousef (1998) found that job satisfaction with job security increases with the increase in education. He also found that individuals who hold graduate or post-graduate degrees were more satisfied with job security than those with little education.

In contrast Buzawa, Austin and Bannon (1994) examined qualification level and job satisfaction among officers in Detroit, Michigan and found no correlation between job satisfaction and the level of qualification they possess. According to these researchers, level of qualification plays no role in determining the level of job satisfaction.

In this section, various components contributing to job satisfaction have been discussed, with specific reference to determinants such as work, organisation, social as well as biographical determinants.

2.3.7 Outcomes of job satisfaction

High satisfaction reduces the frequencies of a number of costly employees' behaviours. When employee satisfaction increases, absenteeism, tardiness, employee griping, grievance filing, alcohol abuse, uncooperativeness, employee stress, and union strikes all tend to decrease (Grant, 1984).

Key sources of employee satisfaction include: pay, working conditions, job security, company image, work design, recognition, social environment, benefits, organisational communications, community at large, advancement opportunity, supervision and administration (Grant, 1984).

In these section outcomes of job satisfaction relating to productivity turnover, absenteeism and individual well-being will be discussed.

2.3.7.1 Job satisfaction and productivity

Robbins (1998) could not find any strong linkage between job satisfaction and productivity. According to Stanley (2001) satisfied workers have high productivity. Also Eden and Lawal (1999) suggested that the practical value of job satisfaction is to achieve organisational effectiveness and productivity.

2.3.7.2 Job satisfaction and turnover

Stanley (2001) noted that job satisfaction might be increased through equitable pay, increase in promotion opportunities, praise and recognition. High job satisfaction will then lead to reduction in turnover. Overall job satisfaction measures are inversely related to turnover (Porter, Steers & Mowday, 1974).

Also, Woods and Weasmer (2002) state that job satisfaction is a prediction of retention of workers and commitment, which contribute to organisational effectiveness. In addition, high job satisfaction is associated with reduced attrition rates.

2.3.7.3 Job satisfaction and absenteeism

Corporate research indicates that workers with high job satisfaction are less absent (Stanley, 2001). Robbins (1998) found that absence tends to be high when people are dissatisfied with their jobs.

In summary, the concept of job satisfaction has been conceptualised from the literature by first outlining various definitions of job satisfaction. Also, causes, importance and components of job satisfaction were discussed. Specific references were made to outcomes of job satisfaction. The relationship between job satisfaction and the other two variables, namely job insecurity and organisational commitment was discussed.

2.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.4.1 Introduction

Organisational commitment and job satisfaction are popular topics in studies of work-related attitudes. However there is contradiction as to their causal relationship. The majority of theoretical and empirical evidence suggests that job satisfaction is an antecedent to organisational commitment, but then no causal relationship has been found. Although the causal sequence is still in question, it is clear that organisational commitment and job satisfaction are associated variables that affect organisational outcomes such as turnover intentions, turnover absenteeism and work performance (Smith, Allen, Harpur & Varkel, 1997).

Testa (2001) pointed out that organisational commitment and job satisfaction play a vital role in employees' acceptance of change. But research has not been adequately undertaken to address this issue. Kinnear and Sutherland (2000) contend that the old social contract of employee loyalty is declining as companies can no longer guarantee job security in the face of pressures resulting from global competition. The general pattern that has emerged in the literature reflects a shift in focus from motivation for control to motivation as a determinant of job satisfaction and more recently to a focus in organisational commitment.

2.4.2 Definition of organisational commitment

Affective commitment represents an employee's strong desire to remain a member of a particular organisation when opportunity to change jobs exists (Bhuiyan & Menqoc, 2002). As such an employee personally identified with the organisation is psychologically attached to it and is concerned about the future welfare of the organisation (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). In this regard an employee is emotionally attached to the organisation. According to Mulinge (2001), organisational attachment refers to the degree to which employees are bound to their employing organisation.

Organisation commitment refers to the employee's identification with, and involvement in a particular organisation. Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) and Bagraim (2003) regard this identification as a psychological bond between the employer and employing organisation. Organisational commitment is described as a motivational response to a positive approach of the work environment. It is also an attachment to or identification with the organisation (Matheiu & Zajac, 1990). Chow (1994) defined organisational commitment as the extent to which employees identify with their organisation and managerial goals, show a willingness to invest effort, participate in decision-making and internalise organisational values.

Mowday et al., (1982) define organisational commitment as a strong belief in the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and a strong desire to remain a member of the organisation.

2.4.3 Multidimensional approach of organisational commitment

This is the most recent approach and various researchers seem to prefer the multidimensional approach to the single dimensional approach to organisational commitment (McDonald & Makin, 2000; Suliman & Iles, 2000a). It assumes that organisational commitment does not develop simply through emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation, but through the interplay of all the mentioned components of organisational commitment. The multidimensional

approach of organisational commitment comprises affective, continuance and normative commitment (Suliman & Iles, 2000a).

Affective commitment is concerned with the extent to which the individual identifies with the organisation. Continuance commitment, on the other hand, is more calculative. It concerns the individual's need to continue working for the organisation. Normative commitment is committed to the organisation. This implies people stay with the organisation because they want to (affective), because they need to (continuance), or because they feel they ought to (normative) (McDonald & Makin, 2000).

Allen and Meyer (1990) suggest that the levels of all three types of commitment are related to the relationship between the individual and the organisation. The strength of each of them, however, is the influence of different factors. Affective commitment to the organisation is influenced by the extent to which the individuals' needs and expectations about the organisation are matched by their actual experiences which links with the perceived reciprocal obligations of the psychological contract (McDonald & Makin, 2000). It is the individual who identifies with the organisation. Continuance commitment, on the other hand, is determined by the perceived costs of leaving the organisation. Normative commitment is a perceived obligation to stay with the organisation. It is based on social exchange theory, which suggests that a person receiving a benefit is under a strong normative obligation to repay it in some way (McDonald & Makin, 2000).

The advantage of the multidimensional approach is that a more realistic reflection of the nature of the employee-employer relationship, according to the perceptual experience of the employee is presented and the conflict between commitment and its effect on the employee's relationship with the organisation is emphasised.

For this study it has been decided to use the multidimensional approach of organisational commitment by Allen and Meyer (1990) since the instrument used to assess organisational commitment has its roots in this approach.

In this section the various approaches of organisational commitment have been discussed. Based on the literature review, it is clear that the aforementioned

approaches of commitment play a major role in causing organisational commitment since employees' attitude and behaviour and norms are crucial for organisational effectiveness. Also, having high levels of organisational commitment can enhance employees' job satisfaction and might counteract the effects of job insecurity. Hence, the importance of organisational commitment will be reviewed in this next section.

2.4.4 Importance of organisational commitment

The central role which the construct of organisational commitment has played, has been emphasised by many theorists, both in literature and empirically (Mowday et al., 1982). They provide the following reasons for the prominence of organisational commitment by theorists:

- Theories underlining the principles of commitment are accurate predictors of certain behavioural aspects such as staff turnover;
- The concept of organisational commitment is appealing to both management and behavioural scientists and these behavioural aspects are regarded as desirable for organisational survival;
- The concept of commitment assists in placing the psychological processes of human beings in perspective.

Walton (1985) mentions that organisations in which the members display a high level of commitment, likewise maintain a high measure of productivity. Mowday et al., (1982), further support the notion that organisational commitment is important for organisations because it is an indication of the relevance of organisational variables such as tardiness, staff turnover and absenteeism, have on productivity. As such, organisational commitment is indicative of the efficiency of an organisation. Hence, committed employees' desire to maintain organisational membership would relate to the motivation to participate (Mowday et al., 1982).

According to Suliman and Iles (2000a) the following are important aspects of organisational commitment:

- It improves employees' performance; i.e. committed employees are assumed to be motivated to work hard and put in more effort than less committed employees;
- It fosters better superior-subordinate relationships;
- It enhances organisational development, growth and survival;
- It improves work environment;
- It negatively influences withdrawal behaviour, such as turnover, tardiness and absenteeism; and
- It has positive impacts on employees' readiness to innovate and create.

Dessler (1999) states that fostering employee commitment in today's fast exchanging environment is essential. Various researchers concluded that the period of change and uncertainty is here to stay (Johnson & Parker, 1987; Toffler, 1970; Yousef, 2000b). Managers thus have a great responsibility maintaining and even fostering employee commitment in the face of turbulent change and directing them regardless of the challenges of uncertainty (Johnson & Parker, 1987).

Based on the aforementioned aspects, it can be deduced that having a high level of organisational commitment can enhance an employee's level of motivation, job satisfaction and produce the required behaviour, which will counteract undesired behaviour such as turnover, waste, strikes, insecurity and absenteeism.

2.4.5 Determinants of organisational commitment

Hamel and Prahalad (1996) mention that organisational commitment and perseverance are driven by the desire by individuals to make a difference in their lives. Should the difference be big, the commitment will also be proportionally increased.

The literature shows that organisational commitment is determined by personal, organisational and social variables (Kinneer & Sutherland, 2000).

2.4.5.1 Personal variables

Variables of a high work ethic, self-esteem and need for achievement are important determinants of an individual's commitment (Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000).

Allen and Meyer (1990) found a positive correlation between organisational commitment and the age of an employee.

High locus of control has been found to be negatively related to organisational commitment, indicating that employees who perceive themselves to be in control of their destiny are less likely to be committed to an organisation.

Organisational commitment is also affected by gender. Mulinge, (2001) found that female professionals are more committed than males. Also, Angle and Perry (1981) found that the organisational commitment of women is higher than that of men because females enjoy less inter-organisational mobility than males.

Researchers' results indicate a predominantly negative correction between qualifications and organisational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981).

2.4.6 Outcomes of organisational commitment

The literature suggested that job satisfaction and commitment are associated with positive organisational outcomes. Satisfied-with-job employees are less absent, less likely to leave, are more likely to display organisational citizenship behaviour and be overall satisfied with their lives (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). Employees who are more committed are less likely to intend to leave their job or actually leave (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Matheiu and Zajai (1990) presented evidence that links organisational commitment and a number of critical in-role behaviours, including performance, absence, lateness and turnover.

According to Mulinge, (2001) commitment increases initially with tenure and then declines.

Smith, Allen, Harpur and Varkel (1997) stated that younger employees displayed higher turnover intentions compared to older employees and a lower level of commitment to the organisation. Mulinge, 2001 stated that job satisfaction as a mediating variable has the strongest direct effect on organisational commitment. Committed employees are those with supportive supervisors, are involved in significant tasks, perceive legitimate promotion standards and experience the least role ambiguity in terms of job-related information (Mulinge, 2001).

According to Meyer (2000) in most South African companies there is lack of job satisfaction on the part of the employees, which in turn results in a low level of commitment to performance and achievement of organisational goals. The symptoms of these are low productivity, high absenteeism, labour unrest and high turnover.

Findings by Carr (1995) indicate a significant causal relationship between stressful environment change and stress reactions. This infers that the greater the amount of stress changes experienced by individuals, the higher the levels of stress reactions. She noted that changes induced feelings of uncertainty amongst individuals and demand adaptations to unfamiliar situations, which threaten individuals. Stressful environment changes influenced the number of job insecurities perceived by individuals.

Organisational commitment is affected by job insecurity in that insecure employees felt less pride in working; showed lack of trust and have increased intention to leave (De Witte, 1997). Job insecurity is also associated with the tendency to oppose changes in the company (Greenhalgh & Roseblatt, 1984).

The above discussed shows that feelings of job insecurity are associated with low job satisfaction and reduced commitment to the organisation.

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, a literature study was undertaken to conceptualise job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The relationship between these concepts was explored and analysed. Several studies show that job insecurity has an impact on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

In Chapter 3 the empirical study will be described.

CHAPTER 3

EMPIRICAL STUDY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter job insecurity, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment as well as the relationship amongst these constructs were conceptualised from the literature.

In this chapter the empirical study, which has been classified as the second phase, will be discussed. Therefore, in this chapter the research objectives, the research design, study population, measuring instruments, research procedures as well as statistical procedure will be outlined. Lastly, the research hypothesis will be formulated.

3.2 THE OBJECTIVE OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

The general objective of this research is to determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation. Furthermore, to determine whether job insecurity can predict job satisfaction and organisational commitment and also comparing the variables for job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.2.1 The empirical objectives of the research study

The empirical objectives of this research are as follows:

- To determine the level of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation.
- To determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation.
- To determine practical significance of the differences between means of demographical groups for job insecurity in a mining organisation.

- To determine whether job insecurity can be predicted by job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design refers to the preconceived plan according to which data is collected and analysed to investigate the research hypothesis, and can be supported or refuted (Huysamen, 1993). A quantitative survey design has been used to achieve the objectives of this study. The cross-sectional design is a specific design whereby a sample is drawn from a population at a time and the information collected is used to describe the population at that time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). This design can also be used to assess interrelationships among variables within a population. It is ideally suited when the aim of the study is predictive and descriptive (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997).

3.4 STUDY POPULATION.

For the purpose of this study, the whole population (n= 345) consisted of employees graded at various levels of Patterson band grading, with A Level 1 band being the lowest grade and E being the highest. In terms of the agreement between the organisation and the union (NUMSA), the lowest grades were consolidated, with the intention of phasing out A-sub bands after employees have been trained and multiskilled.

Consequently, the Patterson grades A to C2 were adapted and consolidated as follows:

Table 1

Consolidation of grades up to C2 level

New Grade Level	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Current Grade Equivalent	C2	C1	B4	B3	B2	B1/A4	A3	A1/A2

The grades from C3 to E remained unaffected. Grade level 1, 2 and 3 consist of general workers namely, cleaners, security personnel and messengers. Grade level 4 to 7 consist of Raw Material and Finished Product operators, maintenance

assistants, drivers and production operators. Level 8 consists of artisans and clerks; C3, C4 and C5 consist of supervisors, foremen and technologist, D & E bands being engineers, departmental heads and managers.

Employees at the lowest level of the Patterson grading, namely, those who could not read or write were excluded from the study in order not to contaminate the data. The participants include employees from five departments being Administration, Production, Services, Mining and Maintenance. These departments consists of ten sections demarcated as follows:

Table 2:

Department and sections in which the study population is employed

DEPARTMENT	SECTION
Administration	Finance & Administration
	Human Resources
Production	Production F1, F2 & F3
	Pelletising and sinter
Maintenance	Civil
	Electrical and Instrumentation
	Mechanical
Services	Finished products and laboratory
	Raw material & Security
Mining	Mining

3.5 SAMPLE SIZE

The study population consisted of an availability sample of all employees at the mining organisation, graded at various levels, with sample size of N=121 from a total population of 345 with a response rate of 35,07%. The researcher noted that the research took place during the plant shutdown and overall repair. Consequently, the highest response was received from the administration department with the lowest was response from the maintenance department because they were directly involved with the plant repairs.

The criteria for participation were that all who were willing to participate were allowed to voluntarily complete the questionnaire. The researcher obtained permission from the Operations Director, and senior management were also briefed of the purpose of the study.

3.6 BIOGRAPHIC DETAILS

The biographic details of the respondents are reported as follows:

3.6.1 The composition with regard to gender:

The composition of respondents with relation to gender is given in Figure 1.

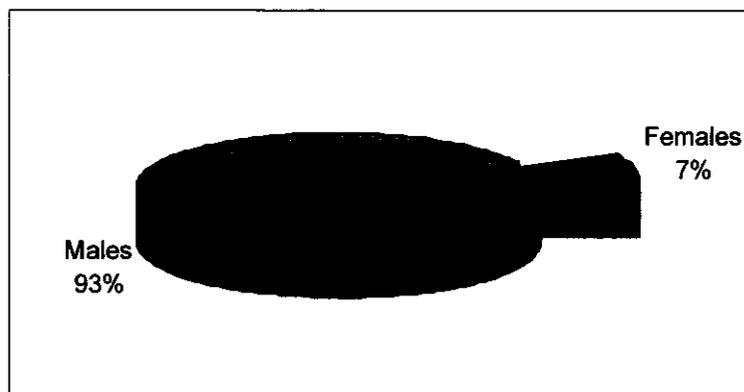


Figure 1: *Distribution of respondents in terms of gender*

Figure 1 shows that 92,56% (112) of the respondents are male and 7,44% (9) are female. The study population consists of the majority male employees, as the mining industry is predominantly male dominated.

3.6.2 Distribution of respondents with relation to age

Table 3 depicts the distribution of respondents with relation to age.

Table 3:

Distribution of respondents with relation to age

AGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
35 years and younger	59	48,76
36-45 years	36	29,75
46 years and older	26	21,49
Total	121	100

Table 3 indicates that the majority of the respondents are 35 years and younger (48,76%), followed by respondents who are in their middle age (29,75%). The organisation in which the study is undertaken commenced its operation seven years ago; hence a majority of young and middle aged employees. The literature shows that there is a relationship between age on the one hand and job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment on the other (Lopopolo, 2002). Therefore, age has relevance to the present study. Similarly Robison (2002) found that young workers aged between eighteen and twenty-nine years are least satisfied with their pay while older workers are often satisfied with their positions. In general overall satisfaction increases slightly with age

3.6.3 Distribution of respondents with relation to race

Figure 2 depicts respondents with relation to age.

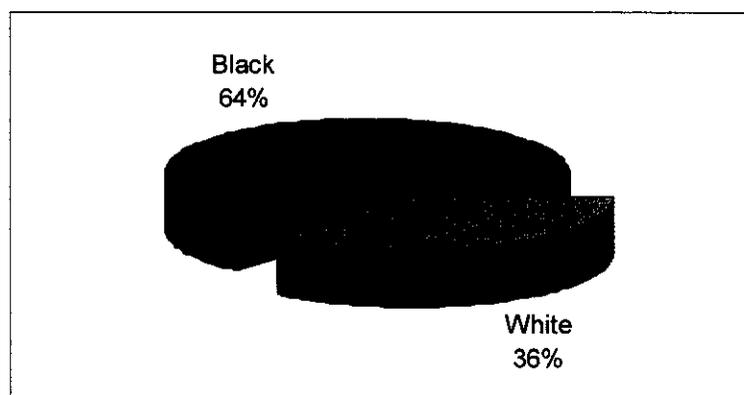


Figure 2: *Distribution of respondents in terms of race*

Seventy seven (63,64%) of the respondents are black and forty four (36,36%) are white according to Figure 2. This is in line with the composition of the study population.

3.6.4 Distribution of respondents in relation to qualifications

Table 4 depicts respondents in relation to qualifications.

Table 4:

Distribution of respondents with relation to qualifications

QUALIFICATION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Below Std 6 (Grade 8)	1	0,83
Std 6-7 (Grade 8-9)	4	3,30
Std 8-10 (Grade 10-12)	78	64,46
N4-6, S1-S4 or T1-T3	12	9,92
Diploma or degree	26	21,49
Total	121	100

Table 4 indicates that the majority of respondents 83 (68,59%) held STD 10(Grade 12) and below, while 38 (31,41%) have post-matric qualifications. The literature reveals that there is a relationship between job insecurity and qualifications (Manski & Straub, 2000).

3.6.5 Distribution of respondents by continuous years of service

Table 5 depicts respondents by continuous years of service.

Table 5:*Distribution of respondents by continuous years of service*

YEARS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Less than 1 year	15	12,40
1-2 years	11	9,09
3-4 years	21	17,35
5-10 years	74	61,16
TOTAL	121	100

From Table 5 it seems the majority of respondents 74 (61,16%) have continuous service of 5 years and longer. Thus, it can be assumed that the majority of respondents would have a high degree of commitment to the organisation.

3.6.6 Distribution of respondents by years in present job position

Table 6 depicts distribution of respondents by years in present position.

Table 6:*Distribution of respondents by years in present job position*

YEARS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
1-2 years	21	17,36
3-4 years	16	13,22
5-10 years	33	42,15
Total	51	100

From Table 6 it can be deduced that 33 (42,15%) have been in their present jobs 5 years and longer compared to 61,16% who have continuous service of 5 years and longer with the organisation. The difference (19,01%) can be ascribed to promotions and transfers within the organisation. It is the policy of the organisation to fill vacancies internally where possible.

3.6.7 Distribution of respondents by job grades

Table 7 depicts distribution of respondents by job grades.

Table 7:

Distribution of respondents by job grades

GRADES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
E & DL/DU	17	14,04
C4-C5, C3 & L7/C1-C3	58	47,94
L4-L6 (B2-B4)	46	38,02
L1-L3 (A2-B1)	-	-
Total	121	100

Table 7 indicates that the majority of respondents (47,94 %) are graded L7 to C5 followed by L4 to L6. The majority of grades L1 to L3 have been phased out after multiskilling and training.

3.6.8 Distribution of respondents by job category

Table 8 depicts respondents by job category.

Table 8:

Distribution of respondents by job category

CATEGORIES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Managers	14	11,57
Professionals (registered)	12	9,92
Semi-professional	15	12,40
Skilled	37	30,58
Semi-skilled	40	33,06
Incomplete	3	2,47
Total	121	100

From Table 8 it seems that the majority of respondents are in semiskilled positions (33,06 %) followed by skilled positions (30,58 %). This is representative of the staff complement of the organisation. Three responses are missing.

3.6.9 Distribution of respondents who have subordinates

Table 9 depicts respondents who have subordinates.

Table 9:

Distribution of respondents who have subordinates

Subordinates	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	55	45,45
No	56	54,54
	121	100

In Table 9, 45.45 % of the respondents have subordinates reporting to them, compared to 54.54 % with no subordinates. This is a true reflection of the study population as the majority employees in skilled positions and above have subordinates reporting to them

3.6.10 Distribution of sections in which respondents are employed

Table 10 depicts distribution of sections in which respondents are employed.

Table 10:*Distribution of sections in which respondents are employed*

DEPARTMENT	SECTION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Administration	Finance & Administration	15	12,40
	Human Resources	5	4,13
Production	Production F1, F2 & F3	35	28,92
	Pelletising and sinter	16	13,22
Maintenance	Civil	5	4,13
	Electrical and Instrumentation	1	0,83
	Mechanical	11	9,09
Services	Finished products and laboratory	14	11,57
	Raw material & Security	12	9,92
Mining	Mining	7	5,79
		121	100

3.6.11 Distribution of respondents by union affiliation

Table 11 depicts distribution of respondents by union affiliation.

Table 11:*Distribution of respondents by union affiliation*

UNIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
NUMSA	58	47,93
Non-member	63	52,07
Total	121	100

From Table 11 it is clear that the respondents are evenly distributed between NUMSA union members (47,93%) and non-union members. NUMSA union is the majority union in the organisation and the union members are employed in grades ranging from level 1(A2) to level 8(C2). There is an Agency shop agreement

between NUMSA and the organisation for workers in grades level 1 to level 6. Briefly, an agency shop refers to the agreement whereby the organisation is obliged to deduct union subscription equivalent subscription payable by union members in the same grade. The rationale is that employees in the affected grades automatically enjoy the benefits of any improved conditions that are negotiated by the majority union. Bender and Sloane (1999) found that union membership leads to lower levels of perceived job security.

3.7 THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Three questionnaires, namely Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ), Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (JSQ) and Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) will be used in this study. In this section various measuring instruments will be discussed, with reference to the rationale and development, description, administration, scoring, interpretation as well as validity and reliability.

3.7.1 Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ)

The JIQ developed by De Witte (2000) was used to investigate the feelings of job insecurity of participants.

3.7.1.1 Development and rationale for the JIQ

Job insecurity reflects a discrepancy between the levels of security a person experiences and the level the person might prefer (Jacobson & Hartley, 1991). According to De Witte (2000) some researchers concentrate on the possibility of job loss, while others focus on broad aspects of job insecurity, such as change in job content, loss of promotion opportunities and demotion. De Witte (2000) noted that in order to measure job insecurity holistically a global instrument must be used. In this regard, De Witte (2000) decided to determine whether a new instrument could be created to measure job insecurity, which provides differentiation between cognitive job insecurity and affective job insecurity. With inspiration received from Borg (1992) (as cited in De Witte, 2000), De Witte developed a questionnaire consisting of 11 items.

3.7.1.2 Description of the JIQ

The 8 items of the revised version of the JIQ used in this study include both cognitive and affective dimensions of job insecurity. The items are arranged along a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3=unsure, 4= disagree and 5= strongly disagree. According to De Witte (2000), the questionnaire items refer to cognitive assessments (the possibility of becoming unemployed) and emotional reaction (affective insecurity).

3.7.1.3 Administration, scoring and interpretation of the JIQ

The JIQ can be administrated individually or in groups. In this study, JIQ was administrated individually. Respondents are required to read instructions prior to the start of the completion of the questionnaire. The eight items are answered by deciding to what extent the respondent agrees or disagrees with the statements rated on each scale. In this study, job insecurity is assessed according to the cognitive, affective and total dimensions. The statements consist of both positive and negative ones. Therefore, items 5, 7 and 8 must be reversed when scoring.

The average of 8 the items indicates overall job insecurity of respondents. A low score indicates that the respondent experiences high job insecurity whilst a high score indicates low experience of job insecurity.

3.7.1.4 Reliability and validity of the JIQ

In his research, De Witte, (2000) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,92 for global job insecurity. Furthermore, De Witte found that the overlap between both predictive factors (cognitive and affective) is significant, making it difficult to distinguish between the two dimensions. Heymans (2002) obtained alpha coefficient of 0,81.

3.7.1.5 Rationale for using the JIQ

The job insecurity questionnaire measures global job insecurity by including both cognitive and affective dimensions.

3.7.2 Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (JSQ)

For the measurement of job satisfaction, it has been decided to make use of the short version or the revised Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al., 1967). Next, the rationale and development, description, administration and scoring, as well as the reliability, validity and motivation for choice of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire are discussed.

3.7.2.1 Rationale and development of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

In 1957 the researchers at the University of Minnesota studies who researched the problem of work adjustment, developed the theory of work adjustment (Weiss et al., 1967). The theory states that the principal reason or explanation for observed work adjustment outcomes, i.e. job satisfaction, is the correspondence between the work personality namely, individual needs and characteristics of the employee and the work environment. Therefore, it focuses on the integration between work personality and the work environment. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire has been developed as a measure of one of the primary indicators of work adjustment, namely, job satisfaction.

The rationale for the use of the short version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire is to allow respondents the opportunity to indicate how they feel about their present work in general. It is less time consuming compared to the long version, which, given time restrictions, allows respondents enough time to complete. According to Cook, Hepworth, Wall and Warr (1981) the short version of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire offers a reliable and valid measure of general satisfaction.

3.7.2.2 Description of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire consists of two versions, namely a long version consisting of 100 items and a short revised version consisting of 20 items. The short version of the questionnaire was used in this research. Although the short version does not measure specific aspects, its advantage is that it determines the level of job satisfaction in general and is less time consuming to

complete. The response format is a 5-point Likert type scale (1=very dissatisfied). Choices on the end (5) of the scale indicate total agreement with the item, suggesting high job satisfaction whereas choices at the beginning of the scale (1) indicate total disagreement with the statement made in the item, suggesting a low degree of job dissatisfaction.

3.7.2.3 Administration, scoring and interpretation of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire can be administered individually or in groups (Weiss et. al., 1967). The respondents read the instructions on the questionnaire themselves. The 20 items are answered by deciding to what extent they experience dissatisfaction or satisfaction with each statement.

The average score of the 20 items is an indication of the general job satisfaction of the respondent. A percentile score of 75 or higher would be indicative of a high degree of job satisfaction, while a percentile score of 25 or lower would be indicative of a low level of satisfaction. Scores in a middle of the range of percentiles indicate average satisfaction (Weiss et, al., 1967).

The revised Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire short form measures intrinsic job satisfaction (12 items) and extrinsic job satisfaction (8 items). Hirschfeld (2000) found that the correlation two-factor model (intrinsic and extrinsic) is superior to the one-factor model (total job satisfaction). Alpha coefficients for both the scores of the revised and the original MSQ were higher than 0,82 (Hirschfeld, 2000).

3.7.2.4 Reliability and validity of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Weiss et al. (1967) reported reliability coefficients to be varied from 0,87 to 0,92 for the Revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. Liam, Baum and Pine (1998) supported this finding by reporting Cronbach alpha coefficients, which ranged from 0,87 to 0,95, indicating high internal consistency. Yousef (1998) found a reliability coefficient of 0,92 in his studies of job satisfaction in a cross-cultural context.

Reliability coefficients of 0,90 and higher are reported in South African studies for the Revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. Kaplan (1990) reported a reliability coefficient of 0,90, Welman and Basson (1995) and Dwyer (2001) reported coefficients of 0,92 using this instrument, indicating that the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire indeed offers a reliable and valid measure of general job satisfaction.

3.7.2.5 Motivation for the choice of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

The primary objective of this study is to establish the relationship (or lack thereof) between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Consequently, it is necessary to measure job satisfaction in general. In this regard, a short version of satisfaction questionnaire will be used. It is less time-consuming compared to the long version.

3.7.3 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (18-items) of Meyer et al., (1993) was selected to measure organisational commitment of the respondents.

In this section the rationale and development, description, administration and scoring, interpretation as well as validity and reliability and motivation for the choice of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire are discussed.

3.7.3.1 Development and rationale of the OCQ

Dubois and Associates (1997) stated that the level of organisational commitment is the driving force behind an organisation's performance. The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire emerged as an important instrument in organisational research owing to its relationship with important work-related constructs such as absenteeism, job involvement and leadership (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Yousef, 2000b).

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (affective, continuance, normative) was developed as a measure of the primary indicators of work adjustment, namely

organisational commitment. The questionnaire measures organisational commitment in the three subscales (affective, continuance, normative). According to Allen and Meyer (1990) employees differ in terms of their commitment, which implies that they are committed for different reasons.

Organisational commitment will be measured with the use of the Meyer et al., (1993) instrument. The rationale for its use is that it provides levels of commitment in three different subscales as well as a total commitment scale.

3.7.3.2 Description of the OCQ

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire of Meyer et al., (1993) consists of 18 items rated on a 5-point Likert type scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). Choices on the end (5) of the scale indicate total agreement with the items whereas choices at the beginning of the scale (1) indicate total disagreement with the statements made in the item, hence indicating the level or degree of organisational commitment.

3.7.3.3 Administration and scoring of the OCQ

According to Meyer et al. (1993) the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire can be administered individually or in groups. The 18 items are answered by deciding to what extent people experience agreement or disagreement with statements rated on each subscale. Scores on the affective, continuance, normative and total organisational commitment will be measured for the purpose of this study.

3.7.3.4 Interpretation of the OCQ

The average of the total score will be used when comparisons with demographical variables are made. Also, the subscales of organisational commitment will be used to determine correlations with other variables and to indicate the levels of organisational commitment. The average score of the 18 items would be an indication of the general commitment of the respondent to the organisation. The OCQ measures continuance (6 items), normative (6 items) and affective (6 items) commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

3.7.3.5 Reliability and validity of the OCQ

The questionnaire is currently being standardized for South African circumstances and preliminary results support the reliability and validity of the questionnaire (Bagraim & Hayes, (1999). Bagraim and Hayes (1999) further state that although a 7-point scale is used in European countries to measure organisational commitment, the 5-point Likert type scale used in South Africa has provided reliable and valid results. McDonald and Makin (2000), in their study of the organisational commitment of temporary staff in a UK, organisation, found the reliability for the scale to be 0,84 (chrobach alpha). Allen and Meyer (1990) stated that inter-correlations between different samples were often above 0,90, which indicates that the combined factor is congruent. Cronbach Alpha coefficients above 0,80 were obtained on one of these sub-scales (Suliman & Iles, 2000a).

3.7.3.6 Motivation for the choice of the OCQ

For the purpose of this research the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire of Meyer et al. (1993) was chosen because it fits and supports the operational concepts. It would seem that the questionnaire is culture fair which makes it applicable to the diverse study population (Bagraim & Hayes, 1999; Yousef, 2000b). It has been considered that various aspects in the work environment have an impact on organisational commitment. However, for this study, the overall commitment is taken into consideration with the aim being to establish the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.8 PROCEDURE

The procedure in the conducting and scoring of measurements used will be discussed in this section.

A meeting was held with the Operations Director to explain the aim and scope of the present study. Thereafter, a meeting was arranged with senior management to obtain their support and commitment. Although full support and cooperation was received, it was indicated that the study was going to take place during planned major plant repairs and the majority of maintenance department

personnel would be working regular overtime. Consequently, they might not be available to complete the questionnaire.

A letter of authorisation by the Operations Director, which outlined the purpose and scope of the study, the confidentiality and that participation is voluntary, accompanied the measuring battery.

3.9 STATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis has been carried out with the help of the SAS-program (SAS Institute, 2000) and the Statistica program. In the present study, the total population of the mining personnel is used. Descriptive statistics have been employed in this study, which allows for the data to be meaningful (Burns & Grove, 1993).

Cronbach alpha-coefficients were determined to establish the internal consistency of each of the questionnaires used because this index is indicative of the extent to which all the items are measuring the same characteristics (Huysamen, 1993).

The description and comparison of the results are carried out by arithmetic means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis. The arithmetic mean is the best-known measurement of locality (Steyn, Smit, Du Toit & Strasheim, 1995) and is used to indicate the mean (average) score of the study population on each questionnaire. The standard deviation indicates the distances of all individual scores from the arithmetic mean. The higher the standard deviation, the greater the distances are, on average, from the arithmetic mean (Steyn et al, 1995). Skewness is a descriptive indication of symmetry, which gives an indication of the levels of skewness (positive or negative) of a population. Kurtosis indicates the level of pointedness of a distribution of score (Steyn et al, 1995).

The product moment correlation coefficient (r) is used to determine the way in which one of the variables relates to another. It is based on the premise that if two variables collectively vary, then a correlation or relationship exists among them (Moore & McCabe, 1993). The relationship can be either negative or positive. When the decline in the measurement of one of the variables also leads to decline in the other, then a positive relationship is assumed. With a negative relationship

a decline in the measurement of one of the variables would lead to an increase in the other (Ferguson, 1981). The product moment correlation coefficient varies between -1.00 and $+1.00$. The closer the value of a correlation coefficient (r) is to -1.00 (negative correlation) or to $+1.00$ (positive correlation) the more accurate the prediction is that one variable relates to the other (Ferguson, 1981).

According to Cohen (1988) the following cut-off points in the terms of the correlation coefficient are recognized as practically significant (independent of the direction of the relationship) for the purpose of this study:

$r=0,10$ -small effect

$r= 0,30$ - medium effect

$r=0,50$ large effect

Values (r) larger than $0,30$ will be regarded as practically significant for the purpose of this study.

Following Cohen (1988) a correlation (r) can be better understood by determining its square (r^2). In stepwise multiple regression analysis - the square of r , (r^2) - is used to determine the proportion of the total variance of one variable that is explained by one variable (Moore, 1995). The effect size (which indicates practical significance) in the case of multiple regressions is given by the following formula (Steyn, 1999):

$$f^2=R^2/1-R^2$$

A guideline value of $0,35$ (large effect, Steyn, 1999) was set for practical significance of f^2

Effect size will be used to determine practical significance of differences between means of demographic groups and job insecurity by applying the following formula:

$$D=(x_1-x_2/S_{max})$$

Where

X_1 =arithmetic mean for the first variable of a specific demographical group

X_2 = arithmetic mean for the second variable of a specific demographical group

S_{max} =highest standard deviation of a specific demographical group

The cut-off point for practical significance of differences between means is set on $d=0,2$; small effect, $d=0,5$ medium effect and $d=0,8$ large effect (Steyn, 1999). For the purpose of the present study, d -values of 0,5 (medium effect) and higher are viewed as practically significant. The hypothesis will be tested by means of product moment correlation coefficient, regression analysis and effect sizes.

3.10 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESIS

In conjunction with the specific research objectives, the following basic research hypothesis could be formulated:

H_1 : A practically significant relationship exists between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation, as well as between job insecurity and demographic variables.

Only the alternative hypothesis is stated, since the null hypothesis is the inverse of the alternative hypothesis

3.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the research method used for the empirical study was explained. The choice and composition of the study population, measuring instruments, research procedure, scoring and interpretation of the measuring instruments was discussed. Also, the research hypothesis was stated in terms of the present study.

In Chapter 4, the results of the empirical study are reported and discussed in terms of the research hypothesis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the results of the empirical study are reported and discussed. Firstly, the reliability coefficient or coefficient alpha (α) and inter-item correlation coefficients of each measuring instrument are reported and discussed. Thereafter, the descriptive statistics consisting of the means standard deviation (SD) minimum (MIN) and maximum (MAX) values are discussed. Pearson correlation coefficients (r) are given to denote the linear relationships between variables. Furthermore, the statistical significance of the results is given where applicable.

Effect size will be used to determine practical significance of difference between means of demographical groups and job insecurity. Finally, multiple regression analysis will be carried out to determine how job insecurity and job satisfaction are each explained by other variables.

4.2 RELIABILITY OF MEASURING INSTRUMENTS.

The Cronbach coefficient alpha (α) was used to determine the internal consistency of the various instruments and inter-item correlation coefficients as well as the results thereof are reported and discussed.

4.2.1 Reliability of the JIQ, JSQ, and OCQ

The Cronbach coefficient alphas (α) and inter-item correlation coefficients the JIQ, JSQ, and OCQ and their subscales are given in Table 12 and discussed.

Table 12:

Alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation coefficients of the JIQ, JSQ, and OCQ

Items	α	Inter-item correlation coefficient (r)
Job insecurity – total	0,82	0,37
Job insecurity – affective	0,84	0,60
Job insecurity – cognitive	0,56	0,26
Job satisfaction – total	0,93	0,41
Job satisfaction – intrinsic	0,90	0,45
Job satisfaction – extrinsic	0,86	0,45
Organisational commitment (Total)	0,80	0,20
- Affective	0,70	0,29
- Continuance	0,70	0,26
- Normative	0,63	0,23

The following conclusions in terms of job insecurity can be made based on the results in Table 12:

Table 12 demonstrates that the Cronbach alpha coefficients are 0,82 for the job insecurity (total) and 0,84 for job insecurity (affective) scales. These findings compare favourably with the norm of $\alpha > 0,80$ according to the guidelines by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). The Cronbach alpha of the cognitive scale is 0,56, which is below the acceptable standard but still acceptable for further analysis. However, further research is needed to investigate the reasons for the low score. Heymans (2002) obtained alpha coefficients of 0,81 for job insecurity (total) while Elbert (2002) reported alpha coefficients of 0,84. The inter-item correlation coefficients of 0,37, 0,60 and 0,26 for total, affective and cognitive scales for job insecurity respectively, are above the guidelines of 0,15 as suggested by Clark and Watson (1995).

As is evident in Table 12, the alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation coefficients for job satisfaction are reported as follows: Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0,93 (total), 0,90 (intrinsic) and 0,86 (extrinsic) show that the items

are homogeneous and these values compare favourably with guidelines of 0,80 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In comparison, Kaplan (1990) obtained the alpha coefficients of 0,90 and Dwyer (2001) reported an alpha coefficient of 0,92 using the short version of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire in the South African studies. Furthermore, Sagie (1998) reported an alpha coefficient of 0,70. Also, Yousef (1998) found in his studies of job satisfaction in a cultural context an alpha coefficient of 0,92. Thus, the questionnaire can be regarded as internally consistent. The inter-item correlation was 0,41 (total) and 0,45 for both intrinsic and extrinsic. Job satisfaction subscales are acceptable compared to the guidelines of $0,15 < r < 0,5$ (Clark & Watson, 1995). Thus, it appears that the revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction is internally consistent and can be viewed as a reliable instrument.

According to Table 12 organisational commitment shows a the Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,80; therefore the reliability of the instrument is acceptable according to the guidelines of 0,80 set by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). These results also confirm the findings by Suliman and Iles (2000a) who reported Cronbach coefficient alphas of above 0,80. Also, Dwyer (2001) found an alpha coefficient of 0,79.

Analysis of values in table 12 indicate that the alpha coefficient correlation (α) for affective, continuance and normative commitment are 0,70, 0,70 and 0,63 respectively. These findings are lower than the guidelines by Nunnally and Bernstein, (1994) of $\alpha > 0,80$, but still acceptable for further analysis. These results are marginally lower than the results obtained by Finegan (2000) who reported reliability coefficients of 0,80 to 0,85, and Bagraim (2003) who obtained $\alpha = 0,87$ for affective commitment. The low score of 0,63 was obtained for normative commitment and further research is needed to investigate the reasons.

The inter-item correlation coefficients for the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire vary between 0,20 (total) to 0,29 for affective commitment. These values compare favourably with guidelines of $0,15 < r < 0,5$ according to Clark and Watson (1995). From the above results the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire and its subscales can be regarded as internally consistent.

Consequently, the alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation coefficients do support the internal consistency and construct validity of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaires.

Thus, the specific objective set, namely to determine the reliability and construct validity of the measuring instruments used in this study have been met with reference to paragraph 4.2.1.

Next, the descriptive statistics for the questionnaire used in this study will be discussed.

4.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF JIQ, JSQ, AND OCQ

The mean, standard deviation (SD), skewness and kurtosis of the measuring instruments and their subscales are reported.

Table 13 shows a summary of the descriptive statistics of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire, the JSQ and the OCQ of the total sample ($N = 121$).

Table 13:*Descriptive statistics of the JIQ, JSQ, and OCQ*

Item	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
Job Insecurity – Total	121	3,78	0,82	1,00	5,00	-1,27	2,63
Job Insecurity – Affective	120	3,80	1,05	1,00	5,00	-1,11	0,95
Job Insecurity - cognitive	121	3,77	0,79	1,00	4,75	-1,15	2,55
Job satisfaction- Total	121	3,67	0,87	1,40	5,00	-0,63	-0,27
Job satisfaction-intrinsic	121	3,80	0,91	1,00	5,00	-0,86	0,08
Job satisfaction-extrinsic	121	3,46	0,94	1,25	5,00	-0,41	-0,58
Organisational commitment – Total	121	3,61	0,61	1,06	4,67	-0,88	1,62
Organisational commitment – Affective	121	3,72	0,79	1,19	5,00	-0,24	-0,31
Organisational commitment - continuance	121	3,40	0,80	1,00	5,00	-0,40	0,58
Organisational commitment –normative	121	3,69	0,76	1,00	5,00	0,77	0,77

The total of the two subscales give an indication of the level of job insecurity of the population. A Likert-type scale was used to capture the participant's response regarding total affective and cognitive aspects of job insecurity experienced with the scale indications ranging from 1= strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree.

The mean scores obtained vary between 3,78 (cognitive) and 3,77 (affective) with a mean of 3,80 for the total. The results suggest that participants experience a below- average level of job insecurity. Hence, the participants seem to feel that their jobs are relatively secure. These findings are contrary to previous findings by Orpen (1993), De Witte (1999), Rosenblatt,Talmud and Ruvio(1999) and Kinnuen et al., (2000) who found that employees felt more insecure about their jobs during a period of organisational change and uncertainty about the future. In the present study, the possible negative impact of organisational change seems to have been

counteracted by the latest announcement of plant expansion which includes the creation of more employment and promotion opportunities in the organisation. In this regard participants did not experience perceptions of threat to the total job or job features and powerlessness.

The minimum score is 1 and maximum is 5. Skewness and kurtosis indicate that the scores are more or less normally distributed, though negatively skewed. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) skewness has to do with the symmetry of distribution; a skewed variable is a variable whose mean is not in the centre of distribution. Kurtosis has to do with the peakedness of a distribution; a distribution is either too peaked (with short, thick tails) or too flat (long, thin tails).

The Likert-type scale was employed to capture the participant's responses regarding the total, intrinsic and extrinsic subscales of job satisfaction with scale indications ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree.

As indicated, Table 13 shows the mean scores ranging from 3,46 (extrinsic) to 3,80 (intrinsic) with a total mean score of 3,67. These findings indicate that participants experience above average levels of job satisfaction, especially with regards to intrinsic job satisfaction components.

A high score on job satisfaction correlates with below average score for job insecurity, suggesting that participants are satisfied with aspects of their work in general and are not concerned about continued existence of their jobs.

Skewness and kurtosis demonstrate that the scores are normally distributed with small negative skewness and kurtosis.

Also, the Likert-type scale was employed to capture participant's responses regarding the total affective, continuative and normative subscales of organisational commitment.

The mean score of 3,61 for organisational commitment (total) represents above levels of organisational commitment. The mean score for organisational commitment subscales vary from 3,40 to 3,72. The high score for affective commitment indicates that respondents are committed to the organisation because

they want to be. The average level means score of 3,40 for continuance indicates the respondents' marginally lower need to remain with the organisation because of perceived unfavourable alternatives associated with leaving the organisation. The minimum score is 1, the maximum is 5.

Skewness and kurtosis are indicative of a normal distribution with regard to organisational commitment.

A specific objective set, namely to determine the levels of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation have been met with reference to paragraphs 4.3.

4.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB INSECURITY, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

In this section; product moment correlations (r) were utilized to measure the extent of the linear relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The cut-off point for practical significance of correlation between variables is set accordingly to guidelines by Cohen (1988), namely correlation is practically significant $r = 0,30$ (medium effect) and $r = 0,50$ (large effect).

4.4.1 The relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment

The correlation coefficient between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are given in Table 14.

Table 14:

Product-moment correlation coefficient between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Item	Job insecurity – affective	Job insecurity –cognitive	Job insecurity – total (r)
Job satisfaction -total	0,57**	0,50**	0,61**
Job satisfaction-intrinsic	0,60**	0,49*	0,63**
Job satisfaction-extrinsic	0,43*	0,49*	0,91**
Organisational commitment –total	0,48*	0,43*	0,43*
Organisational commitment –affective	0,48*	0,43*	0,52**
Organisational commitment –continuance	0,22	0,12	0,20
Organisational commitment –normative	0,42*	0,46*	0,49*

*correlation is practically significant $r = 0,30$ (medium effect)

** correlation is practically significant $r = 0,50$ (large effect)

Table 14 depicts a practically significant correlation (large effect) between job insecurity (total) and job satisfaction of 0,61. In addition, there are also practically significant correlations between job insecurity and its subscales and job satisfaction and its subscales varying from 0,43 (medium effect) for job insecurity (affective) and job satisfaction (extrinsic) to 0,91 for job insecurity (total) and job satisfaction (intrinsic).

Hence, it can be deduced that job insecurity and job satisfaction together with its facets are related. This result confirms previous findings that job insecurity is associated with job satisfaction (Ashford et al., 1989; Hartley et al., 1991; Heaney & Israel & House, 1994). On the contrary, results by Heymans (2002) indicated no significant correlation between job insecurity and job satisfaction.

Thus the hypothesis that there is a correlation between job insecurity and job satisfaction is supported.

As indicated Table 14 shows that there is a practically significant correlation ($r = 0,43$) (medium effect) between job insecurity (total) and organisational commitment (total). Further analysis of the values of correlation coefficients of facets of job insecurity and organisational commitment indicate no significant correlation between continuance facets of organisational commitment and all other variables. The remaining variables demonstrate practically significant correlations (medium effect) ranging from 0,42 (medium effect) for organisational commitment (normative) and job insecurity (affective) to 0,52 job insecurity (total) and organisational commitment (affective). In contrast, results by Heymans (2002) showed no practically significant correlation between job insecurity and job satisfaction.

Thus, the hypothesis for a relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment in a mining organisation is partially accepted.

4.4.2 The relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

The correlations between job satisfaction and organisational commitment are given in Table 15.

Table 15:

Product-moment correlation coefficient between job satisfaction and the organisational commitment.

Job Satisfaction	Affective Commitment (a)	Cognitive Commitment (c)	Normative Commitment (n)	Total Commitment (t)
Job satisfaction total	0,52**	0,15	0,46*	0,48*
Intrinsic	0,50**	0,13	0,44*	0,45*
Extrinsic	0,48*	0,16	0,42*	0,45*

*correlation is practically significant $r = 0,30$ (medium effect)

** correlation is practically significant $r = 0,50$ (large effect)

Analysis of values in Table 15 shows a practically significant relationship, $r = 0,48$ (medium effect) between job satisfaction (total) and organisational commitment (total), while correlations between other variables (excluding cognitive commitment), range from 0,42 for extrinsic job satisfaction and normative commitment to 0,52 between job satisfaction (total) and affective commitment.

The finding implies that when job satisfaction increases, commitment to the organisation will also tend to increase, and vice-versa. Furthermore, it can be concluded that the respondents will tend to stay with the organisation because they want to (affective) and because they ought to (normative) and this will lead to an increase in total organisation commitment and job satisfaction.

This finding corroborates results of studies by De Coninck and Bachman (1994) and Baker and Baker (1999) who obtained practically significant correlations of 0,63 and 0,64 (large effect) respectively.

4.5 EFFECT SIZES FOR DEMOGRAPHICAL GROUPS AND JOB INSECURITY

Table 16 contains means, standard deviations and effect sizes of demographic groups for job insecurity (total)

Table 16:

Means, standard deviations and effect sizes of demographic groups for job insecurity (total)

GENDER	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
Male	3,78	0,84			
Female	3,85	0,49	-0,24	0,81	
RACE	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
Black	3,78	0,84			
White	3,85	0,49	-4,11	0,00**	0,51 [#]
AGE	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
< 35 years	3,59	0,96			
35-45 years	3,79	0,54	-1,14	0,26	
35-45 years	3,79	0,54			
> 45 years	4,21	0,61	-2,92	0,005**	0,26
< 35 years	3,59	0,96			
>45 years	4,21	0,61	-3,07	0,003**	0,60 [#]
QUALIFICATIONS	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
Std 6 - 10	3,70	0,80			
> Std 10	3,95	0,84	-1,60	0,11	

Table 16 (continued)

YEARS OF SERVICE	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
1 - 2 years	3,70	0,85			
3 – 4 years	3,77	0,66	-0,32	0,75	
1 - 2 years	3,70	0,85			
5+ years	3,84	0,84	-0,56	0,56	
3 - 4 years	3,77	0,66			
5+ years	3,84	0,84	-0,20	0,84	
GRADING	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
L1-L6 / A2 – B4	3,52	0,83			
C3 – C5	4,05	0,64	1,94	0,058	
L1-L6 / A2 – B4	3,52	0,83			
DL - E	4,40	0,47	4,17	0,000**	1,05##
C3 – C5	4,05	0,64			
DL - E	4,40	0,47	3,20	0,002**	0,64#
UNION	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
NUMSA	3,42	0,84			
Non-members	4,14	0,60	-5,29	0,000**	0,84##

Table 16 (continued)

CATEGORY	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
Managers	4,13	1,07			
Professional	4,03	0,80	0,25	0,81	
Managers	4,13	1,07			
Semi-professional	4,07	0,47	0,16	0,87	
Managers	4,13	1,07			
Skilled	3,83	0,74	1,09	0,28	
Managers	4,13	1,07			
Semi-skilled	3,05	0,79	2,52	0,015*	0,63 [#]
Professional	4,03	0,80			
Semi-professional	4,07	0,47	-0,18	0,86	
Professional	4,03	0,80			
Skilled	3,83	0,74	0,77	0,44	
Professional	4,03	0,80			
Semi-skilled	3,05	0,79	2,23	0,03*	0,72 [#]
Semi-professional	4,07	0,47			
Skilled	3,83	0,74	1,14	0,26	
Semi-professional	4,07	0,47			
Semi-skilled	3,05	0,79	2,85	0,006**	0,78 [#]
Skilled	3,83	0,74			
Semi-skilled	3,05	0,79	2,23	0,03*	0,48 [#]

*Difference between means is statistically significant $\alpha \leq 0,05$

**Difference between means is statistically significant $\alpha \leq 0,01$

#Effective size is practically significant $d=0,50$ (medium effect)

##Effective size is practically significant $d=0,80$ (large effect)

According to Table 16, the following practically significant differences regarding job insecurity and demographic groups exist.

Differences between the job insecurity of participants of different races, union affiliation, levels of grades and categories, were determined. No significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0,05$) were found with regard to gender, tenure and qualifications.

Practically significant differences of medium effect were found between black and white respondents. The findings seem to suggest that black respondents experience higher levels of job insecurity than their white counterparts.

Regarding grading practically significant differences of *medium effect* were established for respondents graded on C3, C4 and C5 and DL to E. In addition, practically significant differences of large effect were established for L1 to L6 and DL to E. However no practically significant differences could be found for other grades.

Practically significant differences of *medium effect* were established for respondents on job categories of managers and semiskilled, professional and semiskilled and semi-professional and semiskilled. These findings suggest that respondents on lower job category (semiskilled) experience significantly higher levels of job insecurity compared to those on higher job categories.

Furthermore, practically significant differences of *large effect* were found for NUMSA and non-union members. These findings indicate some relationship between job insecurity experienced and the classification of respondents into union groups. Van Vuuren et al., (1991), states that feelings of job insecurity influence employees to participate in industrial action, if they believe that their participation will safeguard their jobs.

It must be noted that no practically significant differences were found for respondents with regard to years of service. The researcher suggests that this could be ascribed to the fact that the organisation in which the research is undertaken has been in operation for only seven years. Furthermore, no practically significant differences could be found for respondents with regard to gender. This finding corresponds with De Witte (1999) who concluded that job insecurity is distressing to both male and female.

4.6 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

A multiple linear regression analysis (R^2) was used to determine the proportion of the total variance of one variable that is explained by another variable (Moore, 1995).

A multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job insecurity could be predicted by job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis with job insecurity as the dependent variable and job satisfaction and organisational commitment as the independent variables are shown in Table 17.

4.6.1 Regression analysis regarding job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Table 17 summarises regression analysis regarding job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Table 17:

Regression analysis of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE				
R=0,67	Source of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Means of squares
R ² =0,46	Regression	5	36,67	7,33
Adjusted R ² = 0,44	Residual	117	43,10	0,37
F= 19,57	f ² =0,85			

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Dependent Variables (Job insecurity)	Parameters B	Standard Error
Constant variables (intercept)	0,17	0,35
Job satisfaction –intrinsic	0,41	0,1
Job satisfaction –extrinsic	-0,02	0,9
Organisational Commitment (affective)	0,20	0,10
Organisational Commitment (Continuance)	0,59	0,79
Organisational Commitment (Normative)	0,16	0,11

Table 17 demonstrates that a total (as measured by the Job Insecurity Questionnaire) of 44,00% of the variance in job insecurity is explained by job

satisfaction and organisational commitment. The multiple regression correlation of 0,68 is practically significant (large effect) ($f^2 = 0,85$). The findings indicate that job satisfaction and organisational commitment predict approximately 44% of the variance in job insecurity. Thus, the findings suggest a significant relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Accordingly, the specific research objective regarding whether job satisfaction and organisational commitment can predict job insecurity, is reached.

4.6.2 Regression analysis regarding job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Table 18 summarises the results obtained from the regression analysis of job satisfaction as dependent variable and organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) as independent variables.

Table 18:

Regression analysis of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative)

R = 0,54	Source of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Means of squares
$R^2 = 0,29$	Regression	3	26,51	8,84
Adjusted $R^2 = 0,27$	Residual	117	64,28	0,55
$F = 16,09$	$f^2 = 0,37$			

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Dependent Variables (Job Satisfaction)	Parameters	Standard Error
Constant variables	1,20	0,41
Organisational Commitment (affective)	0,42	0,12
Organisational Commitment (Continuance)	0,01	0,09
Organisational Commitment (Normative)	0,23	0,13

Table 18 demonstrates that total of 27% of total job satisfaction (as measured by the Revised Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire) is explained by organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative). The multiple regression of 0,54 is practically significant (large effect) ($f^2 = 0,37$). These findings indicate that organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) predicts 27% of the variance job satisfaction: the findings suggest that if mining personnel are more committed to the organisation they will be more satisfied.

4.6.3 Regression analysis regarding job satisfaction (intrinsic) and organisational commitment

Table 19 summarises the results obtained from regression analysis of job satisfaction (intrinsic) as dependent variable and organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) as independent variables.

Table 19:

Regression analysis of job satisfaction (intrinsic) and organisational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative)

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE				
R =0,51	Source of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Means of squares
R ² =0,26	Regression	3	26,21	8,73
Adjusted R ² =0,24	Residual	117	73,86	0,63
F =13,84	$f^2 = 0,35$			

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Dependent Variables: Job satisfaction (intrinsic)	Parameters	Standard Error
Constant variables	1,41	0,44
Organisational Commitment (affective)	0,41	0,12
Organisational Commitment (Continuance)	-0,01	0,10

Organisational Commitment (Normative)	0,23	0,14
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Table 19 demonstrates that organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) predicts 24% total variance of job satisfaction (intrinsic). The Multiple regression correlation of 0,51 is practically significant (large effect) ($f^2 = 0,35$).

The regression analysis of job satisfaction (extrinsic) and organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) is depicted in Table 20.

4.6.4 Regression analysis regarding job satisfaction (extrinsic) and organisational commitment

Table 20:

Regression analysis of job satisfaction (extrinsic) and organisational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative)

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE				
R=0,50	Source of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Means of squares
R ² =0,25	Regression	3	27,10	9,03
Adjusted R ² = 0,23	Residual	117	80,59	0,68
F = 13,11	f ² =0,33			

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Dependent Variables: Job satisfaction (extrinsic)	Parameters	Standard Error
Constant variables	0,90	0,46
Organisational Commitment (affective)	0,43	0,13
Organisational Commitment (Continuance)	0,05	0,11
Organisational Commitment (Normative)	0,21	0,14

According to Table 20 a total of 23% of job satisfaction (extrinsic) is predicted by organisational commitment. The multiple regression correlation of 0,50 is not practically significant (medium effect) ($f^2 = 0,33$).

The results obtained in terms of Tables 18, 19 and 20 indicated a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Regression analysis from Table 17 demonstrates that there is also a relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment.

4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the results of the empirical study were reported and discussed. The reliability coefficient and inter-item correlation coefficients of each instrument were reported and discussed. The descriptive statistics were presented to indicate level of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment experienced by the participants. Thereafter, Pearson- product moment correlation coefficients were used to determine the linear relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Also, effect sizes were used to determine practically significant differences between means regarding total job insecurity of different demographical groups. Lastly, multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job insecurity could be predicted by job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The objective set for this chapter, namely to discuss the results and draw conclusions from it, is achieved, according to the researcher. All empirical objectives have been reached and the hypothesis tested.

In Chapter 5, the conclusions will be made on the basis of the literature findings and empirical investigation. Limitations as well as recommendations for the organisation, and future research were mentioned.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the previous chapter the results of the study were discussed. The purpose of this chapter is to provide conclusions about literature findings and the results of the empirical study. The limitations of the present study are discussed and the recommendations for the organisation and future research are presented.

5.1 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions are made in the following sections in accordance with the specific and empirical objectives of the present study.

5.1.1 Conclusions in terms of the specific literature objectives of the study.

The following conclusions can be made in regard of the constructs of job insecurity, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment.

Job insecurity is conceptualised from the literature as the perceived threat of losing one's job or valued features of the job. To experience job insecurity the individual must be powerless to counteract the effect of the perceived threat. Job insecurity arises out of a negative reaction to perceived fundamental and involuntary change in the work situation after cognitive appraisal of events in the organisation or organisational environment. It seems that anxiety is aroused by ambiguity or lack of information. Feelings of job insecurity may be aroused by events such as technological changes, retrenchments, downsizing or rumours that these events are about to take place. It was also indicated that job insecurity is a subjective experience, in that employees might perceive the same situation differently. Some may feel insecure when there is no objective reason to, while some may feel secure when there are actual threats to the jobs.

Finally, it was indicated that job insecurity has negative consequences for both the organisation and the individual. It usually results in reduced organisational

commitment and lowered job satisfaction. For the individual, it affects psychological and physical well-being.

Job satisfaction was conceptualised as the internal interpretation of intrinsic or extrinsic aspects of the job. It results from a comparison of outcomes that the individual expects to receive from the job compared to what he/she actually receives based on the input. If what one receives, for example pay, is more or equal to what one expects, one would be satisfied. However if what one receives is less than what one expected, one will be unsatisfied.

Organisational commitment is conceptualised from literature as a strong belief in the organisation's goals, values, and a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation. According to the literature, organisational commitment consists of three dimensions namely, continuance, affective and normative. Continuance commitment is concerned with the individual's need to continue working for the organisation as a result of the perceived unfavourable cost that would be incurred should the individual leave the organisation. Affective commitment is concerned with the extent to which the individual identifies with the organisation. With regard to normative commitment, individuals stay with the organisation because they believe they ought to.

From the literature it can be concluded that organisational commitment and job satisfaction are influenced by job insecurity. Employees with perceptions of job insecurity are more likely to engage in work withdrawal behaviour, such as absenteeism, and then ultimately to increased employee turnover. It was also indicated that perceptions of low job security can lead to reduced job satisfaction.

5.1.2 Conclusions in terms of the specific empirical objectives of the study

The objectives and the resultant findings of the empirical research are summarised as follows:

To determine the levels of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation.

It was found that the research group experienced low levels of job insecurity and its facets. They further presented above average levels of job satisfaction and all its facets. Lastly, it was found that employees experienced above-average levels of organisational commitment.

To determine the practical significance of the differences between means of demographic groups for job insecurity in a mining organisation.

Concerning the practical significance of differences between gender and tenure, for job insecurity, no practically significant differences were found. These findings could be ascribed to the fact that few females participated in the study. Regarding tenure, participants with the longest years of service will be seven years, which is too short to display practically significant differences.

Regarding job insecurity and race a practically significant difference of medium effect was found common, where black respondents were found to experience more job insecurity than their white counterparts. Similar findings were recorded by Manski and Straub (2000). Also, a practically significant difference was found between job insecurity for participants aged between 35 years and younger and 46 years and older.

A practically significant difference of large effect exists, regarding job insecurity of groups holding qualifications below Std 10 and above Std 10. Therefore, there is an indication of a relationship between the levels of qualifications and of job insecurity, since low qualifications contribute to feelings of job insecurity. In addition, practically significant differences between job insecurity were found for band gradings C3, C4 and C5 and E, DL and DU, which indicates a relationship between job insecurity and these grades. Further, a practically significant difference of large effect was found for semiskilled and all other job categories. This indicates that respondents in the semiskilled category seem to experience significantly more job insecurity than the rest.

A practically significant difference of large effect was found for the groups NUMSA and Non-member. This seems to indicate that respondents affiliated to NUMSA experience more job insecurity than non-members.

To determine the reliability and construct validity of the instruments used.

All three instruments used in this study reported acceptable internal consistency and construct validity, despite the cognitive scale of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire and the subscales of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire reporting marginally low internal consistency.

To determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation.

The expectations that job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are related have been supported. A positive correlation was found between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The findings indicate that job insecurity and its facets (affective and cognitive) are related to job satisfaction and its facets (intrinsic and extrinsic). This implies that job insecurity is associated with reduced job satisfaction (Ashford et al., 1989; Hartley et al., 1991; Heany, Israel & House, 1994). Also the findings indicate that job insecurity and its facets (affective and cognitive) correlated with organisational commitment facets (affective and normative). Note, a low correlation was recorded for job insecurity and its facets (affective and cognitive) and organisational commitment continuance. Overall, expected the relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment, which indicates that employees who experience job insecurity, will show low organisational commitment, was supported.

To determine whether job insecurity predicts job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The findings indicate that job insecurity predicts a total of 44% of the variance in job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which is practically significant (large effect).

The empirical objectives as specified from the research have been met and discussed. The limitations of the present study will be presented next.

5.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The following limitations are presented from this study:

The majority of employees from Maintenance Department did not participate in the study. Due to time constraints, employees who were on leave or working night shifts could not participate in the study.

The alpha coefficient of the cognitive scale of job insecurity was marginally low and needs further investigation.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Having organisational changes such as downsizing and restructuring, management should create perceptions of fair treatment of employees. This can be done through frank and proactive communication of any changes before feelings of job insecurity arises. This will give survivors of work change a sense of control over the situation.

A climate of trust must be created between management and union members to minimise perception of job insecurity among union members.

It is recommended that employees who cannot read and write should be included in future studies. Finally, it is recommended that future studies be expanded to other organisations within the mining industry.

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