THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB INSECURITY, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT OF MAINTENANCE WORKERS IN A PARASTATAL.

Daniël Rabé Heymans, Hons. BA

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Study leader: Dr. J.H. Buitendach
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NOTICE

• The American Psychological Association (APA) style for references as prescribed by Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education (PU for CHE) has been used in this research: Publication Manual of the American Association, 1998 (4th ed.).

• The male gender is used in this research; however, it is also applicable to the female gender. He means she/he.

• A short description containing the opinion of the researcher will follow after each of the constructs, namely: job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, as discussed from the literature. The researcher’s own integration of the literature is represented here. At the end of the chapter a summary and discussion follows which will attempt to capture the literature in the own words of the researcher in a meaningful and significant conclusion.
ABSTRACT

SUBJECT: The relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers in a parastatal.

KEY TERMS: Job insecurity, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job performance, job/work attitudes, organisational uncertainty, and psychological and physical health.

Worldwide, organisations are characterised by an increasing demand to change in order to improve their performance and become more competitive. Amidst these changes, caused by economic uncertainty and global competition, large-scale workforce reductions are prevalent, even in South Africa. The effects thereof have resulted in unemployment for some whilst those who remain are daunted by feelings of job insecurity, resulting in the demise of the “job for life attitude” and the once valued “psychological contract” being reformulated.

Job insecurity is important since it deals with the continuing existence of an employee within an organisation. It is underlined by the notion that there is fear and uncertainty in the job situation, and that control over the destiny of the job situation is threatened. Consequently, job insecurity has emerged as an important stressor in modern working life. Studies indicate that job insecurity among employees’ leads to job dissatisfaction, an increase in negative physical and psychological health outcomes, and manifests in work withdrawal behaviour and lower organisational commitment. In this study, the phenomenon of job insecurity as it manifests itself in employee attitudinal outcomes is investigated.

The empirical objective of this research is to determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, including the relationship between job insecurity and demographic variables. Also, whether job insecurity can be predicted by the mentioned constructs.

A survey design was used to test the research hypotheses. The study population consisted of 178 maintenance workers and questionnaires were completed. The reliability and construct validity of all three questionnaires used was found acceptable despite some sub-scales reporting marginally low reliability.
The findings suggested that no relationship exists between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which are contrary to findings that job insecurity has been associated with lowered job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This could be ascribed to the fact that high levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment were recorded.

Descriptive statistics and effect sizes were used to compare the differences amongst demographical groups for job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, including practical significance of differences between means of demographical groups and job insecurity. Practically significant differences of medium to large effect were established for respondents having qualifications less than Std 10, who have been employed for less than 15 years, are graded on CL band, are semi-skilled and affiliated to NUMSA trade union, which implies that they experience more job insecurity compared to other groups.

Regression analysis was done which concluded that job satisfaction and organisational commitment explain a total of 14.1% of the variance in job insecurity, hence a practically significant (medium effect) relationship.

Limitations and recommendations regarding future research, including recommendations for the organisation, were also made.
OPSOMMING

ONDERWERP: Die verband tussen werksonsekerheid, werkstevredendheid en organisasieverbondenheid van instandhoudingswerkopers in 'n nutsmaatskappy.

SLEUTELTERMES: Werksonsekerheid, werksbevrediging, organisasieverbondenheid, werksprestasie, werkshouding, organisasie onsekerheid, psigologiese en fisiese gesondheid.

Ekonomiese onsekerheid en globalisering veroorsaak dat organisasies wêreldwyd gekenmerk word deur versnellende veranderings om meer kompeterend te wees en werksprestasie te verbeter. Te midde van hierdie veranderinge, vind groot skaalse werksafleggings plaas, selfs in Suid-Afrika. Die gevolg is werkloosheid vir sommiges, terwyl die wat oorleef, beangs en bedreig voel oor die voortbestaan van hul werk, wat weer tot werksonsekerheid aanleiding gee. Selfs die eens gewaardeerde psigologiese kontrak tussen werknemer en wergewer, asook die houding van 'n “werk vir altyd”, word herformuleer.

Werksonsekerheid is belangrik want dit het met die voortbestaan van werknemers binne die organisasie te doen. Onderliggend hieraan is die gepaardgaande gedagte van onsekerheid en verlies van beheer wat heers, oor die werksituasie. Gevolglik het werksonsekerheid ‘n belangrike stressor geword in die moderne werkslewe. Studies het bewys dat werksonsekerheid tot werkontevredendheid, lae organisasieverbondenheid en werkersonbetrokkenheid lei, asook fisiese en psigologiese gesondheid benadeel. Met die studie is die fenomeen werksonsekerheid, soos wat dit manifesteer in werknemergedrag, ondersoek.

Die empiriese doelstellings van hierdie navorsing was om die verband tussen werksonsekerheid, werkstevredenheid en organisasieverbondenheid te bepaal, insluitende die verband tussen werksonsekerheid en die demografiese veranderlikes asook tot watter mate werksonsekerheid deur die genoemde konstrukte voorspel word.

‘n Opname ontwerp is gebruik om die navorsingshipoteses te toets. Die ondersoekgroep bestaande uit 178 lede van die instandhoudings departement, het vraelyste voltooie. Die betroubaarheid en konstrukgeldigheid van al drie die vraelyste wat gebruik is, was aanvaarbaar, ongeag die iiewat lae betroubaarheid van sommige sub-skale.
Die resultate dui dat geen verband tussen werksonsekerheid, werkstevredengheid en organisasieverbondenheid bestaan nie wat teenstrydig is omdat die literatuur wel verbande tussen dié veranderlikes aandui. Die bevinding kan toegeskryf word aan die feit dat bogemiddelde vlakke van werkstevredenheid en organisasieverbondenheid gemeet is.

Beskrywende statistiek en effek groottes was gebruik om die verskille tussen die demografiese groepe vir werksonsekerheid, werkstevredenheid en organisasieverbondenheid te vergelyk. Praktiese beduidendheid van verskille tussen gemiddeldes vir die demografiese groepe en werksonsekerheid, is ook aangedui. Praktiese beduidende verskille van medium tot groot effek dui daarop dat respondente wat beskik oor kwalifikasies laer as St 10, 15 en minder diensjare, CL posgradering, semi-vaardig en lede van NUMSA vakbond is, meer werksonsekerheid ervaar, in vergelyking met ander groepe.

’n Regresie analise is gedoen en daar is vasgestel dat werkstevredenheid en organisasieverbondenheid 14,1% van die variansie vir werksonsekerheid verklaar, dus praktiese beduidend (medium effek) verband.

Beperkings van hierdie navorsing sowel as aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing is aan die hand gedoen, sowel as aanbevelings aan die organisasie.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this mini-dissertation is to investigate the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal. In addition the difference between demographic variables for job insecurity will be compared.

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

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Over the past decade, there has been a growing emphasis on job security as an important organisational determinant for job satisfaction since it relates to the desire for a peaceful, smoothly running and stable society, free from fear and chaos (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). Traditionally many employees were almost guaranteed of permanent tenure and organisations encouraged this expectation by adding various benefits (Smithson & Lewis, 2000).

Terms of employment, including low mortgages, salary and promotion were specified, in some cases, in collective contracts, which allowed for dismissals only in very extreme cases relating to inappropriate behaviour and seldom related to performance (Ruvio & Rosenblatt, 1999). Also, the cost to the employer of loyalty and flexibility was relatively high job security for employees, requiring superior employment protection, planned career opportunities and high levels of pay (Apisakkul, 2000; Hallier & Lyon, 1996). However, this “psychological contract” arising from the expectations of employer and employee and operating over and above the formal contract, is diminishing as changes within the economies and organisations are introduced world-wide (De Witte, 1997, 1999; Mauno & Kinnunen, 2000).

Changes such as economic uncertainty, global competition, and a dramatic increase in mergers and acquisitions in the past decade have forced organisations to improve organisational effectiveness and streamline operations through downsizing, outsourcing, and restructuring, and are coupled with large scale workforce reductions (Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans & Van
Vuuren, 1991). The effects thereof resulted in unemployment for some workers whilst those who remained, are daunted by feelings of job insecurity, resulting in the demise of the "job for life attitude" (Ferrie, Shipley, Marmot, Stansfeld & Smith, 1998).

The mentioned changes resulted in organisations becoming leaner in their operations, of which the Management Mantra became: "Do more with less" in an attempt to survive in difficult economic conditions (Borg & Elizur, 1992). In addition, the global information era contributed to the profound restructuring of work taking place, in order to be competitive (Hartley et al., 1991). The world as such has become "smaller" and the tempo, with which work has to be completed, has increased drastically. Also, new flexible forms of employment are being introduced heightening the fear of redundancy (Hartley et al.).

Despite the necessity of these forced changes for organisational survival, employees may feel threatened since some might not see the need for change; others might fear the unknown, especially their job and financial security (Lord & Hartley, 1998; Nadler, 1987). These fears and threats arise from perceptions of uncertainty and loss of control over the destiny of the job situation (Hui & Lee, 2000). Hence, the importance of job insecurity since it deals with the continuing existence of an organisational member within an organisation and the loss of job implies loss of organisational membership (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hui & Lee; Jacobson, 1991).

Job insecurity has been described in different ways and consensus on the exact definition has not yet been reached (De Witte, 1997, 1999; Mauno & Kinnunen, 2000). According to the global view, job insecurity relates to people in their work context who fear they might lose their jobs and become unemployed (De Witte). Hartley et al. (1991) defines job insecurity as a discrepancy between the levels of security people experience and the level they might prefer. Hui and Lee, (2000) describes job insecurity as the lack of control to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation.

Van Vuuren (1990) describes job insecurity as the concern felt by a person for the continued existence of his job and identifies three components which are central to job insecurity. The first component refers to a subjective experience or perception; the second to uncertainty about the future and, the third component includes doubts concerning the continuation of the job. Within
this framework of the multidimensional view of job insecurity, the concept of job insecurity not only refers to the amount of uncertainty employees feel about their job continuity, but also about the permanence of certain dimensions of the job, such as organisational benefits and promotional opportunities (Borg, 1992; Borg & Elizur, 1992; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996).

Consequently, job insecurity emerged as an important stressor in modern working life and studies have shown that job insecurity among employees leads to job dissatisfaction (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989; Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1997), an increase in negative physical health outcomes (Dooley, Rook, & Catalano, 1987; Kuhnert, Simms, & Lahey, 1989; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990), and higher reports of psychological distress (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Probst, 2000). In addition, employees with perceptions of low job security are more likely to engage in work withdrawal behaviour (Probst, 1999), report lower organisational commitment (Ashford et al.; Davy et al.), which often leads to employee turnover (Ashford et al.; Davy et al.) and decreased safety motivation and compliance, which in turn are related to higher levels of workplace injuries and accidents (Probst & Brubaker, 2001).

Job insecurity is not only problematic for the individual employee, but also for the organisation since growing job insecurity may only be the tip of the iceberg; below lies uncertainty and anxiety for those remaining behind (Davy et al., 1997; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; De Witte, 1997). Also, the risk of further redundancies could increase feelings of job insecurity (De Witte; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996) and the impact thereof could erode the functioning and effectiveness of the organisation since employees may be pressurised to modify their jobs, engage in inappropriate work behaviour, accept different employment conditions or be forced to relocate (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hartley et al., 1991).

People also develop affective and attitudinal attachments towards their workplace over time, which show up as high levels of commitment, satisfaction, and trust (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1979). Feelings of job insecurity may threaten such basic attachments (De Witte, 1997; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996). A downward spiral is created, where productivity decreases, absenteeism increases, which might result in the competitive strength of the company being undermined (Hartley et al., 1991). The current study examined job satisfaction and
organisational commitment as attitudinal outcomes and their relationship with job insecurity and is discussed, accordingly.

It follows then that job satisfaction can be described as an affective or emotional reaction to a job resulting from the comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired, expected or felt to be deserved (Cranny, Smith & Stone, 1992). Also, job satisfaction is a process whereby employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The correspondence with the environment can be described in terms of individuals fulfilling the requirements of the environment and visa versa, which implies that individuals will experience job satisfaction if they feel their individual capacities, experience and values can be utilised in their work environment and that their work environment offers them opportunities and rewards them accordingly (Cranny et al.). Comparisons between the expected outcomes and the perceived outcomes offered by the job are made, and if found to be less than is expected, the employee experiences a negative emotional response towards the job, resulting in job dissatisfaction (Cranny et al.).

Judge, Bourdreaud and Bretz (1994) and Judge and Hulin (1993) describe job satisfaction as a function of the balance between work role inputs, that is, what the individual inputs into the work role (e.g. education), and work role outcomes, that is, what is perceived (e.g. job security). As outcomes received relative to inputs invested increase, job satisfaction is hypothesised to increase. Perceptions of job dissatisfaction are related to patterns of behaviour such as tardiness, absenteeism and high labour turnover, whereas job satisfaction is related to behaviour that indicates a positive organisational orientation (Pretorius & Rothmann, 2001). In relation, job insecurity is consistently associated with a reduced level of job satisfaction (Probst, 2000).

Organisational commitment as the other attitudinal outcome studied is defined by Allen and Meyer (1990), as the employee’s feelings of obligation to stay with the organisation; resulting from the internalisation of the normative pressures exerted on an individual prior or following entry. Also, organisational commitment can take three distinct forms (Allen & Meyer). Affective commitment refers to identification with, involvement in and emotional attachment to the organisation. Continuance commitment refers to commitment based on employees’ recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organisation (Allen & Meyer). Normative commitment
refers to commitment based on a sense of obligation to the organisation. Therefore, those with strong normative commitment remain with the organisation because they feel ought to do so (Allen & Meyer).

Wagner and Hollenbeck (1995) supports the mentioned descriptions of organisational commitment as they describe it as the identification with ones employer that includes the willingness to work hard on behalf of the organisation and the intention to remain with the organisation for an extended period of time. Bishop and Scott (2000) define organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with, and involvement in, a particular organisation. Allen and Meyer (1996) describe organisational commitment as a psychological link between the employee and employer that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave.

The researcher, to date, is of the opinion that evidence that job insecurity is a salient issue for most South African workers and businesses, appears mainly in the popular press literature and is largely circumstantial and anecdotal. The economy at large, technological advancement and tough international competition are impacting on South African companies too, with South Africa ranked only 38 out of 47 countries according to the 2000 Global Competitiveness Report (International Institute for Management Development, 2000). Organisations are pressured to improve their performance and to become increasingly competitive (International Institute for Management Development). In such cost saving conditions, profitability becomes the most fundamental consideration when determining methods to be competitive. Sources of cost saving may include wages, economies of scale, technology, access to raw materials and salaries, the former usually being the largest, immediate source of cost saving (Marais & Schepers, 1996).

The position of the organisation, in which the research will be undertaken, is about to change from a state owned public utility to a company with the implementation of certain legislative mechanisms. The exact detail has not yet been finalised but employees were guaranteed that this transformation process would not result in any job losses. Furthermore the organisation prides itself on having a “no staff reduction” policy. Despite these measures, recent trends suggest that employees are experiencing job insecurity. Voluntary separation packages are offered to attain affirmative action and employment equity targets to address the problem of unplaced employees
and organised labour is rallying for support to resist the intended governmental initiatives to privatise this state owned utility.

The motivation for this research is to examine the phenomenon of job insecurity as it manifests itself in employee attitudinal outcomes during organisational uncertainty that is likely to be induced by organisational changes. It is widely accepted that employees in this sector (parastatal) enjoy a higher level of job security, manifested in strong union representation and extensive grievance and appeal procedures (Ruvio & Rosenblatt, 1999). In addition, research pertaining to job insecurity in the South African context is limited apart from research done by, for instance Carr (1995) and Orpen (1993). The researcher aims to contribute by adding to this information base for future research. Furthermore, the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment holds significant challenges considering the effects of job insecurity.

The following research questions could consequently be identified for this investigation:

- How are job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment conceptualised in the research literature?
- What are the reliability and construct validity coefficients of the measuring instruments used in this study?
- What are the levels of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers in a parastatal?
- What is the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal?
- What is the practical significance of differences between means of demographic groups for job insecurity of maintenance workers at a parastatal?
- To what extent can job insecurity predict the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal?

1.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of this research involves a general objective, as well as specific objectives.
1.2.1 General objective

To determine whether there is a relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal, including the relationship between job insecurity and demographic variables. Also whether job insecurity can be predicted by job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

1.2.2 Specific objectives

The specific research objectives are:

- To conceptualise job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment according to the literature.
- To determine the reliability and construct validity of the measuring instruments used in this study.
- To determine the levels of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal.
- To determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal.
- To determine the practical significance between means of demographical groups for job insecurity of maintenance workers at a parastatal.
- To determine whether job insecurity can be predicted by the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal.

1.3 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

According to Mouton and Marais (1992), any research is directed by a specific paradigm perspective, which includes the intellectual climate and market of intellectual resources.

According to the integrated model Mouton and Marais (1992), the research process in the social sciences consists of three sub-systems, which are in interaction with each other and with the research domain as defined in a specific discipline. These are the intellectual climate of a specific discipline, the market of intellectual resources in the discipline (theoretical statements and
methodological beliefs), and the research process itself. The intellectual climate and the market of intellectual resources are presented in terms of the present study. The research process follows in the next section.

1.3.1 Intellectual climate

According to Mouton and Marais (1992), the intellectual climate refers to the variety of convictions in a specific discipline in a certain time. In the social sciences, the intellectual climate includes beliefs about human beings in general, as well as more discipline-specific beliefs about society, culture and history.

In the present study, the disciplinary relationship focus is primarily on industrial psychology, which can be defined as the scientific study of human behaviour and psychological conditions in the work-related context and the application of this knowledge to minimise problems that might arise (McCormick & Ilgen, 1981). It includes organisational variables such as recruitment and placement of personnel, training, motivation of personnel, performance appraisal, the management of morale weariness, ergonomics, organisational psychology, market and consumer psychology and industrial safety (Plug, Louw, Gouws, & Meyer, 1997).

The sub-disciplines in the present study are organisational psychology and psychometrics. Organisational Psychology can be defined as the study of organisations, the elements and the systems of which they consist, as well as factors, especially the individual’s interaction, that influence the effective functioning of organisations (Plug et al., 1997). Psychometrics is defined as the branch of psychology that focuses on the development and the application of mathematical and statistical procedures in psychology, in other words, the study of all aspects of psychological measurement, including the development and standardisation of psychometric tests (Plug et al.).

The literature review of this study is presented from the humanistic paradigm and the systems theory. The humanistic thinking can be ascribed to Maslow and Roger’s work, in which they suggest that people constantly strive towards becoming self-actualised or fully functioning individuals. People value positive regard, personal growth, psychological health and optimal functioning, implying that individuals are conscious, are more than the sum total of their parts, live purposefully and are making or having choices, constantly (Lundin, 1996; Plug et al., 1997).
The systems theory postulates that all functioning systems are characterised by input, processes or transactions within the system, delivering and feedback (Von Bertalanffy, 1968). Change to any of these components will influence the whole system and resistance should be handled in a flexible and creative way, rather than by placing blame (Plug et al.).

The empirical study is presented from the positivistic and functionalistic framework. Basic assumptions of the positivistic framework are that knowledge can only be obtained through the study of observable phenomena via objective, empirical and operational methods (Plug et al., 1997). The basic assumption of the functionalistic framework is that comprehensive, meaningful units of psychological phenomena (thoughts, vision and beliefs) can be classified in relationship with the purpose to explain the relevance thereof for human adaptation and survival (Lundin, 1996).

1.3.2 The market of intellectual resources

According to Mouton and Marais (1992), the market of intellectual resources consists of the collection of beliefs, which gives scientific hypotheses their status of knowledge suppositions. Hence, the market of the intellectual resources consists of both theoretical statements and methodological beliefs. The methodological beliefs concern the nature of social science and scientific research. The research process, which includes the hypothesis, theoretical statements, methodological beliefs and methods of research for this study, follows.

1.3.2.1 Research hypothesis

A significant relationship exists between job insecurity on the one hand and job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal, on the other. Job insecurity of maintenance workers at a parastatal can be predicted by their job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Also, significant relationships exist between job insecurity and demographic variables of maintenance workers at a parastatal.
1.3.2.2 Theoretical statements of the research

Mouton and Marais (1992) defines theoretical statements as all the testable beliefs of social phenomena, in other words “the what” (descriptive) and “the why” (explanatory/interpretative) of human actions.

The following theoretical statements serve as the point of departure for discussion in this research, and will be divided into conceptual descriptions (theoretical definitions) and theoretical models and theories.

a) Theoretical definitions

The following theoretical definitions are used in the present research:

- Van Vuuren (1990) describes job insecurity as the concern felt by a person for the continued existence of his job. The construct includes a subjective experience or perception, uncertainty about the future and doubts concerning the lack of control to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation.

- Job satisfaction is defined as the process whereby employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Job satisfaction is defined as the extent to which an employee feels positively or negatively toward his job (Locke, 1976; Odom, Randy Boxx & Dunn, 1990). Judge et al. (1994) and Judge and Hulin (1993) define job satisfaction as a function of the balance between work role inputs, that is, what the individual inputs into the work role (e.g. education), and work role outcomes, that is, what is perceived (e.g. pay).

- Organisational commitment can be defined as the employee’s feelings of obligation to stay with the organisation, feelings resulting from the internalisation of the normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to or following entry (Allen & Meyer, 1990). According to Allen and Meyer, organisational commitment can take three distinct forms, namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.
b) Theoretical models and theories

According to Mouton and Marais (1992), models are not only functional because they serve to classify, but they also suggest relationships between variables. Theories are used to explain and interpret. For the nature and aim of the present research, the following models and theories are relevant to which the researcher commits:

- The cognitive model (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) describes how job reactions are a product of the correspondence between internalised standards and perceptions of the job. In the study, the model offers an explanation of the psychological processes underlying dispositional sources of job insecurity.

- The social information-processing model (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) states that task perceptions and attitudes in the workplace are a response to both the informational cues in the work environment and the objective task characteristics of the job. The social information-processing model represents a general view of the situational causes of job insecurity.

- According to the dispositional model (Gerhart, 1987; Steel & Rentch, 1997) individual (internal) characteristics or traits are used to determine work outcomes. In the present study, dispositional characteristics relating to job insecurity are investigated as causes of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

- The job-at-risk model (Jacobson, 1991) provides a separate analysis of coping with job insecurity based on individuals' reactions towards it. Coping with job insecurity is described in terms of two basic strategies namely, avoidance - psychological withdrawal and active response - attempts to restore security which, in turn, could be subdivided into individual active responses and collective active responses (Hartley, et al., 1991).

- The social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977) views individual differences in the workplace as resulting from the triadic relationship between the individual (unique personality characteristics such as need for achievement), the environment (perceived consequences from the organisational environment, such as pay for performance) and the behaviour itself (previous successful or unsuccessful performances). In the present study, social cognitive theory is the basic theory on which job insecurity is based. Accordingly, job insecurity is
concerned with individuals’ perceived probability and perceived severity of losing their jobs and how they believe it to affect their environment and the way in which they control their actions to achieve desired outcomes.

• The needs theories by Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, Alderfer’s ERG theory, McClelland’s need for achievement theory and Herzberg’s two-factor theory, each describes a specific set of needs individuals are believed to have and each differs somewhat in the number and kinds of needs identified (Robbins, 1983). In this study the needs theory explains that the more employees value their jobs and the more they depend on them to satisfy their lower and higher level needs, from physiological to self-actualisation, the greater the perceived severity of job loss.

• The equity theory suggests that individuals compare their own job performance to another and make judgements about its comparability (Greenberg, 1988). Hence it follows that insecure workers are likely to reduce their level of involvement in their jobs, they might even opt to leave the organisation and might respond by decreasing their effort to restore the balance of exchange.

• The system theory views organisations as open and dynamic, which continually interact with the surrounding environment from which they constantly receive new energy, inputs, in the form of information that is then transformed through processes such as decision making or performance (Robbins, 1983). Job insecurity then, is brought about by organisational changes such as restructuring, downsizing, and outsourcing, in order for organisations to improve their performance and become increasingly competitive.

1.3.3 Methodological beliefs

According to Mouton and Marais (1992), methodological beliefs are statements about the nature and structure of scientific research. It includes methodological models (e.g. quantitative). In most of the cases, however, they are methodological preferences, assumptions and presuppositions of what good research should be.

For this research, the point of departure is positivistic and quantitative, because the study of the phenomena in this study is based on objective, empirical and operational methods. Relevant
terms in this study are means, standard deviations, internal consistency, reliability, validity, practical significance, effect sizes, product-moment correlation coefficient and regression analysis.

1.4 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method consists of two phases, namely a literature study and an empirical investigation.

1.4.1 Phase 1: Literature study

In the literature study the focus is on the conceptualisation of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, including relationships found.

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

It has been decided to make use of a quantitative survey design, namely a correlation design (Huysamen, 1993). Every individual in the study population is measured against the variables identified in the study at the same point in time, and the relationships between the measurements are determined.

The correlation design has been decided upon because the relationship between the constructs of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment will be investigated at the same point in time without any planned intervention. The research is therefore descriptive and explanatory (Mouton & Marais, 1992).

1.4.2.2 Step 2: Selecting the study population

The study population consists of maintenance workers, who will avail themselves voluntarily, at a given time, to participate in the study. Despite the limitations of availability sample, cognisance was taken of it and workers were encouraged to take part in the study. The study population will include workers, graded at various levels, according to the Paterson band grading.
with a sample size of \((n = 178)\). The sample will be representative of all sections such as electrical, mechanical and instrumentation within the maintenance department, from all age categories. The respondents consist of artisan helpers (unskilled), general workers (semi-skilled), artisans (skilled), technicians, supervisors, team leaders and managers (professional), inclusive of the different gender and race groups.

1.4.2.3 Step 3: Deciding on the measuring instruments

The following instruments are employed in the present study:

- **Job insecurity questionnaire** by De Witte (2000), consisting of 11 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 reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.92 (total), for the affective scale 0.85 and, for the cognitive scale, 0.90 using the same instrument.

- The **Revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire** by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967) will be used to give employees the opportunity to indicate how they feel about their present work overall. The shorter or 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). Preliminary results support the reliability and validity of the questionnaire (Schepers, 1997).

- The **Organisational Commitment Questionnaire** 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 includes affective, continuance and normative commitment. Cronbach Alpha coefficients were consistently above 0.80 for every one of these sub-scales (Suliman & Iles, 2000b). 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).
1.4.2.4 Step 4: Statistical data-analysis

The statistical analysis will be carried out with the help of the SAS-programme. Cronbach alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation coefficients will be used to assess the reliability and construct validity of the measuring instruments. Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis values) will be used to analyse the data. In addition, means and standard deviations will be used to compare between demographic groups for job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Pearson product-moment coefficients (r) will be used to determine the relationships between the variables. A cut-off point of 0,30 medium effect, and 0,80 large effect (Cohen, 1988) will be set for practical significance of differences for correlation coefficients. Values (r) larger than 0,30 will be regarded as practically significant for the purposes of this study.

A stepwise multiple regression (r²) analysis will be conducted to determine the percentage of the variance in the dependent variables (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) that is predicted by the independent variable (job insecurity). The effect size (which indicates practical significance) in the case of multiple regression 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 \( f^2 \).

In addition effect sizes will be used to determine practical significance between means of demographic groups and job insecurity by applying the following formula:

\[ d = (\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) / S_{\text{max}} \]

where

\[ \bar{x}_1 = \text{arithmetic mean for the first variable of a specific demographical group} \]
\[ \bar{x}_2 = \text{arithmetic mean for the second variable of a specific demographical group} \]
\[ S_{\text{max}} = \text{highest standard deviation of a specific demographical group} \]

The cut-off points for practical significance of differences between means are set on \( d = 0,2 \); small effect, \( d = 0,5 \) medium effect and \( d = 0,8 \) large effect (Steyn, 1999).
1.4.2.5 Step 5: Research procedure

The measuring battery will be compiled and arrangements will be made with the participants to conduct the study, either individually or in groups. A letter from the author endorsed by the business unit manager indicating the purpose of the study (for research purposes only), the confidentiality of the data as well as the basis for participation will be communicated to the participants before the test battery will be administered. The criteria for participation will be to allow all willing to voluntarily complete the questionnaire. The results will be analysed and feedback will be given to the maintenance departmental and sectional managers. Individual feedback will be given on request.

1.5 CHAPTER DIVISION

Chapter 1: Introduction, problem statement and objectives.
Chapter 2: Job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.
Chapter 3: Empirical study.
Chapter 4: Results and discussion.
Chapter 5: Conclusion, recommendations and imitations.

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, the paradigm perspective and the research method has been discussed. Also, a prospective chapter division were indicated.

In chapter 2 job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment is discussed.
CHAPTER 2

JOB INSECURITY, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter one it was indicated how uncertainty due to constant changes in the working environment leads to fears, which, among others, give rise to job insecurity and the reducing effect it has on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

In this chapter the constructs job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment will be conceptualised. Firstly, job insecurity will be defined, followed by a discussion of the factors influencing it, and then the antecedents, consequences and outcomes of job insecurity will be presented. In addition, explanations will be provided of the consequences of job insecurity.

Secondly, job satisfaction will be explored by defining it, then discussing its importance and causes, followed by the approaches and outcomes. Thirdly, organisational commitment will be explored by defining it, then its various dimensions will be mentioned, followed by its importance and determinants and lastly an elaboration of its outcomes. The relationship between these three constructs as found from the literature will be referred to, and elaborated on, to facilitate further conceptualisation. A short description containing the opinion of the researcher will follow after each of the constructs has been discussed from the literature. The chapter will be concluded with a summary on significant literature findings by the researcher.

2.2 JOB INSECURITY

2.2.1 Definition of job insecurity

A variety of theoretical perspectives on the meaning of job insecurity has been advanced in the organisational literature (De Witte, 1999). Despite the importance of job insecurity to both employees and employers, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) argue that lack of a commonly agreed upon theoretical generalisation of the job insecurity construct has deterred progress. Also,
it has often been treated in an ad hoc manner, including it in many studies as a secondary or incidental focus (De Witte).

The phenomenon of job insecurity lies in between stress and burnout on the one side and its complement, the psychological consequences of unemployment, on the other side (De Witte, 1997). It relates to people who fear they might lose their jobs and become unemployed (De Witte). The experience of job insecurity can be described as an internal process (Hui & Lee, 2000). It is a perceptual phenomenon that is conceptually close to a cognitive interpretation and evaluation of events in the environment (Jacobson, 1991). Appraisal plays an important part in job insecurity from an objective event, if the individual subjectively perceives threat (De Witte). The cognitive appraisal process assesses whether and when threat will occur, what the consequences will be, and whether, to what extent, and how the individual can manage the threat (De Witte; Jacobson).

Van Vuuren (1990) describes job insecurity as the concern felt by a person for the continued existence of his job, emphasising three components relating to job insecurity. The first is that job insecurity is a subjective experience or perception. The same situation might be perceived differently by different employees: some will feel insecure when there is no objective reason to, while others may feel secure when their job is, in fact, threatened. Secondly, job insecurity implies uncertainty about the future: for the person concerned it is uncertain whether he will be able to continue to work, or whether he will be made redundant. This situation is different from being made redundant. In the latter case the future is clear and the person can start preparing for redundancy and future (un) employment. Finally, doubts about the continuation of the job as such are central to job insecurity (Van Vuuren).

Ashford et al. (1989) defines job insecurity as the degree to which employees perceive their jobs to be threatened and feel powerless to do anything about it. Thus, job insecurity is caused, not only by the threat of job loss but also by the loss of any dimensions of the job (Kinnunen, Mauno, Nätti, & Happonen, 2000). Threat refers to the scope (e.g. does the threat involve the job itself or merely features of the job), importance (e.g. the potential personal impact on the person of losing the job) and the subjective probability (e.g. how likely is it that job loss will occur) (Ashford et al.). Thus, if employees interpret the situation as threatening their jobs or its
desirable features, and feel powerless to circumvent this threat, the experience of job insecurity will result (De Witte, 1997; Hartley et al., 1991; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990).

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) and Hui and Lee (2000), concur with the above description of job insecurity. They define job insecurity as powerlessness or the lack of control to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation. Furthermore, the construct of job insecurity is regarded as multidimensional, consisting of five components, which combine as follows: job insecurity = [(Σ importance of job feature x likelihood of losing job feature) + (Σ importance of job loss x likelihood of job loss)] x perceived powerlessness to resist threat (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984).

Petzall, Parker and Stoeberl (2000) defines job insecurity as the perception of the potential loss of continuity in a job situation that can range from permanent loss of job itself, to loss of valued job features. The loss must be involuntary, if 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.).

Considering the above descriptions of job insecurity, the researcher regards job insecurity as the perceived threat of losing ones job, or valued features of the job, and control or loss of control of the continuance of employment. Furthermore, the experience of job insecurity relates to both cognitive and affective phenomena. The cognitive aspect of job insecurity relates to the individual’s belief of the likelihood of losing the job; whereas, the affective component of insecurity, is the concern about the likelihood of losing continuity in ones job (De Witte, 2000; Jacobson, 1991). Job insecurity is also considered to be a stressor caused by workplace changes. The organisation in study is faced with changes and as such makes the research applicable.

In this section the conceptualisation of the construct of job insecurity was dealt with. Reference was also made to the cognitive and affective components of job insecurity and commonalities found in the description of job insecurity were highlighted, concluding with the researcher’s interpretation of the construct. In the next section the factors influencing job insecurity, are discussed.
2.2.2 Factors influencing job insecurity

Factors influencing perceived job insecurity exist on different levels (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Kinnunen et al., 2000; Klandermans, Van Vuuren & Jacobson 1991). Factors existing on the particular environmental and organisational conditions include organisational change and communication. Factors relating to the employee’s individual and positional characteristics are found to be age, gender and socio-economic status and factors relating to the employee’s personality characteristics are; an internal versus an external locus of control, optimism versus pessimism and sense of coherence.

The amount of the variance in perceived job insecurity explained by these factors or predictors has been ±20% (Kinnunen et al., 2000). The best predictors have usually been positional factors, e.g., earlier unemployment experiences or temporary job contracts (Kinnunen & Nätti, 1994) personality factors (Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990); and signals of threats, for example, rumours of re-organisation or changes of management (Ashford et al., 1989; Kinnunen et al.). Furthermore, failure to communicate about the future by management and manager’s ability to maintain the job security of the surviving employees can influence job insecurity, since the key feature of job insecurity is the subjective or perceptual nature of the assessment by the individual and the failure to communicate might aggravate these perceptions (Kinnunen et al.).

In this study the focus is on the predictors at an organisational level, particular change and the effects thereof on the overall job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The preceding section indicated the factors influencing perceived job insecurity at various levels and the linkage it has with this study. Antecedents of job insecurity will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.3 Antecedents of job insecurity

Job insecurity is both an antecedent and a consequence of numerous variables (Ameen, Jackson, Pasewark & Strawier, 1995; Ashford et al., 1989; Ruvio & Rosenblatt, 1999). Mauno and Kinnunen (2000) have recognised that a variety of technological, organisational and broader social changes or antecedents have changed the nature of jobs, resulting in less job security. Broader environmental antecedents will be discussed first, followed by a discussion of personal antecedents.
Perceived intensity of threat to job security is influenced by organisational changes such as mergers, downsizing, new technology (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Mauno and Kinnunen, 2000), social factors such as economic instability (De Witte, 1999; Hartley et al., 1991), and political factors such as governmental policies (Van Vuuren, Klandermans, Jacobson & Hartley, 1991).

Empirical evidence for the above, suggests that employees attributed their feelings of job insecurity to environmental changes such as governmental policy, economic conditions including recessions, restructuring, mergers, takeovers, small businesses, raised educational demands, employment flexibility, new technology, and managements’ decision making (De Witte, 1999; Hartley et al., 1991; Probst & Brubaker, 2001). Orpen (1993) reported that employees felt more insecure about their jobs with onset of organisational restructuring. Also, Dooley, Rook and Catalano (1987) found that undesirable job events were positively associated with perceived job insecurity. Van Vuuren (1990) found that changes in work procedures, layoffs and reductions in resources led to perceived job insecurity. Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) stated that one of the greatest concerns experienced by employees during organisational change is uncertainty about the continuation of ones job. Job insecurity then, is a manifestation of the more general uncertainty people experience throughout their lives in modern society with the old certainties and stabilities of life, community and work disappearing and replaced by constant change, uncertainty and insecurity (Hartley et al.).

Empirical evidence has also demonstrated that layoffs in organisations engender feelings of job insecurity in survivor employees (Davy et al., 1997). Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) and Hartley et al., (1991) reported a drop in satisfaction with job security after an acquisition. Ashford et al. (1989) illustrated that the greater the amount of change experienced by individuals, the greater their perceived job insecurity. Hence, insecurity concerning job loss and job changes leads to stress-related psychological outcomes for individuals (Heaney, Israel & House, 1994).
Cooper (1999) views long hours worked as an antecedent of job insecurity. Management of many organisations reason that if fewer people are employed and are given more responsibilities, which will probably lead to longer hours worked, it provides for a cost effective use of human capital, since industry works on the gross assumption that long means efficient. This being the argument, employees will work long hours and experience some false sense of job security, rather than not being willing to work those hours and face replacement. Studies by Cooper (1999) and Ferrie et al. (1998) stress that working long hours on a constant basis, reflects itself in employee ill health, both physically and psychologically.

Also, resulting change in the experience of new psychological contracts which employees and organisations enter into, is likely to act as an antecedent for job insecurity experiences (Smithson & Lewis, 2000). Older members of the workforce might feel that the psychological contracts as they understand it, have been violated and lose trust in their organisations (Smithson & Lewis).

The growth in the use of contingent workers as antecedent of job insecurity has contributed to perceptions of unemployment. The structural change in industrial and labour markets that has
altered the types of jobs available, and the shift in world economy from manufacturing to service and retail industries has generated more low-skill, low wage, high turnover jobs, which are filled by contingent workers (Tilly, 1991; Nasar, 1994). Also, the use of contingent workers helps reduce costs associated with recruitment, training, and benefits (Pfeffer & Baron, 1988). Furthermore, increased global competition has forced organisations to respond rapidly to fluctuations in demand, and the use of contingent workers permits this without requiring organisations to hire and lay off full time workers (Applebaum, 1991; Pfeffer & Baron).

Beard and Edwards (1995) concur with the above notion. They argue that contingent work arrangements are likely to generate or exacerbate perceived job insecurity since the fixed term of employment inevitably leads to termination of employment at the end of an assignment. As such the scope of threat faced by contingent workers is total job loss and moreover they are people who either cannot find full-time employment or need additional income to cover living expenses (Beard & Edwards).

Concerning personal antecedents, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) regards role ambiguity, role conflict and locus of control, as important causes of individuals experiencing job insecurity. Role ambiguity and role conflict both threaten an individual’s sense of control and thereby may create perceptions of job insecurity (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt). Role ambiguity denotes a lack of information about job requirements and procedures, and role conflict occurs when the roles members fulfil are clouded with issues of conflict, control, expectations and security (Ashford et al., 1989). Both role ambiguity and role conflict induce some anxiety about fulfilling part of the psychological contract with employers, which will heighten feelings of job insecurity (Ashford et al.).

Locus of control relates directly to the perceived powerlessness dimension of job insecurity (Ashford et al., 1989, Hartley et al., 1991). People with an internal locus of control generally see environmental events as having less impact and believe that they have the power to counteract whatever threats their environment might pose as opposed to people with an external locus of control (Ashford et al.).

In this section it was argued that job insecurity is both an antecedent and a consequence of numerous variables. Environmental changes, changes in the experience of psychological
contracts, job conditions, role ambiguity, role conflict and personal factors, were identified as both antecedents and consequences of job insecurity. In addition, job insecurity was depicted as an open system in which it follows that the effects of individuals' environment (antecedent) are transmitted to stress reactions (consequences) by intervening perceptions of job insecurity (mediators). In the present study, job change is viewed as an antecedent of job insecurity and stress reactions as a consequence of job insecurity. In the next section the consequences of job insecurity will be discussed.

2.2.4 Consequences of job insecurity

Research on job insecurity focused primarily on negative effects relating to individuals and organisations (Kinnunen et al., 2000; Petzall et al., 2000). Hence, from the literature it shows that job insecurity has an impact on three crucial variables namely; psychological well being, job satisfaction and commitment to the organisation (De Witte, 1997).

Job insecurity is often reported to result in reduced psychological well-being, characterised by such phenomena as psychological distress, anxiety, depression, irritation or strain-related psychosomatic complaints (Kinnunen et al., 2000; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990). Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) adds to this list an increased level of mental, emotional, and physical exhaustion (burnout), and various physical strains such as heart complaints as well as high blood pressure, suggesting that the prolonged exposure to job insecurity can lead to wearing out of the resources of the individual worker. Heaney et al. (1994) indicated that job insecurity acts as a chronic stressor whose negative effects (e.g., job dissatisfaction, physical symptoms) become more potent as the time of exposure increases. Dekker and Schaufeli found that prolonged job insecurity was more detrimental to an employee’s health than security about his job situation (even if that entailed the unpleasantness of having been made redundant).

In addition, attitudinal reactions such as intentions to quit, reduced organisational commitment and reduced job satisfaction were related to job insecurity, which prove the significance of this study (Ashford et al., 1989; Heaney et al., 1994; Lim, 1996; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996).

The above-mentioned dynamics have organisational-level consequences, primarily through their effects on efficiency and innovation (Borg & Elizur, 1992; Greenhalgh, 1982; Rosenblatt &
Ruvio, 1996). Rosenblatt and Ruvio found that job insecurity had an adverse effect on perceived performance, organisational support and resistance to change.

The mentioned consequences of job insecurity have relevance to the organisation in which the study is undertaken especially with the anticipated changes looming. Awareness of these consequences could ensure a smooth transformation and pro-active interventions implemented to counter the harmful impact of job insecurity. Whereas, if insecure organisational conditions prevail, it could easily result in an atmosphere of depression, accompanied by a tendency towards rigidity in working practices, precisely at a time when creativity and flexibility are most needed. In the next paragraph explanations of the consequences of job insecurity will be provided which will enhance better understanding.

2.2.5 Explanation of the consequences of job insecurity

De Witte (1999) argues that, by being economically active in society, needs, such as acquiring an income and social contacts outside the family circle, the structuring of time, and being able to develop individually and socially, are satisfied by work. It follows then that the threat of unemployment means frustration of these needs, and the loss of important (financial, social and societal) resources, resulting in an unattractive prospect for the future (Kinnunen et al., 2000).

De Witte (1999) furthermore constitutes that the finding of job insecurity reducing the level of psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organisational commitment could be explained by distinguishing between two factors that could be relevant in explaining the harmful impact of job insecurity, namely; predictability and controllability. First, job insecurity means unpredictability and includes lack of clarity about the future and lack of clarity about the expectations and behaviour that the employee should adopt (De Witte; Hartley et al., 1991).

Also, uncontrollability has an impact because the lack thereof or the feeling of powerlessness towards the threat is considered to be the core of the phenomenon of job insecurity (De Witte, 1999). By attributing their job insecurity to these factors, an appropriate response to insecurity is less obvious (De Witte). Therefore, people having an internal locus of control would respond more effectively, as opposed to those having an external locus of control, since they have the power to counteract whatever threats their environment might pose (Ashford et al., 1989).
In addition, the reduced level of organisational commitment can also be interpreted in two ways (Van Vuuren, 1990). Firstly, it can refer to resentment by the employee because of the fact that job security is regarded as one of the components of the psychological contract. When this security is eroded, the employee may attempt to restore the imbalance by showing less commitment, interest and motivation (De Witte, 1997). Also, a reduction in commitment to the organisation can be interpreted as a (passive) coping strategy (De Witte, 1999). By withdrawing psychologically from the organisation, the person reduces the burdensome nature of any subsequent job loss in advance (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995).

In the preceding section, an explanation of the consequences of job insecurity was provided to facilitate better understanding of the reducing impact job insecurity has on both the individual and organisation. The next section will focus on the outcomes of job insecurity.

2.2.6 Outcomes of job insecurity

The outcomes of job insecurity could be problematic for both employee and employer, since its impact on individual employees can erode the effectiveness of the organisation and the company risks getting into a downward spiral (Lord & Hartley, 1998). Also, the competitive strength of the company is undermined because productivity decreases which increases the risk of further redundancies and in turn increases feelings of job insecurity (Ashford et al., 1989; Hartley et al., 1991). Furthermore, numerous studies have reported that job insecurity is related to various negative outcomes for the employee such as job insecurity being associated with lowered job satisfaction (Ashford et al., Hartley et al.; Probst & Brubaker, 2001), career satisfaction (Hartley, et al.; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990) and organisational commitment (Borg & Elizur, 1992; Greenhalgh, 1982; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996). Job insecurity has also been negatively related to job involvement (Elloy, Everett & Flynn, 1991) and work and organisational commitment (Ashford et al., 1989; Roskies & Louis-Guerin), and job performance (Ashford et al.), suggesting that employees do not form strong attachments to employers that do not provide secure employment. These findings are consistent with the notion that job security is inherently desirable, since it also provides the means to satisfy other extrinsic motives (Beard & Edwards, 1995).
People experiencing job insecurity may also leave the organisation to seek more secure career opportunities in order to fulfil their four key expectations of work; namely income, security, creativity and social interaction (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Ransome, 1995). Turnover, particularly among high performers, is a primary reason for organisational concern about job insecurity (Ashford et al., 1989).

Probst and Brubaker (2001) reported that job security is also related to meaningful safety outcomes measures, such as safety knowledge, safety motivation, and reported compliance with safety policies. Insecure employees may choose to ignore critical safety policies and “cut corners” to maintain or increase their production numbers in an effort to retain their job which could result in accidents, even loss of life (Probst & Brubaker).

Job insecurity can also damage the company image, since employees are considered as ambassadors of their company and through their contacts with the outside world they spread information about the company’s operations and how employees are treated (De Witte, 1997; Hartley et al., 1991). Negative information risks creating a negative reputation that can be problematic for company image (De Witte).

Outcomes of job insecurity, including the potential harmful impact it has on both employee and employer, were overviewed in the preceding section. The researcher acknowledges that lifetime job security is not always realistic; however, organisations do need to be cognisant of the potentially dangerous effects job insecurity pose and to argue that a certain amount of job insecurity could be beneficial to production and will keep the employee alert, is not founded, if we are to nurture and develop our human resource. In the next paragraph a summary of job insecurity will be attempted.

Various definitions of the construct of job insecurity including the researcher’s own interpretation, were provided. Both cognitive and affective components of job insecurity were explained and the antecedents, outcomes, and factors influencing job insecurity were discussed. In addition, the consequences of job insecurity and answers to these were elaborated on with the linkage between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, indicated. Proceeding with the next section, the other variable in the research, namely the construct of job satisfaction, will be explored by defining it, then discussing its importance and concluding with
its approaches and outcomes. Furthermore, the linkage between job satisfaction and organisational commitment will be indicated and lastly a section summary will be attempted.

2.3 JOB SATISFACTION

Employees in organisations form attitudes about many things, such as pay, company of co-workers, benefits, training opportunities, job security and working hours (Erasmus & Sadler, 1998). It is important to realise that some of these attitudes are more important than others and will to some extent determine how satisfied employees are with their jobs (Erasmus & Sadler). Thus, job satisfaction can be regarded as a core aspect influencing both the individual and the organisation. It follows that job insecurity, as an organisational determinant, was found to have a negative correlation with job satisfaction (Ashford et al., 1989). Chiu and Kosinki (1997) states that employees’ level of job satisfaction has an influence on their emotions, behaviour and work performance.

Proceeding with the next section various definitions of job satisfaction will be provided including the researcher’s own account of the construct in order to enhance understanding of the construct.

2.3.1 Definition of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has probably been the most researched work attitude in organisational behaviour literature (Cranny et al., 1992). In his review of job satisfaction, Locke (1976) noted that there is an estimate of 3350 articles on job satisfaction. According to Visser, Breed and Van Breda (1997) it is generally accepted that there is no simple, commonly agreed upon theoretical generalisation which explains job satisfaction. Despite the various definitions of job satisfaction, there seems to be general consensus that job satisfaction can be described as an 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.).

Robbins (1998) defines job satisfaction as a general attitude toward one’s job; the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) defined job satisfaction as the process whereby employees seek to maintain correspondence with their environment. This entails that employees would experience
job satisfaction if they feel that their individual capacities, experience and values can be utilised in their work environment and that the work environment offers them opportunities and rewards they think they deserve (Dawis, 1992; Robberts & Rosseanne, 1998).

According to Locke (1976), job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of the person’s job or job experience. Also, job satisfaction can be regarded as a positive or negative emotional response to work resulting from individual needs that must be fulfilled by the job (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981). Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) viewed 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, people have different perceptions of which values they regard as important. The perceptions of individuals concerning their situation relative to the values that matter to them can, however, differ completely (Porter et al.). Also, employees compare expected outcomes with perceived real outcomes offered by the job, and when the perceived outcomes are less than is expected, a negative emotional response toward the job is experienced which leads to job dissatisfaction (Cook et al.; Weiss et al., 1967).

Although the affective component of job satisfaction is emphasised, it is also important to distinguish between the cognitive and conative dimensions of job satisfaction, which makes the concept of job satisfaction multidimensional, encompassing individuals’ general attitude towards work (Hayeship, 1982; Van Vuuren & Schepers, 1993). It follows that employees make a rational decision in the way certain factors are fulfilling their needs and their behaviour depends on the way they expect these factors to fulfil their needs. Discontented employees will display behaviour, which reflects discontent. (Coetzee, 1998).

From the preceding definitions, Visser et al. (1997) identified the following common elements relating to the definition of job satisfaction:

- Employee satisfaction is an attitude or feeling which is based on the assessment of the conditions of employment (Hayeship, 1982; Robbins, 1998; Steers & Porter, 1975);
- These reactions and perceptions are individualistic in nature (Dubin & Champoux, 1977; Heron, 1952; Lasswell, 1968);
• Attitudes and situations can change and since they pertain to a particular context and content, the attitudes of individuals concerning satisfaction are time bound (Gurin, Veroff & Feld, 1960; Stoner & Freeman, 1992).

• Job satisfaction is a multidimensional concept consisting of affective, cognitive and conative dimensions (Van Vuuren & Schepers, 1993).

For the purpose of this research job satisfaction is regarded as an attitudinal output which forms the criteria for job security, since the result of the internal assessment between the real outcome and the ideal outcome, would indicate whether employees' needs are satisfied by their jobs. Furthermore, job satisfaction is viewed as a multidimensional whereby employees seek to maintain correspondence with their environment through affective, cognitive and conative dimensions.

In terms of the present study, the measurement of overall or general satisfaction is preferred to the measurement of specific components hence opting for the overall satisfaction instrument constructed by Weiss, et al. (1967). Since job satisfaction has been defined according to the literature, and the commonalities between various definitions have been identified, including the differentiation made between overall and component measures of job satisfaction, the focus of the next section will be on the importance of job satisfaction.

2.3.2 Importance of job satisfaction

Organisations in general prefer work satisfied employees because it makes for a better work environment, which has a positive effect on production (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1997). The researcher regards the following as important reasons why job satisfaction should be pursued within an organisation:

• employees are sources of information and abilities,

• employees relate with others and customers which makes for better production because they continuously search for improvement in work methods,

• employees find solutions for problems and present creative and innovative ideas in terms of problem resolution,
employees are empowered to make better decisions,
employees provide feedback to organisations, which prevents stagnation, and provides opportunities for growth.

Job satisfaction is an important construct because of its relevance to the physical and mental well being of employees as well as its implications for job related behaviour such as productivity, absenteeism and turnover (Coetzee, 1998). Job satisfaction is a predictor of how much pressure and stress someone can handle while on the job. If employees are enjoying their jobs, they are more likely to be more effective in handling the daily stressors they experience (Luthans, 1989). Also, if employees are more satisfied with their job, they are more likely to work harder, complain less, show up on time and treat customers and co-workers with respect (Testa, 2001).

For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction is important because one of its determinants, job security, if viewed negatively, could present ill effects to both employer and employee. Also, an increase in job satisfaction will stimulate increased organisational commitment and, in turn, job security (Hui & Lee, 2000; Testa, 2001).

In the preceding section, the importance or significance of job satisfaction has been discussed, including its relation to the other two variables studied in the research. Next, the causes of job satisfaction will be discussed.

2.3.3 Causes of job satisfaction

As previously discussed on job satisfaction, it follows that there are different variables that determine it. Weiss et al. (1967) concluded that there are twenty (20) dimensions underlying job satisfaction. Furthermore, it appears that there are five (5) dominant areas of job satisfaction, which specify its causes (Furnham, 1997; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998; Robbins, 1998). According to Furnham each of these dominant areas is very complex, however, their complexity can be simplified by the following descriptions of each:

- Need satisfaction. This area states that employees experience satisfaction to the extent which the work provides opportunity for the employees to satisfy their needs.
• Value attainment. This area can be regarded as the opportunity that is provided to employees to work according to their values.

• Generic component. This model 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, including freedom in the work situation and feedback received.

• Supportive working conditions. Robbins (1998) mentions that friendly and supportive colleagues lead to greater level of job satisfaction. Collaboration and teamwork are strengthened by collegiality which enables employees to contribute more to the group and therefore to the organisation as a whole.

According to Noe et al. (1994) as complementary to the above-mentioned dominant areas, the following aspects should be taken into consideration when referring to the causes of job satisfaction:

• That job satisfaction is a function of worthiness (values) and it differs from employee to employee.

• That employees' expectations are emphasised: The job satisfaction of employees would depend on the experience of their external environment (external locus of control) and their control over the circumstances influencing it (internal locus of control).

• That perception is individual, unique in nature and is not necessarily an accurate reflection of reality.

Other causes that can have an effect on job satisfaction are health, age, ambitions, social status, political beliefs and social activity (Byers & Rue, 1997). The causes that can have an effect on job satisfaction of employees in certain conditions are grouped and listed, in Table 1.
Table 1

Causes which have an effect on job satisfaction (Mullins, 1996, p. 521)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CAUSES</th>
<th>DESCRIPTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Opportunities for interactions and informal organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Personality educational level, intelligence, marriage status, abilities and work orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>Mutual attitudes, beliefs and worthiness (values)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational</td>
<td>Nature and greatness of the formal structure, personnel procedure and decisions, worker’s relations, nature of the work, technology, and work organisation. Supervisor’s behaviour, leadership style, management system and working conditions are also applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Political, social, economical and technological influences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the preceding paragraph, attention was given to the five dominant areas, which specify the causes of job satisfaction including a summary thereof in Table 1. In enumeration the researcher found that there is no singular cause of job satisfaction, but there are multiple causes. These factors are in continuous interaction with each other. However, in the present study, the focus is on causes that are positioned within the individual, social and working environment as well as the organisation. Therefore, satisfaction would be measured in general rather than measuring specific factors. Next, the different approaches to job satisfaction will be discussed in order to enhance understanding of those variables that cause job satisfaction.

2.3.4 Approaches to job satisfaction

There seem to be mainly three approaches to causes of job satisfaction namely, dispositional, situational and interactional. The situational approach refers to external conditions impacting on job satisfaction such as the nature of the job, leadership traits of the supervisor, relationship with others and organisational factors (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The dispositional approach contends that attitudes such as job satisfaction are determined by the unique individual traits (Staw & Ross, 1985). The interactional or the person-environment-integration approach, impacting on job satisfaction refers to the correspondence between the situational factors of the working environment and the dispositional traits of the individual (Coetzee, 1998).
The individual and situation variables are therefore brought into consideration in the interactionist perspective since the researcher believes that employees do not function in a vacuum. Also, this approach has correspondence with the sub-factors of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction questionnaire, which is used for this study. For the purpose of this study, the approaches will be mentioned under the following headings (Coetzee, 1998): work, organisational, social and biographical determinants.

2.3.4.1 Work determinants

The following work determinants can influence the job satisfaction of employees, namely, task variety, recognition and feedback, autonomy, achievement, responsibility, creativity, activity, and utilisation of abilities.

2.3.4.2 Organisational determinants

The following organisational determinants can influence the job satisfaction of employees, namely, promotion, compensation, working conditions, organisational policy and procedures, work stress and job security. Job security as an organisational determinant will be elaborated on because of its relevance, and job insecurity has been selected as the independent variable for this study.

The question of job security is fundamental to job satisfaction since the unlimited changes to which employees are exposed could impact on both employee and employer. It is assumed that organisations could unknowingly harm itself by engaging in unduly change activities, which creates feelings of job insecurity. A lack of understanding of such activities and the resulting job insecurity leads to the development of an alienated workforce, deprivation of organisational commitment and a reluctance to do more than the minimum input (Hunt, Chonko & Wood, 1995). In addition, attitudinal reactions towards job insecurity i.e. intentions to quit, reduced job satisfaction and organisational commitment, were found to be related to job insecurity (Ashford et al., 1989; Borg & Elizur, 1992; Davy et al., 1997; Heaney et al., 1994; Lim, 1996; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996; Yousef, 1998).
2.3.4.3 Social determinants

The following social determinants can influence the job satisfaction of employees namely, supervisory behaviour, which includes friendliness, encouragement to perform and attending to employees’ needs. Other determinants are relationships with colleagues, social status, and social service and moral values.

2.3.4.4 Biographical determinants

Although there are a number of biographical determinants that have an impact on job satisfaction, for the purpose of this study only a selected few will be mentioned. They are: gender, age, length of service, qualification, and job grade.

In the preceding paragraphs an overview of the approaches to job satisfaction including the determinants, which have an influence the job satisfaction of employees, was given. The next paragraph will contain the outcomes of job satisfaction since it proved to have important influences on organisations.

2.3.5 Outcomes of job satisfaction

Increasing job satisfaction is important for its humanitarian value and for organisational effectiveness. For the purpose of this research only a selected few outcomes will be considered.

- Job satisfaction and productivity. Greene (1975) found that productivity leads to job satisfaction rather than the contrary.

- Job satisfaction and absenteeism. Robbins (1998) mentioned that when satisfaction is high, absenteeism tends to be low and visa versa. Du Brin (1984) argues that employees who experience dissatisfaction with their jobs tend to be absent more frequently and are more likely to quit their jobs.

- Job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) found that a strong relationship exists between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which the researcher also intends to find evidence for in this study. Pearson correlation coefficient (r) will be determined to specify the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.
• Job satisfaction and employee turnover. Shaw (1999) indicated that employees with a high level of affection are more inclined to resign if job dissatisfaction is experienced. High job satisfaction will not, in and of itself, keep turnover low, but it seems to mediate (Chiu & Kosinki, 1997).

Various outcomes of job satisfaction relating to this study were considered in the preceding paragraph, emphasising the importance thereof to both individual and organisational benefit. In the next paragraph a summary of job satisfaction will be attempted.

Various definitions of the construct of job satisfaction including cognitive, conative and affective dimensions of job satisfaction and the researcher’s own interpretation, were explained. The importance, causes, approaches and outcomes of job satisfaction were also overviewed in relation to this study. In addition, the relationship between job satisfaction, job insecurity, and organisational commitment were indicated.

Proceeding with the next section, the third variable in this research, namely the construct of organisational commitment, will be explored by defining it, discussing its various dimensions and importance, concluding with the outcomes. Furthermore, the relationship between these variables will be indicated, and lastly a section summary will be attempted.

2.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Despite the plethora of studies of organisational commitment and its nature, antecedents, consequences and correlates, the construct remains ill-defined and ill-conceptualised (Suliman & Iles, 2000b). Also, the issue has become more important recently with organisational change efforts on the fore, than it was a decade ago (Suliman & Iles). It is argued that the level of organisational commitment is the driving force behind an organisation’s performance and at least 80% of an organisation’s employees at all levels must be committed to change, for it to succeed (Dubois, 1997).

In addition, organisations are now decreasing in number, with the unit of activities becoming smaller, including the organisation in which the study is undertaken. These changes, immaterial of the form, cause feelings of anxiety, stress, and insecurity among employees because of the threatening nature and continuance existence of their jobs, which in turn results in reduced
organisational commitment (Ashford et al., 1989). However, due to its potential for increasing productivity, strategies to encourage commitment will continue to be important in managing human resources in future, hence its relevance to job insecurity.

In the next paragraph various definitions of organisational commitment will be given including the researchers own account of the construct in order to enhance better understanding of the construct.

2.4.1 Definition of organisational commitment

Little consensus exists among theorists with regard to defining organisational commitment and a comprehensive definition of commitment and a model of the commitment process that incorporates divergent points of view, does not exist (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Suliman & Iles, 2000b). Despite the disagreement regarding the unanimity of organisational commitment, various definitions will be presented.

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) defines 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. Wagner and Hollenbeck (1995) defines organisational commitment as the identification with one’s employer that includes the willingness to work hard on behalf of the organisation and the intention to remain with the organisation for an extended period of time. The aforementioned definitions are in congruence with Greyskens, Steenkamp, Scheer and Kumar’s (1996) definition of organisational commitment, being the perceived need to maintain a relationship given the significant termination or switching costs associated with leaving.

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. Bishop and Scott (2000) defines organisational commitment as relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. According to these definitions, organisational commitment has three basic components namely; a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisations goals and values (identification), a willingness to exert a considerable effort on
behalf of the organisation (involvement) and a willingness to maintain organisational membership (loyalty) (Bishop & Scott (2000).

Allen and Meyer (1990) contended that the net sum of a person’s commitment to the organisation reflects three separable psychological states, namely, affective attachment, perceived costs and obligation. These states are described as follows:

- Affective attachment or commitment is concerned with the extent to which the individual identifies with the organisation.
- Perceived costs concerns the individual’s need to continue working for the organisation and is commonly referred to as continuance commitment.
- Normative commitment or obligation is influenced by society’s norms about the extent to which people ought to be committed to the organisation.

In simple terms 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). Suliman and Iles, (2000b) states that since this multidimensional approach of organisational commitment has been introduced it has been gaining support year after year to the extend that many researchers suggest that it could bring an end to the disappointing and inconsistent results often reported for organisational commitment.

For this study the definition of Allen and Meyer (1990) will be adopted since the instrument developed by Meyer et al. (1993) will be used to measure the affective, continuance and normative commitment of the study population, as it fits and supports the operational concept. In this paragraph various definitions of organisational commitment have been defined according to the literature emphasising the multidimensional definition of Meyer and Allen (1991) which is adopted for this research. The focus of the next paragraph will be on the various dimensions of organisational commitment to enhance conceptualisation.

2.4.2 Approaches of organisational commitment

In order to demonstrate the complex nature of commitment, some approaches of organisational commitment will be considered.
2.4.2.1 Behavioural commitment

The behavioural approach refers to the way an employee can get committed to an organisation through his own actions (Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994). The behavioural approach may lead to the development of affective commitment attitudes (i.e. through processes such as retrospective rationalisation or justification), which leads to additional behavioural commitment that furthers the psychological attachment (Dunham et al.). Hence, commitment is seen as an outcome of inducement or contribution exchanges between employees and their organisations (Akhtar & Tan 1994).

Mowday et al., (1982) describes behavioural commitment as the binding of the individual to behavioural acts, which is caused by the employees’ identification with specified behaviour. The degree to which an employee feels obligated towards his own behaviour is determined by the:

- visibility of the behaviour;
- irrevocability of the behaviour; and
- will expression of the behaviour (Mowday et al., 1982).

2.4.2.2 Attitudinal commitment

According to this approach, organisational commitment is the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boullian, 1974). Three factors characterise attitudinal commitment, namely, a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values, a willingness to have inputs into the organisation and a strong desire to remain a member of the specific organisation.

Allen and Meyer (1990) describe attitudinal commitment as a psychological statement that reflects an employee’s relationship to the organisation. According to Becker, Billings, Eveleth and Gilbert (1996) most people have a psychological relationship with several layers of the organisation, e.g. people, workgroups, departments, unions and sections. Aven, Parker and McEvoy (1993) regards organisational commitment from an attitudinal perspective as the relative strength of an individual identification with, and involvement in a particular organisation.
The attitudinal approach has the psychological contract as basis which has specific reference to job insecurity. An organisation expects its employees to accept its values and objectives and to be loyal. Employees then offer their commitment in return for the organisation honouring its part of the psychological contract. Also, attitudinal commitment represents an active relationship with the organisation where employees deliver personal inputs in order to contribute to the effectiveness of organisation.

2.4.2.3 Work commitment

Work commitment is the measure to which employees identify psychologically with their work. Work commitment can be described as the internalisation of values about the goodness of work or the importance of work, in the worth of the person (Mowday et al., 1982).

2.4.2.4 Active versus passive commitment

Active commitment refers to the willingness of employees to spend a high amount of energy for the sake of the organisation. Employees can, however, also be committed to the organisation without spending a high amount of energy, thus passive energy (Mowday et al., 1982).

2.4.2.5 Career commitment

Darden, Hampton and Howell (1989) describes career commitment as the measure in which employees identify with their careers, and the value which they add towards their specific career direction.

2.4.2.6 Lifetime commitment

According to Marsh and Mannari (1977) this form of commitment comprises of individuals leaving school and joining an organisation with the expectation not to leave it until retirement.

2.4.2.7 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment is a tendency to engage in consistent lines of activity based on the individual’s recognition of the costs (or lost side bets) associated with discontinuing the activity (Allen & Meyer, 1990).
According to Skisland (1999), continuance commitment seems to be best explained by participation and level of education. Both have negative effects. People who participate more tend to feel less continuance commitment than those who participate less. The reason for this may be twofold:

- Firstly, it may be that those participating most are also the most central persons in the organisation. This centrality may give them a good position on the labour market giving them a perception that they do not really have to stay in the organisation.
- Secondly, people who feel less continuance commitment may feel freer to participate. They do not have to hide their discontent from their superiors because they have a bargaining power founded in a feeling that they do not have to stay in the organisation.

2.4.2.8 Cohesion commitment

Cohesion commitment is related to the behavioural approach, which emphasises the view that employee investments (e.g. time, friendship, pension) in the organisation bind him to be loyal to their organisation (Suliman & Iles, 2000b). Employees publicly renounce previous commitments whilst activities, which increase current group cohesion, are priority.

2.4.2.9 Control commitment

Control commitment is related to the normative approach, which is described by Wiener (1982) as the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way, which meets organisational goals and interest. It reflects attachment to norms, which promotes desired behaviour.

2.4.2.10 Professional commitment

This form of commitment is associated with the individual’s career (Angle & Perry, 1981). The commitment of individuals in professional occupations towards the values and objectives of their occupations, might be in conflict with their commitment towards the organisations, because of certain experiences such as, time invested in development, interaction with “influential others”, and the development of technical expertise.
2.4.2.11 Moral commitment

Moral commitment represents a positive and intense orientation towards the organisation based on internalising organisational objectives, goals, values, norms and identification with authority (Mowday et al., 1982).

2.4.2.12 Multidimensional approach of organisational commitment

This is the most recent approach and various researchers seem to prefer this approach to the single dimensional approach to organisational commitment (McDonald & Makin, 2000; Suliman & Iles, 2000b). 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 (Suliman & Iles). The multidimensional approach of organisational commitment comprises affective, continuance and normative commitment.

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 commitment that is influenced by society’s norms about the extent to which people ought to be committed to the organisation. In simple terms 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 influenced by 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). Continuance commitment, on the other hand, is determined by the perceived costs of leaving the organisation. In particular, “side-bets” and other “investments” are an important determinant. 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” (i.e. rule governed) obligation to repay it in some way (McDonald & Makin).

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’ attitudes, 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.

2.4.3 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). Mowday et al. states 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 turn over;
- 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 of which the members display a high level of commitment, likewise maintain a high measure of productivity. Mowday et al., (1982) further supports the notion that organisational commitment is important for organisations because it is an indication of the relevance organisational variables such as, untidiness, staff turnover and absenteeism, has 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.).

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).

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, hostility, insecurity and absenteeism. For the purpose of this study, the importance of organisational
commitment will be regarded as the result that can be expected or hoped for by improving an employee's level of job security and job satisfaction. The determinants of organisational commitment will be reviewed in the next paragraph to enhance understanding.

2.4.4 Determinants of organisational commitment

It would seem that just as lack of clarity exists regarding the conceptualisation of organisational commitment so too is the case with its determinants (Reichers, 1985). The determinants of organisational commitment according to the researcher, seem to be interlinked with the causes and factors influencing it. Accordingly, the determinants of organisational commitment have been divided in internal and external determinants, for this study.

The internal determinants of organisational commitment can be divided into four categories, namely:

- **Personal determinants**: age; tenure; qualifications; gender; performance needs; socio-economical status; value systems, self image; decision making, expectations, need for further development, marital status.
- **Task related determinants**: role stress, role conflict; role ambiguity; feedback; responsibility; reward; promotional prospects
- **Work experiences**: organisational commitment; personal empowerment; satisfaction of needs; organisational ethics; leadership style; level of social involvement; and
- **Structural characteristics**: organisational size; trade union representativity; centralisation of authority; span of control.

2.4.4.1 Internal - Personal determinants

According to Morris, Lydka and O'Creevy (1993), in general, personal determinants do not appear to play a significant role in determining organisation commitment. The most frequently investigated in the international literature are tenure, age, gender, marital status and education.
Age: According to Allen and Meyer (1990) a positive correlation exists between organisational commitment and the age of an employee. However Steers (1977) found no significant relation between age and organisational commitment.

Gender: Angle and Perry (1981) found that the organisational commitment of women is higher than that of men because females enjoy less interorganisational mobility than males, and therefore tend to become restricted to their present organisation. In contrast with this finding, Marsh and Mannari (1977), reported that males' turn over rate is higher than that of females', therefore males' organisational commitment will be higher because turnover can be regarded as an accurate predictor of commitment. Bruning and Snyder (1983) states that there is no significant difference regarding gender as a determinant of organisational commitment existing, because this finding implies that stereotyped assumptions are incorrect in concluding that females will have lower commitment rather than the personality or sex of the individual. In this study few females participated since the maintenance department consists predominantly of male employees.

Tenure: Various researchers (Pheffer & Lawler, 1980; Reichers, 1985; Sheldon, 1971) indicate a strong positive relation between tenure and organisational commitment. This finding is explained by the amount of time and energy an individual invests in the organisation’s schemes such as; gain sharing, job security, leave credit, organisational competencies, and status gained. Gregerson & Black (1992) stated that as an employee remains with an organisation longer, alternative employment opportunities and personal investments in the organisation tend to increase, thus enhancing employee commitment.

Qualifications: Research results indicate a predominantly negative correlation between qualifications and organisational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981). Lee (1997) on the contrary, confirms a positive correlation between organisational commitment and qualifications. Jacobsen (2000) found that professionals (employees with long, formal education with a specific type of job in mind) only show conditional loyalty to an organisation. The degree of professionalism may in itself create less organisational commitment. It can be assumed that professionals will be less committed to the organisation than non-professionals. Empirical
studies support the notion that all types of commitment are negatively correlated to length of education (Gallie & White, 1993).

Mazibuko (1994) found that qualifications have been inversely related to commitment. This inverse relationship may be attributed to three reasons. Firstly, highly educated individuals may have work expectations higher than those that the organisation may be able to meet. This may lead to feelings of dissatisfaction, which encourages them to think about leaving. Secondly, more educated individuals may also be more committed to a profession or trade than an organisation. Thirdly, better-qualified employees may think that they have more employment opportunities outside the organisation than those who are not as well qualified.

Socio-economic status: Socio-economic status is reflected by the biographical details in this study as; band grading, categories i.e. professional status, subordinates reporting or not. Divergent findings regarding the socio-economic status as a determinant of organisational commitment is reported. Darden et al. (1989) suggests employees whose parents had a high socio-economic status were less committed to the organisation whilst Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972) found the contrary.

Morris and Steers (1980) found no relation between organisational commitment and socio-economical position. They concluded by stating that the generally accepted notion of low level employees’ organisation commitment being regarded lower than that of higher level employees’, relates to stereotyping. Next, the task related determinants will be mentioned.

2.4.4.2 Internal - Task related determinants

The internal task determinants which appear to play a significant role in determining organisation commitment were found to be job task challenges, role stress, role conflict, role ambiguity, feedback, responsibility, remuneration, promotional opportunities. Next, the work experiences determinants will be mentioned.

2.4.4.3 Internal - Work experiences

Work experiences refer to the experiences of employees during their tenure (Mowday et al., 1982). Work experiences that relate to organisational commitment are; organisational reliability,
feelings of personal importance, satisfaction of expectations, organisational ethics, colleague relationships, leadership style and level of social involvement.

2.4.4.4 Internal - Organisational structure characteristics

Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978) reported that structural connected variables such as organisational size, trade union representativity, centralisation of authority and span of control do not correlate with organisational commitment.

2.4.4.5 External determinants of organisational commitment

External determinants of organisational commitment can be divided into three categories:

- **Socio normative changes:** The acceptable norms and characteristics of a community influence the work environment. Every employee is unique and presents distinctive attitudes, values, aspirations, stereotypes and other variables (Schein, 1988). In addition, it’s alleged that if these sociological characteristics of employees change, the work environment also changes. Evidence of some change that has influenced the socio-normative attitudes of employees in the past decade is an increased need by employees to influence decision-making and policy formulation.

- **Economical changes:** Economical changes influence employees’ security in their work environment, which impacts their job security. Economical fluctuations might even influence employees’ psychological health and resulting behaviour (Mowday et al., 1982).

- **Technological changes:** One of the most common consequences of technological advancement is that employees are being replaced by machines, which not only threatens their job security but also creates conflict within their work environment (Porter et al., 1974).

In this paragraph, both the internal and external determinants of organisational commitment have been mentioned and discussed. The next paragraph will deal with the outcomes of organisational commitment since it has proved to have important influences on organisations.
2.4.5 Outcomes of organisational commitment

Various outcomes that result from improving organisational commitment, supplemented by various findings from the literature will be discussed. Not only are the different forms of commitment influenced by different factors, but they also have different outcomes. For the purpose of this study outcomes of organisational commitment are regarded as the end results that are obtained by improving the level of organisational commitment. The following are regarded as very important outcomes of organisational commitment:

2.4.5.1 Performance

Iles, Mabey and Robertson (1996) suggest that not all kinds of commitment are associated with high performance. In particular, continuance commitment, determined by the perceived costs of leaving the organisation, is unlikely to lead to high job performance. Unlike normative or affective commitment, Dubois (1997) suggests therefore that superiors might aim at reducing continuance commitment whilst maintaining or enhancing affective and normative commitment.

Wiener and Vardi (1980) reported positive but weak correlations between organisational commitment and performance. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggest that few researchers predicted that commitment levels would influence performance.

Highly committed employees will tend to perform well to the extent that:

- Organisations stress high achievement orientations that happen with good employee relations;
- Passive commitment (often called loyalty) can be translated into active commitment; and
- Employees possess the necessary skills and abilities and fully understand and accept their particular organisational roles (Steers, 1977).

2.4.5.2 Staff turnover

Smith, Allen, Harpur and Varkel (1997) reported that younger employees displayed higher turnover intentions compared to older employees and a lower level of commitment to the
organisation. This could be ascribed to the fact that younger employees have higher expectations in terms of their career future than their counterparts.

Furthermore, individuals are changing jobs, and even careers, more frequently than in the past. Traditionally, employees were loyal to one firm and therefore aspired to move up through the corporate hierarchy in an attempt to improve their employment level (Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000). However, recent trends indicate that careers are shorter and loyalty to the organisation is secondary to that of the team and the profession (McDonald & Makin, 2000; Testa, 2001). Poor organisational commitment and resultant high turnover can be extremely costly to the organisation (Hartley et al., 1991). Mazibuko (1994) stated that there is empirical evidence that turnover is actually preceded by the intention to quit.

2.4.5.3 Absenteeism

Absenteeism refers to non-presence at work, a voluntary reduction by the individual of his working time or a failure to report for work and is often associated with dissatisfaction at work (Mazibuko, 1994; Wooden 1995). Hulin (1991) suggested that absenteeism and other withdrawal behaviour (e.g., tardiness, turnover) reflect “invisible attitudes such as job dissatisfaction, low level of organisational commitment, or an intention to quit”. Wooden regards organisational commitment as one of the most important factors that impact on absence since he found that increased organisational commitment is positively related to attendance, which suggests that increased organisational commitment could lead to substantially lower level of absenteeism.

Mazibuko (1994) reports that job category and absenteeism are related, that is, employees in the higher job categories were found to be absent less often than those in lower categories. However, it must be emphasised that absenteeism is not a reliable indicator of organisational effectiveness.

2.4.5.4 Work alienation

Work alienation is the degree to which an individual identifies psychologically with a specific type of work (Steers, 1977). It is suggested that work alienation and organisational commitment is negatively related (Mullins, 1996). Mowday et al., (1982) describes alienation in terms of four dimensions:
• Powerlessness denotes workers’ lack of control over management policy, immediate work processes and conditions of employment.

• Meaningless stems from standardisation and division of labour. It denotes the inability to see the purpose of work or to identify with the total production process or finished product.

• Isolation is not belonging to an integrated group or to the social work organisation and not being guided by group norms of behaviour.

• Self-estrangement is the failure to see work as an end in itself or as a central life issue. Work is experienced as a depersonalised detachment and work is seen solely as a means to an end.

The preceding section dealt with the outcomes of organisational commitment. Outcomes such as performance, staff turnover, absenteeism and work alienation amongst others were discussed since it has relevance to the study. Furthermore, in this section, the concept organisational commitment and its reference to job insecurity has been overviewed. Also, the various approaches, importance and determinants as well the outcomes of organisational commitment have been discussed. Next, the summary of this chapter will be attempted.

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter a literature overview concerning the three variables studied, namely, job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, were reviewed.

In the first section the definition, factors influencing job insecurity, antecedents, consequences and outcomes of job insecurity were discussed. In addition, explanations were provided for the consequences of job insecurity and reference was made to its relationship to job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The researcher found job insecurity as the perceived threat of losing ones job, or valued features of the job, and control or loss of control of the continuance of employment. In addition, the experience of job insecurity relates to both cognitive and affective phenomena. It is also evident from the literature that job insecurity emerged as an important stressor in modern working life and perceptions of job insecurity have consequently been found to correlate with job satisfaction and organisational commitment as well as mental and physical health complaints.
The second section contained a discussion on job satisfaction in which various definitions including the researcher's own account was presented. Also, the importance, causes, and outcomes of job satisfaction were discussed with reference being made to the relationship it has with the other variables studied in this research. Research consulted indicated a significantly lower level of job satisfaction found among those who feel insecure about their jobs.

Thirdly, organisational commitment was explored by defining it, discussing its various dimensions, followed by its importance and determinants and lastly its outcomes. Organisational commitment was conceptualised as the strong faith and belief employees have in their organisation. This includes employees' acceptance of the organisation's vision, mission, and values as their own as well as readiness to demonstrate any acquired skills to help and develop the organisation, which will result in displaying appropriate behaviour. The multi-dimensional approach to organisational commitment comprising of affective, continuance and normative components, were found relevant for this study.

Hereby, the first specific objective, namely to conceptualise job insecurity, job satisfaction, organisational commitment from the literature has been reached, and the first research question answered. Also, reference was made to the relationship between these constructs.

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 them was discussed.

According to the research procedure outlined in chapter one, the empirical study has been classified as the second phase. Therefore, this chapter will contain a description of the empirical investigation with regard to the research objective, the research design, research group, measuring instruments, research procedure, statistical procedure used in this study, as well as the hypotheses.

3.2 THE OBJECTIVE OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

The general objective of this research is to establish the effect of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal and to determine whether there is a relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Also, whether job insecurity can be predicted by job satisfaction and organisational commitment and also comparing the demographic variables for job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.2.1 Empirical objectives

The empirical objectives of this study consist of the following:

- To determine the reliability and construct validity of the measuring instruments used in this study.

- To determine the levels of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal.
• To determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal.

• To determine the practical significance between means of demographical groups for job insecurity of maintenance workers at a parastatal.

• To determine whether job insecurity can be predicted by the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The topic of research design refers to the preconceived plan according to which data is to be collected and analysed to investigate the research hypothesis of which the hypothesis can be supported or not accepted (refuted) (Huysamen, 1993). For the purpose of this study, it has been decided to make use of quantitative survey design to reach the research objectives. The specific design is the cross-sectional design, whereby information is collected from a sample or population at one time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). This design can be used to assess interrelationships among variables within a population and is ideally suited to the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlational research (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister).

3.4 RESEARCH GROUP

The study has been conducted in the maintenance department of an electricity generating utility, currently still a parastatal. The position of this state owned public utility is to change drastically in the near future with the introduction National Legislation. The objective of this restructuring is to convert it into a company in terms of the Company’s Act and to align it towards a competitive electricity supply industry. However, these issues and its detail are still subject to further investigation but already indications are that employees are experiencing some degree of job insecurity.

The research group consisted of workers graded at various levels, according to the Paterson band grading, ranging form general workers, (A-band), utility men and artisans (B-band) technicians, senior technicians and team leaders, technologist, engineers and managers; all C-bands and higher. The group is spread across all sections such as electrical, mechanical and instrumentation ranging, from all age categories and inclusive of all different gender and race groups.
3.5 SAMPLE SIZE

The study population consisted of an availability sample of maintenance workers and included workers, graded at various levels, with a sample size of \( n = 178 \) from a total population of 300 with a response of 59.3%. The criteria for participation used was to allow all willing to voluntarily complete the questionnaire in focus groups. The researcher had to obtain permission from management to conduct the study after which appointments were made with the respective supervisors to take down the questionnaires. The researcher was available at all sessions to facilitate the completion of questionnaires and be at hand if required, to explain and translate any indistinctness, which ensured that proper control and ethics were being adhered to.

3.6 BIOGRAPHIC DETAILS

The biographic details of the respondents are as follows:

3.6.1 Distribution of respondents with relation to gender

The composition with regards to the gender of the sample group is given in Figure 2.

![Distribution of gender of respondents](image)

*Figure 2. Distribution of respondents with relation to gender*

From figure 2 it follows that 169 (94.94%) of the respondents are male and 9 (5.06%) are female. The selection criteria set for the research group was not aimed at differentiating between genders, but is reported only for the sake of completeness. During the planning stage it was acknowledged that the group is composed mainly of men due to the nature of the work in which they are involved.
3.6.2 Distribution of respondents with relation to age

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>35 Years and younger</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>24.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 - 45 years</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>44.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 years and older</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL n =</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 2 the majority of the respondents are between age 36 and 45 years (44.3%) indicating that they are in their middle ages and this has relevance to the research since it is hypothesized that age might be related to job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.6.3 Distribution of respondents with relation to race

Figure 3. Distribution of respondents with relation to race

Figure 3 indicates the race composition of the respondents. From this figure it follows that 83 (50%) of the respondents are white and 83 (50%) are blacks, with 12 responses missing. People of colour are sorted under blacks. The selection criteria set for the research group was intended to differentiate between races for possible inferences.
3.6.4 Distribution of qualification of respondents

Table 3
Distribution of qualification of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUALIFICATIONS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below Std 6</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>23.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std 6 -10</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>34.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std 10 and post-matric</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL n =</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows that the majority (42%) of respondents held Std 10 and post-matric qualifications, indicating high literacy levels with 34.3% possessing qualifications between Std 6-10 and 23.7% of the respondents having qualifications below Std 6.

3.6.5 Distribution of continuous years in service by respondents

Table 4
Distribution of continuous years in service by respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEARS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 – 4 years</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – 15 years</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>30.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 and longer years</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>52.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL n =</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of years continuously employed of the respondents is indicated in Table 4. From this it seems that the majority (52.9%) of the respondents indicated continuous employment from 16 years and longer. It can thus be assumed that a high degree of loyalty towards the organisation exists amongst the respondents because of the long service years.
3.6.6 Distribution of job grades of respondents

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GRADE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CU and above</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CL</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BU</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>33.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BL</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL n =</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 indicates that the majority of the respondents (33.2%) are graded on the BU band followed by the BL band. The AA, CL, CU and above band grades are well represented and is an accurate reflection of the real manpower numbers employed. Initiatives, such as adult basic education and recognition for prior learning, are currently being instituted to facilitate the phasing out of the AA band grading. The representativity of the band grades met the intended design requirements for this research.

3.6.8 Distribution of categories of respondents

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional(registered)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-professional</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>44.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-skilled</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 6, 10.1% of the respondents indicated that they are unskilled, with 18% semi-skilled and the rest (71.91%) all skilled workers. Taking into account that the minimum qualification to become an artisan is Std 8 or N1, there seems to some correspondence with regards to qualifications and the skills level of the respondents, as it reflects the honesty complied with in completing the questionnaire. The department represents a high average of skilled workers although not the ideal yet.

3.6.9 Distribution of respondents who have subordinates

Table 7
Distribution of respondents who have subordinates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBORDINATES</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>64.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL n =</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 7, 35.3% of the respondents indicated that they have subordinates reporting to them compared to 64.7% reporting no supervisory responsibilities.

3.6.10 Distribution of sections in which respondents are employed

Table 8
Distribution of sections in which respondents are employed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTIONS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MMS Power Plant</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMS Outside Plant</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance Services</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract Management</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tech &amp; OPS</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Maintenance</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Management</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance Training</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control &amp; Instrumentation</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL n =</strong></td>
<td>178</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 8, the majority of respondents are employed at both MMS Outside Plant (21.4%) and Maintenance Services (21.4%) sections with MMS Power Plant following (19.7%). In addition, it can be deduced that the majority of the participants (62.36%) are from the Mechanical discipline i.e. fitter, turner, welder, boiler making etc. Information from this table is an accurate reflection of the real manpower numbers employed at the various sections.

3.6.11 Distribution of unions to which respondents are affiliated

Table 9

*Distribution of unions to which respondents are affiliated*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UNIONS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NUM</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUMSA</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MWU SOLIDARITY</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>40.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NON-MEMBER</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL n =</strong></td>
<td>178</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 9 the majority of respondents (40.4) indicated their affiliation to the MWU Solidarity union, having a predominantly white membership with NUM (29.2%) and NUMSA (19.7%) having mainly people of colour affiliated to them. Only 10.7% of the respondents are not affiliated to any labour union, which can be explained by the Agency Shop agreement between the organisation and its recognised unions. The Agency Shop agreement requires the organisation to deduct an agency fee from the salaries of all employees from job grades AA to CU/PO who are not members of the recognised unions.
The Labour Relations Act makes provision for an Agency Shop Agreement. The philosophy behind this is that employees who are not members of trade unions derive the same benefits from the Trade Unions negotiations, at no cost to themselves. The agency fee deducted is the same as the lowest subscription by the members of the trade unions. The MPS bands have their own bargaining unit.

3.7 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

In this section the rationale and development, description, administration and scoring, interpretation as well as the validity and reliability of the measuring instruments are discussed.

3.7.1 Measurement of job insecurity

Job insecurity is generally regarded as a function of the perceived probability and the perceived severity of becoming unemployed (Hartley et al., 1991). For the purpose of this research the Job Insecurity Questionnaire developed by De Witte (2000) will be used to measure the perceived job insecurity of participants. Next, the rationale and development, the description, administration and scoring, as well as the reliability, validity and the motivation for the choice of this questionnaire are discussed.

3.7.1.1 Rationale and development of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire

According to Hartley et al., (1991) job insecurity can be a stressful experience, which influences an individual’s well-being and job performance and is regarded as one of the more important stressors in employment situations. From De Witte (2000) it follows that in the development of a measure instrument for job insecurity per sé, two notions eventuated. De Witte argues that some researchers chose to concentrate only on the possibility of job loss whilst others tend to focus on a more differentiated instrument which includes the broader aspects impacting on job insecurity, such as possible demotion, change in job content and the accompanying powerlessness. Inspired by the instrument of Borg (1992), De Witte developed a questionnaire, which includes 11 items relating to job insecurity, including both the possibility of becoming unemployed (cognitive assessment) and the emotional experience of the possible threatening situation (emotional reaction towards it). The questionnaire was translated into English for use in this study by the researcher.
3.7.1.2 Description of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of the 11 items relating to job insecurity. 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.

3.7.1.3 Administration and scoring of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire

The Job Insecurity Questionnaire can be administrated individually or in groups. In some instances, the researcher had to translate and explain certain words and concepts in the respondents’ home language to enhance understanding. The 11 items are answered by deciding to what extent they experience (dis)agreement with statements rated on each subscale. Job insecurity is assessed according to the cognitive, affective and total dimensions for this study. Items 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 refer to the affective dimension of job insecurity whilst 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 refer to the cognitive dimension of job insecurity. In the scoring the Job Insecurity Questionnaire an average score of all 11 items is determined. Also, items 6, 9, and 10 should be reversed. It was apparently the first time this specific questionnaire was used for South African studies.

3.7.1.4 Interpretation of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire

The average of the 11 items is an indication of the overall job insecurity of the respondent. A low score would indicate that the respondent would experience a high degree of job insecurity whilst a high score indicates a low degree of job insecurity.

3.7.1.5 Reliability and validity of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire

De Witte (2000), in his studies, reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92 (total) for this questionnaire to which he refers as “globale jobonzekerheid”. On the 5 items encapsulating the affective dimension of job insecurity, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.85 was reported and the 6 items referring to the cognitive dimension of job insecurity a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.90 was found, thus indicating high reliability (De Witte). De Witte also found an overlap between the cognitive and affective factor loadings and reported that both scales correlated interdependently very high (r = 0.76). Criteria set of heterogeneity and balancing items was met.
The reliability coefficients and inter-item correlations of this questionnaire and its subscales will also be determined to compare with the above findings.

3.7.1.6 Motivation for the choice of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire

In this research the focus is on job insecurity. The Job Insecurity Questionnaire by De Witte (2000) supports this concept in that it provides for an overall measurement of job insecurity despite it being conceptualised as a two-dimensional structure (affective and cognitive). Furthermore, it is intended to compare the psychometric values of this questionnaire with values obtained from studies conducted abroad, using the same instrument.

3.7.2 Measurement of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is generally regarded as one of the attitudinal outcomes influenced by job insecurity. In the measurement of job satisfaction, it has been decided to make use of the short-version or the Revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al., 1967). Next, the rationale and development, the description, administration and scoring, as well as the reliability, validity and the motivation for the choice of this questionnaire are discussed.

3.7.2.1 Rationale and development of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

In 1957 the Minnesota studies researched the problem of work adjustment and consequently 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 (or lack of it) between the work personality (individual needs and characteristics of the employee) and the work environment (reinforcements for needs and opportunities to use abilities). Thus, it focuses on the integration between work personality and the work environment. Consequently, 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. The questionnaire is particularly useful in the sense that it
measures job satisfaction in general (totality), which makes it adequate for this study despite the versatility of the long version.

3.7.2.2 Description of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Two versions of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire are available, namely a long version consisting of 100 items and a short or 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, (not as versatile as the long version) its advantage is that it determines the level of job satisfaction in general and is less time consuming to complete. The response format was a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = very dissatisfied, 5 = very satisfied). Choices on the end (5) of the scale indicate total agreement with the item, suggesting job satisfaction whereas choices at the beginning of the scale (1) indicate total disagreement with the statement made in the item, suggesting the degree of job dissatisfaction.

3.7.2.3 Administration and scoring of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire can be administrated individually or in-groups (Weiss et. al., 1967). The respondents read the instructions on the questionnaire themselves. In some instances the researcher had to translate and explain certain words and concepts in the respondents' home language to enhance understanding. The 20 items are answered by deciding to what extent they experience (dis) satisfaction with each statement.

In scoring the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, an average score of all 20 items are determined.

3.7.2.4 Interpretation of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

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 the middle of the range of percentiles indicate average satisfaction (Weiss et, al., 1967).
3.7.2.5 Reliability and validity of the Minnesota Job 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’s alpha coefficients 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.

3.7.2.6 Motivation for the choice of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

The argument that various factors in the work environment influence job satisfaction is indeed supported by the researcher. However, for the purpose of this study, such various factors are not going to be measured. The measurement and interpretation will be based on job satisfaction in general. The Revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (short version) supports this operational stance in the sense that the questionnaire measures the satisfaction of employees in terms of their overall job satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). The primary aim of this study is to establish the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, hence the decision to opt for a general measurement of job satisfaction. The questionnaire is also less time consuming to complete which favoured the respondents’ working arrangements.

3.7.3 Measurement of Organisational Commitment

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (18-items) of Meyer et al. (1993) was selected to measure the organisational commitment of the respondents.
In this section the rationale and development, description, administration and scoring, interpretation as well as the validity and reliability and motivation for the choice of the organisational commitment questionnaire are discussed.

3.7.3.1 Development and rationale of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

Dubois (1997) argued 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) has been developed as a measure of the primary indicators of work adjustment, namely organisational commitment. The questionnaire measures organisational commitment in different subscales (affective, continuance, normative). Research has shown that employees differ in terms of their commitment, which implies that they are committed for different reasons (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

For his study the different subscales of commitment (affective, continuance, normative) as well as the total commitment would be measured to determine its relationship with job insecurity and job satisfaction, 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 including a total commitment scale.

3.7.3.2 Description of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

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 item whereas choices at the beginning of the scale (1) indicate total disagreement with the statement made in the item, hence indicating the level or degree of organisational commitment.
3.7.3.3 Administration and scoring of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire can be administrated individually or in groups (Meyer et al., 1993). In some instances the researcher had to translate and explain certain words and concepts in the respondents’ home language to enhance understanding. The 18 items are answered by deciding to what extent they experience (dis)agreement with statements rated on each subscale. For the purpose of this study, scores on the affective, continuance, normative and total organisational commitment will be measured.

Items 3, 7, 10 and 16 are negatively phrased which implies that before scoring it should be reversed. In the scoring of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire an average score of all 18 items is determined to indicate the reliability coefficient and inter-item correlations.

3.7.3.4 Interpretation of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

Although the average score of each subscale (strengthener) is an indication of the extent to which the respondent is satisfied with it, 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. A percentile score of 75 or higher would be indicative of a high degree of organisational commitment, while a percentile score of 25 or lower would be indicative of a low level of commitment. Scores in the middle of the range of percentiles would indicate average scores of commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

3.7.3.5 Reliability and validity of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

The questionnaire is currently being standardised for South African circumstances and preliminary results support the reliability and validity of the questionnaire (Bagraim & Hayes, 1999). Bagraim and Hayes further states 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 an UK organisation, found the reliability for the scale to be 0,84. 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 were consistently above 0.80 for every one of these sub-scales (Suliman & Iles, 2000a).

3.7.3.6 Motivation for the choice of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

For the purpose of this research the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire of (Meyer et al., 1993) was chosen because it fits and supports the operational concept. 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

In this section, the procedure in the conducting and scoring of the measuring instruments used in this study is explained.

3.8.1 Pre-arrangements

A meeting was held with the Human Resource manager and Maintenance manager to outline the aim and scope of the present study. Thereafter a presentation was done at a maintenance meeting at which the relevant sectional managers were present. Their commitment was obtained to support the initiative and the necessary approval was granted on condition that feedback is given to the relevant maintenance and sectional managers, which could be utilised effectively. Recommendations would be made in terms of future interventions. The expectation is that feedback will only be given to groups and not individually, for ethical reasons.

3.8.2 Visiting arrangement and conducting the questionnaires

The measuring battery was compiled; accompanied with an authorisation letter by the maintenance manager, which outlined the purpose and scope of the study, the confidentiality of the data as well as the basis for participation. Appointments were then made with the various sectional managers/supervisors to arrange for the participants to be present for taking down the
questionnaires. The researcher was available at all sessions to facilitate the completion of questionnaires and be at hand to explain and translate, if needed, which ensured that proper control and ethics were being adhered to.

3.9 STATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis has been carried out with the help of the SAS-programme (SAS Institute, 2000) and the Statistica programme. Descriptive statistics have been employed in this study, which allows for data to be meaningfully arranged (Burns and 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).

Arithmetic means standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis carry out the description and comparison of the results. 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.). Skewness is a descriptive indication of symmetry, which gives an indication of the level of skewness (positive or negative) of a population. Kurtosis indicates the level of pointedness of a distribution of scores (Steyn, et al.).

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 positive or negative. When a decline in the measurement of the one variable also leads to decline in the other, then a positive relationship is assumed. With a negative relationship a decline in the measurement of the one variable would lead to an increase in the other (Ferguson, 1981). Product moment correlation coefficient varies between -1,00 and +1,00. The closer the absolute value of a correlation coefficient (r) is to 1,00 (negative correlation) or to +1,00
(positive correlation), the more accurate the prediction that one variable relates to the other (Ferguson).

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

\[ r = 0.10 - \text{small effect} \]
\[ r = 0.30 - \text{medium effect} \]
\[ r = 0.50 - \text{large effect} \]

Values (r) larger than 0.30 will be regarded as practically significant for the purposes of this study.

According to Cohen (1988) a correlation (r) can be better understood by determining its square \( (r^2) \). A 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 another variable (Moore, 1995). The effect size (which indicates practical significance) in the case of multiple regression is given by the following formula (Steyn, 1999):

\[ f^2 = \frac{R^2}{1 - R^2} \]

A guideline value of 0.35 (large effect, Steyn, 1999) was set for practical significance of \( f^2 \).

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

\[ d = \left( \frac{X_1 - X_2}{S_{\text{max}}} \right) \]

where

\[ X_1 = \text{arithmetic mean for the first variable of a specific demographical group} \]
\[ X_2 = \text{arithmetic mean for the second variable of a specific demographical group} \]
\[ S_{\text{max}} = \text{highest standard deviation of a specific demographical group} \]

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 hypotheses will be tested by means of product moment correlation coefficients, regression analysis and effect sizes.

3.10 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

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

\[ H_1: \text{A practically significant relationship exists between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal, as well as between job insecurity and demographic variables.} \]

Since the null hypothesis is the inverse of the alternative hypothesis, only the alternative hypothesis is stated.

3.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the research method followed for the empirical study, was explained in terms of the choice and composition of the study population, the measuring instruments, the research procedure as well the scoring and interpretation of the instruments. The specific objective for this chapter namely, the discussion of the objectives for the empirical research, the modus operandi followed, the relevant statistical analysis used, as well as the formulation of the research hypotheses, was, according to the researcher, attained.

In chapter 4, the results of the empirical study are reported and discussed in terms of the research hypotheses.
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), as well as the inter-item correlation coefficients of each measuring instrument are reported and discussed. Secondly, the descriptive statistics consisting of the mean, standard deviation (SD), minimum (MIN) and maximum (MAX) values of each measuring instrument are given and discussed. Pearson correlation coefficients (r) are given to specify the linear relationships between variables. The practical significance of the results is given where applicable. Thirdly, effect sizes will be used to determine practical significance of differences between means of demographical groups and job insecurity. Lastly, multiple correlations will be reported 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, including the inter-item correlation coefficients, and the results thereof are reported and discussed.

4.2.1 Reliability of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire

The internal consistencies or coefficient alpha (α) and inter-item correlation coefficients of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire with its subscales, are depicted in Table 10 and discussed.
Table 10

Alpha coefficients and inter item correlation coefficients of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
<th>Inter-item correlation coefficients ($r$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Insecurity - Total</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Insecurity - Affective</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Insecurity - Cognitive</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 shows that the Cronbach alpha coefficients for both the total (0.81) and affective (0.86) scales compares favourably with the norm of $\alpha > 0.80$ according to the guideline by Nunnally & Bernstein, (1994). The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the cognitive scale (0.47) is below the acceptable standard, but still acceptable for further analysis. Thus the reliability of the instrument seems to be in order. In comparison, De Witte (2000) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of $\alpha = 0.92$ (total), for the affective scale $\alpha = 0.85$ and, for the cognitive scale, $\alpha = 0.90$ using the same instrument.

A factor analysis was preformed for both scales in order to verify the construct validity of the components of the questionnaire since it was translated and used for the first time in South Africa. Item 11 was ignored for the purpose of interpretation since it shown no relevancy to the cognitive dimension. Items 6, 9 and 10 on the cognitive dimension measured low correlations with the total (0.06, 0.17 and 0.25 respectively) hence, not internally consistent with the total score and impacting negatively on the reliability of the instrument. The low reliability coefficient of the cognitive scale could be ascribed to some semantic differences, as the items were translated from Dutch to English. Item 6 especially, need attention since very low internal consistency with other items was found.

The construct validity for the cognitive subscale of the Job Insecurity Questionnaire was found in order since the inter-item correlation ($r$) = 0.16 is above the guideline of 0.15, as suggested by Clark & Watson. In this instance, two factors were retained to explain 66.3% of the total by each factor, with the commonalities between 0.04 (low) and 0.83. Ideally, for high construct validity only one factor should be retained that will explain a large variance with high commonalities, hence the guideline for inter-item correlation coefficient of $0.15 \leq r \leq 0.5$ by Clark & Watson.
The affective subscale indicated high levels of internal consistency and construct validity. Correlations with the total ranged from 0.66 to 0.84. Regarding the construct validity for this scale, one factor was retained that explained 63.8% of the total by each factor, with the commonalities between 0.54 and 0.74, indicating high construct validity; the inter-item correlation \( r = 0.55 \) is marginally above the guideline of 0.50, as suggested by Clark & Watson (1995). A possible reason for this high score may be the fact that the items are narrowly defined.

The inter-item correlation coefficient of Job Insecurity (total) is acceptable compared to the guideline of \( 0.15 \leq r \leq 0.5 \) (Clark & Watson, 1995). Three factors were retained that explained 70.3% of the total by each factor, with the commonalities between 0.56 and 0.81. The Job Insecurity Questionnaire seems to have satisfactory internal consistency and construct validity. Refinements are recommended, especially the reliability coefficient for the cognitive component can improve.

4.2.2 Reliability of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

The internal consistency or coefficient alpha (\( \alpha \)) of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire as well as the inter-item correlation coefficient (\( r \)) is reported in Table 11 with a discussion of the findings following.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>( \alpha )</th>
<th>Inter-item correlation coefficient (( r ))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction – Total Population</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 shows that the alpha coefficient of 0.89 compares favourably with the guideline by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) of \( (\alpha > 0.80) \). The alpha coefficient measured is higher than the alpha coefficient of 0.70 obtained by Sagie (1998), and lower than the results reported by Kaplan (1990) of 0.90, Welman and Basson (1995) and Dwyer (2001) reported alpha coefficient of 0.92, using the short version of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire in South African studies. It was furthermore found that Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the Minnesota Job Satisfaction
Questionnaire (short-version) ranged from 0.77 to 0.92, which was considered relatively high and internally consistent. Yousef (2000a) found in his studies of job satisfaction in a cross-cultural context an alpha coefficient of 0.92.

The inter item correlation coefficient found for the instrument is 0.29, which is acceptable compared to the guideline of $0.15 \leq r \leq 0.5$ (Clark & Watson, 1995). It would thus appear that the Revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire has satisfactory internal consistency and construct validity and can be regarded as a reliable instrument.

### 4.2.3 Reliability of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

The Cronbach coefficient alpha ($\alpha$) of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire and its subscales including the inter-item correlations ($r$) is depicted, in Table 12 and elaborated upon.

Table 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
<th>Inter-item correlation coefficient ($r$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment (Total)</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Affective</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Continuance</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Normative</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 shows that the Cronbach alpha coefficient of the organisational commitment questionnaire (Total) is 0.80 which is in accordance with Suliman and Iles (2000a), who reported Cronbach coefficient alphas consistently being above 0.80. Dwyer (2001) found an alpha coefficient of 0.79. The reliability of the instrument is also acceptable according to the guideline of $\alpha > 0.80$ by Nunnally & Bernstein, (1994).

The Cronbach coefficient alpha for affective commitment measured lower than the guideline by Nunnally & Bernstein, (1994) of $\alpha > 0.80$, but is still acceptable for further analysis. Finegan (2000) reported reliability coefficients of 0.80 to 0.85 and Bargaim (1999) found $\alpha = 0.87$ for affective commitment.
The Cronbach coefficient alpha measured for continuance commitment was 0.53, which is lower than the norm of $\alpha > 0.80$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). McDonald and Makin (2000) reported a reliability coefficient of 0.64.

The Cronbach coefficient alpha for normative commitment was 0.75, which is marginally lower than the norm of $\alpha > 0.80$ by Nunnally & Bernstein (1994), but still acceptable for further analysis. McDonald and Makin (2000) reported reliability coefficient of 0.84 for this scale. It can be deduced that the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire used in this study has satisfactory internal consistency despite the correlation values of the subscales with the total not measuring up to the guideline, it is still acceptable for further analysis. Items 3, 7, 10, 11, 14, and 17 with correlations of 0.25; 0.32; 0.22; 0.12 and -0.08 were found to have low correlation with the total score and consequently not supporting the overall reliability of the instrument. Suliman & Iles (2000a) found Cronbach alpha coefficients for this particular instrument were consistently being above 0.80 for all of the scales.

The inter-item correlation coefficients for the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire ranged from 0.17 (Continuance) to 0.33 for Normative. The values for all scales compare favourably with the guideline of $0.15 \leq r \leq 0.5$ Clark & Watson (1995). Based on these results, the alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation coefficients do support the internal consistency and construct validity of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire.

The specific research objective set, namely to determine the reliability and construct validity of the measuring instruments used in this study are concluded with reference to paragraphs 4.2.1, 4.2.2 and 4.2.3.

### 4.2.4 Job insecurity of maintenance workers in a parastatal

The mean ($x$), standard deviation (SD), minimum (MIN), maximum (MAX), skewness and kurtosis for the job insecurity questionnaire, including its subscales are depicted in Table 13 with a discussion of the findings following.
A Likert-type scale was employed to capture participants’ responses regarding the total, affective and cognitive aspects of job insecurity experienced with the following scale indications:
1 = strongly agree,
2 = agree,
3 = unsure,
4 = disagree and,
5 = strongly disagree.

The mean scores for the Job Insecurity Questionnaire vary between 3.65 (Cognitive) and 3.27 (Affective) with a mean of 3.46 for the (Total) suggesting the average of participants seem to be unsure (level) regarding their experience of job insecurity. Hence, participants seem not to be concerned about the continued existence of their jobs. These findings are contrary to findings by De Witte (1999) Rosenblatt et al. (1999) and Kinnunen et al. (2000). Orpen (1993) found that employees felt more insecure about their jobs with the onset of organisational change. The standard deviation of Job Insecurity – Affective = 1.07 indicating acceptable value on average from the mean. The minimum score is 1 and the maximum 5. The scores are rather normally distributed (more or less symmetrical, skewness = 0 and kurtosis = 0). It must be noted that one less participant completed the affective part of the questionnaire.

4.2.5 Job satisfaction of maintenance workers in a parastatal

The mean (x), standard deviation (SD), minimum (MIN), maximum (MAX), skewness and kurtosis are reported in Table 14 with a discussion on the findings following.
Table 14

Descriptive statistics of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>MIN</th>
<th>MAX</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction - Total</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>3,48</td>
<td>0,67</td>
<td>1,90</td>
<td>4,95</td>
<td>-0,21</td>
<td>-0,38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Likert-type scale was employed to capture participants’ responses regarding the total job satisfaction they experienced with scale indications ranging from 1 = very dissatisfied to 5 = very satisfied.

Table 14 shows that the total mean for job satisfaction of the respondents is 3,48 indicating that participants experienced above average degrees (levels) of job satisfaction. The minimum score is 1 and the maximum 4,95. Furthermore the skewness and kurtosis values are indicative of a normal distribution. This finding suggests that participants are satisfied with aspects relating to their work, in general. A high score on job satisfaction could proof to be insignificant regarding the level of job insecurity since it could very well correlate rather highly with job insecurity (De Witte, 2000). Research findings indicate a significantly lower level of job satisfaction among those who feel insecure about their jobs (Ashford et al., 1989; Hartley et al., 1991; Heaney et al., 1994; Probst & Brubaker, 2001).

4.2.6 Organisational commitment of maintenance workers in a parastatal

The mean (x), standard deviation (SD), minimum (MIN), maximum (MAX), skewness and kurtosis for the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire, and its subscales are reported in Table 15 with a discussion on the findings following.

A Likert-type scale was employed to capture participants’ responses regarding the total, affective, continuance and normative components of organisational commitment with scale indications ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.
Table 15

Descriptive statistics of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>MIN</th>
<th>MAX</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>3,39</td>
<td>0,76</td>
<td>1,50</td>
<td>5,00</td>
<td>0,02</td>
<td>-0,55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>3,47</td>
<td>0,68</td>
<td>1,17</td>
<td>5,00</td>
<td>-0,29</td>
<td>0,42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>3,34</td>
<td>0,83</td>
<td>1,17</td>
<td>5,00</td>
<td>-0,18</td>
<td>-0,14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>3,40</td>
<td>0,59</td>
<td>1,78</td>
<td>4,78</td>
<td>-0,06</td>
<td>-0,25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>3,40</td>
<td>0,59</td>
<td>1,78</td>
<td>4,78</td>
<td>-0,06</td>
<td>-0,25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 15 the total average of organisational commitment of the participants is 3,40 representing above average levels of organisational commitment. This finding suggests that participants are committed to the organisation albeit that a high score on organisational commitment could correlate rather highly with job insecurity, which according to literature, will be characterised by reduced levels of commitment, trust, less pride in the company and intentions to quit (Ashford et al., 1989; Heany et al., 1994; Liam, 1996; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996). The highest mean score was obtained on the organisational commitment continuance scale indicating respondents’ need to continue working for the organisation with marginally lower scores on the affective and normative facets which means that they still want to stay with the organisation (affective) because they feel they ought to (normative). The minimum score is 1 and the maximum 4,78. Furthermore the skewness and kurtosis values are indicative of a normal distribution.

Paragraphs 4.2.4, 4.2.5 and 4.2.6 conclude then with providing answers to the specific research objective set, namely to determine the levels of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal.

4.2.7 The relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction

In this study, Pearson’s product-moment coefficient of correlation (r) was used to determine the linear relationship between the variables of the various measuring instruments. The cut-off point
for practical significance of correlations between variables is applied according to the criteria by Cohen (1988) namely correlation is practical significant $r = 0.30$ (medium effect) and $r = 0.50$ (large effect).

The correlation coefficients between job insecurity and job satisfaction are given in Table 16.

Table 16

*Product-moment Correlation Coefficients between the job insecurity and job satisfaction*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Job Insecurity Affective ($r$)</th>
<th>Job Insecurity Cognitive ($r$)</th>
<th>Job Insecurity Total ($r$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction ($r$)</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is practically significant $r = 0.30$ (medium effect)

**Correlation is practically significant $r = 0.50$ (large effect)

Table 16 shows no practically significant correlations between:

- Job insecurity (affective) and job satisfaction (total);
- Job insecurity (cognitive) and job satisfaction (total);
- Job insecurity (total) and job satisfaction (total).

Hence it can be deduced that job insecurity and its facets (affective and cognitive) is not related to job satisfaction. This finding is contrary from literature suggesting that job insecurity has been associated with lowered job satisfaction (Ashford et al., 1989, Hartley et al., 1991; Heany & House, 1994, Probst & Brubaker, 2001). A possible explanation for this could be that the participants in this study experienced above average to high levels of job satisfaction but future research is needed before definite deductions can be made in this regard.

The hypothesis is not accepted for relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction of maintenance workers at a parastatal.

4.2.8 The relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment

Pearson’s product-moment coefficient of correlation ($r$) was used to determine the linear relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment and is given in Table 17.
Table 17

Product-moment Correlation Coefficients between job insecurity and organisational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Job Insecurity Affective (r)</th>
<th>Job Insecurity Cognitive (r)</th>
<th>Job Insecurity Total (r)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment Affective</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment Continuance</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment Normative</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment Total</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is practically significant $r = 0.30$ (medium effect)
** Correlation is practically significant $r = 0.50$ (large effect)

Table 17 indicates no significant correlations between job insecurity and organisational commitment including its facets (affective, continuance and normative) in the maintenance group. Hence, no practically significant relationship exists between job insecurity and organisational commitment which is contrary to the findings of Ashford et al. (1989); Van Vuuren (1990), Davy et al. (1997), Lord and Hartley (1998) and Probst (1999) suggesting that organisational commitment will decrease when job insecurity prevails. A possible explanation for no significant correlations found between these two variables could be ascribed to the fact that the participants in this study experienced above average to high levels of organisational commitment, and that most of the respondents report that they are uncertain about their experience of job insecurity, but future research is needed before definite deductions can be made.

The hypothesis is not accepted for relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal.

4.2.9 The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Pearson’s product-moment coefficient of correlation (r) was used to determine the linear relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment and is given in Table 18.
Table 18
Product-moment Correlation Coefficients between the job satisfaction and the organisational commitment questionnaire for the Total Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Affective Commitment (r)</th>
<th>Continuance Commitment (r)</th>
<th>Normative Commitment (r)</th>
<th>Total Commitment (r)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.52**</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.37*</td>
<td>0.50**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is practically significant $r = 0.30$ (medium effect)
** Correlation is practically significant $r = 0.50$ (large effect)

Table 18 shows the following significant correlation coefficients (of medium and large effect) in the maintenance group:

- Normative Commitment correlates positively with Job Satisfaction, (medium effect),
- Affective Commitment correlates positively with Job Satisfaction, (large effect), and
- Total Commitment correlates positively with Job Satisfaction (large effect).

It can be deduced that a practically significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal. This finding implies that when one variable increases the other will also increase. For this study, it can be assumed that when the level of job satisfaction increase, there would be a tendency that the level of organisational commitment could increase and vice versa, suggesting a linear relationship. Furthermore it would seem that the higher the degree of job satisfaction participants experience, the stronger the commitment to the organisation is. Also, respondents will stay with the organisation because they want to (affective), and because they feel they ought to (normative) continue working for the organisation, which will lead to an increase in the total organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

Therefore it is concluded that there is a correlation of large effect between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This finding is supported by Baker and Baker (1999) and De Coninck and Bachman (1994) who reported practically significant correlations of 0.64 and 0.63 (large effect) respectively. The hypothesis is partially accepted for the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal.
Paragraphs 4.2.7, 4.2.8 and 4.2.9 conclude then, with providing answers to the specific research objectives set, namely to determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal and to determine the effect different levels of job insecurity have on the levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal.

4.2.10 Effect sizes for demographical groups and job insecurity

Effect sizes will be used to determine practically significant differences between means of demographical groups for job insecurity by applying the following formula:

\[ d = \left( \frac{x_1 - x_2}{S_{\text{max}}} \right) \]

where

\( x_1 \) = arithmetic mean for the first group of a specific demographical classification

\( x_2 \) = arithmetic mean for the second group of a specific demographical classification

\( S_{\text{max}} \) = highest standard deviation of the two groups

For the purpose of the present study, \( d \) - values 0.5 (medium effect) and \( d = 0.8 \) (large effect) are viewed as practically significant (Steyn, 1999).

Table 19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Job Insecurity (Total)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Effect sizes (d)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender (Male)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (Female)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race (Black)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race (White)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group &lt; 35 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group = 36 - 45 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group &gt; 46 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications &lt; Std 6</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications = Std 6-10</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications &gt; Std 10</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service years (1 to 4 years)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Effect sizes for demographical groups and job insecurity

Effect sizes will be used to determine practically significant differences between means of demographical groups for job insecurity by applying the following formula:

\[ d = \left( \frac{x_1 - x_2}{S_{\text{max}}} \right) \]

where

\( x_1 \) = arithmetic mean for the first group of a specific demographical classification

\( x_2 \) = arithmetic mean for the second group of a specific demographical classification

\( S_{\text{max}} \) = highest standard deviation of the two groups

For the purpose of the present study, \( d \) - values 0.5 (medium effect) and \( d = 0.8 \) (large effect) are viewed as practically significant (Steyn, 1999).

Table 19

Means, standard deviations and effects sizes of demographical groups for job insecurity (total)
Based on the results in Table 19, the following practically significant differences between means of demographical groups and job insecurity exist.

Regarding job insecurity and qualifications, a practically significant difference of large effect was established for respondents holding qualifications below Std 6 and higher than Std 10. Also, for respondents holding qualifications in the groups below Std 6 and between Std 6 to 10 as well having post matric qualifications, a practically significant difference of medium effect was indicated. Respondents with qualifications less than Std 6 seem to experience more job insecurity compared to the other groups, indicating some relationship between job insecurity and qualifications. The finding of a positive relationship between job insecurity and qualifications, more specifically lower qualifications contributing to job insecurity is supported by Schaufeli (1992) reporting that the experience of job insecurity is less problematic to those with higher levels of education since they might found alternative employment more easier. The robustness
of this finding needs to be tested by others since research indicated that job insecurity correlate with low level of organisational commitment (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Van Vuuren, 1990; De Witte 1997).

A practically significant difference of medium effect was established for job insecurity and service years of groups (1-4 years) and (5-15 years). Therefore there is some indication of a relationship between job insecurity and the classification of respondents into service years. Respondents with the service year (1–4) experiencing a significantly lower level of job insecurity compared to the other groups. Ruvio and Rosenblatt (1999) found a significant relationship between job insecurity and seniority.

Practically significant difference of large effect was found for respondents graded on AA and BU, AA and CL, BU and CU and above as well as CL and CU and above, suggesting some indication of a relationship between job insecurity and the classification of respondents into job grades. Also, practically significant difference of medium effect was found for respondents graded on BL and BU, BL and CL, BL and CU and above. These findings suggest that respondents graded on BU and CL levels are experiencing significant higher levels of job insecurity compare to those on other job grades.

Orpen (1993) found similar correlation between job insecurity and both anxiety and depression for managers and for plant workers, even though, in general, the jobs of the managers were more secure than those of the lower status. The result found in this study warrants further research to test the robustness of the findings.

Practically significant differences of large effect were found for respondents belonging to the categories professional and semi-skilled, professional and unskilled, semi-professional and semi-skilled, semi-professional and unskilled as well as skilled and semi-skilled. Also, practically significant differences of medium effect were found for respondents belonging to the professional and skilled category and the skilled and unskilled category. These findings indicate some relationship between job insecurity experienced and categorical groups. Respondents in the categories of unskilled and semi-skilled seem to experience significantly more job insecurity than the rest. This finding corresponds with De Witte’s (1994) findings that job insecurity is more of a burden to blue collar workers than to white collar workers or professionals.
Regarding job insecurity and the unions to which respondents are affiliated, practically significant differences of large effect was found between NUMSA and MWU and NUMSA and Non-members. Also, practically significant differences of medium effect were found between NUM and NUMSA, NUM and MWU as well as NUM and Non-members. These findings indicate some relationship between job insecurity experienced and the classification of respondents into union groups. Hence, respondents affiliated to NUMSA seem to experience significantly more job insecurity than those affiliated to MWU, NUM and non-members. Van Vuuren, (1994) mentions that the experience of job insecurity could increase the readiness of employees to safeguard their employment in an organisation and might look for support with a labour union.

Furthermore, from Table 19, no practically significant differences were found with relation to job insecurity for job insecurity and gender, job insecurity and race, and job insecurity and age groups. The mentioned three groups experience job insecurity despite no practically significant relationship being found. The finding for job insecurity and gender corresponds with De Witte (1999) concluding that job insecurity is distressing to both males and females. Regarding job insecurity and race no related research evidence could be found and for job insecurity and age De Witte (1999) reported that people between 30 and 50 years old found the consequences of unemployment distressing although it is unclear whether these age differences also apply to the experience of job insecurity.

Finally the researcher agrees with Hartley et al.'s (1991) conclusions that demographical variables are filtered through cognitive appraisal. Only when employees feel that their personal characteristics e.g. age, make them more vulnerable, are these characteristics correlated with job insecurity. Therefore the basic hypothesis is partially accepted for the relationship between job insecurity and demographical groups of maintenance workers at a parastatal.

Next, the results of a regression analysis of job insecurity (as independent variable) and job satisfaction and organisational commitment will be reported.
4.3 REGRESSION ANALYSES

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). The effect size (which indicates practical significance) in the case of multiple regression analysis is given by the following formula (Cohen, 1988):

$$\hat{f}^2 = \frac{R^2}{1 - R^2}$$

A guideline value of $\hat{f}^2 = 0.01$ for a small effect, $\hat{f}^2 = 0.10$ for a medium effect and $\hat{f}^2 = 0.35$ large effect, was set for practical significance of $\hat{f}^2$.

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 independent variables are shown in Table 20.

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

Table 20

Regression Analysis of Job Insecurity, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment for the maintenance group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$R = 0.375$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2 = 0.141$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source of variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of squares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean squares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F = 7.07 and $\hat{f}^2 = 0.164$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dependent Variables (Job Insecurity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant variable (Intercept)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment (Affective)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment (Continuance)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 20 demonstrates that job satisfaction and organisational commitment (as measured by the Job Insecurity Questionnaire) explain a total of 14,1% of the variance in job insecurity. The multiple correlation coefficient of 0,375 is practically significant (medium effect) ($r^2 = 0,164$) indicating some relationship. Thus, job satisfaction and organisational commitment predict 14,1% of the variance in job insecurity indicating some relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Further research is needed in this regard. The specific research objective regarding whether job satisfaction and organisational commitment can predict job insecurity, is reached.

The results of the regression analysis with job satisfaction (as measured by the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire) as dependent variable and organisational commitment (as measured by the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire) as independent variable is shown in Table 21.

### 4.3.2 Regression analysis regarding job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Table 21

*Regression Analysis of Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$R = 0,55$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2 = 0,302$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F = 25,08$ and $f = 0,43$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variance</th>
<th>Degrees of freedom</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>55,61</td>
<td>8,02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>79,66</td>
<td>0,31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dependent Variable (Job Satisfaction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment (Affective)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment (Continuance)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 21 demonstrates that a total of 30.2% of the variance in total job satisfaction (as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire) is explained by organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment). The multiple correlation coefficient of 0.55 is practically significant (large effect) ($R^2 = 0.43$). The findings indicate that organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment), predict approximately 30.2% of the variance in job satisfaction of respondents in the maintenance group, hence a lagged relationship exists since job satisfaction can be predicted by organisational commitment.

The above analysis was not part of the specific objectives for this study but done for completeness value of the study.

4.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the results of the empirical study were reported and discussed. Firstly, the reliability coefficient and inter-item correlation coefficients of each instrument were reported and discussed. Secondly, the descriptive statistics were presented to indicate the level of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment experienced by the participants. Thirdly 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 practical significance of differences between means of total job insecurity and demographical groups. Lastly, multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job insecurity could be predicted by job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Contrary to findings from literature, very few relationships were found. Regarding job insecurity, no relationship was found with job satisfaction or organisational commitment since high levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment were recorded. However, between job satisfaction and organisational commitment a practically significant positive correlation was found. Effect sizes for job insecurity and demographical variables were used to determine practical significance. Again, very few practically significant relationships were found, since few or no practically significant differences amongst these variables and job insecurity existed.
Regarding the regression analysis with job insecurity as the dependent variable and job satisfaction and organisational commitment as independent variables, 14.1% of the variance in job insecurity is 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 and hypotheses have been answered and reasoned.

In Chapter 5 conclusions and limitations regarding this study are discussed and recommendations for the organisations and future research, are made.
CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters the results of the study were discussed. In this chapter, conclusions about the literature findings and the results of the empirical study are made. Limitations of the study are discussed and specific recommendations for the organisation, including future research are presented. Also, the value this study added towards industrial psychology as well as the personal significance obtained from it, will be elaborated upon.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions are made in the following paragraphs in accordance with the specific literature objectives and the empirical findings obtained in the present study.

5.2.1 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.* For the purpose of this research, job insecurity is conceptualised as the perceived threat of losing one’s job, or valued features of the job, and control or loss of control of the continuance of employment. Three components relating to job insecurity are emphasised. The first is that job insecurity is a subjective experience or perception. The same situation might be perceived differently by different employees: some will feel insecure when there is no objective reason to, while others may feel secure when their job is in fact threatened. Secondly, job insecurity implies uncertainty about the future: for the person concerned, it is uncertain whether he will be able to continue to work, or whether he will be made redundant. This situation is different from being made redundant. In the latter case the future is clear and the person can start preparing for redundancy and future (un) employment. Finally, doubts about the continuation of the job as such are central to job insecurity.
Furthermore, the experience of job insecurity relates to both cognitive and affective phenomena. The cognitive aspect of job insecurity relates to the individual’s belief of the likelihood of losing the job; whereas, the affective component of insecurity, is the concern about the likelihood of losing continuity in one’s job. Evidence from literature suggests that attitudinal and affective reactions important to organisations accompany job insecurity and the anticipation of it, is an important stressor, which cannot be ignored. Numerous studies have reported that job insecurity is related to various negative outcomes to both employee and employer. Outcomes, such as lowered job satisfaction, job performance, career satisfaction, job involvement, work and organisational commitment, physical and psychological effects, suggest that employees do not form strong attachments with the prevalence of job insecurity, and this could prove harmful to all stakeholders.

• **Job satisfaction.** For the purpose of this research, job satisfaction is regarded as an attitudinal output, which forms the criteria for job security since the result of the internal assessment between the real outcome and the ideal outcome would indicate whether employees’ needs are satisfied by their jobs. There are several factors in the work environment, as well as the characteristics of employees, that influence the extent of their expectations in the workplace. Accordingly, job satisfaction is influenced by the extent to which there is correspondence between the situational characteristics of the work environment and the dispositional characteristics of the individual employees. The affective, cognitive and conative dimensions of job satisfaction should also be distinguished. Furthermore, the concept of job satisfaction is not one-dimensional but multidimensional and complex in nature, encompassing individuals’ general attitude towards work, or to specific facets of the work. It follows from literature that job insecurity, as an organisational determinant, was found to have a negative correlation with job satisfaction and is consistently associated with a reduced level of job satisfaction.

• **Organisational commitment.** Allen and Meyer’s (1990) description regarding organisational commitment has been adopted since the instrument developed by Meyer et al. (1993) was used to measure the affective, continuance and normative commitment of the research group. Allen and Meyer contended that the net sum of a person’s commitment to the organisation
reflects three separable psychological states namely, affective attachment, perceived costs and obligation. These states are described as follows:

Affective attachment or commitment is concerned with the extent to which the individual identifies with the organisation.

Perceived costs concerns the individual’s need to continue working for the organisation and is commonly referred to as continuance commitment and,

Normative commitment or obligation is influenced by society’s norms about the extent to which people ought to be committed to the organisation.

Organisational commitment is also affected by job insecurity. Employees with perceptions of low job security are more likely to engage in work withdrawal behaviour, report lower organisational commitment that often leads to employee turnover. Also, the psychological contract for many workers might have been violated and needs redefining in order to be relevant in the modern world.

The aforementioned concludes with the specific research objective regarding the conceptualisation of job insecurity, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and the relationship between these constructs, as found in literature, having been met. Next, the conclusions from empirical objectives will be discussed.

5.2.2 Conclusions in terms of the specific empirical results of the study

The empirical findings from the research are summarised as follows:

To determine the reliability and construct validity of the measuring instruments used. All three instruments employed in this study, reported acceptable internal consistency (reliability coefficients) and construct validity (inter-item correlation) despite the cognitive scale of the job insecurity questionnaire and the subscales of the organisational commitment questionnaire reporting marginally low internal consistency. Overall, these instruments can be regarded as reliable instruments and fit for use
To determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal. The expectation that job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment will be positively related, was not supported, despite a linear relationship for job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The finding that participants in this study experienced above average to high levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment could be offered as explanation for this finding. Job insecurity and its facets (affective and cognitive) was not related to job satisfaction, which is contrary to findings that job insecurity has been associated with lowered job satisfaction (Ashford et al., 1989, Hartley et al., 1991; Heany & House, 1994, Probst & Brubaker, 2001). Job insecurity and its facets (affective and cognitive) was also found not related to organisational commitment with its facets (affective, continuance and normative), contrary to the findings of Ashford et al., (1989) Van Vuuren (1990), Davy et al. (1997) and Probst (1999) which suggest that organisational commitment will be decreasing when job insecurity prevails.

To determine the levels of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal. Overall maintenance workers seem to be unsure regarding their experience of job insecurity. In some instances it can be deduced that they experience an average to low level of job insecurity. They however, experience above average levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

To determine the practical significance between means of demographical groups for job insecurity of maintenance workers at a parastatal. Concerning the practical significance of differences between means of gender, race, and age groups for job insecurity no practically significant differences were found. This finding could be ascribed to the fact that these groups indicated that they are unsure regarding their experience of job insecurity.

Regarding job insecurity and qualifications, a practically significant difference of large effect was found for groups holding qualifications below Std 6-10 and higher than Std 10. Also, for groups holding qualifications below Std 6 and Std 6 to 10 practically significant difference of medium effect was establish. Therefore an indication of a relationship between these groups, hence low qualifications contribute to feelings of job insecurity.
Also, a practically significant difference of medium effect was established for job insecurity and service years of groups (1-4 years) and (5-15 years), suggesting that respondents with less service might experience more feelings of job insecurity compared to the rest.

Practically significant difference of large effect was found for respondents graded on AA and BU, AA and CL, BU and CU and above as well as CL and CU and above. Also, practically significant difference of medium effect was found for respondents graded on BL and CL, BL and CU and above. Therefore, there is indications of a relationship between job insecurity experienced and job grades which implies that respondents graded on BU and CL levels are experiencing significantly lower levels of job insecurity compared to those on other job grades.

In terms of the categorical groups, practically significant differences of large effect were found for respondents belonging to the categories professional and unskilled, professional and semi-skilled, semi-professional and semi-skilled, semi-professional and unskilled, as well as skilled and semi-skilled. Practically significant difference of medium effect was found for respondents in the categories professional and skilled as well as for skilled and unskilled. These findings indicate some relationship between job insecurity experienced and categorical groups. Respondents in the category of and semi-skilled seem to experience significantly more job insecurity than the rest.

Practically significant difference of large effect was found for the groups NUMSA and MWU as well as NUMSA and Non-members. Also, practically significant differences of medium effect were found for NUM and NUMSA, NUM and MWU as well as for NUM and Non-members suggesting some relationship between job insecurity and classification of respondents in unions. Respondents affiliated with NUMSA seem to experience significantly more job insecurity than the rest.

To determine whether job insecurity can be predicted by the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at a parastatal. The findings in the present study indicate that a total of 14.1% of variance in job insecurity is predicted by job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which is practically significant (medium effect).
The aforementioned then conclude with empirical objectives as found from the research having been met and discussed. The limitations of the present study will be overviewed in the next paragraph.

5.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The following limitations are evident from this study:

- The reliability coefficients of the job insecurity instrument (cognitive scale) and the subscales of the organisational commitment questionnaire used was found marginally below the norm and needs to be standardised for South African circumstances, although it has been found fit for analyses.

- Despite the large numbers of participants encouraged to participate by management, the fear that the information could be used against them, together with the haste in some instances to complete the questionnaires due to time constraints, and the low literacy level of some participants (lack of understanding), might have had an impact on the result.

- In measuring job satisfaction the short-version or Revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction questionnaire was used, which measures job satisfaction in general. Hence certain specific constructs such as salary, achievement, recognition, feedback etc. were not measured which could have provided insightful information regarding the impact these constructs have on job insecurity and organisational commitment.

- The diversity of the participants possibly could have influenced the results of research but further research is necessary to establish this observation. Ideally more females should have participated but, since the maintenance department consists mainly of males, all females were encouraged to participate.

- Consideration must be given to the lack of longitudinal data, which is necessary to match the dynamic character of job insecurity in order to be able to estimate its direct and moderated effects. The cross-sectional nature of the data and the cause-effect relationships are only theoretically valid, because data was gathered from a single department in a parastatal. This study was based on self-report questionnaire and thus the magnitude of the relationships may be inflated due to the variance common to this method.
5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION

Recommendations concerning the specific organisation used in this study include:

- Despite no positive relationship being found between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, evidence from the comparison of demographical variables for job insecurity suggests the experience of job insecurity is evident within certain groups. Therefore, to be proactive, contingencies need to be put in place to counter the emotional impact job insecurity might have on the workforce. Building trust, creating support and fostering concern for others may offer some hope for mitigating the effects of job insecurity. Possible mechanisms include implementing and maintaining structured information dissemination meetings such as work team sessions, BU-forums, IR Steering forums, toolbox meetings, staff meetings, which could assist enormously in the dissemination of information received from the top down to the bottom. Mass meetings weekly and special bulletins can also assist in this regard. In addition management can continue to pay great attention to promoting employees’ work life by supporting employee well-being programmes such as aids prevention campaigns, periodical medical health screening, participating in coaching and mentoring initiatives and in case of retrenchments, a proper consulted social plan which includes counselling programmes for those affected, being implemented. In the latter case employee retraining programmes and job banks for laid-off workers are recommended, but employees must take advantage of the education and training opportunities offered. There are both sides to the coin. Employers sometimes offer opportunities that employees don’t take advantage of, hence the responsibility on both sides.

- Employees might feel pressurised to work long hours due to job insecurity. Empirical research has indicated that working consistently for long hours do reflect itself in employee ill-health, both physical and psychological. Furthermore industry works on the gross assumption that long means efficient but there is a break-even point, in that both employees and employers must ensure that they have good health and a balanced home life if they are to provide added value to their products and services. Let us remember the three things that people need to be happy in their work namely, they must be fit for it; they must not do too much of it; and they must have a sense of success.
- Change management interventions emphasising the negative effect job insecurity can have should be introduced at all levels in the organisation. These programmes should contain information of this study, which will assist in improving the resiliency of the workforce. Also, since the stress of job insecurity cannot be removed for many employees, stress management workshops that teach effective coping strategies may be useful.

- Reinforce the importance of maintaining strong communication channels with employees. Management to devise methods of keeping employees informed at all levels of developments within the organisation which will serve as a “buffer” regarding feelings towards job insecurity and the “spin-off” thereof might be the building of trust and enhancing job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The managerial/ supervisory role in this regard is crucial to ensure information is relayed but understanding of this information is critical. It is imperative that the management recognises that it is what the workers perceive as happening that will dictate their reactions to management’s actions.

- Generally, increasing commitment could also be approached from the individual employee’s point of view. For example, management could increase commitment by having more trust in their employees. Management first has to trust their employees, and trust between management and subordinates are something that can only be built up over a period of time - reciprocal process. Management will have to take the first step towards building trust and in the long term, employees will then exhibit greater commitment.

- Employees also appreciate more freedom in their jobs. By imposing more restrictions on how employees can perform their jobs, management will only be stifling any creativity on the part of employees. What is of concern is the creation of resentment towards management for restricting their freedom and this could lead to less commitment to the organisation. It is also very important for management to be committed to the organisation itself, for few employees will be committed if his employer is not. In addition, ensuring that employees’ interests are aligned with that of the organisation will naturally lead to greater commitment from employees since enhancing the organisation’s goals would also lead to the fulfilment of their objectives and interests.
• The study should be repeated after the organisational changes have been introduced (in two to three year's time from now). It could prove valuable to compare the results found in both studies.

5.5 FUTURE RESEARCH

Recommendations concerning future research include:

• In this study a cross-sectional design was employed to assess interrelationships among variables within a population. For future research it is recommended that research be repeated using a Longitudinal design where the same sample of respondents is interviewed more than once to determine the direction and extent of change for individual respondents.

• The exact study should be repeated in other South African organisations applying the same instruments and statistical methods to compare results found. This will ensure a meaningful South African job insecurity database being established.

• Job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment should be investigated in relation to other work outcomes such as productivity, performance and turnover. Also, a study between job insecurity and the relationship between psychological strengths from fortigenic paradigm will add value.

• The effects that the implementation of legislative measures such as the employment equity bill, has on the job security perceptions of those affected, could prove valuable for future research.

5.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The contribution of this study is presented by distinguishing between the contributions made on subject and personal levels, which follows.

5.6.1 Subject

The contribution regarding the subject is as follows:

• Intensive literature study has been conducted to generate better understanding regarding the phenomenon of job insecurity and its potentially negative consequences.
• In partnership with De Witte the job insecurity questionnaire was used with the objective to attempt to standardise the instrument for South African circumstances, in order to compare South-African data with European data.

• The large sample group participating (178 respondents from a total population of 300), contributes to the results being regarded as a true reflection of the total maintenance groups’ perceptions regarding the variables measured in this study.

• A study of job insecurity per sé is the first to be conducted at PU for CHE, as far as could be established and the gaining of data could assist in future research projects.

5.6.2 Personal

The researcher gained the following personal value from the research:

• The interest or curiosity of the researcher regarding the phenomenon of job insecurity and its potentially negative consequences was addressed, albeit from literature. In addition the large sample participating in the study, was encouraging.

• Also, the passion the researcher has towards the optimisation of human resources for both organisational and individual benefit was stimulated.

• The information gained from this research creates opportunities to proactively develop and implement change and stress management programmes which could assist in ensuring optimal employee health and organisational survival.

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The researcher found a paradox regarding the job insecurity phenomenon. According to the high priest of the new technology, it is out of date to offer employees job security and that employees should decide between a labour contract with high prospective rewards, which may not last very long, and more secure jobs that pay less. One should not suggest that the solution is an easy one.

A difficulty is that many of the past “jobs for life” are not guaranteed anymore, despite the “psychological contract” or even the unspoken assumption that employees could expect to stay where they are, if their work was satisfactory. Hence, Frankl’s existential principle of having choices and taking responsibility for them, applies.
Considering the findings, it seems that the phenomenon of job insecurity is more complicated than was initially thought. It is with this in mind that the organisation needs to consider carefully how they manage and implement change in an attempt to limit any negative effect that this change may have on the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of their employees. In addition, the good business results achieved the previous financial year might distort the general thinking that all is well. The nature and dynamics of job insecurity are, however, such that it is only with caution that any research findings can be taken out of context and applied as a general solution in an unrelated environment. At best these findings can only serve as pointers in a specific direction.

In this chapter conclusions were made based on the theoretical and empirical data found. The limitations found in this study were indicated and recommendations regarding future research were made. The objective set for this chapter, namely to provide conclusions and recommendations, has been met, according to the researcher.

5.8 CONCLUSION

The research has been concluded with the completion of chapter 5. The attempted objectives formulated for this research were addressed and attained within the study.
REFERENCE LIST


APPENDIX 1: THE MEASURING BATTERY

Dear Sir/Madam

I am conducting research for a Master’s degree in Industrial Psychology at the University of Potchefstroom. The purpose of the research is to determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers in a parastatal.

The changes facing the organisation might enhance feelings of job insecurity amongst employees. Hence the research in this regard to assess, proactively whether job insecurity will affect the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of maintenance workers at this business unit, and if so, to what extent. Ultimately this research can contribute towards developing a change intervention programme, which would benefit both employee and employer’s understanding of the changes and business decisions often made within organisation impacting on people.

To achieve these objectives I need your co-operation and assistance in this research by answering the attached questionnaire, which should take 20 minutes to complete.

Your participation in this research is valued, however it is also voluntary and you may withdraw at any time. Anonymity is guaranteed, as you don’t need to put your name on the questionnaire. Your answers will be confidential. Feedback regarding the findings will be made available on request.

Your time, co-operation and support towards completing this questionnaire is much appreciated.

Yours sincerely

__________________________  ______________________  ______________________
Dr JH Buitendach            Rabie Heymans            Hennie Nel
University of Potchefstroom  Researcher              Maintenance Manager
SECTION ONE

Bibliographical information

Please answer the following questions by marking the appropriate boxes:

1. Gender: male □ 1 female □ 2

2. Race: black □ 1 white □ 2

3. In which age group do you fall?
   - 35 years and younger □ 1
   - 36 - 45 years □ 2
   - 46 years and older □ 3

4. Highest qualification
   - Below Std 6 □ 1
   - Std 6-10 □ 2
   - Std 10 and h □ 3

5. How many continuous years in service do you have?
   - 1 to 4 years □ 1
   - 5 to 15 years □ 2
   - Longer than 16 years □ 3

6. Please indicate your grading: (according to the Paterson job grading system)
   - AA Band □ 1
   - BL Band □ 2
7. Indicate which of the following categories you belong to:

- Professional (registered) [___] 1
- Semi-professional [___] 2
- Skilled [___] 3
- Semi-skilled [___] 4
- Unskilled (general worker) [___] 5

8. Do you have any subordinates reporting to you?

- Yes [___] 1
- No [___] 2

9. Please indicate which section in Maintenance you work for:

- MMS Power Plant [___] 1
- Electrical Maintenance [___] 6
- MMS Outside Plant [___] 2
- Project Management [___] 7
- Maintenance Services [___] 3
- Maintenance Training [___] 8
- Contract Management [___] 4
- Control & Instrumentation [___] 9
- Tech & OPS [___] 5

10. Please indicate the union you are affiliated to:

- NUM [___] 1
- NUMSA [___] 2
- MWU SOLIDARITY [___] 3
- NON-MEMBER [___] 4
Questionnaire on job insecurity (section 2), job satisfaction (section 3), and organisational commitment (section 4) following. Read all statements carefully, note the scales supplied and then decide where on the scale to work your response using a clearly marked X.

Be frank and honest. Do not spend too much time on any particular question. Rather be spontaneous by giving your initial response to each question. Work as quickly as you can. There are no right or wrong answers.

SECTION TWO

Job Insecurity

Please read each of the statements listed below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by checking it against the description of the scale supplied.

1. I am afraid I will get fired / be dismissed.
2. I am worried about keeping my job.
3. I fear I will lose my job.
4. The fact I might become unemployed frightens me.
5. I feel insecure about the future of my job.
6. The chance I will get fired is small.
7. I think I might get fired in the near future.
8. Chances are I will soon lose my job.
9. I think I can continue working for my organisation.
10. I am sure I can keep my job.
11. I feel secure about my job.

Strongly agree Agree Unsure Disagree Strongly disagree
1 2 3 4 5
SECTION THREE

Job Satisfaction

Please rate the extent to which you feel dissatisfied or satisfied with the following statements by checking it against the description of the scale supplied.

1. Being able to keep busy all the time.  
   Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

2. The chance to work alone on the job.  
   Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

3. The chance to do different things from time to time.  
   Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

4. The chance to be “somebody” in the community.  
   Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

5. The way my supervisor handles his/her workers.  
   Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.  
   Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

7. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience.  
   Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

8. The way my job provides for steady employment.  
   Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

9. The chance to do things for other people.  
   Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

10. The chance to tell people what to do.  
    Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.  
    Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied

12. The way company policies are put into practice.  
    Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Very Satisfied
13. My pay and the amount of the work I do.

Very Dissatisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Satisfied

14. The chances for advancement in this job.

Very Dissatisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Satisfied

15. The freedom to use my own judgement.

Very Dissatisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Satisfied

16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.

Very Dissatisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Satisfied

17. The working conditions.

Very Dissatisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Satisfied

18. The way my co-workers get along with each other.

Very Dissatisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Satisfied

19. The praise I get for doing a good job.

Very Dissatisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Satisfied

20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from my job.

Very Dissatisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Satisfied

SECTION FOUR

Organisational Commitment Questionnaire:

Please read each of the statements listed below and indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of the statements below by checking it against the description of the scale supplied.

1 = Strongly disagree. 2 = Disagree. 3 = Unsure. 4 = Agree. 5 = Strongly agree.

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organisation.

Strongly disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Strongly agree

2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.

Strongly disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Strongly agree

3. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.
4. I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own.

**Strongly disagree [1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree**

5. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation right now.

**Strongly disagree [1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree**

6. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now.

**Strongly disagree [1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree**

7. I do not feel like “part of the family” in my organisation.

**Strongly disagree [1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree**

8. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

**Strongly disagree [1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree**

9. I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.

**Strongly disagree [1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree**

10. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organisation.

**Strongly disagree [1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree**

11. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

**Strongly disagree [1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree**

12. My organisation deserves my loyalty.

**Strongly disagree [1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree**
13. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

14. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

15. I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

16. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

17. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

18. I owe a great deal to my organisation

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

Thank you very much for your time and effort in completing this questionnaire.