

**JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATION COMMITMENT WITHIN THE SOUTH
AFRICAN CONTEXT: THE ROLE OF SITUATIONAL AND DISPOSITIONAL
ANTECEDENTS**

INAUGURAL LECTURE OF PROF LTB JACKSON (MA.; PhD.; MBA; SPED.)

Thursday, 15 October 2015, Senate Hall, Joon Van Rooyen Building (F1), Potchefstroom
Campus, North-West University, Potchefstroom

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ABSTRACT

It has long been recognised that employees' job attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction, organisation commitment), defined as "evaluations of one's job that express one's feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one's job" (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012:343), can have important implications at work (e.g. performance, withdrawal). Their practical and empirical relevance has maintained the prolific nature of job attitudes research for nearly a century. This trend has also taken off within the South African context. This paper provides a summary of a selection of my papers that have dealt with employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisation commitment. The paper starts by defining and conceptualising job satisfaction and organisation commitment. It then turns to discussing the importance of job satisfaction and organisation commitment. Next, it focuses on dispositional and situational antecedents of job satisfaction and organisation commitment. Lastly, it highlights the importance of the mentioned scientific contributions.

Keywords: Employee attitudes, situational variables, dispositional variables, job satisfaction, organisation commitment, mediation

1 Introduction

Every social science research project should be an inquiry into previous investigations; for without this step an integrated comprehensive picture of the world cannot be built (Glass, 1976). Progress in social science comes from building upon the efforts of those who have worked before. This is true in regards not only to specific hypotheses and theories, but also to methods practiced in research (Cooper, 1989).

It has long been recognised that employees' job attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction, organisational commitment), defined as "evaluations of one's job that express one's feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one's job" (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012:343), can have important implications at work (e.g. performance, withdrawal) (Brief, 1998; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Schleicher, Hansen, & Fox, 2010). Their practical and empirical relevance has maintained the prolific nature of job attitudes research for nearly a century. Indeed, Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) recently reported a literature search revealing 33 348 records for "job attitudes," "work attitudes," "job satisfaction," or "organisational commitment." When preparing this paper, I found a staggering 2 680 000 records for only "job attitudes, 2 400 000 records for job satisfaction and 479 000 records for organisation commitment on Google Scholar three years later in 2015. This seems to confirm the notion of the popularity of employee attitudes (especially job satisfaction) as one of the most widely discussed and studied constructs in disciplines such as psychology, human resource management, organisational management, economics and healthcare (Castaneda & Scanlan, 2014). Despite their empirical popularity, there remains much to learn about job attitudes, especially within the South African context.

2. Job satisfaction and organisation commitment within the South African context

The primary focus of my research over the past 15 years focused on:

- 2.1 the conceptualisation of employee attitudes such as job satisfaction
- 2.2 the importance of job satisfaction and organisation commitment
- 2.3 dispositional and situational correlates of job satisfaction and organisation commitment

2.1 Conceptualisation of employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisation commitment

Job satisfaction is an affective (emotional) reaction to a job, which stems from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with the required outcomes (Cranny, Smith & Stone, 1992). According to Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967), employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment. Correspondence with the environment can be described in terms of the individual fulfilling the requirements of the environment, and the environment fulfilling the requirements of the individual (Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr, 1981). This means 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 (Dawis, 1992; Roberts & Roseanne, 1998). According to Sutherland and Canwell (2004) and Lee, Magnini, and Kim (2011), job satisfaction

refers to the attitude that employees have about the work they carry out, and the level of satisfaction that correlates with the degree of involvement people have within the organisation. Furthermore, in order for employees to be satisfied, they must be in a job that suits their personality and expertise, be paid fairly, have appropriate resources, adequate working conditions, and a supportive manager.

Despite numerous definitions of job satisfaction (Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr, 1981; Cranny, Smith & Stone, 1992; Dawis, 1992; Lee, Magnini & Kim, 2011; Roberts & Roseanne, 1998; Sutherland & Canwell, 2004; Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967), in the literature, relatively less is known about how especially lower-level employees conceptualise job satisfaction. We (Jackson & Theron, 2015) recently used five focus groups and asked 40 employees with mainly low educational attainment at a chemical industry production “what they think job satisfaction is.” A total of 22 comments were made, and 27 phrases were extracted with reference to the question “What is job satisfaction?” Respondents indicated that they think job satisfaction is about employment, including having a job (17), need fulfilment and goal achievement (5), recognition and rewards (4), and personal attitudes.

Respondents indicated that they think job satisfaction is about employment, including having a job, need fulfilment and goal achievement, recognition and rewards and personal attitudes. It is important to note that respondents conceptualise job satisfaction in terms of emotion experiences of employment itself or having a job. Phrases in this regard included elements of employment itself, having a job, coming to work, looking forward to getting to work, coming from work, how you work, being able to work, doing work you can with the job you do, having the right resources to do the job, being able to function in a safe environment and making a difference.

It is very important to note that the majority did include the word *happy* to explain what job satisfaction is. This concurs with the majority of definitions that perceive job satisfaction to be an emotional and affective reaction to one’s work. Job satisfaction can be seen as a positive concept (Utriainen & Kynga, 2009) described as a positive affective orientation (Mueller & McCloskey, 1990) or a degree of positive affects (Adams & Bond, 2002) towards a job or its components. Some authors (Meeusen, van Dam, van Zundert & Knape., 2010; Weiss, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) conceptualised job satisfaction as an indicator of subjective well-being, as an attitude with the affective (feelings and emotions) and the cognitive (attitudes towards the job) component. The cognitive component of job satisfaction includes reflective cognitive evaluation (the extent to which values and needs of employees are consistent with their perceptions of specific job aspects) (Meeusen *et al.*, 2010; Weiss & Cropanzano, 2006).

Another significant finding is the fact that the majority of phrases used to describe what job satisfaction is relate to *having a job, being able to work, coming to work, looking forward to going to work and doing work you can*. These phrases could highlight the fact that the majority of the sample has low educational attainment and doing blue collar jobs as well as the fact that South Africans, in general, experience a very high unemployment rate, with those with lower educational attainment suffering the most. South Africa’s unemployment rate climbed to 26.4% as the economy expanded just 1.3% in the first three months of 2015, official data showed, compared

with a 24.3% unemployment rate and 4.1% growth rate in the last quarter of 2014 (StatsSA, 2015).

It is also interesting to note that employees mentioned being able to work as well as to *return home after work* as elements that constitute job satisfaction. This could be related to the labour unrest culture that plagues the South African labour market in general. These strikes also have a tendency to turn violent where loss of life is common. This means that being able to return home after work is not accepted as a given for certain members of the sample. It is interesting to quote the article of Iris Cepero (2013) on recent industrial unrest in South Africa on the British Safety Council website (<https://sm.britsafe.org/south-africa-long-way-safety>). While the incident in Marikana is certainly unprecedented in South Africa's recent past, the rebellion that drove the strike at the mine last year can be located within a greater culture of protest that has become a mainstay of South African life. In 2010, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) recorded a total of 74 national strikes (21 more than the year before), the majority of them (17) in the mining and quarrying sector. In 2012, the country experienced more protests than in any other year since the end of the apartheid (See more at: <https://sm.britsafe.org/south-africa-long-way-safety#sthash.qq4DUOB9.dpuf>).

Organisation commitment is a psychological state that drives employee-organisation bonding by governing an employee's decision as to whether to continue their membership of the employing organisation and to exert their efforts to achieve organisation goals (Mowday, Porter & Steers 1982). Organisation commitment is directly related to identification and emotional attachment to the organisation (Yalabik, Popaitoon, Chowne & Rayton, 2013). Sukal (2009:17) defined organisation commitment as a work-related outcome that describes an employee's psychological attachment to the organisation. As was the case with job satisfaction, it is envisaged that a qualitative route would be taken in the near future to gain insight into a South African conceptualisation of the employee attitude of organisation commitment.

2.2 The importance of job satisfaction and organisation commitment

Employee attitudes, such as organisation commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction are important for managers (McCook, 2002). On the one hand, they represent important outcomes that managers may want to enhance. On the other hand, they are symptomatic of other potential problems. For example, low job satisfaction may be a symptom of employee intention to quit.

The assessment of job satisfaction is important and relevant for a number of reasons. Firstly, job satisfaction is relevant for scholars interested in the subjective evaluation of work conditions, such as job characteristics (Schjoedt, 2009). Secondly, job satisfaction is relevant for managers and researchers interested in organisation outcomes, such as organisation commitment (Rutherford, Boles, Hamwi, Madupalli, & Rutherford, 2009; Tsai & Huang, 2008), organisation citizenship behaviour, absenteeism, turnover or intentions to quit the job (DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004; Rutherford et al., 2009). Thirdly, job satisfaction is assumed to be associated with various relevant job aspects, such as organisation commitment (Jackson & Sekhosana, 2011; Jackson & Vahed, 2013; Yavas & Bordur, 1999).

Social exchange theory suggests that a sense of responsibility is cultivated in employees who receive valued exchange content from their employers, and that this results in reciprocity with attitudes and behaviours of value to the employer (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). Business leaders are more likely to frame the importance of organisation commitment in terms of attracting, motivating and retaining key talent (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001). Employees who are low in organisation commitment are more likely to miss work and engage in counterproductive behaviours, such as theft, sabotage and aggression (Luchak & Gellatly, 2007). The level of organisation commitment is related to other outcomes such as productivity, job satisfaction, absenteeism and turnover (Sukal, 2009).

Jackson and Mukondiwa (2013) recently confirmed the significant links between job satisfaction and organisation commitment and other important employee outcomes when they found that job satisfaction was related to organisation citizenship (.43), organisation commitment (.62), job involvement (.60), work engagement (.71) and intentions to quit (-.55). Significant links were also confirmed between organisation commitment and organisation citizenship (.37), job satisfaction (.62), job involvement (.62), work engagement (.64) and intentions to quit (-.48) (Jackson & Mukondiwa, 2013). Jackson, van der Vijver and Laurie (submitted) also confirmed positive relations between subjective experiences of work success and job satisfaction (.22 for whites and .26 for blacks) and organisation commitment (.20 for whites and .30 for blacks).

2.3 Dispositional and situational correlates of job satisfaction (and organisation commitment)

Researchers have mainly taken on three approaches to research, define and explain what it is that makes people satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. The first approach is where the environment or situation leads employees to be satisfied or dissatisfied (situational approach). Situational features or dimensions include, among others, teamwork, leadership traits, recognition, communication, organisational culture, the work itself, working conditions, rank of the employee, and remuneration. According to Arvey, Carter and Buerkley (1991), situational factors account for 40 to 60% of the variance in job satisfaction.

The second approach is where the disposition or personality of the employees determines whether or not they will like or dislike the job (*dispositional approach*). Arvey et al. (1991) found that personal dispositions account for only 10 to 30% of the variance in job satisfaction. This is supported by Soni (2003:13) who found that some personality dimensions (agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, stability, openness) are indeed related to some aspects of job satisfaction, but that overall personality dimensions explained relatively small variances in job satisfaction.

A third approach is that which combines the situational and dispositional approaches (*interactional approach*). This approach identifies that there needs to be a person-job fit due to different individuals being satisfied with different job conditions (Spector, 2000; Schneider & Dachler, 1978). It can therefore be hypothesised that an organisation or its managers can create an environment that is conducive to job

satisfaction as it is the work itself that brings fulfilment (Tietjen & Myers, 1998:231), but that it ultimately depends on the individuals to motivate themselves (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006:xxiv). Arvey et al. (1991) suggest that interactional factors account for 10 to 20% of the variance in job satisfaction.

2.3.1 The dispositional approach to job satisfaction

For my master's dissertation, I focused on the role of dispositions in predicting job satisfaction. The dispositions or personal characteristics considered in this project included sense of coherence, generalised self-efficacy and locus of control. The results of this project, which were published in a Romanian journal, *Revista Psihologie De Aplicataomania*, indicated that in line with the findings of Arvey et al. (1991), Jackson and Rothmann (2001) confirmed that sense of coherence (20%), self-efficacy (2%) and locus of control [external control (3%), internal control (4%) and autonomy (1%)] predict a total of 30% of the variance of total job satisfaction (as measured by the MSQ). The multiple correlations suggest that if employees have a high sense of coherence, a low external locus of control, a high internal locus of control and a high level of autonomy, they will be more satisfied with their jobs.

2.3.2 The situational approach to job satisfaction

I also recently considered the situational approach to the study of job satisfaction (and organisation commitment) in various projects using South African samples to examine the role of mentoring functions (Jackson & Sekhosana, 2011), organisation exchanges or currencies (Jackson & Mukondiwa, 2013), organisation support (Jackson & Vahed, 2013), quality values (Jackson & Vahed, 2013), change management principles (Jackson & Ruiters, 2012), job demands and resources (Jackson, Rothmann & van de Vijver, 2006; Jackson, 2015), multicultural climate (Jackson, van der Vijver & Laurie, submitted), race relations (Jackson & van der Vijver, submitted), leadership orientations (Jackson & Kolisang, 2012), and transformational leadership (Jackson & Lushozi, 2014; Jackson, submitted).

The role of mentoring functions

The relationships between mentors (people who provide career and psychosocial support) and a junior person (the protégé, if male; protégés if female) have been shown to involve both career (coaching, *protection*, challenging assignments and exposure) and *psychological* (friendship, *role-modelling*, counselling and acceptance) functions for the protégés (Parise & Forret, 2007; Eby & Lockwood, 2004). Empirical systematic research has demonstrated that mentoring provides advantages for both the organisation and the individuals in mentoring relationships (Young, 2000). *Organisation benefits* include employees who are *more committed* to the organisation, who will lead to more effective exchange of the information among the employees and higher productivity, performance and *lower turnover rates* (Young, 2000). At the protégé level, the benefits are early career success, career attainment and *higher job satisfaction* and lastly, at mentor level, the benefits include career rejuvenation, recognition, personal satisfaction, organisation reputation and increased knowledge and power (Richard, Ismail, Bhuian & Taylor 2009).

We (Jackson & Sekhosana, 2011) considered the association between various mentoring functions such as career support, protection, social support, and role

modelling and employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and affective commitment. Our findings suggest that job satisfaction relates positively with mentoring functions such as career support (.17), protection (.39), social support (.25), and role modelling (.43). In addition, affective commitment also related positively with mentoring functions such as career support (.11), protection (.17), social support (.16), and role modelling (.24). The findings suggest that the link between mentoring functions and job satisfaction is stronger than the relation with affective commitment. Additionally, employees who are exposed to mentoring functions such as career support, protection, social support, and role modelling are more likely to experience better employee attitudes such as higher job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Organisation exchanges or currencies

The workplace social exchange network model suggests that both the organisation and employees have currencies available that they frequently exchange with one another to sustain and maintain their relationship. Currencies available to employees include organisation citizenship, performance, attendance, membership, loyalty and a positive attitude. Currencies available to the organisation include support, security, advancement, promotion, recognition, pay, benefits, employment, training, social identity, job assignment and information.

Level of effort spent by employees can be seen through their responsibility, job demands, overtime, work interruptions, time pressure and workload (Siegrist, 2004). This level of effort should be equivalent with rewards (money, esteem, job security and career opportunities) received by the employees (Kinman & Jones, 2008). When there is a mismatch between effort and reward, a condition called high cost-low gain occurs (Siegrist, 2004). This condition is associated with job dissatisfaction and high turnover intentions due to the employees' emotional distress. Currall, Towler, Judge and Kohn (2005), in a study of public school teachers, found that pay satisfaction is significantly associated with the intention to quit. In support of this finding, pay satisfaction has also been associated with increased organisation commitment, job satisfaction, and greater intent to stay in the organisation and position (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid & Sirola, 1998). Hart (1994) did report a link between professional development and morale (job satisfaction). In addition, Hart, Wearing, Conn, Carter and Dingle (2002) also reported significant relations with correlation coefficients in the range of 0.18 to 0.60 between professional growth (professional development) and facets of job satisfaction (such as satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with supervisor).

In line with the workplace social exchange network model, we (Jackson & Mukondiwa, 2013) were interested in the link between some of these organisation currencies such as learning and development, recognition, respect, appreciation, benefits and perks, salary, promotion, organisation support, and perceived opportunity for rewards and employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisation commitment. Our findings suggested that job satisfaction is positively related to organisation currencies such as learning and development (.42), recognition (.47), respect, appreciation, benefits and perks (.39), salary (.38), promotion (.27), organisation support (.60), and perceived opportunity for rewards (.42). The results also seem to suggest that organisation commitment was related to organisation

currencies such as learning and development (.54), recognition (.55), respect, appreciation, benefits and perks (.45), salary (.58), promotion (.49), organisation support (.63), and perceived opportunity for rewards (.36). When comparing these relations, we came to the conclusion that organisation currencies such as learning and development, recognition, respect, appreciation, benefits and perks, salary, promotion, organisation support were stronger related to organisation commitment compared to their link with job satisfaction and that opportunity for rewards was stronger associated with job satisfaction than to organisation commitment.

Organisation support

Perceived organisation support (POS) is defined as an individual's belief that the organisation for which one works values one's contributions and cares for one's well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). POS is affected by employees' interactions with their organisation with regard to the receipt of praise, support, or approval. POS is a concise measure conceptually related to both leadership support and psychological climate (McCook, 2002). Organisation support theory (OST), as discussed by Aselage and Eisenberger (2003) and Eisenberger *et al.* (1986), suggests that treatment offered by the organisation (in terms of fairness, job conditions, and supervisory relationships) serves as a signal to employees regarding the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (POS). Consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), POS obligates employees who feel supported to reciprocate by expressing greater affective organisation commitment, performing citizenship behaviours, and exhibiting lower levels of withdrawal (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002).

Organisations that foster POS within employees are thought to have a competitive advantage over organisations that do not (Pfeffer, 2005). We (Jackson & Vahed, 2013) tested this notion by examining the link between leadership support, training, communication and job security and job satisfaction. Our findings support assumptions of the POS, OST and social exchange theory in that it confirmed the positive and reciprocal link between job satisfaction and leadership support (.53), training (.50), communication (.58) and job security (.56). In addition, the results also confirmed the link of organisation commitment and leadership support (.65), training (.59), communication (.65) and job security (.67). The findings also suggest that links of leadership support, training, communication and job security and organisation commitment was stronger than the links with job satisfaction.

Quality values

The emphasis on total quality management (TQM) as a management philosophy and a new way of managing organisation to improve its overall effectiveness and the performance towards achieving world-class status has increased considerably over the past few decades (Boon, Arumugam, & Hwa, 2005). TQM has been described as a shift in thought patterns (Spenser, 1994) in management (Ishikawa, 1985) when referring to the management of an organisation. As Wood and Peccei (1995) stated, TQM is widely agreed as a way of managing organisations with the notion to enhance employees' attitudes.

Guimaraes (1996) found that in order to attain successful implementation, several people-oriented aspects of TQM should initially be well understood. This also

reveals that management has an important role to play, in striking a balance between the 'soft' as well as 'hard' aspects of TQM to ensure a successful implementation process. However, in the past decade, TQM has received considerable attention and much has been written about the hard or technical aspects of TQM, but has neglected the 'soft' aspects to a certain extent (Boon *et al.*, 2005). Evidence from the growing literature on TQM failure emphasises the neglect of the 'soft' side of quality management, wherein the HR and organisation behaviour aspects of quality management are not given their deserved emphasis (Lowery, Beadles & Carpenter, 2000; Wilkinson, Redman, Snape & Marchington, 1998; Cruickshank, 2000).

In trying to address the call for greater emphasis on the 'soft issues' of quality management, we (Jackson & Vahed, 2013) focused on the association between *quality values of* continuous improvement (CI) such as goals, data-based decision-making, continuous improvement, customer focus, long-term view, employee involvement, quality at same cost, collaboration, system focus, purpose and urgency and employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisation commitment. Our findings confirmed the expected positive associations between goals (.39 and .51), data-based decision-making (.27 and .29), continuous improvement (.26 and .41), customer focus (.27 and .29), long-term view (.35 and .37), employee involvement (.36 and .43), quality at same cost (.24 and .33), collaboration (.28 and .32), system focus (.38 and .51), purpose (.40 and .53), urgency (.31 and .43) and employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisation commitment, respectively. Again, we found that the relations between the CI values and organisation commitment were greater than those with job satisfaction. It therefore seems that organisations that acquire the soft elements of TQM can outperform competitors without the accompanying TQM ideology (Powell, 1995).

Change management principles

The majority of change initiatives are not able to meet the set goals, and it is estimated that as many as 50 to 80% of the cases fail, for a variety of reasons (Wren & Dulewicz, 2005), with Smith (2003) discovering a success rate for technological change at only 28%, for mergers and acquisitions 14%, and for re-engineering and process design, 23%. The use of change management models significantly increases chances of successful implementation of change. My predecessor, Leon Coetsee (2002), presented a model consisting of ten principles to be considered when contemplating change. However, unlike the other models, the application of the 10 principles is not a step-by-step sequential process, but an integrative holistic plan and technique to manage change and to convert plans into actions.

We (Jackson & Ruiters, 2012) used the ten principles as a change model to determine whether a national department adhered to these principles or a basic model for change when the last time prior to the project they implemented change. In addition, we also wanted to assess the link between using these principles and job satisfaction. Prior to checking for the associations, we subjected the ten-principle instrument to an exploratory factor analysis and extracted two factors, namely purpose of change and implementation of change. The construct *Purpose* consisted of five questions that tried to establish whether the purpose and the need for the integration concept had been identified and to determine whether all the stakeholders had been involved. It aimed to determine whether there were any diagnoses of strengths and weaknesses prior to implementation of the integration concept. The construct *Implementation* consists of

items that seek to determine whether the problems were identified, results-oriented change strategy was developed, commitment was obtained from all stakeholders prior to and during the process, resistance to change was proactively managed, a learning culture was promoted during implementation and progress and results were monitored and evaluated after implementation. Positive associations between purpose of change (.24), implementation of change (.25) and job satisfaction were observed. The regression analysis revealed that the two factors combined explained approximately 7% of the variance in job satisfaction.

Job demands and resources

Job characteristics and more specifically job demands and resources have been linked to employee attitudes such as job satisfaction, subjective experiences of productivity and intentions to quit. The main assumption of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli & Schreurs, 2003; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001) is that every occupation has its own specific risk factors associated with job-related stress. These factors can be classified into two general categories (i.e. job demands and job resources), thereby constituting an overarching model that may be applied to various occupational settings, *irrespective* of the particular demands and resources involved. Individuals who have larger pools of resources are more easily able to meet demands and to protect themselves from resource depletion compared with those who have limited resources (Lee & Ashforth, 1996).

According to the developers of the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001), every working condition can be categorised into two broad components, labelled job demands and job resources. *Job demands* are defined as tasks that have to be done, including physical, social and organisation aspects of the job that require sustained physical and mental effort. Examples are high work pressure, an unfavourable physical environment and emotionally demanding interactions with clients (Janssen, Peeters, De Jong, Houkes & Tummers, 2004). Quantitative job demands refer to the amount of work required and the available timeframe, while qualitative workload involves employees' affective reactions to their jobs (Cooper, Dewe & O'Driscoll, 2001). This contribution considers the role of job resources such as organisation support, growth opportunities and advancement and pay in employee outcomes such as subjective experiences of productivity, job satisfaction and intentions to quit.

Job resources are those physical, psychological, social or organisation aspects of the job that may be functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands (with the associated physiological and psychological costs), and stimulating personal growth and development (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001). In terms of this definition, job characteristics, such as variety, independence, opportunities for learning and participation, opportunities to participate, role clarity, effective communication, advancement, remuneration and good relationships with supervisors and colleagues create psychological meaningfulness and safety for employees, which are needed to be engaged in one's job (Frey, Jonas, & Greitemeyer, 2003; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004).

Lack of service delivery by state departments has led to an increase in violent protestations in South Africa. The quality of service delivery by public institutions could be the result of negative employee attitudes. Jackson (2015) assessed the association

between job demands and job resources and global job satisfaction in a national state department ($N=895$). A simple principal component analysis was conducted on the items of the Job Demands-Resources Scale (JD-RS) to assess the number of factors. An analysis of the eigenvalues showed that 12 factors could be extracted. However, the scree plot showed that five factors could be extracted, which explained 41.17% of the total variance. The eigenvalues of these factors were as follows: Factor 1 = 8.99; Factor 2 = 3.70; Factor 3 = 2.84; Factor 4 = 2.28; and Factor 5 = 1.96. A principal component analysis was conducted on the pooled solution (i.e. all the participants were included in the same analysis). Factor 1 was labelled *Organisation support*. This factor (14 items) refers to the relationship with immediate supervisor, ambiguities about work, and information and participation. Factor 2 (14 items) was labelled *Growth opportunity*. This factor refers to variety in work, opportunities to learn, independence in work, relationships with colleagues and contact possibilities. Factor 3 was labelled *Overload*. This factor (11 items) refers to pace and amount of work, mental load and emotional load. Factor 4 was labelled *Pay and advancement*. This factor (6 items) refers to financial rewards, remuneration and career possibilities. Factor 5 was labelled *Job insecurity*. Subsequently, a principal component analysis was carried out on the correlations of the five first-order factors. Two factors, with eigenvalues of 1.90 and 1.11, respectively, were extracted. These two factors explained 60.19% of the total variance. The first factor was labelled *Job Resources*, and included growth opportunities (0.83), organisation support (0.82), and advancement (0.63). The second factor was labelled *Job Demands*, and included overload (loading = 0.84) and job insecurity (0.57). The results of the correlational analyses suggested that job satisfaction was positively related job resources [organisation support (.33), growth opportunity (.33) and advancement (.31)] and negatively related to job demands (overload (-.23) and insecurity (-.11).

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model

The JD-R model acknowledges that stinginess is an important feature of every research model, but assumes at the same time that individuals in different occupations may encounter various kinds of job demands and job resources (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001). The JD-R model attempts to explain how employees combine job demands and job resources in processes of work wellness and burnout. The model posits that two underlying psychological processes play a role in burnout (as one aspect of wellness at work): an effort-driven process in which excessive job demands lead to exhaustion and a motivation-driven process in which lacking resources lead to disengagement (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) extended the JD-R model by including engagement and by adding indicators for health impairment and organisation withdrawal in the Comprehensive Burnout and Engagement (COBE) model. The COBE-model also assumes that the energetic process links job demands with health problems via burnout, whereas the motivational process links job resources via work engagement with organisation outcomes such as organisation commitment. Job resources may play either an intrinsic motivational role through the fostering of employees' growth, learning and development, or they may play an extrinsic motivational role by being instrumental in achieving work goals. As part of the final article for my five-article PhD, I, together with my national and international mentors (Jackson, Rothmann, & Van de Vijver, 2006), confirmed the model and empirical study with a sample of 1 177 teachers in the North West Province.

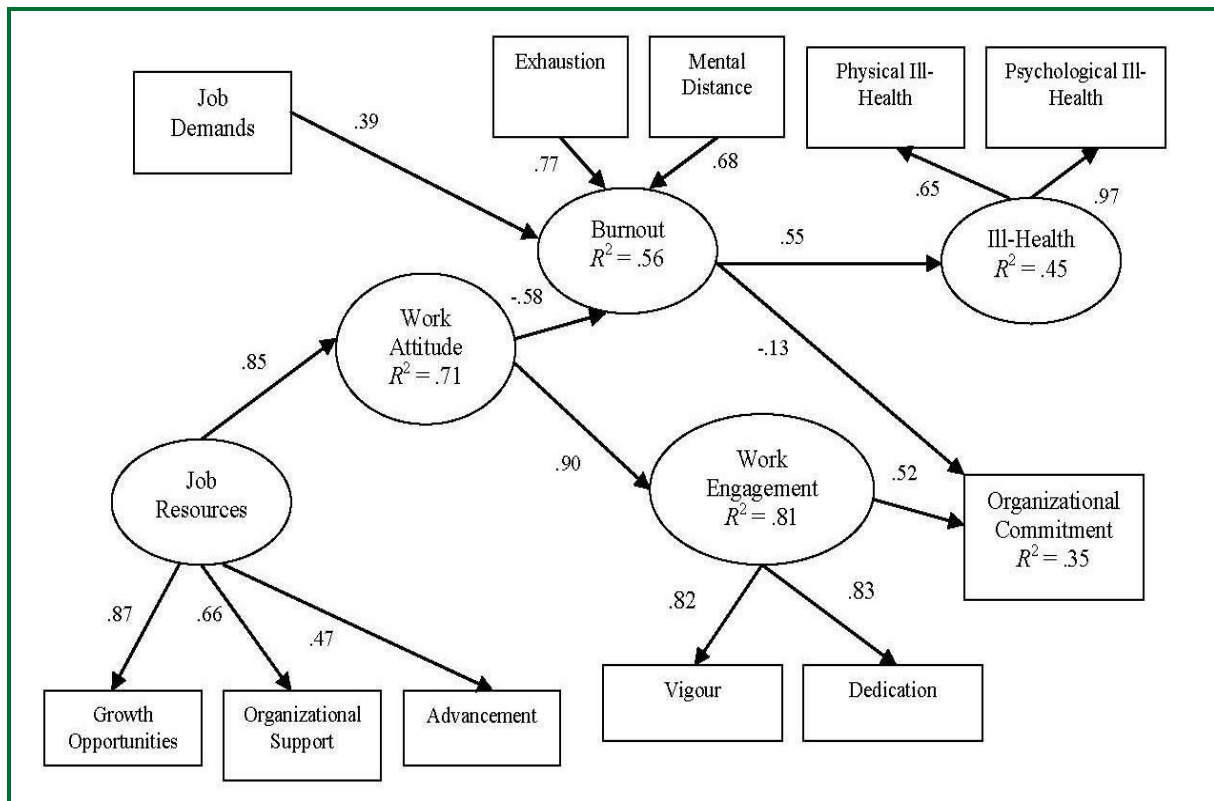


Figure 1: A dual process model of work-related well-being for educators in South Africa

A multicultural climate

Previous studies have also attempted to establish a link between the presence of multiculturalism and adaptation in society in general. Research (Berry & Sabatier, 2010; Yağmur & Van de Vijver, 2012) seems to suggest that countries with the least support for multiculturalism showed the lowest level of adjustments, both psychologically (how well you feel) and socioculturally (how well you do). As for the role of a workplace respecting differences (multiculturalism) in employee attitudes and outcomes, Sourouklis and Tsagdis (2013) in a review of 23 relevant papers found that perceived organisation diversity, defined as reflective of individual variations in terms of personal characteristics such as ethnicity, gender or sexuality, has positive effects on commitment, productivity, staff turnover and satisfaction. Hsiaoa, Aulda, and Ma (2015) also confirmed the positive effects of perceived organisation diversity on job performance and organisation citizenship behaviours (OCB) and a negative effect on turnover intention. The positive link between a multicultural climate and subjective experiences of work success has been confirmed with a South African sample (Jackson, van der Vijver & Ali, 2012).

The multicultural approach to diversity emphasises the benefits of a diverse workforce and explicitly recognises employee differences as a source of strength (Cox, 1991). Organisations promoting initiatives based on a multicultural ideology can be expected to be particularly attractive to minorities because diversity is acknowledged and retained (Verkuyten, 2005). Ironically, multicultural initiatives can produce scepticism and resentment on the part of, in particular, non-minorities (James, Brief, Dietz, & Cohen, 2001) and critiques centre on the claim that it excludes non-minorities and threatens unity (Plaut, Sanchez-Burks, Buffardi, & Stevens, 2007) and promotes separatism and division (see Frederickson, 1997). Exclusion from the organisation's

information and decision-making networks has been identified as one of the most significant problems facing today's diverse workforce (Fernandez, 1991; Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990; O'Leary & Ickovics, 1992). The inclusion-exclusion experience of diversity is one that has deep social-psychological roots for human beings (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

A novel feature of our work (Jackson, van der Vijver, submitted) is that we study diversity from an acculturation perspective, as acculturation is a productive way of examining adjustment processes faced by individuals who come into continuous contact with other cultural backgrounds (Berry, 1997). Our theoretical framework combines a mediation model of acculturation in the broader society (Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver, 2006) and in the workplace (Jackson *et al.*, 2012; Jackson, van der Vijver & Burckard, 2011). Antecedents in the model, called multiculturalism conditions, refer to contextual conditions that define the climate of the workplace vis-à-vis diversity, such as descriptive norms about the need to acknowledge, respect, and appreciate multiculturalism in a culturally diverse group. Mediating variables, called ethnic integration, refer to the various aspects that, as a consequence of a positive diversity climate, promote integration and the development of an inclusive organisation identity. The latter is a combination of attitudes and practices that maintain the own ethnic identity (such as ethnic vitality) and attitudes and practices that promote multiculturalism and the need to adopt a multicultural identity (such as pressure by co-ethnics to embrace multiculturalism).

Correlational analysis of the components of the model revealed that job satisfaction relates positively with multicultural norms (.26 for whites and .15 for blacks), mainstream tolerance (.22 for whites and .12 for blacks), multicultural practices (.18 for whites and .15 for blacks), ethnic vitality (.18 for whites and .11 for blacks), ethnic integration norms (.33 for whites and .14 for blacks) and an individual acculturation strategy or orientation (.21 for whites and .17 for blacks). In addition, correlational analysis of the components of the model revealed that organisation commitment relates positively with multicultural norms (.28 for whites and .09 for blacks), mainstream tolerance (.15 for whites and .13 for blacks), multicultural practices (.27 for whites and .29 for blacks), ethnic vitality (.20 for whites and .19 for blacks), ethnic integration norms (.42 for whites and .26 for blacks) and an individual acculturation strategy or orientation (.20 for whites and .09 for blacks). It is again interesting to note the relations between the multicultural climate elements and organisation commitment is relatively higher than the relations between the multicultural climate elements and job satisfaction. In addition, the findings seem to suggest that the associations for whites are relatively higher than those of blacks.

In order to investigate the mediating role of ethnic integration in the relationship between multiculturalism and positive employee attitudes at work, structural equation modelling was performed using AMOS 18 (Arbuckle 2010). The mediating role of ethnic integration in the relations between multiculturalism and positive attitudes at work was indeed confirmed with the fit of the data to the hypothetical model [$\chi^2(61, N = 299) = 85.30, p = .02; \chi^2/df = 1.40$ (recommended ≤ 3.00). Other indices confirmed the good fit of the model: The goodness of fit index (GFI) was 0.94 (recommended $\geq .95$), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) was 0.91 (recommended $\geq .90$), the Tucker Lewis index (TLI) was 0.96 (recommended ≥ 0.90), comparative fit index (CFI) was .96

(recommended $\geq .90$) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was $.04$ (recommended $\leq .06$). In addition, indirect and total effects of the multicultural climate confirmed that ethnic integration fully mediate the relation between a multicultural climate and employee attitudes. This model is depicted in Figure 2 below.

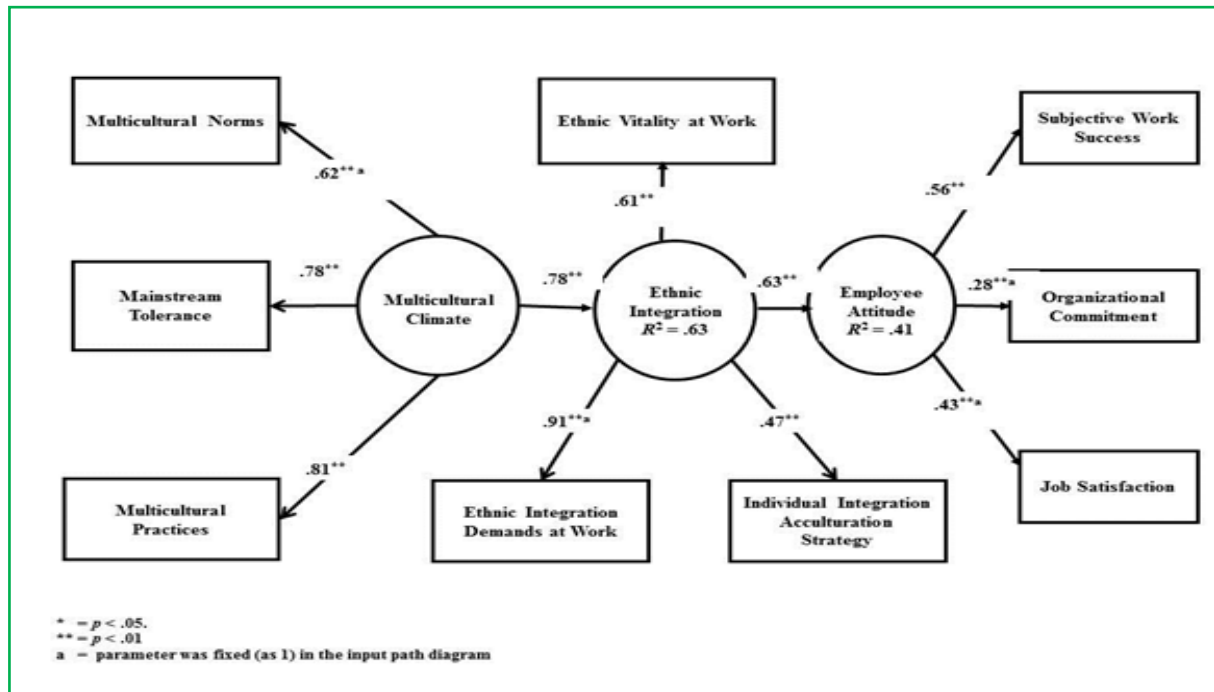


Figure 2: A model for multiculturalism in the South African workplace

A dual process model for diversity management in South Africa

Our model draws on relevant diversity models mentioned above and on two theoretical frameworks: Acculturation models, as studied in cross-cultural psychology (Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver, 2006; Berry, 1997) and a dual-process model of occupational health (Jackson, Rothmann & van der Vijver, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). We argue that dealing with diversity has, for the employee, aspects that are similar to the acculturative changes immigrants experience after resettlement. There are two underlying processes that influence adjustment or well-being at work, namely an effort-driven process (the encumbering or negative stream) in which excessive adverse mainstream conditions or *multiculturalism demands* lead to poor psychological adjustment (negative employee attitudes and ill-health symptom) and a motivation-driven process (facilitating or positive stream), where the presence and experience of positive mainstream conditions or *multiculturalism resources* lead to better sociocultural adjustments (increased actual or perceived productivity and work success). Our distinction between the two streams bears resemblance to the discrimination-and-fairness and integration-and-learning perspectives on diversity described by Ely and Thomas (2001). The encumbering stream deals more with the legal framework and prerequisites of diversity outcomes, whereas the facilitating stream deals more with integration and learning, focusing on interactions between group members in which diversity is viewed as a resource.

In our dual process model, multiculturalism demands and other restraining intergroup features, such as segregation demands, discrimination and overt or subtle racism (the negative stream) are related to an individual separation orientation

(pointing to a refusal to accept the multicultural nature of the organisation and focus on employees of one’s own ethnicity). Separation mediates the relationship between these negative multiculturalism conditions and negative employee attitudes and ill-health. In the positive stream, multiculturalism resources or facilitating intergroup features, such as a multicultural climate and tolerance of all employees for diversity of the organisation, are related to an individual integration orientation that mediates the relation between positive multiculturalism conditions and subjective experiences of productivity and work success. It is known from the literature that there are relations between integration and separation and also between psychological and sociocultural outcomes (e.g. Berry, 1997; Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001). However, we argue that these “crossover relations” in the diversity model between the positive and negative stream are much weaker (if present at all) than the relations within each of the streams and that there are no direct crossover relations to layers that come later in the model; for example, there should be no direct relation from a negative antecedent to a positive outcome. Crossover relations can only occur within antecedents, mediators or outcomes; for example, positive and negative antecedents may be correlated, and positive antecedents will be linked to positive mediators, but can only be indirectly linked to negative mediators. The notion that facilitating intergroup contact features influence sociocultural adjustment directly but psychological adjustment only indirectly (if at all) is at the core of our model; analogously, the presence of restraining intergroup contact features leads to negative multiculturalism orientations and poor psychological adjustment, which, in turn, can diminish or erode the credits of sociocultural adjustment accrued as a result of the presence of facilitating features. Using SEM in AMOS, we (Jackson, van der Vijver & Molokoane, 2013; Jackson & van der Vijver, submitted) recently managed to confirm that the data fits this hypothetical model in three different samples ($N = 158$ SAPS members, $N = 241$ mine workers, and $N = 966$ in various South African organisations) in South Africa. Those models are in Figures 3 to 5 below.

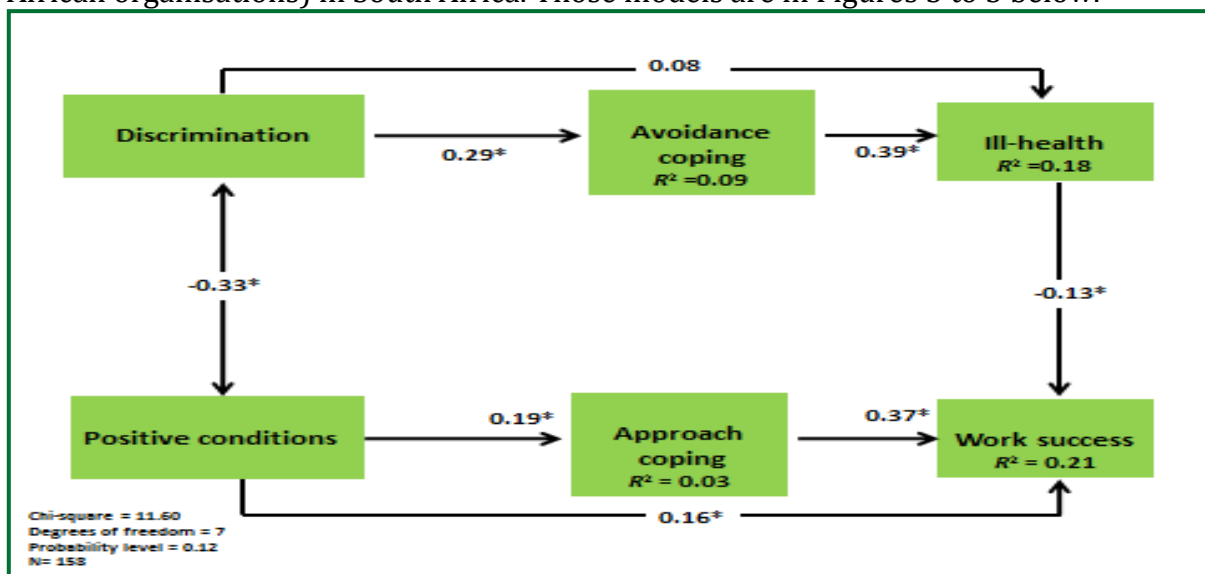


Figure 3: A dual process model for diversity in the South African workplace ($N = 159$)

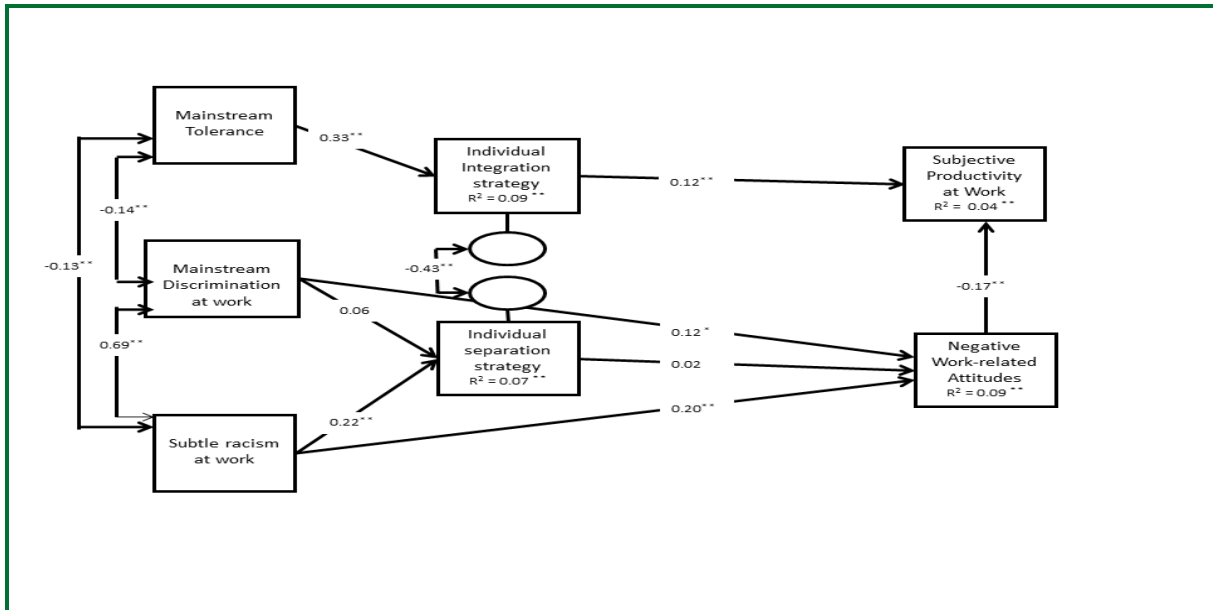


Figure 4: A dual process model for diversity in the South African workplace ($N = 966$)

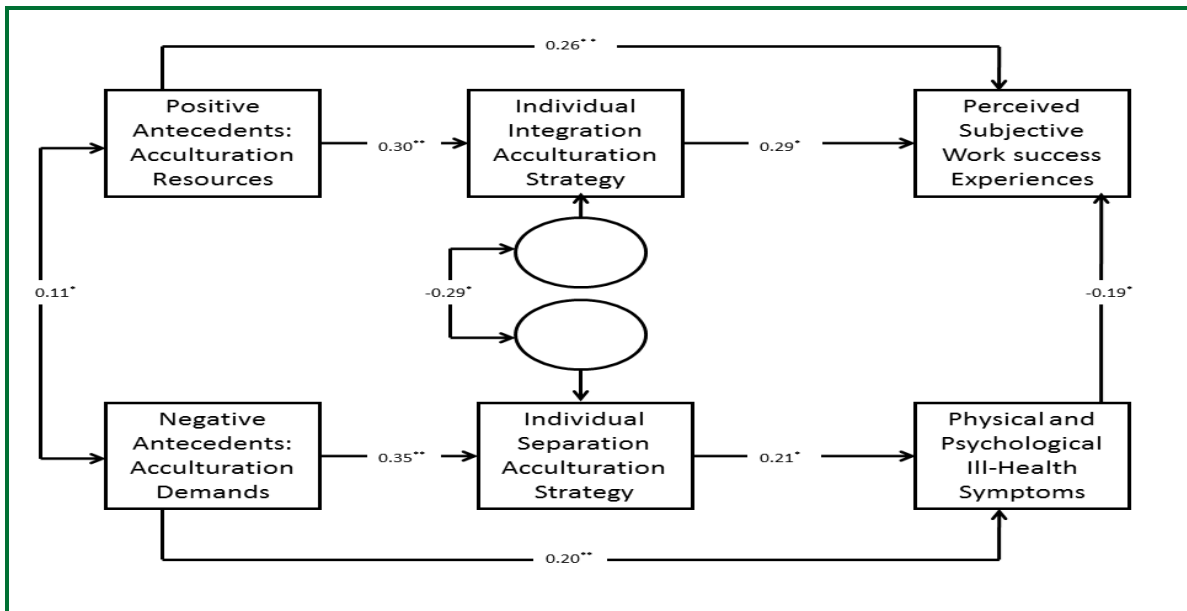


Figure 5: A dual process model for diversity in the South African workplace ($N = 241$)

Leadership orientations

Kotter (1990) and House (1996; 1999) distinguished between management and leadership. Leaders are needed to challenge the status quo, to create visions of the future, and to inspire organisation members to achieve the visions (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). Management, on the other hand, is concerned with implementing, coordinating and staffing the organisation, and handling day-to-day problems. Leadership style has a significant impact on performance (Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995; Avolio & Bass, 1990). Behavioural approaches to leadership consider initiating structure (task) and consideration (relationships) as the two most important leadership dimensions in describing how a leader performs. The managerial grid has popularised the task and relationship dimensions of leadership. High ratings on both dimensions characterise effective or desirable leadership. Fiedler concluded that both directive task-oriented leaders and non-directive, human relations-oriented leaders are

successful under some conditions. The lifecycle theory of leadership postulates that as the group matures, appropriate leader behaviour varies from high task and low consideration to both high to high consideration and low task to both low (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). A leader's positive attitude towards members improves employee attitudes toward work, their leader, and the organisation. In turn, members develop intrinsic motivation. The quality of the leader member exchange (Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben, & Pautsch, 2005) in this process is critical for organisation success. A poor relationship between leaders and members can cause employees to lose commitment to or satisfaction with their jobs. Turnover experts, both academic and practitioners, have asserted that supervision plays a meaningful role in employee turnover decisions (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004; Morrow *et al.*, 2005). We (Jackson & Kolisang, 2012) considered the relationship between job satisfaction and organisation commitment and various leadership orientations and found that job satisfaction and organisation commitment associate positively with the leaders' planning orientation (.72 and .69), role modelling (.68 and .60), team orientation (.60 and .63), performance orientation (.50 and .43), people consideration (.50 and .41), providing challenges (.67 and .61) and feedback (.62 and .72), respectively. Leadership orientations also predicted .60 and .61 of the variance in job satisfaction and organisation commitment, respectively.

Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership has been promoted as a leadership style that will both facilitate change and increase job commitment, job satisfaction and well-being within teams (Sofarelli & Brown, 1998; Thyer, 2003; Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway & McKee, 2007). Influence on others is the essence of leadership (Yukl, 1998). In this sense, leadership is also defined as the ability to influence the motivation or competence of other individuals in a group (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1991). Only in its influence on others may we observe leadership (Knippenberg, Knippenberg, De Cremer & Hogg, 2004:826). Leadership effectiveness is reliant on, and indeed often defined in terms of, leaders' ability to motivate followers towards a collective goal, mission or vision (Chemers, 2001). The logical implication of this proposition is that, to understand leadership effectiveness, we need to understand leadership's effects on followers.

It has been objected that transformational leadership research is biased toward favouring some stakeholders such as top management, owners and customers at the expense of employees, since it accentuates the role of leadership in increasing task motivation and performance (Stevens, D'Intino & Victor, 1995). We need to develop theories of the psychological processes that translate leader behaviour into follower action (Van Knippenberg *et al.*, 2004) if we want to understand leadership. Despite the empirically confirmed link between transformational leadership and employee attitudes and outcomes, little is known about the psychological mechanisms through which these associations occur. Still, this area of research has received relatively little attention. Our research (Jackson & Lushozi, 2014a; 2014b; Jackson, Submitted) was intended to fill this void. Personal resources, such as generalised self-efficacy, or confidence in ability to do the job, and self-esteem, or a positive or negative evaluation of ourselves as an entity of appraisal, were explored as the possible psychological mechanism explored in these studies (Jackson & Lushozi, 2014a; 2014b; Jackson, Submitted).

Transformational leadership style is perceived to be a positive leadership style and it is best suited to support and foster a work environment that enhances employee attitudes and belief such as commitment (Tanner, 2007; Tremblay, 2010; Wang, 2008), trust (Tanner, 2007) and job satisfaction (Rowold & Heinitz, Tanner, 2007; Wolfram & Mohr, 2009), effectiveness and extra effort (Rowold & Heinitz, 2007), subjective task performance and organisation citizenship behaviour (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang & Chen, 2005) and engagement (Tims, Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2011), as this leadership approach aims to change, transform and assist employees (Northouse, 2013). Jackson and Lushozi (2014a; 2014b) confirmed positive relations between transformational leadership dimensions and subjective experiences of work success.

Jackson (submitted) proposes a model that depicts transformational leadership features as important antecedents for personal resources such as generalised self-esteem and self-efficacy and employee attitudes such as subjective experiences of work success and organisation commitment. In addition, it is argued that transformational leadership skills increase the experiences of personal resources such as generalised self-efficacy and self-esteem and employee attitudes such as subjective experiences of work success and organisation commitment. More specifically, it is maintained that personal resources such as generalised self-esteem and self-esteem serve as a mediator in the relation between transformational skills and employee attitudes such as subjective experiences of work success and organisation commitment. Mediators are variables that provide additional information about how or why two variables (dependent and independent) are strongly associated. According to Wu, Li and Zumbo (2007), for a mediation model, the independent variable (transformational leadership) is presumed to cause the mediator (personal resources), and, in turn, the mediator causes the additional influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable (employee attitudes). The findings of the project suggested that the hypothetical model illustrating the mediating effect of personal resources fit the data. In addition, these relationships were identical for males and females. Closer inspection of indirect, direct and total effects confirmed that personal resources partially mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and employee attitudes such as subjective experiences of work success and organisation commitment. The model is depicted in Figure 6 below.

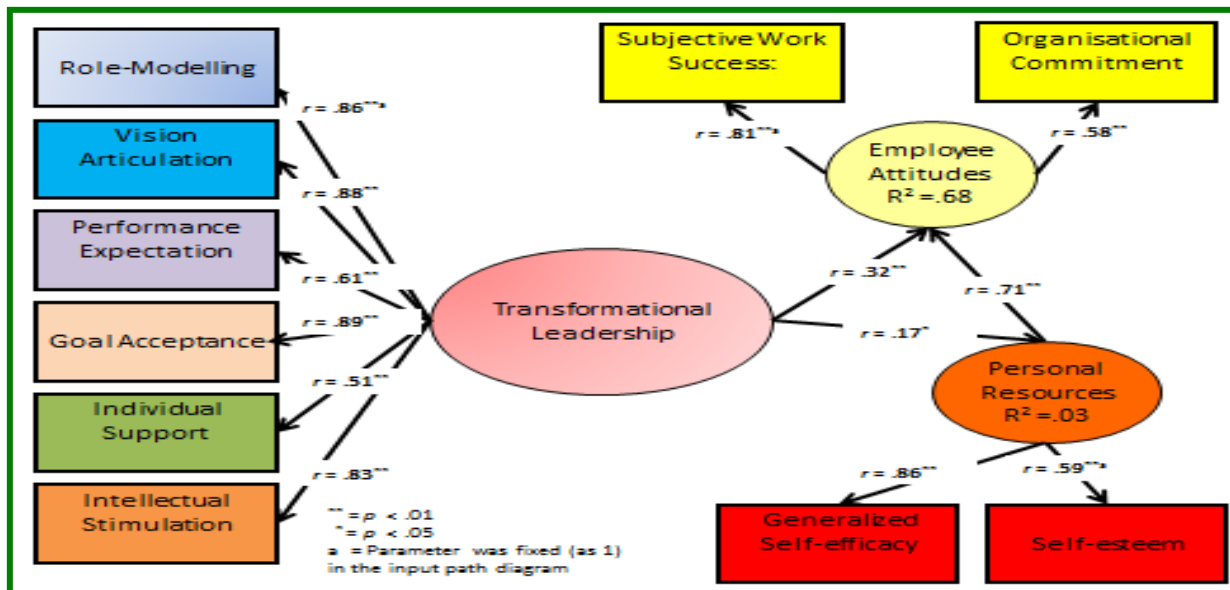


Figure 6: A mediating model for transformational leadership and employee attitudes

3. Conclusion

The research described above is novel in the sense that it contributed to knowledge on employee attitudes in general and dispositional and situational antecedents of job satisfaction and organisation commitment in particular within the South African context. This research was among the first to systematically investigate and be published abroad and in South Africa on several topics, including the a dispositional approach to job satisfaction; linking mentoring functions to employee attitudes, such as job satisfaction and affective commitment; linking the workplace social exchange network model through organisation currencies, organisation support, quality values, change management principles, leadership orientations, transformational leadership, multiculturalism, the testing of the mediation effects of employee strengths or personal resources such as self-esteem and self-efficacy in the link between transformational leadership and employee attitudes, as well as a dual process model and employee attitudes; combining a dual process model; and acculturation as possible frameworks to facilitate our understanding of diversity management.

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