

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, JOB
SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION AT AN INSTITUTION OF
HIGHER EDUCATION**

by

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RESEARCH DISSERTATION

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my heavenly father God for giving me the courage and strength to carry this study forward. I am grateful for the continuous love God showed me, and the wisdom he imparted upon me throughout this journey.

DECLARATION

I, Maseko Nomvula Valencia, student number [REDACTED] hereby declare that this dissertation, "*The relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention at an institution of higher education*", submitted to the University of Limpopo for the degree of Master of Commerce in Human Resource Management has not previously been submitted by me or any other person to this or any institution. I further declare that this is my work and all materials contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

Surname, Initials _____

Signature _____

Date _____

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I can do all things through Christ who is my strength. Philippians 4.13

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ABSTRACT

The general aim of this study is to determine the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention at an institution of higher education in South Africa. A quantitative, cross-sectional survey design was used in which self-administered questionnaires were utilised to collect data from a convenience sample of 198 participants. The respondents comprised mainly of the academic employees of the institution. Descriptive and inferential statistics including correlation and regression analyses were conducted. The data was collected using three different structured questionnaires. The findings indicated that there is a positive relationship between the dominant organisational culture and job satisfaction. There is a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. This study recommended that every institution should figure out the effective retention strategies which may have the most impact on their employees and find ways to improve employee job satisfaction.

Keywords: Organisational culture, Job satisfaction and Turnover intention, Higher education institution.

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A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

B: QUESTIONNAIRES

Section A: demographic details

Section B: turnover intention

Section C: job satisfaction

Section D: organisational culture

C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

D: LETTER OF REQUEST TO THE UNIVERSITY

E: LANGUAGE EDITOR'S LETTER

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the background and motivation for the study followed by the problem statement, research aim, paradigm perspective, research design and methodology and lastly the layout of chapters.

1.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In South Africa higher education institutions have gone through major changes since the 1994 democratic dispensation that took place in the country. In higher education major changes occurred in terms of academic transformation and restructuring, increased student populations, institutional planning, evaluation and reviewing of academic programs, quality assurance, research output rate, quality capacity building and community engagements. Chipunza and Gwarinda (2010) noted that the 1994 post dispensation in South Africa has resulted in a major transformation, particularly in the higher education sector and as a result of mergers and incorporations which led to the development of new comprehensive institutions.

These transformations are not limited to local boundaries only, the global higher education sector is also experiencing continuous changes due to increasing student numbers, funding challenges, and program reviews and changes determined by national and international demands (Hazelkorn, 2012). These changes affected various aspects within the higher education work context, particularly the culture and satisfaction levels of employees in higher education (Chipunza & Gwarinda, 2010).

The White Paper on Transformation of Higher Education (1997) is responsible for reinforcing higher education institutions to evaluate and review their human resource policies and practices with the aim of creating competent and motivated staff members that are able to meet the expectations of stakeholders. The program for transformation of higher education is clearly explained by the White Paper on Science and Technology and National Research and Development Strategy, and this program aims to provide clear direction and to ensure that it is incorporated with the needs of society (Du Prez, 2009).

Furthermore, previous research by Gazzola, Jha-Thakur, Kidd, Peel and Fischer (2011) has indicated that changes in both the internal and external contexts have a major impact in businesses in the corporate world and other sectors, this includes the higher education institutions in the developing world. Various private and public organisations and institutions were in one way or another affected by the environmental dynamics and as a result developed strategies to motivate and retain staff members.

Successful organisations value their human capital and are always on the lookout for effective retention strategies in order to remain competitive. Human resources management plays a key role in assisting organisations to sustain a competitive advantage. Previous research has indicated that an employee's perception of what organisational culture entails is a key factor to understand his/her work related behaviours and attitudes (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Previous research has also indicated that organisational culture is a key factor in employee job satisfaction and turnover intention. Retaining employees in the organisation is a huge challenge for management and as a result management failure to fulfil the expectations of employees may result in employee turnover.

Tsui, Wang, and Xin (2006) stated that previous researches showed that organisational culture is associated with job satisfaction and turnover intention. Progressive academic institutions are those that sustain quality education. The quality of any academic institution relies on intellectual, creative abilities and as well as the satisfaction of academic staff members when compared to other institutions (Ng'ethe, Iravo, & Namusonge, 2012). Therefore, it is imperative that every private and public institution should offer quality service and remain competent and the management must priorities employee job satisfaction in order to retain their employees. The development of academic institutions is based on the knowledge that organisations that can retain their employees have a competitive advantage; as compared to those that fail to retain their employees, (Felps, Mitchell, Hekman, Lee, Holtom, & Haraman, 2009). Mwadiani (2002) and Pienaar (2008) both hold that the future of the university is strongly dependent on the effectiveness and quality of the academic staff.

Studying the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention is imperative because this can provide an overall understanding of the nature of this relationship particularly in institutions of higher education. Scholars and human resource practitioners are continuously striving to assist Higher Education Institutions to develop relevant policies and models which could be helpful for understanding why academic employees have an intention to resign academic institutions.

1.3. PROBLEM STATEMENT

According to Jenkins, Deis, Bedard and Curtis (2008) there has been little discussion on the relationship between these three variables (organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention), or how they relate to public sector employees. Most of the previous research that concentrated on the association between organisational culture on job satisfaction and turnover intention have only studied workers in a limited number of occupations and only a few have investigated this relationship crosswise over various industries and institutions of higher education. More research is needed to investigate the relationship between these three variables in other industries and occupations.

Dadgar, Barahouei, Mohammadi, Ebrahimi and Ganjali (2013) examined the link amongst the variables of interest at the Zahedian University of Medical Sciences. According a study that was conducted by Saidin in (1994) it was reported that higher education institutions are experiencing a problem. It appears that a total of 59.5% university lecturers have reported intentions to leave their institutions. This could pose a threat and the institution in terms of the costs incurred to fill vacant post and to minimise the disruption of workflow. The government's vision to build a knowledgeable society and sustain economic growth through quality education and competitiveness is also affected.

A study conducted by Strauss and Volkwein (2004) revealed that universities and colleges are continuously carrying out relevant human resource management policies that involve developing and engaging talented academics in order to retain them within the institution. Thus as argued by Allen, Bryant and Vardaman (2010) that the process often involves searching for new staff members who would best fit in best with culture of the organisation.

The culture of the organisation, as well as the practices adopted in institutions of higher education could have a greater influence on the behaviour of employees this may result in academic employees leaving the academic field because they are no longer satisfied with their jobs, and that may in turn negatively affect the performance of the institution.

Hay and Fourie (2002) are of the opinion that South Africa's Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) must ensure that they do not lose their valuable human resources. They must nurture the valuable human resources to ensure the survival and growth of the institutions while executing relevant approaches that ensures that the human component ensures that the university thrives.

The present study wants to answer the following research question:

Is there a relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention of academic staff members in the targeted institution of higher education?

1.4. AIM OF THE STUDY

This study aims to determine if there is a significant association between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intentions at a selected higher education institution in South Africa.

1.5. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

- To identify the dominant culture that exist at the targeted university.
- To measure the relationship between the dominant culture and job satisfaction levels of academic employees.
- To measure the relationship between the dominant culture and turnover intention of academics.
- To assess the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.
- Make appropriate recommendations so that employees can be retained with effective motivational strategies.

1.6. HYPOTHESES

1.6.1 Main Hypotheses

H1: There is a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and overall job satisfaction.

H2: There is a negative relationship between dominant organisational culture and turnover intention.

H3: There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

1.6.2 Secondary Hypotheses

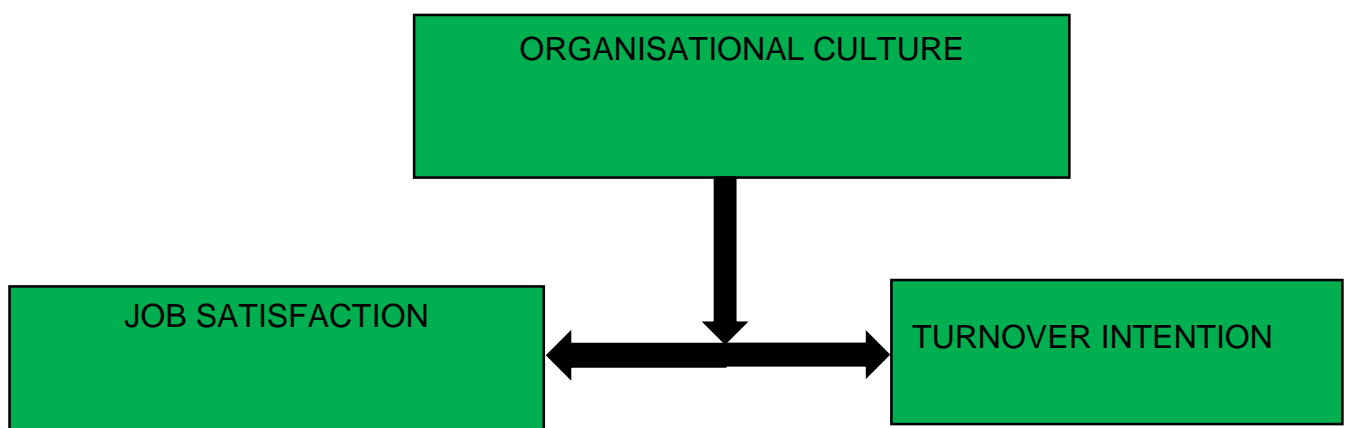
H4: There is a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and extrinsic job satisfaction.

H5: There is a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and intrinsic job satisfaction.

H6: There is a negative relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

H7: There is a negative relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

1.7. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK



*Figure 1.*The relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention

1.8. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study can increase the understanding of the influence that organisational culture has on employee's job satisfaction and employee turnover intention in a specific context. This study has the potential to also help broaden existing knowledge within the human resource discipline. The relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention is broadly discussed. Therefore, this imply that the findings may add to literature and also benefit researchers, managers and also the management of different organisations. Lastly, recommendations will also be offered at the end of the research paper. The other important factor is that this study has identified or established gaps which were made in the previous findings. In addition, the results may be helpful to other institutions/organisations which are facing high staff turnover, conflicts or job dissatisfaction.

Even though only a convenient sample of academic respondents took part, this study could potentially benefit both staff members and management of the institution as it will give them an idea of whether or not employees are considering leaving their employment, and to check whether they are satisfied and committed. This study could potentially provide employees with a chance to give individual perceptions of their work and the organisation. This could potentially enable the organisation to identify which areas they need to strengthen or improve.

1.9. OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH CHAPTERS

This section provides a summary of what each chapter encompasses, and this is also illustrated in figure 2.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

This chapter gives an overview of the layout of the whole dissertation. It contains the following:

- Introduction and Background
- Problem statement
- Purpose of the study
- Aim and objectives of the study
- Significance of the proposed study
- Conclusion and layout of chapters

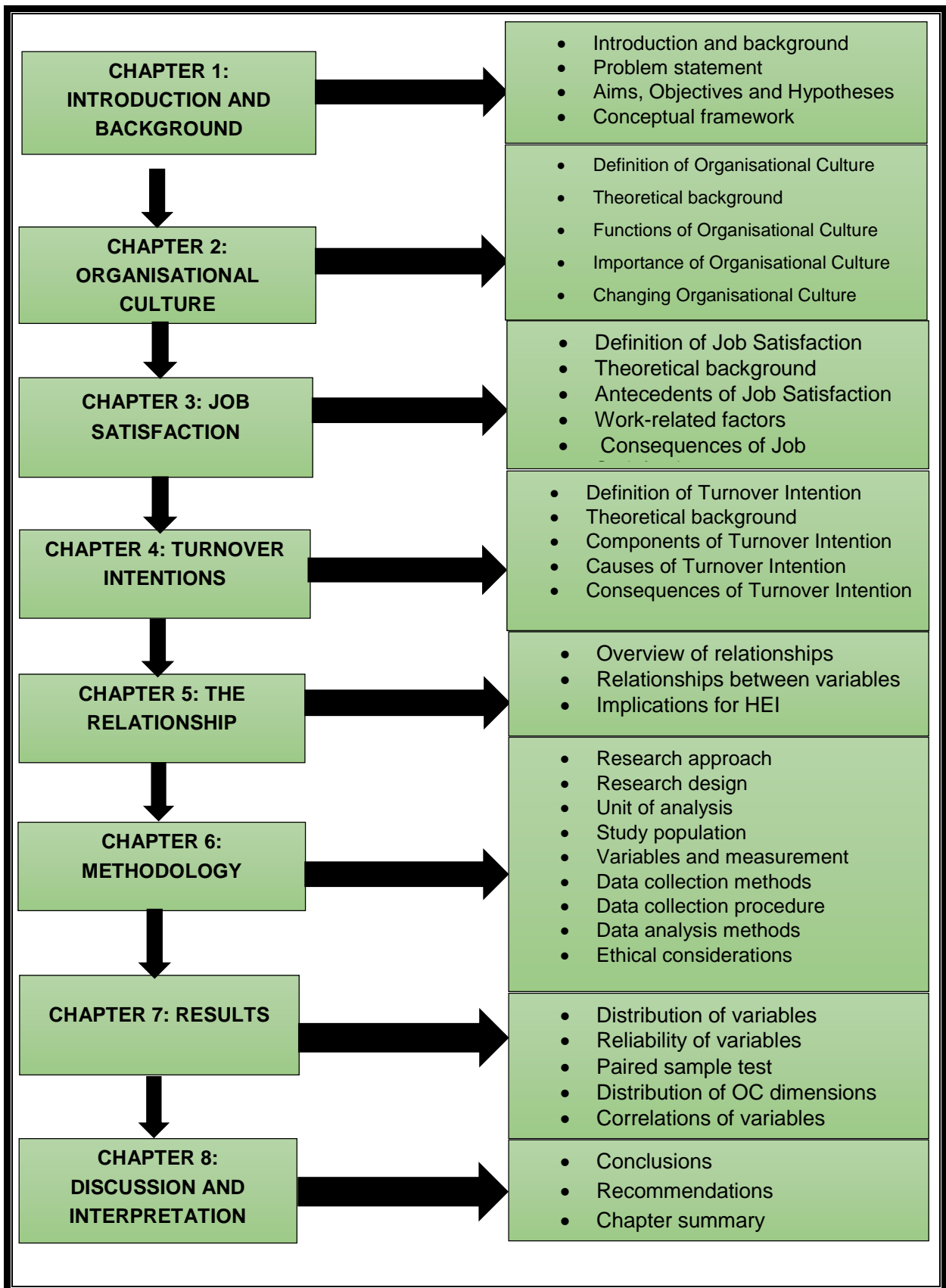


Figure 2. Overview of the research chapters

CHAPTER 2: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

This chapter discusses the concept of organisational culture in detail. It focuses on the different theories of organisational culture and discusses the models, dimensions, development, change and management of organisational culture. Strong and weak cultures are noted including the functions of organisational culture. Lastly, the chapter concludes by highlighting the existence of organisational culture in higher education institutions.

CHAPTER 3: JOB SATISFACTION

Chapter three covers a review of related literature on job satisfaction. It also provides various definitions of job satisfaction by different studies and authors. This chapter further discussed the theories of job satisfaction, dimensions of job satisfaction, consequences of job satisfaction and job satisfaction implications in higher education institutions.

CHAPTER 4: TURNOVER INTENTION

This chapter discusses the concept of turnover intention in detail. It further provides a discussion of the different theories and models of turnover intention. This chapter further outlined the causes and consequences of turnover intention. Lastly, this chapter concludes by highlighting the existence and implication of turnover in higher education institutions.

CHAPTER 5: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION

Chapter five integrates the concepts of organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention by means of establishing the relationship between the three variables and its implications for institutions of higher education. This chapter further provides a discussion of the theory that links all the three variables (organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention).

CHAPTER 6: METHODOLOGY

This chapter will provide information on the research design, population of the study and sampling, demographic variables, data collection instruments, data gathering procedure, hypotheses, data analysis and finally ethical considerations.

CHAPTER 7: RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter include discussions and presentations on the findings of the investigation on the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The results are presented using the following headings introduction, research results and lastly overview of research findings.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

A discussion and interpretation of the results obtained in chapter seven will be presented in this chapter. The chapter provides an introduction, research design and method, summary and interpretation of the research findings, recommendations, limitations of the study and finally concluding remarks.

1.10. SUMMARY

The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a relationship between perceived organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention at an institution of higher education. Chapter one gives an overview of the study which includes an introduction, the background, its significance, the problem statement, its aims and objectives, the hypotheses, the literature review of the variables. This chapter concludes by outlining the research in terms of the chapters included in the study.

CHAPTER 2

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter mainly focuses on the following theoretical aspects of organisational culture and this includes: definition, background, model, dimensions, development, change and management of organisational culture. In addition, this chapter provides a detailed discussion of the concept organisational culture and also gives a presentation of an overview of previous literature relating to the study.

2.2. DEFINITION OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

There seem to be no agreement on the definition of organisational culture (Brenton & Driskill, 2010; Manetje & Martins, 2009; Schein, 2010; Van-Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007). Therefore, in pursuit of gaining an understanding of the phenomenon, a starting point is established that provides a basic definition of organisational culture which is necessary to provide a point of departure for this study. The following section provides definitions that are more relevant to the scope of this research study.

A study that was conducted by Ledimo and Martins (2009) provided a distinct definition of organisational culture and it was explained as a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing one organisation from another organisation. In relation to the definition provided above it is quite clear that organisational culture distinguishes one organisation from the other organisation in a particular context. In more general terms the concept of organisational culture comprises of the norms, conducts and beliefs of an organisation which may be completely different from that of other organisations.

Brown (1998:9) defined the concept of organisational culture as “the pattern of beliefs, values and learned ways of coping with experience that have developed during the course of an organisation’s history, and which tend to be manifested in its material arrangements and in the behaviours of its members”. This means that organisational culture is articulated in the organisation, in order to shape the way in which organisational members are expected to behave. Therefore, this pattern of shared values, norms, beliefs, attitudes, principles and assumptions may be non-verbalised behaviour that describe the way in which things get done; to give the each organisation its unique character (Brown, 1998).

A definition provided by Robbins and Sanghi (2007) describes the concept of organisational culture as a system of shared values that are common to a group of employees and they accept this existing common organisation culture even with different background within the organisation. Bitsani (2013) further described organisational culture as a normative glue which means organisational culture holds all the organisational practices and functions together. Organisational culture has a great level of impact on the internal organisational policies, and it also influences the commitment of employees towards the realisation of the goals as well as the values of the organisation. It motivates the employee's level of willingness and influences them to put all efforts to contribute to the goals of the organisation.

In addition, Awadh and Alyahya (2013) defined organisational culture as a systematic framework of knowledge and practices that an employee obtains in order to understand and analyse the organisational context in order to create meaning and have sense of belonging. Arnold (2005) provided a definition of organisational culture and it was described as the distinct standards, norms, principles and common ways of conduct that when altogether give each organisation a different character.

There seems to be a general consensus that organisational culture alludes to employee's common norms, values, meanings, beliefs and principles and standards which are practiced within the organisation context and makes a part of the socialisation process of newly recruited employees (Martins & Coetzee, 2007; Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2007; Schein, 2010; Taormina, 2009). Subsequently, in order to have a clear understanding of the concept of organisational culture, the shared assumptions, values, socialisation, norms, languages and practices were broadly discussed:

2.2.1. Shared assumptions

Shared assumptions simply refer to the expansive inherent ideologies that are accepted as valid, which at that point direct the employee's behavioural and emotional tendencies and in addition it also decides how they act. Schein (2010) postulated that the shared assumptions are often unchallenged and regularly acknowledged as the facts. It is specifically when an organisation has mutual expectations from employees that is when a common culture begins to develop.

These expectations are created or discovered by employees as a result of their past experiences and this result to future employees to apply these assumptions because they appear to have worked in the past (Brenton & Driskill, 2010).

2.2.2. Shared values

Deal and Kennedy (1982) described values as the stable fundamental views and perspectives regarding particular areas of life, which are important to people in all areas of life. In addition to the definition provided above, it is postulated that values form the core of organisational culture (Van-Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007). These values are unchallenged and may be underestimated because people are usually not aware of them.

2.2.3. Shared socialisation and norms

Norms refer to the general principles and common behaviours within the organisation and what is viewed as proper conduct in the organisation. When people join organisations and come across these common norms they are usually are expected to follow them (Schein, 2010). The process of adapting existing patterns of behaviours is known as acculturation or assimilation, which continues to keep the culture of organisation alive, by enforcing the existing culture to newly recruited employees in order to keep it alive (Schein, 2010).

2.2.4. Shared language and practices

Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011) posited that language is not just a method of communicating, but it is the manner in which the world is best understood. Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, and Oosthuizen (2004) defined language from a cultural viewpoint, as common system of vocal sounds, written signs, as well as gestures that are used to convey special meanings among employees. These common practices provide a direction and educate new employees about the culture of the organisation (Van-Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007).

Various definitions of organisational culture were broadly discussed in this section, therefore adopted and most relevant definition for this study is stated by Harrison (1993:11) when they assert that “organisational culture are the distinctive norms, beliefs, principles and the behavioural patterns that are common within the organisation yet different when compared to the other organisations”.

2.3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

The theoretical development of the concept organisational culture pertain the research studies conducted particularly within the field of organisational theory. Brown (1998) postulated that the current interest in the concept organisational culture is as a result of developments from at least four distinct yet interrelated approaches: climate research, national cultures, human resource management and from the conviction approaches which are primary based on the rational and structural nature of the organisation to be unable to offer a full explanation of organisational behaviour. The various studies focused on describing and understanding of the concept organisational culture by utilising interrelated theories that classify the concept of organisational culture.

In addition, Deal and Kennedy (1982) posited that organisational culture is described as being central to the progress of the organisation rather than factors such as the organisational structure, policies or politics of an organisation. Thus as a result of this, till date, the consideration moved away from national cultures and focused more on organisational culture.

Lunenburg and Ornstein (2011) added that the popularisation of organisational culture ideology owes a great deal to the scientific books such as *in Search of Excellence* by Peters and Waterman (2004) and *Theory Z* by Ouchi (1981) clearly explained that organisational culture has a considerable amount of impact on organisations in areas such as performance and employee-related aspects. The concept of organisational culture is described having one unique characteristic that differentiate successful organisations from others (Berson, Oreg, & Dvir, 2008).

It is important to understand the concept of organisational culture is particularly crucial for leaders of organisations because of its great influence on different areas of organisational behaviour. Empirical research findings have indicated that employee's perceptions of the processes and strength of organisational culture is a crucial element in human resource management, change management, leadership, and work-related behaviours and attitudes that can impact on the performance of tasks (Allen, 2010; Lowe & Gibson, 2006).

Neglecting the significance of organisational culture when strategizing for changes within the organisation may possibly yield unforeseen unfavourable and negative consequences (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Organisational culture has a significant correlation with the organisation's sense of uniqueness, its values, mission, aims, goals and strategies of building shared values. In addition, organisational culture represents a system of intangible and unquestionable views that justify how organisations operate (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Organisational culture has been recognised as a significant phenomenon in organisational behaviour and it is crucial in determining how different organisations operate (Silverthorne, 2004). There is an existing shared belief with regard to the existence of culture in every organisation, even though, the ideology of culture carries a certain degree of imprecision and it is often difficult to find a measure of agreement (Schrodt, 2002). A study conducted by Brown (1998) revealed that the interest in the concept of organisational culture from the human resource management and performance perspective developed from the concern that organisational culture was perceived to be providing a non-mechanistic, non-flexible and imaginative approach to understanding how organisations operate.

Schein (1992) who is also one of the significant contributors to the organisational culture phenomenon discovered three distinct ideologies that describe organisational culture, which are artefacts, values and basic underlying assumptions. One of the greatest underlying assumptions is that individuals bring in their insensible cultural presumptions that are influenced by their cultural socialisation, into their organisations (Brenton & Driskill, 2010). This is significant in the South African environment as diverse cultures are imminent in the country and as a result of that most people bring their distinct cultures as well as their own undiscovered cultural assumptions into the workplace.

Schein (2010) postulated that culture is a concept that functions outside of our consciousness; thus, there is a necessity to understand culture because it assists in describing different events within the organisation. In a study by Ojo (2010) they posited that both the organisational challenges and successes are the responsibility of organisational culture.

This has led numerous researchers to believe that developing a focus across the concept will permit organisations to have a better expertise and in return grow extra efficiency and performance in performance (Shani, lau, 2005 & Ojo, 2010).

Momeni, Marjani and Saadat (2012) stated that organisational culture has assumed considerable importance in the 21st century because of its impact on employee overall performance and task pride. The authors further outlined the importance of organisations taking the steps in discovering its personal particular culture so that leaders are able to draw insights gained through the cultural angle so as to, in turn, permit leaders to benefit greater influential managerial power in their organisations. Both Naicker (2008) and Ojo (2010) concur that organisational culture plays a crucial role and may sometimes be the effective deciding factor between a successful or non-successful organisation.

2.4. MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

A number of theoretical frameworks referring to organisational culture have been designed (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Handy, 1985 Harrison & Stokes, 1992; Hellriegel et al., 2004; Schein, 1992). Models are useful because they provide wide overviews of the variations that exist between organisational cultures (Brown, 1995). In order to gain a better knowledge of various concepts of organisational culture. Thus, six models are discussed, with specific emphasis on the Harrison and Stokes (1992) model.

2.4.1. Schein's model of organisational culture

One of most significant studies into organisational culture, is the work of Schein (1992). Schein's model used three levels to describe organisational culture, namely observable artefacts, espoused values and basic underlying assumptions.

Level 1: Artefacts: This model relates to the observable components of the organisational culture such as the dress code, office environment and the written and spoken language (Schein, 1992).

This also consist of the verbal, motion and material elements of organisational symbolism consisting of myths, memories, language, rituals and logos. However, it is not that easy to accurately always correctly decipher the meaning ascribed to these artefacts by the members of the organisation (Schein, 1992).

Level 2: Espoused values: Values are normally determined by the leaders and later emerge as assimilated into the organisation (Schein, 1992). This level also refers to norms, ideologies, charters and philosophies which can be found in the organisation (Schein, 1992). In addition, these values turn into assumptions over a time frame as they are perceived to result in success. This means that they may be disregarded or without any consideration and no longer questioned.

Level 3: Basic underlying assumptions: Primary assumptions are found at the deepest stage of the organisational culture and are the hardest for an outside observer to perceive. These are often taken with no consideration as truth and are no longer challenged, and that they determine perceptions, behaviour and thought processes (Schein, 1992). Once these assumptions are understood, it is much easier to decipher the meaning behind the observed artefacts and behaviours.

2.4.2. Deal and Kennedy's Organisational culture model

Deal and Kennedy (1982) are also the earliest researchers of the organisational culture concept. Their investigation on organisational culture had massive contribution to the life of organisational culture in its know-how in literature. They posited that culture is a crucial element in all organisations, and it has the most significant impact on organisation achievements, even than the organisation's goal method, or politics.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) approached organisational culture from a distinct ideology. They diagnosed significant factors: the level of risk the organisation is exposed to and the promptness with which it and its employees react by efficiently imposing mitigating strategies. The tough guy culture is risk-taking that is characterised by a brief response to assess the fulfillment or in any other case of risk taking. The work hard, play hard culture is associated with a high-level response and little risk. The bet your company culture implies high risks with slow feedback on the risk taking. The process culture is the type of culture held in organisations where there is less risk taking and considerable delays in action and decision making (Senior & Swailes, 2010).

The limitation of the process culture system is the difficulty in responding urgently to environmental adjustments. This is due to the fact the emphasis is the tactics or strategies of having things carried out instead of the situational necessities of pending problems.

However, Deal and Kennedy (2007) noted that despite technical variations in the 21st century's business environment, organisations that adopt robust values still obtain better performance.

Deal and Kennedy's (1982) ideology of corporate culture holds the same perspective with Senior & Swailes (2010) all agree that there are entrepreneurial and competitive cultural types involving taking risks and using opportunities to obtain certain competitive leverage. Those kinds of cultures are common amongst ambidextrous organisations that use exploratory and exploitative strategies to obtain sustainable competitive advantage. The limitation of this typology of organisational culture is that it places an excessive amount of emphasis on risk taking. Consequently, managers should only take calculated risks in order to guard against huge losses for the organisation.

2.4.3. Handy's organisational culture model

Handy (1985) recognised four significant organisational cultures, particularly a power culture, role culture, task culture and people culture. In the power culture, power is living at the centre of the organisation. The role culture is based on the idea that power resides among the centre and the functional areas of the organisation. The task culture is characterised by and is dependent on the demands of a particular project. On the other hand, the people culture is where people cluster within the organisation in a notably autonomous way and power is shared and primarily based on professionalism.

Handy's typology of corporate culture follows the bureaucratic structure of an organisation, for example common government agencies or establishments. The essential shortcoming of this form of organisational culture is that, decision making is not on time due to the fact power resides on the centre of the organisation. This does not offer much area for delegation. Regulations and methods are strictly adhered to with very little autonomy on the part of subordinates. It does not recognize the contingency or situational managerial approach; this shows why most organisations that adopt this sort of organisational culture do not compete efficaciously with their competitors that undertake more flexible cultural typologies (Handy, 1985).

Since power rests at the centre and in functional areas of the organisation members and other stakeholders are not involved in formulating policies; this could negatively impact the implementation of such policies.

2.4.4. Hofstede's organisational culture model

Hofstede (1984) identified four elements of work interrelated cultural differences: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism / collectivism and masculinity / femininity. Long-term vs short-time period orientation became proposed in 1991 as the fifth element (Hofstede, 2014). The fifth element became applicable in more than twenty- nations. Moreover, indulgence vs restraint was proposed in 2010 as the sixth element in the cultural dimension the usage of the World Values Survey data collected by Minkov in 2010. Hofstede (1984) tested work values at IBM to evaluate national culture, using a large sample of employees from more than fifty (50) country locations in three global regions.

Power distance concentrated on employees' acceptance of authority at every functional structure of the organisation. Organisations characterised by a high level of power distance tend to be autocratic and make decisions unilaterally. Members of such organisations are expected to comply with such decisions. On the other hand, in organisations characterised by a low level of power distance members are involved in decision making process which enhances their level of commitment and satisfaction (Cakar & Erturk, 2010). Uncertainty avoidance refers to the extent to which members of a particular organisation try as much as possible to avoid doubt in terms of its objectives, rules and regulations.

Individualism / collectivism relate to whether employees are comfortable to be referred to as individuals or as a team. In individualism employees are comfortable with being referred to as a unique individual or expert, whereas, under collectivism, members are happy to be referred to as a group.

Masculinity/femininity examines the type of culture employees are content with. A masculine culture is very assertive and tend to focus on outcomes and does not consider other people's aspirations, while a feminine culture is less assertive and is more emotionally oriented while it also specializes on interactions among employees as well as values people's requests (Cakar & Erturk, 2010).

2.4.5. Hellriegel organisational culture model

A study conducted by Hellriegel et al. (2004) revealed that cultural elements and their relationships within an organisation shape a pattern that forms a unique part of that organisation, and this creates its unique culture. These cultural elements referred to are the bureaucratic culture, clan culture, entrepreneurial culture and market culture.

Bureaucratic culture: This type of organisation values policies, hierarchical coordination, formalisation and widespread operating processes, with the concern being efficient performance, predictability and stability (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Managers in a bureaucratic organisation are good coordinators, organisers and enforcers of guidelines and strategies which are clearly defined. The duties, responsibilities and authority for all the employees of the organisation enterprise also are clearly outlined. Hellriegel et al. (2004) assert that various municipalities and government institutions have bureaucratic cultures which can hinder their effectiveness and performance. The point of interest of this organisation is internal and formal power is stable.

Clan culture: Characteristics of this mode of organisation are customs, loyalty, cooperation, personal allegiance and self-management. Focus is internal, yet formal control is flexible. The members of this organisation recognise an obligation that is beyond their job description, with the sympathy that their contribution to the organisation may exceed their contractual agreements. Employee tend to express their long term commitment to the organisation in the form of loyalty, this is in exchange for the organisation's long-term commitment to them in the form of security. Unity from this kind of culture is formed through an extended and thorough socialisation method, where long-term clan members operate as mentors and role models for newer members.

There's additionally strong peer pressure to stick to important norms within the organisation, and atmosphere is created within which few departments area unit are left fully free from normative pressures, which can generate innovation and risk-taking behaviour (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Success is assumed to rely on cooperation, participation, consensus, deciding and employee sensitivity to customers and concern for individuals (Hellriegel et al., 2004).

Entrepreneurial culture: Attributes of this cultural form are high levels risk takers, dynamic and creative (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Employees are devoted to experimentation, innovation and being at the leading edge. This organisational culture dimension reacts quickly to exchange, and creates transformation because of personal initiatives, flexibility and freedom resulting in growth and reward (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Effectiveness in this regard refers to providing new and unique products and constant growth. The organisation focuses its attention externally and formal control orientation is flexible for fostering innovation and change.

Market culture: Hellriegel et al., (2004) posited that the attainment of goals that are measurable particularly those that are finance based and market based are the core characteristics of this type of organisational culture. In this organisation, the relationship between employee and organisation is based on a contract, where the expectations of each party is agreed in advance, thus the formal control ability is moderately stable. This is because the employee is in obligation to deliver an agreed level of performance, with the organisation responding with an agreed level of remuneration and benefits (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Competition and a profit aimed orientation therefore exist throughout this organisation because higher levels of performance from the employees are paid through increased compensation from the organisation.

Therefore, more attention is accorded to Harrison's organisational culture model as the current research is based on this model. The following section provides a broad discussion of the model.

2.4.6. Harrison organisational culture model

Based on the previous literature provided it is evident that there are various models that attempt to describe and diagnose organisational culture in the discipline of organisational development. Harrison (1993) developed a theoretical model which serves the purpose of diagnosing organisational culture which is adopted in this study. Harrison (1993) pointed out that although the nature of organisational culture model is intended to be descriptive in nature other than evaluative, there still exist a norm of perceiving it in evaluative forms.

The descriptive model intends build an awareness of the cultural gaps between the existing and preferred cultures within an organisation (Harrison, 1993). This model suggests that organisational culture can be analysed in four distinct cultural dimensions, namely power-oriented culture; role-oriented culture; achievement-oriented culture; and support-oriented culture (Harrison, 1993). The organisational culture model depicted in Figure 3 suggests that the four dimensions of culture orientation as developed by Harrison (1993) are measured by using two methods of functioning, which are the formalisation and centralisation modes (Harrison, 1993). The methods of operation can be analysed based on a low scale or a high scale.

Martins and Martins (2003) posited that an organisation with high formalisation enables predictability, creates order and environmental consistency. Subsequently, a strong organisational culture can serve as a replacement for formalisation. This imply that the organisation's written rigid rules and regulations which serve as a tool to manage its members' behaviour can be internalised by members of the organisation when they accept the organisation's culture; this occurs without the need for written documentation (Martins & Martins, 2003). Thus, low formalisation of rules and regulations may imply that the organisational culture processes are weak.

2.4.6.1. Power dimension

Power is the least favoured dimension of organisational culture. In many organisations or institutions power prevails to ensure order, there will always be a necessity to exercise power in order to have direction and exert control on the behaviour of people. Harrison and stokes (1992) describes the power orientated culture as organisational culture that reflects on the inequality in the distribution of resources. The figure (Fig.3) clearly indicates that organisational culture that is power orientated is indicate a high centralisation and relatively low levels of formalisation. In a study by Brown (1998), it is stated that power orientated culture stems from one directional source of which its influence spread across the organisation. This explains that power is centralised and members of the organisation are connected to the centre by functional and specialist strings (Harrison, 1993). Power-oriented culture is practised in both small and larger organisations. In small organisations directed by power orientated leaders whose power is only limited to them, the leadership style is only benefiting the leader, the needs of others are rarely considered. Authority rests upon those who are in control of the distribution of resources (Brown, 1998).

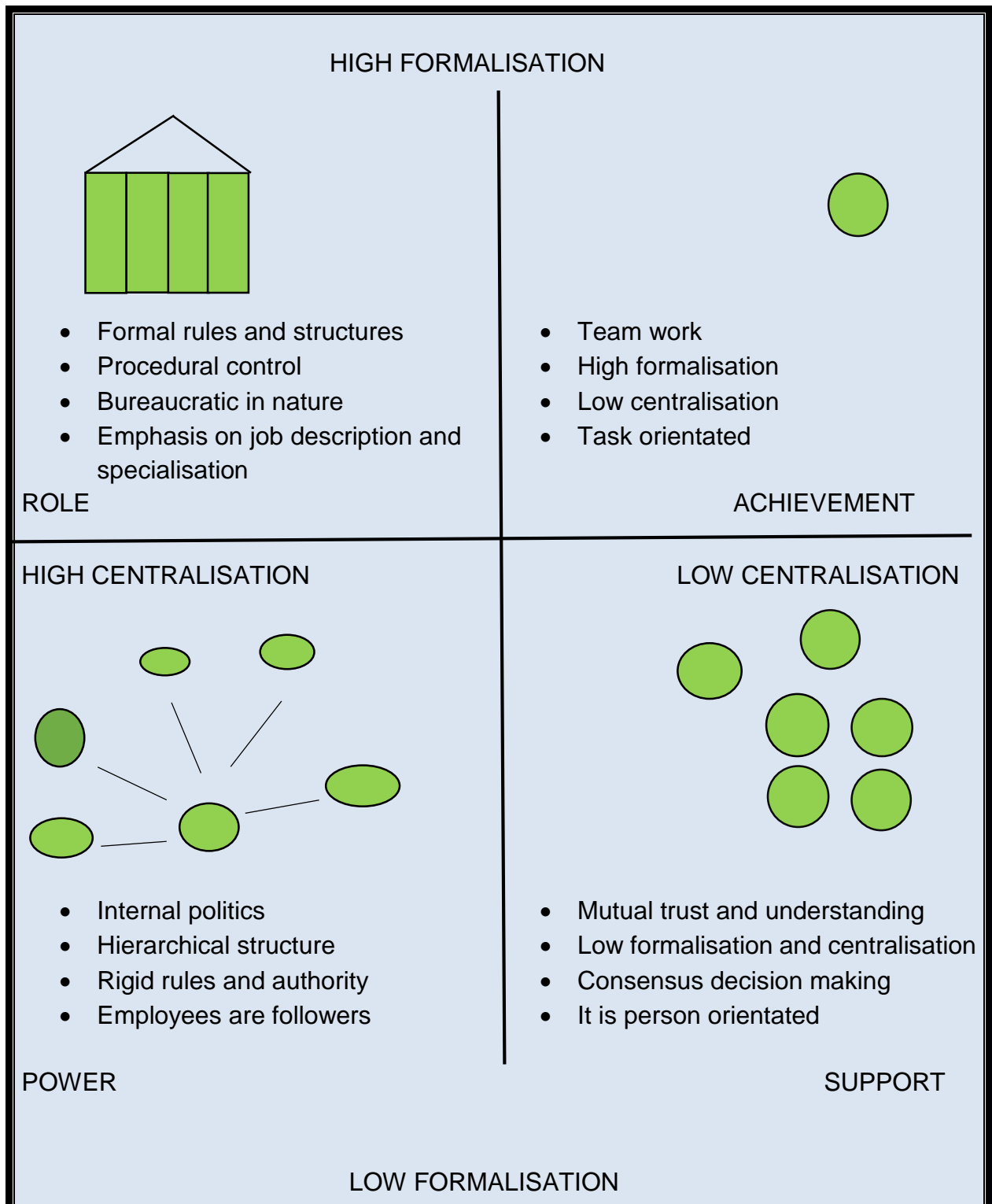


Figure 3. Organisational culture model, (Source: Harrison 1972:122).

Therefore, in an organisation that is power orientated the leaders own subjective, informal and power management style is accepted and adhered to. Usually the structure of the organisation is hierarchical in nature (Brown, 1998). Individuals who are exerting power focus on maintaining absolute control over their followers. In such organisations, the size of the organisation is a detrimental factor because of the web links and also too many activities it can break.

Harrison and Stokes (1992) discovered that in bigger organisations, where the culture is power oriented the leaders tend to rule by instilling fear to others, they usually abuse power for their own personal gain and also advantaging their friends and their relatives. Kanter, (1997) discovered that as a result of this influence, some newly appointed leaders often fear sharing power because of their past experiences of the role of sharing power which was often perceived as losing it.

Table 1

The advantages and disadvantages of power culture dimension

Disadvantages	Advantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is characterised by internal politics in the sense that decisions are taken largely on the bases of influence rather than on procedural or purely logical grounds. • The working environment becomes dominated with nepotism and favouritism. Those in power does as they please by breaking the rules without any penalties imposed on them and always take special privileges. • Promotion is granted to those who are loyal to the people in power even when they are not competent enough for the position. • Organisations exert control over their employees by using power. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It creates unity and order and provides uniformity and direction, certainty which reduces discrepancies and confusion in emergency situations. • Discretion to information is an advantage of personal power and is limited only to close friends and protégés. • It is rigid or rule oriented in the sense that it promotes conformity with regards respect of authority, rationality in procedures, division of work and normalisation. • There is centralisation of power which holds direct authority to power and creates order in all operations within an organisation.

2.4.6.2. Role dimension

Harrison and Stokes (1992) described the role oriented organisational culture as a system which substitutes organisational structures and procedures for the absolute power of the person who is leading. This dimension comprises of a conservative hierarchy and is dominated by formal rules and structures that are embodied in the realm of the organisation, and follow consistence based procedures. This culture dimension emphasises mainly on the job description and specialisation.

This means that work is determined by the procedures and rules that spell out the job description, which is more important than the human factor or the person who fills the position (Harrison, 1993). Figure 3 above depicts the role oriented dimension as placed above both formalisation and centralisation on method of operation.

In relation to the role dimension (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) postulated that the organisation operates under a hierarchical culture that is characterised by a formalised and structured work environment. Procedures control what employees do and it is believed that successful leaders are good coordinators and organisers. They further agreed that bigger organisations and governmental institutions are generally controlled by this type of organisational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This culture mode of organisational culture focuses on efficiency, and the organisational context mostly stable and simple. If developments are to take place the changes that are made should be kept to a bare minimum, and this culture type is similar to the role dimension.

Brown (1998:67) added that strength of a role culture depends in its elements such as finance, purchasing, production and so forth. These elements are sought as a series of pillars which are co-ordinated and managed by a small number of senior executives. Therefore, this means that the fundamental and primary pillars of such an organisation are formalised and the centralised functions are controlled by the role and communication procedures (Hampden-Tuner, 1990). The mechanistic processes adopted by such an organisation is deemed as bureaucratic in nature.

Table 2

The advantages and disadvantages of role culture dimension

Disadvantages	Advantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• It is wrong to contradict the power of the leader or to deviate from the procedures which are followed daily.• Employees are regarded as objects treated as such rather than as individual human beings.• People comply with the instructions given even when these instructions get in their way of doing the work.• It is considered important to act in line with the rules given than to challenge them.• It is difficult to get approval for changes that people give up on making needed improvements.• The job is designed in a manner that it doesn't allow for people to contribute their skills and abilities. People tend to be less motivated with their jobs.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Proper formal designed structures and systems create a room for efficient operations and reduce the time for learning jobs.• Clear lines of authority and role responsibilities reduce conflict, position battles, confusion and informal decision making.• Clear, reasonable rules and principles shield people from misuse and oppressive utilisation of power.• Having good structures, methods and managerial skill prevents having to "rehash the wheel".• Structure, routine and consistency give security and diminish stress.

Harrison (1993) identified the advantages and disadvantages of role culture dimension. The table above gives an insight of the strengths and weaknesses of the role dimension.

The importance of role clarification depends on practical capability and specialisation more than the development of a product or the cost of the product (Harrison, 1993). This restricts an institution with a role-oriented culture. Brown (1998:67) states that "role cultures are likely to be most successful in stable and predictable environments over which the organisation is able to exert some control or where product life spans are long".

Any organisation that operates under this mode of culture dimension will find it challenging to survive in a turbulent environment that demands the ability to be adaptive and responsive to dynamic changes. Therefore, to explain roles within an organisation is imperative for the role culture.

Harrison and Stokes (1992) stated that role orientated organisations do not give people at a lower level the discretion to make decisions because they believe that people are not to be trusted. This culture works in a progressive level of leadership which ensures security and consistency. It can provide security for organisational members by offering a predictable rate of climbing up a pillar and a chance to acquire specialist skill without risk (Brown, 1998). In principle, this role culture exists to guarantee that employees in the organisation do not make mistakes, while focusing on legitimacy and responsibility.

The role culture supports the uncertainty avoidance dimension by Hofstede (2012) whereby uncertainty avoidance is seen as a culture that promotes the need for formal rules to avoid uncertainty and ambiguity. There is high resistance and hesitation to change due to the notion that members of the organisation feel insecure because of unknown future situations.

2.4.6.3 Achievement Dimension

Harrison and Stokes (1992:17) described the achievement-oriented culture as “the aligned culture which lines people up behind a common vision or purpose”. The achievement culture focuses on the skills, competencies and expertise of employees. Authority is allocated based on a defined term period, such as the completion of team projects. Team work is more valued unlike the individual or positional power where an individual has discretion over a certain group of people within the organisation.

The structure of this organisation is represented as a net whereby some of the strands are stronger as compared to others (Harrison,1993). Therefore, power is based on a person’s competence and knowledge. In achievement culture the members act in accordance to the set objectives and purpose of the organisation and are also determined to achieve the organisational objectives. Achievement culture is often regarded as the task culture whereby power is considered as to be based on the individual’s expertise as opposed to the position held.

The achievement-oriented culture is high in formalisation and low in centralisation. This means that there is a balance in formality and centrality of power which is shared in organisations, the objective of this culture is to promote team work and to bring the right people together in order to realise organisational goals. Therefore, by bringing a group of people who are specialists in their fields the organisation is able to achieve its goals.

Martins and Martins (2003) described team orientation as the degree to which work activities are organised around teams other than individuals. Brown (1998:69) stated that the advantage of an achievement culture is that in an environment whereby competition and innovation is constant; this culture can be successful. The activities and functions are structured as per teams and then evaluated according to their effectiveness to the goals of the organisation. People who are specialists in their field are organised together and resources allocated to focus on specific projects. According to Arnold (2005) the advantage of a team other than individual tasks is enabling high performance, high flexibility and high commitment organisation. This is attributed to the fact that team enables positive synergy through coordinated efforts. Utilizing teams to complete a job is advantageous, the main weakness associated with achievement culture is that team work overshadows individual performance (Harrison,1993).

2.4.6.4. Support culture dimension

The support culture dimension is related to the individual's enjoyment of their work or tasks as well as the respect and recognition for needs and values of other people involved. Harrison and Stokes (1992) postulated that the support dimension is primarily depended on mutual trust and understanding between the employees and the organisation. The definition provided by Harrison and Stokes (1992) can be further explained as follows: the support culture dimension is an organisational climate that is based on expectations between the individual and the organisation.

The nature and functioning of the support culture dimension is described as being low in formalisation and centralisation. Often at times, support dimension of organisational culture is often related to the person culture dimension.

Table 3*Disadvantages and advantages of achievement dimension*

Disadvantages	Advantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees believe so much in what they are doing that the end comes to justify the means. • Employees become ignorant of personal needs, and they sacrifice family, social life and health for work. • The group members communicate only amongst themselves and become isolated from others and from reality. • The group only cooperates internally, which others see as arrogant and competitive. • Because dissent and criticism are stifled, the group has difficulty correcting its own errors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coordinated efforts toward mutually valued goals. • Reduced power control over individuals. • Increased levels of internal motivation. • Maximum utilization of members' talents. • Increased self-esteem for organisational members.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The commitment to strive for excellence at any cost leads to waste and inefficiency. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rapid adaptation to change.

A support-oriented culture exists only for the people who form part of the organisation, and may be depicted diagrammatically as a cluster in which no individual is dominant to the other individual. The existing mutual relationship between the individual employee and the organisation serve the needs of members. It also results in obsolete management control and it further replaces the centralisation of power with consensus decision making. Subsequently, the decisions are taken through an informal communication channel. This type of culture dimension exists only for the individual employees who belong in it.

A good manager is regarded as the leader who considers and respond to the personal demand, need and values of people, and he doesn't abuse his discretion but rather uses his position to support others and also provide satisfying growth stimulating work opportunities for subordinates (Pheysey, 2003). The communication mode is often informal or verbal and it normally flows across all directions.

Some of the disadvantages of this culture as listed below are that employees focus on building interrelationships and neglect their tasks and when mutual agreement cannot be concluded, the group may become indecisive, and this will prolong decision taking as they would require everyone's approval (Harrison, 1993).

The support culture dimension is distinct from the achievement culture because it focuses on teams, it also considers every individual employee as the central point in the organisation. In a support orientated culture the structure of the organisation has minimal rankings, it is a benevolent cluster structure with minimal hierarchy, this means limited power control of employees (Harrison, 1993). Employees are allotted power based on their ability to complete a task with outmost competence; and this may be identified with the role-oriented culture organisation.

The need to share power is dictated by the requirement for expertise or task competencies (Brown, 1998). As a result, members influence each other through illustrations of task performance and example and good support. Hence the support culture is regarded as similar to the people orientation because of the similarities of characteristics of organisational culture. Martins and Martins (2003:381) broadly described the support orientation culture as "the extent to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people".

This means that the wellness of employees is significant to management in this type of organisation. Harrison (1993) advanced that support orientated organisations are relatively small in size and employees have worked together for a long period of time and have developed personal relationships with each other (Harrison, 1993). As a result of the span of working together, the work and personal relationships are therefore characterised by mutuality and trust which binds people to one another.

Therefore, these relationships exist to maintain the needs of the members. In this organisation inclusive decision-making substitutes the management control over decisions and there is minimal formality and centrality of power, each and every member is clustered according to their competencies but there are no power rankings (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). The communication method used often promotes verbal or informal style, and passes through in all positions. The decisions are often taken through an informal method.

Table 4

Disadvantages and advantages of the support dimension

DISADVANTAGES	ADVANTAGES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees often prioritise their relationships and neglect the work. • Out of sympathy and kindness significant employee related decisions may be avoided. • When informed decisions cannot be concluded the group may become indecisive and lose direction. • Because of close relationships disagreements may be minimised, there is surface harmony and covert conflict. • Transition may be a lengthy process because of the need to consider everyone on board. • Employees are all rewarded equally although they might not have contributed in the same way. This could lead frustrations to those who contributed a lot on a task. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good internal communication and integration processes are followed. • Increased levels of commitment to decision and high trust between individuals and the organisation. • Good process skills to manage people issues well. • There's a high level of cooperation and effective group work. • Good at sensing an environment and adjust to it and offer a caring and responsive service. • Nurturing employees for good health and well-being. • Great balance for achievement culture.

According to Harrison (1993) a support culture dimension promotes a positive workplace environment and develops the employees because it supports new ideas, experimentation and often quick to adapt to changes (Harrison, 1993). This implies that the organisation prioritises the scarce talents and skills of each individual employee who also value their own work.

Therefore, the organisation takes the responsibility to develop highly skilled individuals and the latter are allowed to make decisions.

2.6. STRONG AND WEAK ORGANISATIONAL CULTURES

Organisational culture is described as being either strong or weak (Van Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007). However, this does not mean that a strong organisational imply that it is a positive culture (Brenton & Driskill, 2010). Organisations put much effort in order to manage constant dynamics, thus stronger cultures tend to exert a lot of pressure upon the employees and often persuade them to adapt to these changes. Organisations, mainly in South Africa, hire people who are diverse and offer their own strengths in behaviour and skills, yet in strong cultures these divergent skills and performance become ineffective as new members try to adapt or conform to the existing culture (Martins & Martins, 2003).

In an organisation with a strong culture, the organisation's common customs and values are broadly shared, then when the employees accept these values, it increases the likelihood for employees to conform to the values and this strengthens the existing strong culture (Martins & Martins, 2003).

Therefore, a stronger culture will have a greater impact on employee behaviours because the employees share the same values and this will create a greater power to shape their behaviour. A stronger culture is expected to cause a lower employee turnover and create a sense of loyalty, foster communication between employees and job satisfaction, which may in turn decrease the number of employees' that need to leave the organisation (Martins & Martins, 2003).

Table 5*Comparison of strong and weak cultures*

Strong culture	Weak culture
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Values permeate the organisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Values are restricted to top management
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most employees can tell stories about history and heroes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Little knowledge about history or heroes exists among average employees
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All employees identify with the existing strong culture 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees identify more with subcultures than with the overall organisational culture
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surface cultural elements are tied to employee beliefs and assumptions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There's no integration that exists between cultural elements and employees' beliefs and assumptions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Culture has historical penetration and therefore has existed over a long period 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The culture is new and not well established
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elements of culture send consistent message 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elements send contradictory messages

Source: (Brenton & Driskill, 2010:43)

Organisational culture can be classified as either strong or weak based on commonality of the core values among organisational members and the extent of loyalty the members have to these core values. A weak organisational culture paves a way for employees to serve their own interest and beliefs without the regard of others and members are only showing concerns unique to themselves. Weak cultures lead to turf wars and inconsistencies of behaviours. In weak organisations values are not common and members conform within their subcultures, there's a lack of commitment to the organisation mission and strategies. The culture is often weak in enforcing principles and rules to shape behaviour.

2.7. IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

According to Arnold (2005), organisational culture plays an important role in managing the behaviour of members and the broader organisation. If the organisation operates in a similar and same manner for a specific period achieving goals and successes members adopt the existing patterns of behaviour and accept principles that consistently promote individual development. Thus, organisational culture is built as an ideal of common experiences. Culture basically fulfils a need of the social factor, integration and coordination methods, which fosters social coherence and the material balance of the organisation. These main norms of culture primarily focus on the correlation of all employees and the relationship between the organisation and its environment.

Organisational culture influences various constructs within an organisation and so, as awareness of its relationship with various constructs it serves as an integral mechanism in all parts of the organisation. Organisational culture does not only guide organisational behaviour but also determine the goals, work methods, how employees should address each other and how to form boundaries in personal relationships (Harrison, 1993).

Organisational theory acknowledges the significance of organisational culture and its role within the organisation and influence on employees (Martins & Martins, 2003). Moreover, organisational culture plays an important role by mainly establishing the way of doing things in order to give a meaning to organisational life (Arnold, 2005).

2.8. CHANGING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Changing organisational culture is dynamic, as it demands the organisation to reshape the existing image of the organisation (Singh, 2011). In addition, the impact of global economy on organisations requires them to be proactive and continuously evolve to external factors. The organisations are required to undergo necessary change in the existing culture in order to remain focused and strongly competitive within the dynamic global economy. Although the changes of existing organisational culture is challenging, Martins and Martins (2003) strongly suggested that it can be possible. Ornstein and Lunenberg (2008) discovered significant fundamental elements that are deemed as essential for in order for the organisational change to be successful.

The first is an empowering external context which should be adaptive of any change that may happen.

This will also discover the possibility of threat the organisation will encounter should the change happen. The internal context must have conditions that allow for a spare of resources; commitment by employees to undergo change and any possible unforeseen carrying risks; minimal coupling and the agent of change must possess the leadership skills and power ability. There are certain factors which are detrimental to the creation and development of effective organisational change can be poor performance, pressure from stakeholders, a decreased number of employees as well as any perceived competition from the outside environment (Ornstein & Lunenberg, 2008).

In order to obtain an effective organisational change, cultural visioning must be put in place. The vision of a new and more needed organisational culture must be clear, which is significant for change to take place (Martin & Fellenz, 2010). Leaders have to discover the existing customs, values, principles and behaviours in the existing culture, and will need to embrace uncertainties in the future and design a sustainable image of the organisation to remain competitive. Once the new organisational vision is set a plan needs to be created for the vision to be attained.

The plan to develop a new vision comprises of action plans for the inducement, management and enforcement of the change strategy (Martin & Fellenz, 2010). The inducement stage demands to stimulate the employees for change and dealing with any employees who are resistant to change.

The management stage deals with setting out possible intervention strategy and marshal the change agents. While the stabilisation stage determines ways of formalising the new culture and ascertaining that the new culture becomes known as fact (Ornstein & Lunenberg, 2008).

2.9. ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Globally the higher education sector is undergoing constant changes due to expanding in student numbers, funding problems, and program changes determined by national and international demands (Hazelkorn, 2012). For instance, the post-1994 dispensation in South Africa witnessed a new order in the higher education sector evidenced in mergers and incorporations of higher education institutions, which resulted in the formation of new comprehensive institutions, retention of some traditional universities (Chipunza & Gwarinda, 2010). Various higher education institutions were affected and underwent some changes with regard to: leadership, systems, procedures and processes, programs, student numbers, conditions of service, quality of staff, structures, in order to create a new university culture while maintaining the vocationally-oriented aspects.

These changes presented a new organisational culture which presumably impacted on the employee's job satisfaction. In support of the above statement the organisational change theories (Gready, 2013) argue that major changes, such as mergers and acquisitions, has a significant affect in an organisation's primary business.

These transitions and changes to the core business in the higher education sector will likely to affect academics (Timmins, Bham, McFadyen & Ward, 2006). In addition, these contemporary challenges facing higher education comes from the constant demands from political leaders for access for a greater share of the country's population to meet the demand of the new economy. Therefore, South Africa is not exempted from a clamour for access to higher education for everyone. Competitive pressures increased in industry during the past three decades. Industry realized that continuous improvement of performance was required to remain aggressively competent.

The most important emphasis in higher education institutions is to continuously improve the quality of education and particularly research on organisational culture. This imply better higher education performance and its influence on the ranking of universities across the globe. Therefore, it is important to be aware of the elements that contribute to organisation performance.

Therefore, the overall performance of organisation relies strongly upon how matters are handled in that particular institution (Alvesson, 2013). The manner of doing things determines the outcomes and the way the organisation deals with its demanding situations on daily basis.

However, there seems to be little research on organisational culture conducted in higher educational institutions. Moreover, the distinctiveness of the organisational culture for each institution predicts how the institution will perform and meet its goals (Robbins, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2007). Each institution of higher education has its own cultural dimension and more research must be conducted to contribute to the body of knowledge.

Organisational culture has contributed extensively to the development of the success and achievement of any institution (Van-Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007). This implies that a higher education institution with a culture that its personnel is able to identify with and also has a dedicated group of workers that are strategically positioned will develop high overall performance and high job satisfaction. Therefore, if the existing organisational culture is ideal, employees will acquire greater individual performance that will benefit the organisation simply because they feel that their needs and dreams are met.

Hence, in the present study organisational culture was analysed in the view to determine the way it in which it impacts job satisfaction and turnover intention, with the aim to recommend strategies to improve individual performance and consequently that of higher education institutions. In addition, the decision making process, promotion processes and how the company deals with challenges are all found in the culture of the organisation (Van-Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007).

Various studies that examined organisational culture have been successfully conducted. These studies used both qualitative, quantitative and a combination of both techniques (Parker & Wright, 2000). For this study purpose, the model by Harrison and Stokes (1992) was selected to examine organisational culture for the primary research. This model was selected because Harrison and Stokes (1992) developed a research scale that they repeatedly tested and discovered to have a favourable reliability and construct validity (Harrison, 1993).

The instrument developed by Harrison and Stokes (1992) has also been subsequently tested in the South African environment by (Louw & Boshoff, 2006).

2.10. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter examined the concept of organisational culture and provided a discussion of the relevant theories of organisational culture. Theoretical and empirical findings were discussed as well. Lastly, organisational culture in higher education institutions was looked at. The next chapter provides a discussion of job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 3

JOB SATISFACTION

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the concept of job satisfaction and its theories in detail. In line with the theoretical aims of this study, this chapter discusses job satisfaction and it focuses on the definition, background, theories of job satisfaction (content theories and process theories), determinants of job satisfaction and the impact of job satisfaction. The theories are discussed based on previous research in South Africa and research conducted internationally.

3.2. DEFINITION OF JOB SATISFACTION

There are numerous definitions that are available on the concept of job satisfaction, and some of these definitions are conflicting in nature. Different researchers use various approaches towards describing the concept job satisfaction. Some of the most common applied and relevant definitions of job satisfaction are described in the paragraphs that follows.

Amongst the authors of job satisfaction there is Spector (2007) who defined job satisfaction as how people feel about their jobs and various facets of their jobs. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) supported this definition by describing job satisfaction as the degree to which employees like their work.

Robbins (2001) defined the concept of job satisfaction as a person's overall attitude relating to their work and it is further explained that, an individual with a high job satisfaction has a positive attitude towards their job and a dissatisfied individual has a negative attitude towards their job.

In line with Schermerhorn (1993) job satisfaction may be described as an affective or emotional response to exclusive facets of an employees work paintings. The author added that the elements that causes job satisfaction include status, supervision, employee relationships, job content material, remuneration and extrinsic rewards, promotion and physical conditions of the work surroundings and lastly the organisational culture. Furthermore, job satisfaction is a synchronization of what an organisation expects of its personnel and what the employees require from the employer.

Luthans (2005) gives a very good description of job satisfaction and posited that it incorporates of three exceptional dimensions. The primary one is an emotional reaction to job satisfaction and therefore it cannot be seen but it can only be deduced. Secondly, it is primarily based through how well the outcomes meet or exceed expectations. Finally, it represents various related attitudes. Job satisfaction is the end feeling of someone after finishing a given task. The degree that a person's job satisfies their dominant desires and meet the expectancies and values, the work can be pleasant. This sensation would be positive or negative depending upon whether the dominant needs are satisfied or not.

Kaliski (2007) described job satisfaction as individuals feeling of achievement and success after completing a task. It is usually believed to be directly related to productivity as well as the personal wellbeing. Job satisfaction is doing a job that one enjoys, doing it properly and being rewarded for one's efforts. In addition, job satisfaction similarly refers to eager, contentment and happiness with one's work. Is further regarded as a fundamental factor that results in recognition, high income, promotion and the achievement of other goals that result in a feeling of satisfaction.

Spector (2007) added two approaches that depicts how people feel about their occupations and stated that job satisfaction is not just how people feel about their employment in general, but how they feel about distinctive parts of the jobs. He contends that these two approaches are the worldwide global approach and the facet approach.

The global approach describes job satisfaction as a solitary and a general feeling towards the job or an overall feeling towards the job, whilst the facet approach focuses on numerous aspects of job satisfaction which includes pay and the work environment.

Fraser (1983) supports this and contends that job satisfaction is not a unitary factor. It is conceivable that an employee may be satisfied with one aspect of the job as an instance, but be dissatisfied with every other component, like pay. In addition, job satisfaction is divided into two groups namely, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction.

A description of the facet, global, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction is provided below:

3.2.1. Facet Satisfaction

This approach is described as the tendency of an employee to be more or less happy with diverse elements of the job (Spector, 2007). Spector (2007) further explains the specific elements or facets of the job as the person's attitude about their pay, the work itself - whether or not is difficult stimulating and attractive, and the supervisors and whether or not they have great managerial capabilities, and lastly as well as being competent in their jobs.

3.2.2. Global Satisfaction

Global satisfaction specifically focusses on the general internal condition of satisfaction or disappointment inside the person. Positive encounters and as well as well-disposed partners, good compensation, empathetic supervisors and appealing jobs create a positive internal state. Negative encounters coming approximately because of low pay rate, less stimulating jobs and constant criticism create a negative inward state of dissatisfaction within the person. Consequently, the feeling of overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a holistic feeling that is dependent on the extent and nature of the work environment and terrible experiences (Spector, 2007).

3.2.3 Intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction

Antoni (2009) clearly explained that job satisfaction consists of two elements namely, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction factors. The intrinsic factors refer to the attitude of the employee towards the job while the extrinsic element refer to the factors related to the working context. When these elements are grouped or combined they ensure an overall job satisfaction by an individual. These two fundamental elements reflect both physiological and psychological state of the individual. Job satisfaction is related with not only financial benefits but also the socio-psychological benefits offered by the job. In addition, the co-workers and supervisors of any organisation play a crucial role in job satisfaction.

The attainment of job satisfaction by employees is reflected by the organisation positive outputs and these intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors have a positive impact on the organisation.

For the purpose of this study the concept of job satisfaction is regarded as an attitudinal variable and more specifically, as feelings employees have about their work and thus positive and desirable attitude towards the job imply that the individual employee is satisfied with their working environment (Armstrong, 2006). They also derive a feeling of accomplishment from a job as well as pleasure when they perform their work.

3.3. THEORITICAL BACKGROUND OF JOB SATISFACTION

There's a plethora of discussions provided in literature about the origin of the concept job satisfaction and as well as the theories of job satisfaction. Studies on this concept started from early decades of the 20th century with the theory of Scientific Management which was commonly alluded to as 'Taylorism' by Frederick W. Taylor (1911) whereby human beings were treated as the economic men and money seemed as the most important motivator for task job satisfaction.

Elton Mayo (1924) also added to this view by splitting it apart during the Hawthorne studies about the character and functioning of an individual. There was then a discovery that there are many elements that contribute to the motivation and satisfaction of employees in the workplace and a few which incorporates, personal morale, positive relationships, leadership and management that is based on the understanding of human behaviour and group behaviour through good interpersonal capabilities including motivation, counselling, leading and good communication (Luthans, 2005).

Hawthorne studies by Elton Mayo and Roethlisberger in 1924 focused on human relations. Contrary to Taylor's concept that believed that people's issues should be less as they obstructed manufacturing, Mayo strongly believed that people's problems ought to be seen as an advantage for development. Most of their work was investigated at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric powered company where the effects that various tiers of illumination on employee productiveness were examined. Their attempt was to analyse or to find out the nature of the relationship between working conditions and employee productivity however it ended with the discovery that supervision had a considerable effect on employee behaviour (Luthans, 2005).

Vecchio (2000) reviewed those two approaches and claimed that the same way the scientific management approach had challenges of application, so too does the human relations approach. The rejection of these approaches is based totally at the view that suggest that there is a reciprocal relationship that exists between management and the employee. This means that if management of the organisation considers the needs of their staff members then employees can be happier and exchange by way of being more effective. However, Vecchio (2001) further states that this relationship has not been strongly mounted, as studies have not yet determined clean proof of the relationship between employee satisfaction and productivity.

In South Africa the need for human relations started out not due to the Hawthorne studies but due to pressure from inside and outside South Africa. The development of trade unions was a result of labour unrests and this was a clear indication that the workers are demanding better jobs and work conditions. The other cause was outside pressure from other organisations that South Africa was part of in terms of international relations. This included the United Nations and the International Labour Organisation that threatened to impose sanctions and solicit boycotts worldwide unless South Africa treated its black workers more humanely. Therefore, the goal of the human relation motion was to construct a collective and cooperative workforce by making the workers feel useful and form part of the organisation (Luthans, 2005).

In the 21st century a reference to the Hawthorne studies exemplifies a scenario whereby the creation of experimental conditions is designed to discover salient factors of behaviour. Thus, the consequences of shaping behaviour are identified to become aware of a person's holistic behaviour. The initial Hawthorne research was primarily based on the observation that the productivity of the employees increased over the time with every adjustment in the work environment that was introduced by the experiments (Brannigan & Zwerman, 2001). This means when employees are conscious that their behaviour is being watched they change how they act.

The improvement of the Hawthorne research also contributed to the establishment of applied psychology, as it is referred today. Simply stated early studies contributed to the birth of research on job satisfaction regarding ergonomics, layout and productivity.

Therefore, after the establishment and existence of human relations it was followed by the humanistic approach, which changed into Human Resource Management and that was based on based on Maslow's model. Essentially the Human Resource Management approach became an extension of human relations and looked beyond social needs to physiological, protection, and self-actualisation needs. The primary purpose of Human Resource Management was meant to introduce change strategies which targeted on self-actualisation and prioritized the satisfaction needs of employees.

The guidelines and principles of Human resource management had been identified by the author Maslow in 1954 and his model was further researched by Argyris (1957), McGregor (1960), Herzberg (1967) and consequently the content theories of motivation were developed (Luthans, 2005). In South Africa, the transition from Human Relations to Human Resource Management was strongly influenced by the same pressures that established Human Relations, which is lack of skilled labour. The shortage of skilled labour in the 1970s disturbed the growth of the economic system and furnished opportunity to train the non-white employees. This inspired the creation of stricter humanistic and inclusive regulations such as the codes of fair employment practices (Barling & Beattie, 1983). Government delivered a new managerial paradigm which insists that employees have to be treated and regarded as human resources that have their very own needs and personal desires in a way acknowledging the differences in modern organisations.

The existence of the Human Resource Management stimulated the development of the contemporary content theories of job satisfaction as indicated above. The content theories primary purpose is to discover what motivates employees to work. The content theories are also known as need theories because it specifically focuses on an individual's personal needs and motives (Arnold & Feldman, 2007). The most used and researched models till present day are the content theories which includes Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alderfer's model, McClelland's achievement model, and Herzberg's two-factor model (Arnold & Feldman, 2007).

However, the content theories were opposed by other researchers who identified shortfalls and introduced the process theories.

The process models mainly describe how personal or internal factors relate and affect each other to exhibit a certain type of behaviour. The process theories focus on the psychological part of the human being and thus seek understand the psychological processes that causes satisfaction within individuals. The process models that are most researched and common are expectancy, equity, and goal Setting (Arnold & Feldman, 2007).

The most common motivation theories were divided into content and process approaches. Luthans (2005) discovered a third approach which is called contemporary theories, this approach recognizes the need to include equity and organisational justice theories, however for the purposes of this study only the content and process theories are discussed. The concept of job satisfaction can be regarded as one of the key aspects when it comes to efficiency and effectiveness of organisational success. The discipline of job satisfaction is an area that draws interest to various researchers of organisational behaviour and the practitioners of human resource management (Luthans, 2005).

Job satisfaction is often regarded as the extent to which employees are influenced positively or negatively with their work. It refers to the employee's overall attitude or emotional response to the employee's job and the physical and social conditions of the work environment, for example, from the ideology of Herzberg's theory it is postulated that the contents of the job are the motivating factors, which may create positive employment relationships and high level of job-satisfaction (Tirmizi, 2008).

For the purpose of this study only the content and process theories of job satisfaction will be discussed and only the models that specifically pertain job satisfaction are identified and discussed.

3.4. THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

It is evident in literature that there is an overabundance of job satisfaction theories. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2009) they explained that these theories are not applicable in all condition and that a contingency approach is required to identify the satisfaction theories that relate to a particular environment. Therefore, only the relevant theories relating to this study will be discussed.

This section will discuss the various models and theories of job satisfaction and additionally discuss how the relevant theories can be used to improve and enhance job satisfaction. Calder (2000) stated that these satisfaction theories may be divided into categories, specifically: content theories and process theories. Mullins (1996) added that the content theories of satisfaction are associated with job satisfaction relate to satisfaction and improved performance. However, the process theories contemplate in more detail the relationship between motivation, pleasure and improved overall performance.

3.4.1. Content Theories

The content theory of job satisfaction relates to the process of figuring out and characterizing the needs and motives that force people to act in a particular way. The content theories emphasize the internal needs that force people to behave in a particular way in the working environment. Ultimately, these theories suggest that management can determine and propose the needs of employees by a method of observing their behaviour.

3.4.1.1. Maslow's hierarchy of need theory

Considerable research has been carried out in the area of job motivation and satisfaction and some psychologists have tried to explain it in relation to particular needs, interests and values. Among these theories is Maslow's hierarchy of needs which has explored these elements in detail. In line with Maslow it is said that an individual person's personality is dynamic and unceasingly want to fulfil a hierarchy of needs with an inherent purpose towards self-actualization (Joubert, 2000). In line with Abdullah (2013) it is clearly explained that the Maslow's hierarchy of needs are classified into five distinctive stages.

The primary level of the hierarchy pertains to the satisfaction of the psychological needs which encompass the basic needs such as housing, material and financial advantages that positively impact on employee tasks and overall performance. The second level, refers to the safety needs which includes security and protection of physical and emotional harm that is deemed significantly important. At this stage, this implies that the employer need to create safe working environment, while it depends upon people to guard their personal safety out of the of the work surroundings (Abdullah, 2013).

Smith and Tisak (1993) added that at the safety needs level, implies safety and security in the form of job security and fringe benefits. These needs have been discovered to have positive impact on employee job performance. Abdullah (2013) further explained the third level relates to the social needs that means the need for socializing and focusing on building positive relationships with fellow employees or subordinates.

In addition, a study by Arnolds and Boshoff (2001) revealed that at this level, social support of employees is vital for enhancing performance. The fourth level of the hierarchy refers to the esteem needs and is divided into two categories, namely, (i) the need for recognition and respect from others and (ii) a need for a positive self-image and self-respect (Abdullah, 2013). Arnolds and Boshoff (2001) further added that employees with a high self-perceived ability and self-image are more likely to be higher performers on the job or compared to employees with a low self-perceived ability, low success expectancy and low self-image. Subsequently, self-actualization needs are the lowest level of Maslow's hierarchy and are only realized simply after every single previous level has been realized to a large extent.

This theory was supported by Arnolds and Boshoff (2001) who added to literature that the fulfillment of self-actualization in the work environment is enhanced by opening doors for advancement in the form of building new opportunities for promotion, allowing discretion and autonomy, providing difficult assignments to enable the optimal utilization of individual's ability and skills. This is particularly predominant on account of top management where the elements mentioned above have a positive influence on employee job performance. It posited that as one need in terms of the hierarchy becomes substantially satisfied, then the following need becomes dominant (Robbins, 2003).

However, like any other theory, Maslow's theory has been subjected to criticism by some scholars. In a study by Greenberg and Baron (2003), they claimed that Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is not applicable in all situations. They argued that the behaviour of a person who has high in growth needs tend to deviate from the notion of increasing their growth needs and do not recognize any physiological response to their duties.

Armstrong (2006) is one of the scholars who noted the shortfalls of this theory, they argued that this theory is rigid and too simplistic as it does not accommodate all societal needs at a specific period such as drought or war, since people have unique needs and therefore it is difficult to admit that individuals needs tend to follow a steady order of the hierarchy of need.

3.4.1.2. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

In 1959 Herzberg developed a specific work motivation theory. He conducted a motivational research on about two hundred accountants and engineers hired by companies in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. He applied the critical incident method of data collection with two sets of questions: (a) at what point did you specially feel great about your job– what turned you on? and (b). when did you feel exceptionally terrible about your job – what turned you off? (Luthans, 2005). When classifying these reported good and bad feelings, Herzberg as a result concluded that job satisfiers (motivators) are related to job content material and that job dissatisfies (Hygiene elements) are associated with work context. Motivators are allied to the job contents like success, recognition, work itself, duty and development. However, the hygiene elements do not encourage/satisfy as a substitute counteract dissatisfaction.

Luthans (2005) compared the Herzberg's theory with Maslow's and concludes that the hygiene factors are similar but not identical to Maslow's lower level needs. These hygiene factors prevent dissatisfaction, but they do not necessarily lead to satisfaction. Hygiene factors do not motivate, only the motivators can lead to motivation. This he equates to Maslow's higher order needs. Thus, Luthans (2005) claims that managers can motivate employees by applying the above factors to their jobs. Therefore, an employee will be dissatisfied when they have grievances about hygiene factors. He concluded, however, that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were not merely opposites. Poor working conditions led to dissatisfaction but good working conditions did not necessarily result in satisfaction.

Luthans (2005) as compared the Herzberg's theory with Maslow's and concluded that the hygiene factors are related however not equal to Maslow's lower level needs. Hygiene elements do not encourage, but the motivators can result in motivation.

This equates to Maslow's lower order needs. Consequently, Luthans (2005) further claims that managers can encourage employees with by applying the above elements to their jobs and an employee might be dissatisfied when they have grievances about hygiene factors. He concluded that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not merely opposites. Negative working conditions causes dissatisfaction but good working conditions did no to always lead to satisfaction. These elements refer to the context of the job such as, company policy, administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, supervisor, and working conditions.

This theory has been preferred as the most helpful model in relation to the study and to have a better understanding of job satisfaction (Kim, 2004). It was added that this theory has been frequently supported in educational settings (Fard & Karimi, 2015). It has additionally been used as a theoretical framework for scientifically surveying police officer's job satisfaction but an evaluation of literature found out criticisms of the motivator-hygiene theory (Fard & Karimi, 2015). The drawbacks as diagnosed by some scholars is that they were not able of empirically support this theory. Likewise, this theory disregards the people differences and assumes that all employees react in a comparable way to the changes within the workplaces which isn't always totally accurate (Vecchio, 2000).

In addition to the above, critics maintain the view that Herzberg's research was only conducted among supervisors and middle management, therefore its applicability to employees in higher education institutions or to workers of a different culture remains questionable (Luthans, 2017). However, Herzberg's theory has been replicated across other populations and included different occupation levels. The findings of these studies still support Herzberg's theory (Herzberg, 1990). Therefore, it can be concluded that Herzberg's theory is relevant and applicable to other cultures and other occupations. When a research study was recreated in South Africa, of all the elements that contributed to job satisfaction, 86% were motivators and of all the factors that contributed to dissatisfaction over their work, 72% included hygiene factors (Luthans, 2017).

Further to the above critics is the view that Herzberg's research was only carried out amongst supervisors and middle management, therefore its applicability to other areas of work or to employees of a specific culture stays questionable (Luthans, 2005).

These results were quite similar to the original American study (Herzberg, 1990). Despite the theory's criticism this model has had great influence in the field of management and is believed to be one of the most commonly known theories of motivation in managerial circles. According to Vecchio (2000) in relation to Herzberg's theory, they stated that it influences job redesign. In support of the above statement, Robbins (2001) added to this by indicating that the popularity of vertically expanding jobs to allow workers more responsibility can be attributed to Herzberg's research.

3.4.1.3. McClelland's Need Theory

David McClelland created a model of motivation that is rooted in culture. He is of the view that culture encouraged the manner wherein human beings perceive their jobs and lives. He further postulated that a person has three essential needs. The first is the need for achievement which is the desire to excel, pursue and obtain goals. The second one is the need for association, that's the need to construct relationships with other human beings on a social basis, and the third is the need for power that's the preference to control and direct people. He discovered two types of power: personalized power this is directed at growing oneself, and socialised power this is directed at supporting others (Robbins, 2001).

The behaviour of workers determine if they are motivated by achievement or affiliation and one can identify their differences after analyzing their behaviour. An achievement-driven individual often work harder when their supervisors give a detailed evaluation of their work. In addition, employees who are influenced by affiliations are motivated when they are praised or complimented for their participation and attitude towards the job.

Achievement directed employees choose core workers who poses the ability to work and to cooperate with them, without concern for their personal feelings. However, people driven by affiliation motives tend to prefer friends to work with them (Newstrom & Davis, 1993). In a study by Vecchio (2000) it is argued that the achievement need is important for better explanation of individual success and failure, but it can be overlooked. Achievement need is suitable in various occasions but it is not always applicable to all jobs in every organisation.

Similarly, people who have high need for achievement may additionally have problems getting along with their colleagues. Furthermore, a high motivation to achieve does not always lead to being an amazing manager, especially in bigger organisations because high achievers can be interested by how well they perform individually and not in motivating others to do properly. It is also proposed that managers with affiliation motives may not make effective managers due to the fact they are more concerned with social relations, this may affect the assignment of work completion or getting the work executed. However, managers with high socialised power preference compared to personal power do make effective managers.

This supports McClelland's view that top managers must have high need for power with low need for affiliation (Newstrom & Davis, 1993). This theory has been criticized as well for instance Vecchio (2000) argued that the need for achievement is an important model for explaining individual success and failure, but it can be over-emphasised. The need for achievement is relatable in most situations but it is not always applicable to all jobs in every organisation. Furthermore, it is argued that people who have a high need for achievement tend to have a challenge of getting along with their co-workers. It is further argued that a high need to achieve does not necessarily lead to being a good leader or supervisor, especially in large organisations because high achievers may be focused in how well they do personally and rather than motivating others to do well.

However, contrary to the critics, Du Toit, Erasmus and Strydom (2012) argued that people with strong achievement needs tend to show higher levels of performance and are more goal focused, while both average and above average employees share similar need traits.

3.4.2. Process Theories

Behaviour is an important indication of a person's perception and assumptions about a particular situation and possible outcome of behaviour. Process theories refer to how and by which goals individuals are motivated. The process theories are based on the assumption that people make conscious decisions regarding their behaviour. The most commonly recognised process theories are the equity theory, the expectancy theory and the job characteristics model.

3.4.2.1. Adams Equity Theory

The equity theory of motivation proposes that people have a strong need to preserve a balance between what they perceive their inputs or contributions to be on the subject of anticipated rewards (Dessler, 1988). In terms of the equity theory, Robbins (2001) states that satisfaction is determined by the person's input-outcome balance. The author in mentions that satisfaction takes place when perceived fairness exists, and dissatisfaction effects when perceived inequity exists. Equity theory recommends that individuals compare themselves with others conserving the same role inside the organisation to determine if they may be being treated fairly. If the comparison between employees handled in an equal manner, then the person will believe she/he is being treated equitably. If differences are perceived, then it may be felt that the state of affairs is inequitable and the person can be influenced to deal with the inequity.

Table 6 provides examples of factors under inputs and outcomes. These items in the table are not paired, that is, the input of job effort will not necessarily have the outcome of pay.

Table 6

Input and output factors

INPUTS	OUTCOMES
Job effort	Actual pay
Social rewards	Education
Seniority	Fringe benefits
Performance	Job security
Job difficulty	Working conditions
Age	Challenging work
Training	Recognition

Source: Adapted from Newstrom and Davis (1993:155)

This theory provides two assumptions. The first assumption is that people analyse their personal relationships or affiliations as they would evaluate a house during purchase. They make comparisons with others to determine if they are being treated equitably or not (Newstrom & Davis,1993). The model refers interpersonal relationships as a two-way process with the individual making a contribution and expecting an outcome. The second assumption is that people do not work in a vacuum.

According to the equity theory when one engages in the comparison process they take into account both the inputs i.e. the contributions the person adds to the organisation and outputs i.e. the rewards the person receives from the organisation as well. Employees evaluate themselves to one another based on their ratios of input and outcomes. In other meaning, the person compares his/her inputs and the associated outcomes received. The person then evaluates this ratio against the other compared person in the organisation.

This theory gives two assumptions. The first assumption is that employees examine their personal relationships or affiliations as they might compare a residence at some stage in purchase. They make comparisons with others to determine if they're being treated equitably or not (Newstrom & Davis, 1993). The model refers interpersonal relationships as a two-way approach with the individual making a contribution and anticipating a positive outcome. The second assumption is that people no longer work in a vacuum. In addition, the equity theory proposes that when one engages in the comparison process they remember both the inputs i.e. the contributions the person provides to the organisation and outputs i.e. the rewards the person receives from the organisation as well.

Employees compare themselves to each other primarily based on their ratios of input and outcomes. In different meaning, the individual compares his/her inputs and the associated rewards received. The individual then evaluates this ratio in opposition to the alternative assessment with the other person in the organisation. After the person has evaluated, if this ratio is perceived to be similar to the comparison person then she/he considers the rewarding system to be equitable, but if the discrepancies with the ratios then a situation of perceived inequity exists (Vecchio, 2000).

Based on present literature findings, the equity definition has been broadened to include distributive justice and procedural justice. Distributive justice determines the fairness of how resources and rewards are allocated. The procedural justice identifies if there is fairness in the procedures taken to allocate resources and make decisions. Previous literature has revealed that distributive justice has major influence on employee satisfaction than procedural justice (Dailey & Kirk, 1992).

Studies have shown that responses to salary increases are motivated by the individual's perception of the fairness in the distribution of the salary increment. If the employees perceive the increase to be allocated fairly, then the employee would be more satisfied than if they perceived the allocation processes to be unfair.

In a study by Greenberg (1993), the findings revealed that 102 undergraduate students were either equitably paid or underpaid for performing a clerical task. Then as a result of the unfairness the underpaid students stole money to compensate for their inequity (Greenberg, 1993).

The equity model additionally has drawbacks as recognized by Hellriegel, Slocum, and Woodman (1998). The model does pay attention to effect if the group or scenario changes. Additionally, the model centered on short-term comparisons, so it does not consider if the perceptions of fairness adjusts over the time. Job satisfaction is motivated by the perceived equity of the approaches used to allocate pay increase instead of the actual amount of the pay increment received. The employee's evaluation of procedural justice has also been related to job satisfaction, among other elements. Consequently, it is critical that managers use a fair and equitable decision-making system to distribute rewards (Hellriegel, Slocum & Woodman, 1998).

Lastly it is argued that the equity model does not provide an appropriate corrective measure for any perceived inequity. An evaluation of the equity theory is the concept of a psychological contract which is a set of expectations that employees have and beliefs of what they owe their employers, and what the employers owe them. Over time, how the psychological contract is continued or violated, and modified unfairly or fairly, will impact on job satisfaction (Bateman & Snell, 1999).

3.4.2.2. Goal setting theory

According to Locke (1968) when an individual aim towards attaining a goal, it is a fundamental aspect of job satisfaction. In a study by Heery and Noon (2001) it is explained that the goal setting theory initiated from the belief that the behaviour of employees can be shaped by influencing their goals and targets. Furthermore, they added that employees are positively influenced if they are fully aware of what needs to be carried out in attaining a particular goal, no matter all of the adversities they may come across in doing.

This imply that the employees will carry out their work better if they receive continuous feedback with regards to how well they may be progressing toward their goals. Furthermore, Robbins (2001) provides that continuous remarks can even discover possible discrepancies that could hamper the achievement of reaching goals. Employees provided with the opportunity to be included in the preparation of their own goals could be extra committed in accomplishing such goals.

According to Heery and Noon (2001) there are four general principles to trigger high performance and increase motivation in terms of the goal setting theory:

- goals should be challenging but attainable;
- goals should be specific rather than vague;
- employees should be involved in the process, setting their own goals; and
- goals should be measurable in terms clearly understood by employees.

This theory has been regarded as having an intuitive appeal because of its clear relevance to the workplace (Lunenber, 2011). It is well supported by empirical research evidence that goal setting creates substantial increases in employee output and is currently one of the most popular theories informing organisational approaches to employee motivation (Spector, 2003). This theory has been supported by Lunenber, (2011), who added that use of goal setting theory can be an effective method to enhance the motivation of employees.

3.4.2.3. Job Characteristics Model of Hackman and Oldham

Hackman and Oldham initiated the job characteristics model which was centered on earlier work of Hackman and Lawler. This theory shows that certain job traits contribute to positive psychological states and that the strength of the employees need for achievement has a sizeable moderating effect (Luthans, 2005). The theory proposes that skill variety, task identification and task importance result in skilled meaningfulness; autonomy leads to behaving responsible; and remarks leads to attaining knowledge. The impact of this is increased motivation, performance and satisfaction coupled with decrease turnover and absenteeism. This is relational to the Maslow's self-actualisation level, this theory presents differing levels of growth need. When job characteristics are improved this will impact people with high growth need and strength to adjust within the crucial psychological states (Luthans, 2005).

The significant job characteristics are assessed to provide an understanding on how they influence a worker's psychological being resulting in job satisfaction. Identification of the traits includes performing a task from the beginning to end up with clear results. Skills variety pertains to doing exceptional tasks using unique skills and abilities.

Jobs which are high in variety reduce monotony and are more difficult. Thus, the employee would experience sense of completion and obligation for the entire product or service. Importance of the task refers back to the importance of the undertaking. If the employee is conscious that their work has importance and is making an effect, then this can positively have an effect on work outcomes. Autonomy refers to the independency and reticence the worker has in making work plans, decision-making, and figuring out how to complete the work. This is critical for building a sense of obligation.

However, like any other theory there is evidence proposing that skill variety may be redundant with autonomy (Robbins, 2001). Other scholars have however agreed to say indeed there is significant relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction but its applicability is believed to be conditional (Spector, 2007). Employees value feedback after performing important tasks as it motivates them, in this case feedback relates to remarks pertaining job performance. This remarks be as a results of task performance by the supervisor or co-workers. Therefore, if employees have a high need for growth, certain job characteristics influence psychological conditions that lead to increased motivation, performance, and satisfaction.

3.5. ANTECEDENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is derived from and is as a result of various inter-related elements. In spite of the fact that these elements can never be completely separated from one another for analysis, they could by way of the utilisation of statistical systems, be remoted enough to provide an illustration of their relative significance to job satisfaction. Nel, et al (2004) added that these elements which are affecting job satisfaction may be separated into two primary categories, to be specific, personal determinants and work-related factors.

3.5.1. Personal Determinants

Previous literature that investigate job satisfaction concept has indicated that personal determinants such as gender, race, age, tenure and educational level affects job satisfaction.

3.5.1.1. Gender

Preceding research on gender and job satisfaction has revealed mixed evidence or findings. Vecchio (2000) argued that the growing expectancies from women in the work environment result in discrepancies in job satisfaction between the genders. Most studies that have looked at job satisfaction among males and females at work and have identified few variations (Spector, 2007). In addition, they argued that there's no proof that gender affects satisfaction. In support of the above statement, comparable conclusions had been reached in a study carried out by Green (2000). Previous literature reveals that in the past men had a better degree of job satisfaction but this has since decreased due to equal possibilities for employment and development for women, however, positive affiliations and working conditions are more significant factors than they are for men.

De-Vaney and Chen (2003) suggested that the influence of gender on satisfaction differs with occupational level of the employee. For instance, women who are in profession such as psychologists and social workers had lower levels of job satisfaction when compared to their male counterparts. They further argued in their study that non-professionals reverse was true (De-Vaney & Chen, 2003).

This proved to be the case in a study of academic members at a specific higher education institution, which showed that job satisfaction for males is higher than that of the women (Kaliski, 2007). However, in a study that was conducted within the financial sector it was discovered that female professionals were more satisfied than their male counterparts (De-Vaney and Chen, 2003). The similar results were discovered a study of middle school principals. In any another study results indicated female principals confirmed higher job satisfaction than the male principals and consequently it is a clear indication that the influence gender has on may not be fully conclusive (Texas, 2004).

3.5.1.2. Race

Research findings in reference to the relationship between race and job satisfaction have revealed different outcomes (Friday, Moss & Friday, 2004). A research study that was investigated by Gavin and Ewen (1974) on different occupational classes comprising of blue collar and white collar employees, indicated that African employees experienced lower degrees of job satisfaction than the alternative racial counterparts. On the latter, various research also revealed that white employees amongst extraordinary occupational classes are scored higher ranges of job satisfaction in comparison to African employees (Friday, Moss & Friday, 2004).

A study conducted by Henault (2004) which investigated job satisfaction among American healthcare executives confirmed that minorities persisted to stay behind their white opposite numbers. A number of research also discovered that race related differences with regards to job satisfaction can be because of group homogeneity. The outcomes from the research imply that as level of homogeneity in the group increases, organisational members can also enjoy an increase in job satisfaction (Egan, O'Reilly & Tsui, 1992). There are few studies that have investigated the connection among race and job pleasure within the South African context and this limits objectivity of many researches.

A further investigation by Erasmus in 1998 from the University of South African Business Leadership School revealed that there are differences in job satisfaction levels between white and African females within a Human Resources Management profession.

The research report further indicated that white females were more satisfied than their African female employees. The research study revealed factors such as pay and benefits leading to dissatisfaction among African females. Research findings of a study conducted in 2000 amongst readers of the department of the South African Business Times suggested that African participants feel less secure in their positions than their white counterparts. The findings revealed causes for the employees feeling of lack of job security and these were as a result of restructuring, affirmative action or shrinking of industry sectors (Robbins et al., 2003).

3.5.1.3. Age

Previous literature present varying findings on the effect that age has on job satisfaction. Different type of relationships had been established throughout studies including positive linear, negative linear or no significant relationships (Robbins,2001). A few research studies have indicated that older employees are more satisfied with their jobs than young ones (Spector, 2007). Different studies have discovered a U-shape relationship between age and job satisfaction (Kacmar & Ferris, 1989). This is typical when job satisfaction is high for young employees, it lowers for the middle-aged group and then increases more with age. Furthermore, they argued that young people carry tasks extraordinarily and enjoy high satisfaction upon preliminary employment.

However, this satisfaction will decline until they reach their late twenties. Then satisfaction will increase slowly with age, ultimately by passing the preliminary stages of employment.

In a study of 1, 095 employees investigated by Bernal, Synder and McDaniel (1998) a positive susceptible and linear correlation was discovered between age and satisfaction. Thus it was concluded that age was not significant predictor of job satisfaction. Another study that looked at community college chairpersons did not find out any relationships between job satisfaction and age (Green, 2000). Robbins (2001) added that the reason for the inconsistencies in results is that the studies have been evaluating professional and non-professional employees. If professionals are distinguished from non-professionals then satisfaction increases among professionals with age, whereas it lowers with non-professionals during their middle age and then expected to be high in later years.

3.5.1.4. Tenure

Tenure is significant because it has been judged from legal and defensible perspective for distributing rewards and making staffing decisions. Vecchio (2000) postulated that employees with much less time at the job are more disappointed than long-termers, and in addition it is argued that this may be attributed to the possibility that long-termers tend to be in higher level jobs. Spector (2007), argued that longer tenure can be associated with higher job satisfaction because of the rewards which are associated with it. Bedeian, Ferris, and Kacmar (1992) observed that tenure is consistent predicator of job satisfaction age.

An observation of academic staff at higher education college within the Orange Free State affords support for this argument. This study confirmed that job satisfaction does increase with the number of years of teaching experience in of the lecturers.

However, a study of community college chairpersons found no correlation between length of service and job satisfaction (Green, 2000). Similarly, a study of aviation employees showed no relationship between tenure and job satisfaction (Reudavey, Ling & Dickie, 2003). Whereas, Benton and Halloran (2006) argued that tenure follows a consistent U-shaped pattern as age. Initially job satisfaction is high followed by a decline during the first year of employment. This remains low for several years before increasing. The influence tenure has on job satisfaction has shown varying results.

3.5.1.5. Educational level

Kh-Metle, (2003) conducted a study on the association between the level of education and job satisfaction discovered non-consistent pattern. An investigation conducted by Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003) in the Lebanese banking sector revealed that no statistically significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and education. Although the relationship was non-significant, their investigation findings revealed that a relationship between job satisfaction and education existed. On this regard respondent in possession of only a college certificate indicated the lowest level of job satisfaction, while the employees with a university certificates showed high level of job satisfaction. The researchers indicated that the alternative factors include, lack of competencies and less favourable treatment by management has contributing effect to reducing satisfaction levels among staff members with education certificates.

Kh-Metle (2003) argued that job satisfaction causes a lower as opposed to an increase in the level of education when the expectancies of employees are often not met by employers. In agreement with this findings, results from a study carried out by Johnson and Johnson (2000) wherein 288 employees in the American postal services were investigated discovered that perceived over-qualification have a negative relationship with the dimension of job satisfaction. However, comparable studies carried out by (Kh-Metle, 2003) among Kuwaiti women employed in a public government environment, discovered that a strong relationship existed among the level of schooling and overall job satisfaction. Out of the employees surveyed, 90% had been in possession of a post graduate qualification.

Employees in possession of an intermediate level qualification showed higher job satisfaction in comparison to those employees who have higher levels of education.

In summary, the influence of age, gender and tenure on job satisfaction has revealed mixed results. However racial and educational differences have been shown to influence job satisfaction. Having reviewed the impact of personal characteristics on job satisfaction, it is now necessary to consider the work-related factors.

3.6. WORK-RELATED FACTORS

Mohammad Mosadegh and Yarmohammadian (2006) viewed job satisfaction as a variable that encompasses the positive and negative feelings as well as the attitudes people hold about their jobs, and all these depend on the various work-related characteristics. The organisational factors impacting on job satisfaction include the type of the job, skills required, occupation status, size of the organisation and co-worker relationship and the last factor is supervision.

3.6.1. Type of work

The most crucial factors inherent in the job is type of work. Many studies have indicated that performing different jobs increases the job satisfaction than performing habitual work. Job satisfaction varies almost from 0 to 100 in percentage, relying on the nature of the job. Toga (2011) argued that job satisfaction is dependent on satisfaction with the job components or elements, such as the work itself. Robbins et al. (2003) defined to the work itself as the extent to which the job presents the individual with stimulating and challenging tasks; opportunities for mastering and personal growth; and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results.

According to Robbins (2001) it stated that employees choose jobs that present opportunities to execute their abilities on a variety of tasks and that are mentally stimulating. This argument is supported by Robbins et al. (2003) way of who claimed that individuals are more satisfied with the work itself once they involve in tasks that are mentally and physical stimulating. Robbins et al., (2003) similarly provides that tasks which are routine or unchallenging cause boredom and frustration. However, contrary to the above Johns (1996) is of the opinion that a few employees select jobs that are unchallenging and less demanding.

3.6.2. Skill required

Skill on the subject of job satisfaction has significant influence on several different elements of the type of job, responsibility and others. A study conducted of the relationship between skill and job satisfaction concluded that where an ability or skill exist, to a certain degree, it tends to be the primary source of satisfaction to the workman. However, satisfaction with regards to the condition of work or in wages will become dominantly effective where satisfaction on skill has materially decreased.

3.6.3. Occupation status

The occupation status is associated to yet not identical with job satisfaction. Occupational status is usually valued in terms of other opinion. It has been said that employees who are working at the lower positions seems to be seeking out different jobs where they could have higher job satisfaction. It has been discovered that employees are more disappointed in jobs that have no significant value in terms of social repute and status. These values are rather common in a country, but they do vary across some countries and that they possibly vary from time to time inside a country under some conditions. So far, little studies are available indicating the relationship between job status and job satisfaction. This is evident in different nations as well. Research carried by Feather and Rauter (2004) which included contract and permanent employees in the teaching environment in Australia, failed to establish a relationship between job status and job satisfaction.

3.6.4. Size of organisation and co-worker's relationship

In relatively smaller organisations, employees have a greater chance of interacting with fellow employees and often receive co-operation of others easily. While in a bigger organisation this may be possible, however it depends upon obligations of the organisation and the job which has been tasked to the employees. Various authors argue that having generous and supportive colleagues enhance positive job satisfaction (Luthans, 2001). It has been reported from a study conducted by Berta, (2005), on more than 21000 women working the most demanding jobs showed that those participants who had no support from co-workers, were more likely to experience low job dissatisfaction. Another study investigated amongst 1250 food brand employees revealed that positive interrelationships with co-workers enhance job satisfaction (Berta, 2005).

Empirical finding revealed that interrelationships with colleagues have consistently had significant effects on job satisfaction of Federal government workers in the United States and the findings concur with previous findings that there is a positive correlation between job satisfaction and co-workers (Toga, 2011).

3.6.5. Supervision

Various research findings demonstrate there's a positive relationship existing between job satisfaction and supervision (Peterson, Puia & Suess, 2003). Supervision has a significant to job satisfaction in relation to the capacity of the supervisor to offer emotional and technical support and proper direction with work related tasks (Robbins et al., 2003). According to Wech (2002) supervisors hold more power in contributing to a high or low morale in the workplace. The supervisor's reaction and behaviour to the employees may also be a contributing factor to job-related grievances. Supervisors who establish good relationship with the employees strongly influence job satisfaction. Wech (2002) supports this view by adding that supervisory behaviour have a great effect on the development of trust in relationships with employees. Therefore, trust may in turn, have a significant relationship with job satisfaction.

Research conducted by Munro (2007) revealed that employees with supportive supervisors who are displaying democratic management styles tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction compared to those who had supervisors who display an autocratic or laissez – faire leadership styles. Toga (2011) added that supervisors whose leadership styles emphasise fair concern and general participants for employees usually have more satisfied workers than supervisors only focusing on task completion and concern for production.

Luthans (2007) added that supervisors tend to be bringing the humanistic part to the job, by being considerate toward their employees and contributes towards increasing the employee's level of job satisfaction.

3.7. THE CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Various researchers have highlighted that job satisfaction have an impact on employee productivity, turnover, absenteeism, physical and psychological health (Luthans, 2007).

3.7.1. Productivity

Previous empirical findings revealed that there is a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. According to Luthans (2007) a relationship was discovered between job satisfaction and productivity, however this relationship between these existing variables was not significant. The researcher argued that the most satisfied employee does not necessarily mean they are the most productive employee. From an individual employee perspective, the results often vary in terms of the relationship between satisfaction and productivity but from an organisational level a significant correlation exists between satisfaction and productivity (Robbins et al., 2003).

3.7.2. Physical and psychological health

In a study conducted by Spector (2007) they postulated that employees who dislike their jobs could experience negative health consequences that are either psychological or physical related, because they could suffer from anxiety due to the unhealthy work environment. The employees tend to be dissatisfied and less participative at work. On the other hand Luthans (2002) argued that employees who experience high levels of job satisfaction tend to have a better mental and physical health.

3.7.3. Turnover

Turnover intention is regarded as one of the most serious issues especially in the field of Human Resource Management because the costs associated with it are so huge (Kumar, Ramendran & Yacob, 2012). Various studies considerably support the view that turnover is negatively related to job satisfaction (Shoaib, Noor, Tirmizi, & Bashir, 2009).

In a study by French (2003) a high employee turnover rate is often experienced in an environment in which employees are treated distinctly and highly dissatisfied. Hussain and Asif (2012) added by highlighting that employees with low job satisfaction usually have a tendency to withdraw from situations and environments as a means of handling their dissatisfaction. A major form of employee withdrawal is voluntary turnover.

Employees display this by no longer reporting to work, or by quitting current job and seeking new job possibilities; individuals tend to express their dissatisfaction with their jobs; or by attempting to withdraw from the unpleasant environment they'll be experiencing dissatisfaction from.

Masemola (2011) posited that employee turnover is the most significant withdrawal variable. Study findings by Aamodt (2007) revealed a moderately significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover, indicating that less satisfied workers are more likely to quit their jobs. According to Mbah and Ikemefuna (2012) a significant relationship exists between satisfaction and turnover.

The researchers further maintain that high job satisfaction will not necessarily create low turnover rate, but will inadvertently assist in maintaining a low turnover rate.

3.7.4. Absenteeism

According to Luthans (2007) a number of research studies conducted on the relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism suggests a negative correlation among the two variables. Consequently, when satisfaction is high, absenteeism has a tendency to be low. The author showed that when satisfaction is low absenteeism tends to be high. Previous research indicates that job satisfaction is significantly related to absenteeism (Hellriegel, Slocum & Woodman, 2001).

This imply that absenteeism is seen as withdrawal behaviour when it is used as a manner to get away a negative working environment. However, the findings of study undertaken by Robbins (2001) indicated that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism although is moderate.

Robbins (2001) supports the perspective of a moderate relationship existing between satisfaction and absenteeism. Robbins et al. (2003) argued that the moderate relationship between these variables could be attributed to factors such as liberal sick leave, whereby employees are encouraged to take time off. This could then significantly reduce the correlation coefficient between satisfaction and absenteeism.

3.8. JOB SATISFACTION IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The working environment has become highly toxic, unpleasant and challenging, moreover there is a high pressure to excel as well as to overcome cultural variations.

Organisations continuously strive to compete in the global competitive international parameters. Job satisfaction is commonly understood as mixed emotion, feelings or attitudes toward one's work environment. Studies commonly describes job satisfaction as a satisfying feeling which emanates from personal perceptions fulfilments of a person's job and values (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright, 2006). Job satisfaction is a feeling which is desirable in many of the organisation and valued by the staff.

Job satisfaction is one of the key indicators of organisational success (Toker, 2011). Lok and Crawford (2004) argued that both organisational performance and effectiveness are influenced through the organisational satisfaction and job satisfaction. There are many factors which influence job satisfaction specifically: organisational culture, the empowerment autonomy, recognition, appropriate communication, conducive working conditions, exceptional degree of professionalism, interpersonal relationships, working for a reputable employer, good supervisory relationship, effective affectivity, task security, workplace flexibility, positive affectivity, job security and working within a team environment (Mosadegh Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006).

Various researchers contend that a highly satisfied university staff member can create organisational success, and increase motivation of staff and in return trigger excellent results in overall student performance, the development of strong organisational culture, better image of the institution and even higher numbers of performing students and staff members (Toker, 2011). Although a number of studies many have been concentrating on employee satisfaction in business organisations, recently there has been a growing interest in the research of job satisfaction in higher education institutions (Toker, 2011).

Amzat and Idris (2012) posits that management's leadership act as a mediator in enhancing positive job satisfaction through inclusive decision making style, and also added that the behaviour of university management has a significant influence on job satisfaction of university staff members.

Researcher conducted globally particularly in Europe revealed that intrinsic factors such as job rank level and career are the causes of higher job satisfaction among employees. On the other latter, in the United States findings in a study revealed that high-job satisfaction is influenced by the issues related to teaching.

However it has been revealed that in private universities salary, promotion opportunities and working conditions have the highest impact on job satisfaction (Amzat & Idris, 2012).

According to Toker (2011) they revealed that job satisfaction when correlated with compensation, supervision, salary, fringe benefits scored lowest by the academic staff members, however satisfaction in relation to social status, social service and ability utilization ranked highest. Toker's (2011) also reported that there is a considerable strong relationship between job satisfaction and academic titles, age and the years served in the higher education institutions. Higher positioned and elderly staff members who have worked longer are more satisfied with their job. There is no significant variance in respondent's marital status and gender. On the latter, Sukirno and Siengthai (2011) investigated demographic factors like age, gender and experience and revealed that they have no significant impact on performance, while academic ranking had positive impact on performance and job satisfaction in higher education institution.

3.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter began with an introduction of job satisfaction. The concept of job satisfaction was examined. The relevant content and process theories of job satisfaction were discussed. The dimensions, causes and consequences of job satisfaction were looked at. Lastly, Job satisfaction in higher education institutions was explored. The next chapter will look at turnover intention.

CHAPTER 4

TURNOVER INTENTION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a discussion the concept of job satisfaction and its models and theories in detail. In line with the theoretical aims, this chapter discusses turnover intention and it focuses on the definition provided by different scholars, background, theories of turnover intention, causes of turnover intention, consequences of turnover intention, turnover retention and the impact of turnover intention at higher education institutions. The theories are discussed based on available previous research in South Africa and globally.

4.2. DEFINITION OF TURNOVER INTENTION

The concept of turnover is still seen as an interesting topic and has been widely researched by different scholars in different occupational settings. Many researchers are still trying to find out the reason that leads to an employee to think about leaving the organisation. When employees leave, the organisation incur significant costs. The concept of labour turnover is mostly associated with huge organisational costs incurred due to employees leaving or quitting their jobs because recruiting and developing of new employees is costly and expensive (Maqbool, Murtaza & Rehman, 2012).

Employee turnover can be distinguished into two primary types, namely; voluntary and involuntary turnover. As it has been stated that employee turnover may be voluntary or involuntary, the organisation initiates involuntary turnover while the employees initiate voluntary turnover (Noe, et al., 2003). In addition, Arshadi and Damiri (2013) argued that involuntary turnover relates to a situation where an individual employee's employment contract is revoked against his/her will and while voluntary turnover is a situation whereby an employee terminates his/her contract of employment out of their will without any force or prejudice. However, turnover is the opposite of labour retention, as labour retention describe the overall number of employees leaving the organisation for whatsoever influences (Phillips & Edwards, 2009).

Phillips and Edwards (2009) further provide a formula to measure labour retention, and it is explained as follows: the total turnover is the overall number of employees leaving the organisation within a given period divided by average number of employees during that period. Wiseman, Cuevas-Rodríguez and Gomez-Mejia (2012), defines turnover as the process of terminating an employee's membership in an organisation.

According to Jacobs and Roodt (2007) turnover intention is defined as a mental decision making process that prevails towards an individual's job, decisions with regard to leaving or staying at the organisation and it cannot be separated from the turnover itself. Furthermore, turnover is described as one's behavioural attitude to voluntarily withdraw from being part of the organisation. Turnover intention is different from turnover as the latter is the actual separation process from the organisation (Böckermann & Ilmakunnas, 2009). Therefore, as a classification of the withdrawal awareness, the intention to leave the organisation is the last process, and this awareness serves as an arbitrator between the processes that are associated to the decision to leave and the actual turnover.

Lacity, Lyer and Rudramuniyaiah (2008) defined turnover intention as the process in which an individual employee plans to quit their job or to leave the organisation. This is supported by Cohen and Golan (2007), they defined turnover intention as a situation whereby an individual intends to departure from an organisation. It is clear that turnover intention can serve as a substitution for actual turnover since the theory of planned behaviour explains that behavioural intention is a significant predictor of actual turnover. Job dissatisfaction is a significant predictor of turnover intention. In addition, Staw (1980) postulated that turnover can have various dysfunctional consequences, particularly if the turnover rate is high. When employees leave their jobs, valuable human capital is lost. The negative consequences of turnover consist of all the costs incurred for recruiting, selecting, training and productivity losses as a result of operational disruptions as well as low morale (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2012).

Karin and Birgit (2007: 711) posited that turnover intention refers to “the intention to voluntarily change companies or to leave the labour market altogether”. For this study purpose turnover intention implies the individual’s intention to leave the organisation and that may include mere thought of quitting their job with an organisation, and also includes the statements uttered by an employee stating that they want to quit their job with the organisation. It also occurs when the employee has finally decided to leave the organisation and has started looking for another employment, (Karin & Birgit, 2007).

Turnover for the purposes of this study refers to the voluntary employee turnover.

4.3. THEORITICAL BACKGROUND OF TURNOVER INTENTION

Employees are the most valuable assets for any organisation. Organisations relies upon their employees to execute their plans, create a value in order to achieve a competitive advantage. Losing valuable and skilled employees disrupts the value creation process which means that organisations may suffer substantial costs, for instance the replacement of the lost staff members through recruitment and development (Bohlander & Snell, 2009).

The concept of turnover has a significant theoretical and empirical history in which various models and theories have been developed to describe the dynamics of employee behavioural intentions and the actual employee turnover. These models were developed in attempt to explain the causes of employee turnover in workplaces (Griffeth, Horn, & Gaertner, 2000; Holtom et al., 2008; Joseph, Ng, Koh, & Ang, 2007). The earliest researchers of turnover were March and Simon in 1958 and they started with the ideas of the perceived ease and willingness of quitting one’s job. Their model has enabled a solid foundation for much of the recent development of employee turnover models (Mobley, 1977; Mobley & Price, 1977).

According to Steel (2002) a number of researchers developed their models and despite differences between these models or theories, the findings converge on the consequences of dissatisfaction such as perceived available alternatives, intention to search and the intention to leave as the primary determinants of voluntary turnover.

Harman, Blum, Stefani and Taho (2009) contends that March and Simon's (1958) are one of earliest authors who developed perhaps strongly influential and integrative models of employee turnover. They explained that the possibility of employees to remain in the organisation is influenced by extent of the inducement provided by their organisation to encourage them to remain. Barling and Cooper (2008) also argued that the perceived desire for employees to move from the organisation and the flexibility and ease of movement within the workforce are the primary elements that influence employee turnover.

At a later stage Price (1977) also conducted extensive research review on the literature on turnover. He further developed a wide-range turnover model which encompasses the components and moderating variables associated with turnover. The main assumption of this model was that perceived available opportunities which are desirable to employees and turnover intention affect turnover, and that the job satisfaction affects turnover through its moderation effect on turnover intention.

Mobley (1977) provided an intermediate linkage model. This correlation is validated in the psychological and cognitive contexts and occasions of voluntary turnover, within organisational domain. It is argued that these theories and models often also disregarded the contribution and the role of linkage between social affiliations and employees during voluntary turnover behaviour process. In this model, turnover implies that an employee develops a withdrawal decision process. The turnover process begins with examining current job which may lead cause dissatisfaction and ending at turnover intention before real withdrawal takes place.

Mobley et al. (1979) extended the intermediate linkages model. The extended model proposed that a causal relationship between turnover intention and actual turnover is driven by four primary factors: (1) job satisfaction, dissatisfaction (2) expected utility of the present job (3) expected utility of finding an alternative job outside of the present organisation, and (4) various organisational, individual, an environmental value. Mobley and Fisk (1982) reworked the initial turnover model that was developed by Mobley. He expanded the model by highlighting the distinction between the causes and consequences of employee turnover into four categories.

The categories are explained as follows: (1) external economic environment, for example inflation and unemployment rate. (2) organisational factors, such as job design and size of unit. (3) individual work-related variables, such as expectations and abilities. Lastly (4) individual non-work related variables, such as family responsibilities and spouse's career relocation. It is evident from researches available that employee turnover causes both tangible and intangible consequences for the organisation. And management develops effective strategies for resourcing and retaining of human resource for the benefit of organisation's success, stability and competitive advantage (Martins & Coetzee, 2007).

Turnover has forced many organisations to take shift their interest in more than mere profitability but rather enforce effective strategies for attraction, development and retention of highly skilled labour (Boninelli & Meyer, 2004; Mendes & Stander, 2011). In the knowledge domain, scarce skills and knowledge of employees are often the significant to create an opportunity for organisation to achieve competitive advantage (Botha, Bussin & De-Swardt (2011). Therefore, this has increased competition for those employees holding scarce and needed skills, knowledge and experience. The organisation develop retention initiatives to stop employees leaving the organisation (Coetzee, Roythorne & Jacobs, 2012).

The competition for scarce skills and talent is truly global, as highly talented employees are in demand internationally, forcing organisations to offer desirable rewards to retain their talent or face high employee turnover rates and skills shortages (Muteswa & Ortlepp, 2011). Therefore, it is for this reason that human resources management develops strategies for employee retention and to reduce high rates of turnover in organisations.

4.3.1. Theories and models of Turnover Intention

4.3.1.1. Social Exchange Theory

The development of this theory may be traced to the research of Steel (2002). The social change concept is primarily based on the view that social behaviour is the final results of an exchange process, whose aim is to maximize benefits and decrease costs. According to this theory human beings value potential rewards and risks of social interrelationships.

The process of exchange can be described in relation material and non-material items, for example of the signs and symptoms of approval or prestige (Brinkmann & Stapf, 2005).

As a result, all human relationships are shaped by making use of a subjective reward-cost analysis and the comparison of available options. A person who gives a much deal will assume to receive the same amount back from others and in same way a person that receive a lot from others will be under stress to give a great deal back to them. Human beings generally tend to terminate the connection as quickly as the expenses outweigh the benefits. The perspective of the social exchange theory is primary based on the assumption that people identify one's life situations and notice each one's needs. It also refers to the principle of reciprocity, whereby benefits provided by one are returned by the other (Brinkmann & Stapf, 2005).

4.3.1.2. Human capital theory

The primary assumption of the human capital theory is that people's knowledge capacities are often compared with natural resources which are included in the production process (Becker, 1993). This theory was as a result of the work of Adam Smith and William Petty. Then researcher Gary Becker conducted an extensive research and created the human capital theory in 1964. This theoretical perspective of human capital suggests that not all work is equal and that an individual's capacity is increased by investing in them (Becker, 1993). Becker (1993) further added that education and training institutions are the most significant developmental initiatives in human capital. The ability of an individual to learn is strongly associated with the remuneration rate therefore, it can increase a person's income.

The pay rate highly educated employees are mostly above average continuum. If an individual's education, experience and skills are used at an organisation then it increases the economic value for employers and for the economy as a whole. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that competent employees have to be willing to continuously learn in order to perform in an increasingly globally competitive environment. The occupational wage variations refer to the amount of investment in human capital (Henneberger & Sousa-Poza, 2007). The organisation invest in effective employees by using either one of the major forms of human capital investment and that is schooling and on-the-job training.

Schooling refers to training of workers by offering educational programmer while on-the-job training refer to the increased productivity of employees by learning new skills and enhancing old ones while on the job (Becker, 1993). The development of skills and capability demands both specialization and experience can be achieved partly from schools and partly from organisations.

4.3.1.3. Search theory

The reservation price is described as the least salary at which a person will consider accepting a job and can be thought of as a short-hand heuristic which people use to decide whether to accept or reject a job offer in the face of little available information. The search theory was developed by George Stigler (1961) and his study was based on how buyers search and acquire information as an investment. He posited that a buyer who need to check the most favorable price must negotiate with diverse sellers (Stigler, 1961). A unique reference to this study was that it is the worker's effective strategy of choosing from different available opportunities in the labour market. An individual with little knowledge of labour marketplace variables needs to use the reservation price for the quest of employment various options (Morrell, Loan-Clarke & Wilkinson, 2001).

The reservation price described the least payment at which person will consider before accepting a job, and may be thought of as a short-hand heuristic which people use to decide whether or not to just accept or reject a job offer in the face of little available information from the labour marketplace (Morrell et al., 2001). It is recommended that an employee will search for an alternative job, and that can simply depend upon possibilities in the labour market (Morrell et al., 2001).

The search by employees creates alternative work environment outside the present organisation, which can lead to actual turnover. Thus, job search was identified as an important indicator to quitting in several studies, they added that when an employee is searching for an alternative job, the available offers outside can lead to the appreciation of one's present job after comparing it with the alternatives.

4.3.1.4. Matching Theory

Mace (1990) described the matching theory as a system where people distribute their behaviour in reference to the degree of reinforcement for response options. This theory gives knowledge about the advent and the termination of employment agreement under uncertainty measures. Employees look for the positions which fit with their skills that correlate with suitable wages. Employers focus on filling vacant positions so that it will maximize their profits (Henneberger & Sousa-Poza, 2002). Therefore, the worker's productivity level in a particular job is not known earlier however recognized as the employee's range of years increase. Consequently, if those needs are not matching or in conflict, employees generally tend to search for other employment and it will increase turnover.

4.3.1.5. Equity theory

Equity theory, additionally called justice theory, was evolved by John Stacey Adams in 1963 and can be grouped in the job motivational theory. It shows that people evaluate whether the distribution of resources is fair in relational companions (Brinkmann & Stapf, 2005). In the organisation, the equity theory of employee motivation relates to the fair balance to be achieved between an employee's inputs, such as hard work, ability level, tolerance and an employee's outputs consisting of earnings, rewards or intangibles benefits. Consequently, justice is only evident, when inputs and outputs are fairly distributed to a number of people, whereas the impartial criteria of the scenario are much less crucial than how people estimate the value and the distribution of the inputs and outputs of the distinct individuals (Brinkmann & Stapf, 2005).

Barnard offered a systematic model where they analysed human motivations that form part in the decision to belong, which is also known as the organisational equilibrium (Barnard, 1938). He suggested that the equilibrium of an organisation refers to the ability to keep efficiency within an organisation (Mano, 1994). Organisations rely on the ongoing employee's participation and in order to maintain this participation, the organisation have to reward equitable inducements. According to Barnard, if the employees personal sacrifice is greater than the rewards he receives, then the person will remove his participation and will permanently leave the organisation.

Simon developed an extension of Barnard's model modified to Barnard-Simon (1938) Organisational Equilibrium theory, which added on Barnard's views. Simon posited that the attainment of organisational equilibrium includes a requirement that the total contribution of all employees matches the kinds and quantity of required inducements (Mano, 1994). Therefore, Barnard's theory is based on the individual's decision to participate, in other words the balance between the sacrifices made and satisfactions will result in continuance (Barnard, 1938).

4.3.2. Models of turnover intention

Many studies were conducted that concentrated on developing and proposing a model which specifies all the relevant elements which causes voluntary turnover. The general understanding which are drawn from the identified models is that turnover behaviour is a multi-dimensional process that involves the behavioural, attitudinal, and decisional components (Barak, Nissly & Levin 2001). Three turnover models that are relevant to this study are discussed below. These important models have contributed to the research on turnover intention and therefore need to be discussed.

4.3.2.1. *March and Simon's Model*

Various researches of voluntary turnover are to some degree descendants of the March and Simon (1958) principle. This model shows that the employee's decision to quit is influenced by two factors: perceived ease of motion, which check with the analysis of perceived alternatives or possibility and "perceived desirability of movement", that is influence by job satisfaction (Morrell et al., 2001:34-35). Their model can be traced to Barnard-Simon's theory of "organisational equilibrium" wherein they argued that all employees confront with decisions through their interaction with the organisation. A unique concern on their study is the selection to take part with the important variable and desirability and ease of movement inside and outside of the organisation (Mano, 1994).

This describes how balance is struck between both for the organisation and its employees in terms of inducements. This include aspects such as: pay and contributions which includes work that guarantees ongoing organisational efficiency. When inducements are added by the organisation, this may decrease the tendency of the employee to go leave (Morrell et al., 2001).

The limitations of March and Simon's model can be traced by the fact that their model provides a static in preference to a procedural view of turnover. They did not encompass critical variables that have an effect on the turnover process, including role strain or challenging tasks form part of organisational success (Morrell et al., 2001). A few theorists asserted, that March and Simon's model has overly influenced further studies about employee turnover and that their success may additionally have limited other components (Lee & Mitchell, 1999).

4.3.2.2. Mobley's Model

The employee's turnover decision model by Mobley (1977) has molded the direction of turnover theories for the past decade. Mobley (1977) performed an in depth evaluation of the mental turnover process. His model centered on various preceding previous research, for example the theory by March and Simon (1958) which is about ease and desirability of work idea as well as Porter and Steer's concept (1973) about met-expectation and intention to leave. The process to determine terminating work contract can be explained as a sequence of cognitive levels starting with the process of assessing the existent job thereafter by using the emotional state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

The disadvantage of dissatisfaction is that it develops the idea of quitting. The following step is the comparison of the expected outcomes of search and of the cost of quitting. If there is a possibility of getting an alternative job and if the risks are not that high, the next process would be behavioural intention to search for alternatives followed by an actual search. If there are alternatives, then an evaluation of alternatives will proceed. This model is heuristic rather than descriptive (Mobley, 1977). Therefore, the individual will start comparing the present job with all available alternatives. If the evaluation supports the available alternative, then behavioural intention to leave will be enforced, and the actual decision to quit follows. (Mobley, 1977).

Various empirical studies extended Mobley's theory by adding other factors, such as organisational culture (Kim, Price, Mueller, & Watson, 1996) and further analysed factors that influence job satisfaction more precisely (Price & Mueller, 2007). Mobley's model was criticized for lacking enough evidence for the conceptual distinction among his explanatory constructs (Hom & Griffeth, 1991).

The criticism was based on the argument that Mobley's theory didn't provide the empirical evidence for the conceptual difference among his explanatory constructs. Nevertheless, their findings to some extent proved that a similar possible intermediate step in the turnover process, yet a significant difference exists.

4.3.2.3. Price and Mueller's Model

Price and Mueller's model from 1986 assessed the causal factors that influences turnover (Morrell et al., 2001). The causal elements of voluntary turnover are primarily based on empirical findings that has been carried out in 1972 at the college of Iowa. Compared to March and Simon's model this theory provides a comprehensive list of the determinants, for example common factors like job satisfaction. In this model turnover is defined the final outcome of a choice process (Morrell et al., 2001). This model has provided exogenous variables that are independent from the states of other variables in the model and are subdivided into three predominant groups: Environmental (opportunity and obligations), individual (training) and structural groups.

The endogenous variables are described as those values which are caused by the change in other variables within the model. Those are job satisfaction, organisational culture and intention to leave. Price and Mueller (2001) modified their model by including other exogenous (e.g. social support) and endogenous (e.g. search behaviour) variables in their construct (Price, 2001). Morrell et al. (2001) argued that this model also has some disadvantages. There is limited significant theory on behaviour or action, therefore this can disadvantage adequate explanation for the turnover process. The sample size used when developing the model consisted of low occupational heterogeneity, since they performed their analysis mostly on middle class jobs, such as nurses and teachers. The model also failed to analyse correlation impacts relating to the determinants of turnover.

4.4. COMPONENTS OF TURNOVER INTENTION

A significant findings of the literature indicates that turnover intention is described as employee's willingness or desire to voluntarily leave their workplace (Vigoda-Gadot & Ben-Zion, 2004). Previous literature also reveals that turnover intention consist of a multi-stage process which comprises of three components which are psychological, cognitive and behavioural in nature (Takase, 2009). In this case, various types of adjectives and adverbs were utilised to describe the intensity of turnover intention.

4.4.1. Psychological component

Turnover intention is viewed as a psychological reaction to negative elements of the job or the organisation (Chiu, Lin, Tsai, & Hsiao, 2005). The psychological process is said to be the response that triggers employee's subjective and attitudinal withdrawal reactions. These emotional and attitudinal reactions are in the form of deviant behaviour and dissatisfaction with the organisation (Vigoda-Gadot & Ben-Zion, 2004). In addition, employees have an affective moderate form of organisational attachment and they always evaluate their future in the organisation this also influences their commitment. Therefore, the psychological component of turnover intention was viewed as the beginning stage of the multistage process of turnover reaction (Takase, 2009).

4.4.2. Cognitive component

In a study that was conducted by Chen, Chen, Huang and Ching (2006) the psychological component is described as the initial stage of turnover intention meanwhile the cognitive component is viewed as primary element of turnover intention. Various scholars described turnover intention particularly the cognitive response of the decision to leave, therefore the cognitive term was used interchangeably with withdrawal cognition (De-Coninck & Stilwell, 2004). In other words, turnover intention is also described as the final cognitive action causing actual turnover. The cognitive component of turnover intention consists of two subcomponents that are: the intention as well as what follows immediately after the word intention. In some studies, the intention is described as a desire or a mere thought, (De-Coninck & Stilwell, 2004). Castle, Engberg, Anderson, and Men (2007) further added that this could trigger behaviours leading to actual turnover.

Intentions are also described in a hypothetical nature (Allen, Weeks & Moffitt, 2005). In some literatures, intention has significant connotations. For instance, intention was seen as a decision or a plan to leave the current position.

4.4.3. Behavioural component

The last component that played a core role of turnover intention process is withdrawal behaviour. Just as the cognitive component of the intention process, withdrawal behaviours are divided into two subgroups, “withdrawal from the present job, and actions aimed at upcoming opportunities” (Takase, 2009:5). The behavioural response of the withdrawal process from job are often actual behaviour or in a verbal discourse. The behavioural responses involve employees daydreaming during work hours and being less motivated at work, arriving in late (Harris, 2005) as well as being frequently away from work. The verbal response comprises of utterances or expressed intentions to leave jobs, (Harris, 2005).

The future focused responses comprised of the elements of turnover intention and are the reactive responses of employees’ cognitive intentions (Takase, 2009). These intention responses were operationalised as the actual job search and also the desire to accept another job offer when presented. These responses were often operationalised in order to explore employee’s turnover intention (Takase, 2009).

4.5. ANTECEDENTS OF TURNOVER INTENTION

4.5.1. Quality of Work Life

Quality of work life (QWL) plays a significant role to any employee’s life. In many cases the employee tends to spend most of their daily life at their workplace therefore it is important to have necessary to have a quality of work life (Takase, 2009). Quality of work life can be described as the pleasant or unpleasant work environment by the employees. It relates to the nature of influence between employees and the overall working environment. Quality work life concept has multi-dimensions which consists various dimensions that have a significant impact on the employees work and are also used for determining the quality of work life.

Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009) have conducted a study in the past, the findings of which has indicated that there are a number of factors which affect the quality of work life. These aspects may include fair compensation, safe and healthy working condition, opportunity to use and develop human skills, opportunity for career development, social cohesion in the work place and democracy in the work organisation, work and quality of life with special relevance of work, (Susskind, 2007).

4.5.2. Organisational Justice

Organisational justice refers to the study of fairness within the organisation and also the way employees view it. It is the perception of fairness according to individuals in the work environment. Therefore, at its most general level, organisational justice is regarded as a field of psychological assessment that deals with perceptions on fairness in the workplace. It is basically the psychology of justice that is used in organisational environment. It is important that the organisation is dedicated and loyal to employees, thus the organisation has to be fair with their system regarding distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Takase, 2009). When employees perceive that they are treated equally by the organisation in every form, they are more likely to show more positive attitude and increased satisfaction towards their jobs.

There are three types of organisational justice: distributive (fairness of outcomes), procedural (fairness of processes) and interactional (fairness of interpersonal treatment one receives from leaders). Previous studies have indicated that the unjust processes accumulate negative consequences in the workplace like low job satisfaction, turnover, low commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

4.5.3. Job stress

Job stress is described as the condition of emotional strain or experiencing tension as a result of adverse and demanding issues. Stress is related to negative circumstances. An employee that suffers from stress may experience a greater job dissatisfaction, this results to increased rate of absenteeism, increased frequency of drinking and smoking, an increase in negative psychological conditions and reduced enthusiasm and low self-esteem. Stress on the job is costly for the organisation, it results in declined productivity, reduced motivation, skills alienation, turnover and increased accidents on the job (Takase, 2009).

The use of job concepts recommend that job stress is related to individual, interpersonal and structural factors. It contributes to the health costs and ultimately a consequence of economic loss for both individual and the organisation. It has been demonstrated that employees who suffer major job stress have more intention to leave (Ahmad,2012). If the stress is caused by working context and it affects employee performance, is often regarded as a stimulus. Thus control influence of job stress can assist the Human Resource Managers to control the organisational cost by reducing the turnover rate.

4.5.4. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the final feeling or sensation derived by an employee after completing a task. Job satisfaction is regarded to be stronger indicator of turnover intention (Martin, 2007). To an extent that a person's job satisfies their primary needs and is meeting their expectations and values, the job will be fulfilling. The state of job satisfaction is believed to have an impact on other various aspects of work incidents such as accidents, absenteeism, turnover and productivity. Previous findings indicated that low absentee employees were more satisfied with their jobs.

The low satisfied employees are more likely to leave their jobs when compared with more satisfied employees. Studies also revealed that there is a significant relationship between employee satisfaction and employee turnover. When the employee's morale decline and there are instabilities at the work, employees are more likely to leave the organisation and seek alternative employment (Martin, 2007).

4.6. CAUSES OF TURNOVER INTENTION

This section will discuss the different causes of turnover intention as identified by different researchers.

4.6.1. Poor working environment

In a study conducted by Mrayyan and Al-Faouri (2008) it is said organisations are distinct from each other in terms of security and facilities they offer to their employees. This could be the uniform, working machines or working equipment's. Usually large organisations tend to offer good facilities as compared to their small counterparts. Thus, as a result employees tend to have the desire to leave their organisation to the one that is perceived to offer better and quality facilities.

Employees working facilities vary significantly among the different departments and organisations, with few stronger companies or organisations having satisfactory working conditions.

4.6.2. Lack of satisfaction with career opportunities

Employees that experience negative factors such as conflicting job requirements, unclear opportunities for growth, lack of skill development, and lack of promotions result in employees having high desire to leave their organisation. Organisations that doesn't provide good career development programs to satisfy the needs of the employees at different stages, increases the chance for turnover action and vice versa. Mrayyan and Al-Faouri (2008) in their study revealed that lack of career prosperity as being significantly associated to decreased job satisfaction and subsequently intention to leave.

4.6.3. Salaries and incentives

Previous literature reveals that high payments and benefits offered by alternative institutions are the cause of turnover intention (Mrayyan & Al-Faouri, 2008). Particularly, South Africa is continuously proving to be a target for foreign and overseas organisations where they are always attracting away the best brain power the country can offer with significantly large offers (Mrayyan, & Al-Faouri, 2008). Previous literature also reveals that organisational support is identified as one of the causes and researchers further established that instabilities between the high levels of performance expended and perceived low organisational support among employees are significantly related with intent to quit the job (El-Jardali, Alameddine, Dumit, Dimassi, Jamal & Maalouf, 2011).

This implies that employees who perceived that the supervisor valued their efforts and contributions cared about their wellbeing and this result in an increased perceived organisational support, which in turn may lead to a significant decrease turnover intention.

4.6.4. Promotional opportunities

Mello (2006) mentioned that advancement opportunities within the firm or organisation are viewed as a method to unify workers and employers. It is believed that it promotes loyalty across hierarchical level. It is viewed as part of the fairness and justice element in the workplace.

If employees are performing well in their job and they are not being rewarded accordingly, then outsiders may influence them, and then there will be a sense of dysfunctionality within the organisation.

Promotion within an organisation is viewed as an opportunity that provides a benefit for hard work. Although it is related to monetary rewards, promotion is status based and doesn't have a monetary component. Even though promotion is seen as monetary based, however the discretion to decide to reward performing employees is based on performance and employees tend to feel appreciated and they become loyal and put extra effort at their place of work when promotional decisions are fair. Employees who are committed and respect their career prospects in the organisation and are more willing to stay and provide assistance in making the organisation achieve its objectives and goals. However, the perception of little promotional opportunity within the organisation predicted intent to leave (Tian-Foreman, 2009).

4.6.5. Education and training opportunities

Most of the organisations that consider its employees as human investment, training and development represents an on-going growth of these assets and one of the most significant investments an organisation can obtain (Mello, 2006). Even though these investments may enhance the organisation's stock of human capital, they may also be an addition to the attractiveness of their employees to other employers due to the accumulated knowledge and training. They may also realise their added value and start to pursue other opportunities, more attractive lucrative offers from other organisations. This might be as a result of their added value being less recognised with better compensation or more interesting work projects (Katamba, 2011).

4.6.6. Management style

A participative management style involves the fifteen components of good management style and this includes loyalty, decision making, teamwork, shared power, motivation, good communication, involvement, collaboration, democracy, transparency, innovation, respect, problem solving, identification of common goals and equalitarian leadership style. Those are likely to cause less anticipation to leave the position and work, and this will cause low turnover. Hang, Ma, Chiu, Lin and Lee (2009) concur in their study that a participative management style that values all effective supervisory communications can increase employees job satisfaction.

Contrary lack of appreciation, trust and support from management have been identified as causing dissatisfaction which will finally influence turnover intention which will lead to the actual turnover.

4.7. CONSEQUENCES OF TURNOVER INTENTION

This section discusses the various consequences of turnover and to identify turnover as a critical organisational issue. However, turnover does attract positive consequences for example it enables reallocation of organisational resources (Tian-Foreman, 2009) this section will only focus on negative consequences of turnover. Three important negative consequences, which have an influence on organisational effectiveness, will be discussed below: the impact on organisational cost, operational disruption and demoralization of organisational membership.

4.7.1. Organisational cost

Organisational efficiency is identified to be highly associated with a low turnover rate. Research studies on the influence of turnover are overlooked by a common concern with organisational effectiveness, which is defined as the degree to which the system achieves its goals (Chang, Ma, Chiu, Lin, & Lee, 2009). The financial consequence of turnover is normally demonstrated in monetary value. Tian-Foreman (2009) added that the addition of the components of the three major categories should constitute the expense of an employee turnover.

In addition, various studies extended Tian-Foreman's (2009) viewpoint with further categorisation of the elements. Chang, Ma, Chiu, Lin, and Lee (2009) criticized the view in their study and argued that Tian-Foreman (2009) disregard the distinction between functional and dysfunctional turnover.

He maintains that is the cost of the low productivity of the replaced new worker during the period required compared to the performance of the previous employee who left. If poor job performers choose to leave, this could however breed beneficial results for the organisation. However, in case of dysfunctional turnover, then the loss of a valued employee can lead to poor productivity. Another element is the vacancy costs that relates costs that where suffered due to increased temporary or overtime workers that are hired to complete the duties of the vacant position (Chang, Ma, Chiu, Lin & Lee, 2009).

4.7.2. Operational Disruption

Tian-Foreman (2009) stated that operational disruption happens when there is interdependence between the work roles in the organisation. The loss of significant staff in an organisation which is described as being more interdependent and specialized can influence the capacity of other remaining employees to fulfill their work task. In some organisations higher turnover rate tend to be low in hierarchy levels. Replacing these positions is not that difficult for the organisation. It is argued that the higher the level of position to be filled the greater the potential for disruption. This issue can be solved with back up personnel or employees can be trained with multiplicity skills (Tian-Foreman, 2009).

4.7.3. Demoralisation of employees

The demoralisation of organisational member relates to the influence of turnover on behavioural responses of the remaining workers in the organisation. The issue of a fellow staff member leaving an organisation for alternative position in another environment may trigger a reflective willingness with remaining employees, such as questioning their own motivation to stay in the organisation. The reason of leaving is one important factor for demoralization of organisational members. Therefore, turnover can lead to an increased turnover by causing decreases in positive attitudes towards the organisation (Katamba, 2011).

If the cause for leaving is not organisational related issue, such as family problems or change of location, then the feeling of demoralization is less experienced. But if the cause is the result of organisational dysfunctionalities, such as pay or supervisory support, then it will strongly lead to demoralization.

If those who quit are members of a cohesive teams or group and have a high social status among the organisational members, then turnover will lead to greater demoralization (Katamba, 2011).

4.8. TURNOVER INTENTION AT INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

According to Robyn (2012) talent retention has become a critical concern for all organisations in South Africa, and particularly in the higher education sector, which is challenged by an aging workforce and lack proper planning on recruiting and retaining young talented individuals.

In today's environment, the knowledge-based economy is viewed as a significant contributor to the nation's economic growth and wealth generation. To be competent in this dynamic development environment is crucial for the nation to discover knowledge, develop new ideas and encourage innovation particularly among the undergraduates who are potential leaders for the future.

Higher education institutions are vulnerable to losing their well-competent academic members to the private sector and to alternative higher education institutions with good incentives and benefits (Ngobeni & Bezuidenhout, 2011). A study conducted by Rosser (2004) revealed that turnover can be costly to the higher education institution as it can cause an unstable and knowledgeable workforce; the loss of valuable institutional memory; an increase in financial costs and time to train new staff; and more incidents of behavioural problems such as absenteeism and tardiness.

A study conducted by Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens and Weale (2005) has revealed that higher education institutions' turnover rates were between 4 per cent and 8 per cent and one of the case scenarios within that study indicated a strong turnover rate of 13 per cent. Many research studies revealed that human resource managers do not have knowledge of the turnover rate of their current institution. However, the managers do not believe that their institution had a turnover crisis (Metcalf et al. 2005). The contextualization of turnover in higher education institutions reported internationally, averagely annual turnover rate among employees at public research institutions is approximately 17 per cent (Patrick & Sebastian, 2012). However, due to lack of the local South African benchmarking information, this strongly indicates South African researches often need to rely on international benchmarking studies in academic field from the United Kingdom or Europe (Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens & Weale, 2005).

Due to the unavailability of local benchmarking information to determine turnover or retention rate of qualified staff, South African studies are relying on information from the Department of Labour whereby various sectors of the market have the high proportion of vacancies (Netswera, Rankhumise & Mavundla, 2005). The socio-economic trends need to be addressed into the contextual management of turnover, as well inventing strategies and minimizing cost of retention has since become increasingly relevant during times of economic recessions (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2009).

There are reports a depressed economy leads to low salary increases, employee behaviours, such as satisfaction and intentions to leave are also impacted (Taylor, Murphy & Price, 2006).

Both CHE (2008) and HESA (2011) provided that compensation rate is a primary cause of academics leaving higher education institutions, and that proper compensation rate should be implemented to keep academics and the pay differences between the private sector and HEIs are huge. Non-appealing salary offers result in active academics being poached by the private sector.

Botha and Potgieter (2009) reported that most higher education institutions struggle with restructuring and transforming employee development aligned with national policies. It is also stated that there are different interests evident with the specialization on staff development in higher education institutions national policies. A report by HESA (2011) revealed that the budget allocation by the government are not enough to cover both staff and student development. Lack of job opportunities and improper academic staff development have repercussions on career success and the employability of academics, which cause the decline of the professoriate (Buddeberg-Fischer, Stamm & Buddeberg, 2009).

Therefore, the higher education leaders must clearly indicate the primary competencies and employee traits that are needed for progressive academic programmes, good citizenship and a good quality life (Netswera *et al.*, 2005). This implies that talent retention the managers must develop a mindset that aims at developing staff members of higher education. Researchers must focus on attaining a holistic knowledge for attracting, recruiting, developing and maintain academic talent.

They further revealed that management at the highest hierarchy disregarded the significant influence of talent retention and the causes to labour turnover are not correctly identified. Netswera *et al.* (2005) discovered that higher education leaders aim for profits, competition and reasons for spending, but academic staff are motivated by introverted factors such as character development, good rewards and personal growth.

4.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter began with an introduction to turnover intention. The concept of turnover intention was defined and discussed in this chapter. The models and theories of turnover intention were also examined. The causes and consequences of turnover intention were also discussed. Finally, turnover intention in higher education institutions was examined. The next chapter will focus on the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention and the implications of these relationships at institution of higher education.

CHAPTER 5

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter integrates all three variables of interest which are organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention by means of establishing the relationship between the three variables. The conceptual framework and an overview of literature about the relationship between the variables are discussed in general and also specifically in higher education institutions. Lastly the implication of the relationships between these variables for the institutions of higher education are discussed.

5.2. OVERVIEW OF THE RELATIONSHIPS

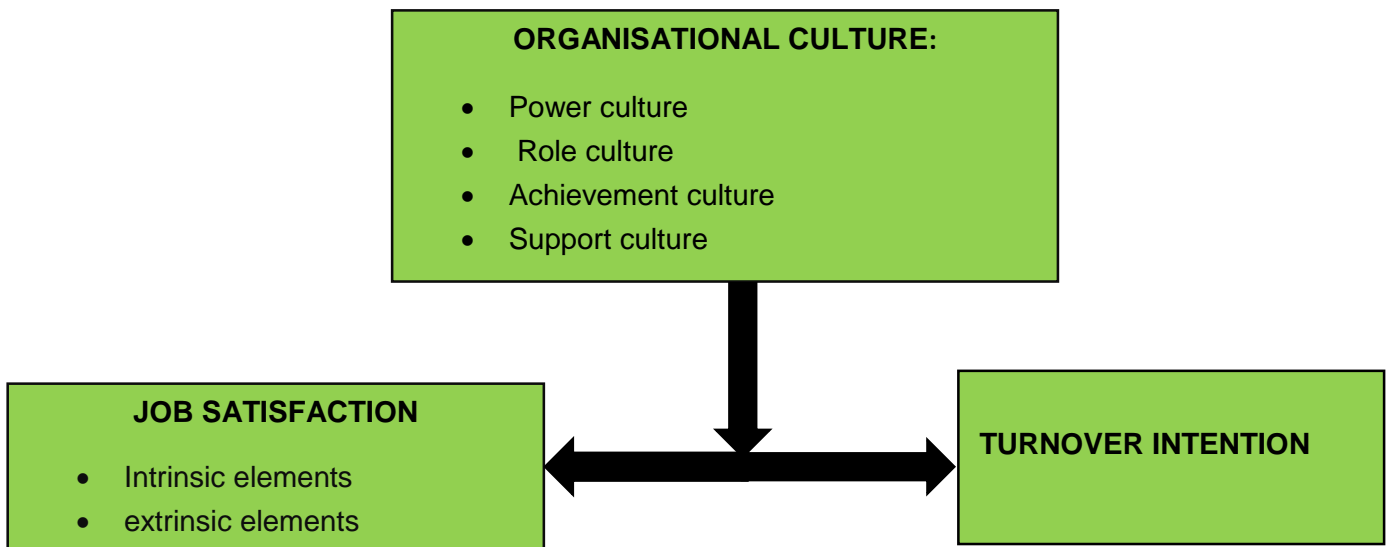


Figure 4. Overview of the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention

The relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention is best understood within the global context and as well as the South African context.

5.2 .1. Theoretical framework

5.2.1.1. Social exchange theory

The relationship between the three variables of interest is based on the social exchange theory, which stems from the social psychological and sociological viewpoint of explaining behaviour and social changes as negotiated exchanges between parties (Zafirovski, 2005). This theory describes the nature of the relationship between employees and organisations, it further suggests that people take decisions based on their individual satisfaction levels within social engagements. Thus, social exchange theory describes how the social relationships are interdependent on the exchange of outcomes between employees and the organisations.

Literature clearly indicates that quite a number of researchers have explained the social exchange theory. The social exchange viewpoint is also described as the mutuality of gratification that is reciprocal according to the conditions that were formulated between two parties that is based on trust and through exchanging or maintaining a stable system of moral norm exchange (Loi, Hang-Yue, & Foley, 2006). The relationship between the parties is determined by benefits and costs to an individual (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). The relationship is based on the belief that there is balance between the effort offered into the relationship and the output or benefits that are received.

Therefore, the correlation tends to be strong if the outcome is greater than the input. Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor (2000) postulated that workers can also develop social exchange relationships with their supervisors, and employees will positively contribute to the organisation when they are satisfied with it (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). In the higher education setting, the institution can form social exchange relationships with employees, head of departments, directors, students and the community at large. From the perspective of social exchange theory universities pursue equity in their exchange with their employees (Blau, 1964). There is a growing concern for the lack of research conducted in higher education institutions of developing countries. Subsequently, institutions from developing countries might experience less significant exchange relationships than abroad institutions because local members might experience discrimination and perceived inequity.

Local academic employees are experiencing inequity when their expectations of reciprocity are not met because their social exchange relationships contain less benefits. For instance, local employees without a working visa status are not entitled for promotion, health insurance, and career development benefits (Ang, Van-Dyne & Begley, 2003). In addition, Karatepe and Shahriari (2014) also applied the social exchange theory, and investigated its correlation with turnover intention. The study revealed that the social exchange theory provides findings of the relationship that exists between organisational culture and turnover intention. The relationships are built through the process of time to become trusting, loyal, and mutual benefits, and specifically relevant when all organisational members, whether that be managers, supervisors, and employees are abiding to specific rules of exchange.

Academic employees offer their services (e.g, lecturing, research, and community engagement) to the university and in turn expect positive rewards (e.g., benefits, promotional opportunities). Therefore, social interchanges refer to a greater level of psychological contract, and work together with defined intimate attachment at a personal level, together with obligations of fulfilment of the unwritten contract.

Additionally, the supporters of the social exchange theory described that a relationship exists between actual turnover and the organisation and they further explained that there are implications that result from turnover which are financial and organisational loss, but when the relationship is mutually reciprocated the outcomes create fairness, such as equal pay and rewards. In other words, trust within a team of employees is developed and engendered through a conducive work setting with regards to pay levels that are instilled and the allocation of rewards, as well as how interpersonal relationship is maintained through quality (Karatepe & Shahriari, 2014).

Therefore, this research has adopted this theory to describe the relationship between the variables of interest, because the perceptions of the existing organisational culture is as a result of the institutional transformation that may negatively or positively affect job satisfaction and which may result in turnover among academic employees (Van-Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006).

Thus, the process of the social exchange outcomes reflects a perception of the exchange of quality and can be seen as a social relationship in which the organisation and employees negotiate their mutual expectations that result in rewards such as increased employee job satisfaction and lower turnover.

5.3. EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

Manetje and Martins (2009) stated that South African institutions are experiencing major changes in terms of culture and diversity because of the new South African political dispensation, these changes relate to new legislations and national policies which South African institutions are expected to comply with and implement accordingly. South African higher education institutions are expected to handle dynamic problems that are unique within local context, and the unstable environment composing of multi-cultural workforces. Therefore, the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention is subject to change in the same way that South African organisations deal with constant changes.

As a result of the significant economic dynamics within the South African context, organisations are required to adapt to the changes in order to survive recession, (Chipunza, 2009). Hence, employee's perception of their culture and job satisfaction to their organisation changes. These changes may be in the form of inability to be flexible and therefore less satisfaction with the job and dissatisfaction with the organisational culture which lead to intention to leave the organisation. Therefore, in order to adapt to the changes in the world of work and employees continuously enhance their employability (Cohen & Golan, 2007).

Naicker (2008) explained that this depends on the existing culture of the organisation, since valuable staff need to be taken into consideration during period of organisational change or this can be detrimental to employee's morale and this can potentially affect the organisations current turnover rate (Fedor, Caldwell & Herold, 2006). During the time of organisational layoffs and restructuring which is involuntary turnover, the remaining employees that were not removed represent the organisation need to build loyal interrelationships with management, which is something that can only happen if they are satisfied with the existing culture (Cohen & Golan, 2007).

Studies that have been investigated globally indicates that achievement and role cultures create high levels of job satisfaction and which in return reduces turnover (Martins & Martins, 2003).

Bashayreh (2009) conducted a study that was aimed at evaluating the relationship between the dimensions of organisational culture and job satisfaction in Malaysia's higher education. The findings indicated no significant relationship between reward and the performance dimension of organisational culture and job satisfaction. However, the study discovered a significant correlation between organisational culture factors such as organisational supportiveness, innovation and stability, and communication and job satisfaction.

Taking into consideration that people are expected to interact with the organisation and also with the global market and various unpredictable developments that may arise. Consequently, organisational culture will also change in relation to these unpredictable changes therefore there is a need to adapt to the external environment which may negatively affect satisfaction levels of the employees and the intention to quit may arise. The sections below provide a detailed description of these relationships between the variables of interest, that is the empirical findings of the relationships between organisational culture and job satisfaction, job satisfaction and turnover intention as well as that between organisational culture and turnover intention both locally and the global context.

5.4. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND JOB SATISFACTION

Various studies have indicated that job satisfaction is a multifaceted concept that is significantly affected by various internal and external factors, for example; people's values, principles, personality and expectations and the nature of the job, the opportunities provided at work (Davies et al., 2013). Job satisfaction is one of the elements of organisational culture that have been investigated, starting from job design to supervision (Spector, 1997).

Studies of the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction posited that a conducive working place enhances the development of a particular organisational culture and experience of employee's job satisfaction (Hellreigel & Slocum, 2001).

This implies that job satisfaction increases as employees are promoted to higher job position. In addition, Brenton and Driskill (2010) identified significant relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction for employees in specific job levels, and a correlation between satisfaction and turnover intention. Furthermore, it is explained that organisational culture consist of a shared value system and believes that direct the organisation operation on a daily basis. Brenton and Driskill (2010) added that assessment of individual aspects of job satisfaction allows authors to recognize the environmental factors that are related to specific dimensions of job satisfaction. Lok and Crawford (2003) further explained that, since the dimensions of job satisfaction are the elements of an organisation, job satisfaction is an assessment of organisational culture.

In addition, Luddy (2005) conducted a review on the impact of job satisfaction in relation to organisational culture and employee's responses. The review revealed a significant distinction in job satisfaction between employees who serve in different organisational cultures. It was further revealed if employees experienced a correlation between their current and desired culture, they are more satisfied with the intrinsic elements of their work.

Research conducted by Leibowitz and Bozalek (2014) indicated that workers from different positions within the organisation are affected by distinct work elements. In simple term, different factors of the working environment must be assessed when dealing with the challenges of job satisfaction in different levels in the same organisation. Leibowitz and Bozalek (2014) also explained job satisfaction as the overall assessment of organisational environment, organisational culture provides a description of work context. It can be drawn from the descriptions provided above that job satisfaction can be described as the difference between the outcomes that an employee expects to receive and those that they actually receive. Thus, job satisfaction refers to the characteristics of the job and is assessed according to what employees perceive as being significant and meaningful to them. In addition, it could be stated that the assessment of the different aspects of the job by employees is subjective, and people will relate to different levels of satisfaction around the same factors.

Chipunza and Malo (2017) performed a study on the impact of organisational culture on job satisfaction and the quality offered in higher education among academic and administration members in Lisbon. The findings revealed that there are specific culture types that are related to the job satisfaction of employees. The achievement culture, was discovered to be most common amongst educational or academic members, had a strong relationship with service quality and job satisfaction moderates the relationship.

Sabri, Ilyas and Amjad's (2011) investigated the organisational culture in Pakistan institution and the findings showed that the influence of achievement and support cultures on job satisfaction have been positive and significant among academic members in both the public and private higher education institutions. However, some studies reveal power culture has influence on job satisfaction. Studies on the new organisational culture stems from the restructuring of South Africa's higher education and is centered on factors such as employee engagement and quality teaching (Leibowitz & Bozalek, 2014).

5.5. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION

Higher education institutions are facing a high turnover rate challenges globally with Australia predicting about 20 000 academic member shortage if the retention problems are not resolved (Ng'ethe, Iravo and Namusonge, 2012). In line with that, South Africa is also experiencing major turnover challenges among academics in institutions of higher education. Due to this turnover problems, scholars in this field suggested developing job satisfaction factors that are important to academic staff and determining their relationship with turnover intention is one great initiative towards strategising ways to reduce actual turnover. In addition, it is believed that most of the research findings in the field discovered an inverse a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Therefore, Job satisfaction together with some demographic variables as age, length of service, and education level have been associated with turnover intention. Studies have indicated that low absenteeism is related with high job satisfaction while high turnover and absenteeism are said to be related to job dissatisfaction (Saifuddin, Hongkraclent & Sermril, 2008).

Firth, David, Millor, Moore and Claude (2004) reviewed Mobley model which proposed that an employee normally experiences sequential stages between job dissatisfaction and eventual turnover. They further explained the model in sequential order; that job dissatisfaction leads an employee to reflect or consider to leave. They then examined the predicted usefulness of searching for an alternative job and the cost associated with quitting the current position. After the evaluation, an intention to look for available jobs may develop, this leads the employee to find alternative jobs and also assess the acceptability of any specific alternatives. The employee would probably evaluate the new options to the current work which in turn leads to an intent to quit, and ultimately the actual worker turnover. In addition, experiences of job related stresses, the different factors that lead to job related stress; loss of dedication in the organisation; and job dissatisfaction make employees leave.

In study observe about the correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic elements and turnover intention was analysed in Lagos Kingdom that involved employees within manufacturing organisations (Olowookere, Adekeye, Adejumo, Agoha, & Sholarin, 2016). The study indicated that the that intrinsic elements are inversely related to turnover intention, whilst extrinsic factors are positively related to turnover intention. these scholars also suggested that organisations that increase intrinsic factors in the workplace will minimise turnover. A study conducted by Mottaz (2006) about intrinsic rewards and extrinsic organisational rewards on job satisfaction. They discovered a strong predictors of job satisfaction when intrinsic rewards are aligned with extrinsic rewards.

The study carried out by Mottaz (2006) discovered that low level employees in the organisation did extrinsic factors such as motivators and pay aligned with job satisfaction satisfaction. High level employees within an organisation are more interested in intrinsic rewards because the as the employee's professional expertise increase. More research reveals that the relationship between job satisfaction and actual employee turnover is moderated intentions. Schwegker (2001) cautioned that positive and statistically significant relationships had been established in many research exploring turnover intentions and actual turnover behaviour. In other words, intention to leave a job is an immediate predictor to actually leaving.

Thus, the established, inverse relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intention is very important to research in organisational behaviour in order to develop strategies to reduce actual turnover.

5.6. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND TURNOVER INTENTION

Employees view of the nature of organisational culture is a significant factor in human resource management, change management and leadership development. O'Reilly and Caldwell (1980) investigated the link between organisational culture and employee personality types. They posited that employees who did not fit in organisations, it was because of duties or current organisational culture, and they are likely to quit because of decreased job satisfaction to the organisation as opposed to employees who matched particularly with the organisational culture. According to Mbah and Ikemefuna (2012) the turnover intention rate at which an employer loses valuable employees can be beneficial and detrimental to the organisation. The time and energy that is used in getting new and suitable employees and the time that is utilized for new employees to gain optimum level of productivity may sometimes lead to difficulties in reaching organisational objectives (Waldman, Kelly, Arora & Smith, 2004).

Turnover has a negative effect on the daily functioning of any organisation (Öcel & Aydm, 2012) and requires stringent strategies in reversing such trend. Zohar (2000) suggested that it is important to distinguish between strong and weak cultures. The suggestion herein is that strong cultures hold a significant level of influence on the employee behaviour and are more likely to reduce turnover. In a strong culture, the organisations primary values are both intensely held and widely shared. The more members who accept the common values the stronger the culture is. Boninelli and Meyer (2004) investigated the correlation between organisational culture and employee commitment and intention to stay at a Canadian energy company. The researchers suggested that employee dedication and intention to stay would be high when there is organisational culture correlation between the employees actual and desired organisational culture.

Therefore, the scholars developed polynomial regression and response surface analysis between culture and intention to stay to determine employee correlation with organisational culture and revealed that organisational culture correlated with Lower turnover intention (Onifade, 2014). Therefore, culture form integral to the identity of an organisation and relates to the primary values crucial to the organisation. Hence, employees that are satisfied with the terms of their employment tend to remain, those that are a poor match are more likely to leave voluntarily. Employees have various needs and expectations and if not met, may damage their participation level, value system and performance. Hence, positive dominant organisational culture increases staff alignment, resulting in improved organisational performance (Onifade, 2014).

5.7. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION

According to Lok and Crawford (2004) organisational culture plays an important role in improving overall performance and reducing high turnover rate. The investigations carried out in various industries and nations indicated that modern and supportive cultures had strong significant impact on job satisfaction whilst power oriented subculture had a negative effect (Silverthorne, 2004). Research show that organisations need to be person oriented and this includes the institution's support, cooperation with and recognition for employees (Choi, Martin & Park, 2008).

It is further suggested that the organisation should promote an ongoing people oriented organisational culture, if the effect is to be felt by overall workforce. This is supported in the South Korean context, whereby people orientated culture offers a great deal of respect for all employee's values contribute to job satisfaction and reciprocal responses of productiveness (Choi, Martin & Park, 2008). In addition, a crew orientated tradition, additionally a significant element of organisational lifestyle, organizes paintings sports around groups (Naicker, 2008).

It could be stated that firms that formulate teams primarily based on employee complementary capabilities are more successful than the ones that do not. consequently, this suggests that organisational culture has a tendency to persuade employees' work effort and satisfaction through existing cultural values, and indirectly through human resources practices (Naicker, 2008).

Choi, Martin and Park (2008) found that there's strong relationship between high level of satisfaction and dimensions of organisational culture and this is support-orientated culture and achievement orientated dimension. Job satisfaction has been determined to be negatively correlated with turnover intention (Lund, 2003).

In a survey by Mor Barak, Nissly and Levin (2001) the findings indicated that job satisfaction is considered the strongest predictor of turnover intention among child welfare, social work, and different human service employees and organisational subculture is commonly regarded as a significant moderator of employee behaviours, beliefs, attitudes, and intentions. Lund (2003) conducted a study on the impact of organisational culture on job satisfaction amongst marketing specialists in America. The results indicated that job satisfaction is associated with support and achievement cultures and also negatively correlated with power and role cultures.

Martins and Martins (2003) said that high formalisation in an organisation allows predictability, orderliness and consistency. In different words, a strong culture can serve as a substitute for formalisation. The organisation's formal policies and rules, which direct individuals' behaviour are internalised by organisational participants once they are given the organisational culture; and this takes place without the need for written documentation (Martins & Martins, 2003). However, poor formalisation of rules and regulations could therefore reflect a weak organisational culture.

When employees are dissatisfied at work they start to search for other alternatives to quit and in case opportunities are not available, they tend to have mentally withdrawal behaviours from the organisation. Job satisfaction is a significant attitude in evaluating employee's intention to quit and the overall performance of the employee to the organisation.

A power orientated culture, on other hand, reflects a stable culture in which organisational activities emphasize status quo maintenance at the expense of growth. Power culture often competes with cultures of aggression that are associated with an organisation's employees level of competitiveness (Naicker, 2008). Thus, aggression influences the organisation's state of global competitiveness and survival strategies, this is confirmed by Bauer and Erdogan (2014) in their findings on how academic staff regarded aggressive cultures as the least preferred organisational culture.

The dynamic environment requires that organisations, particularly higher education institutions be responsive and dynamic for their own survival.

5.8. IMPLICATIONS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Competition and globalisation keeps on increasing and this makes it more difficult for organisations to retain their employees, as a result most of the employees would be attracted to organisations with great job offers. Higher education institutions are also experiencing these retention challenges as they often compete with other local institutions or those abroad for top academics (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013). Higher education institutions should reduce labour turnover, as it causes frustration to the remaining employees due to increased loads of work for the and this also affects student enrolment (Tsinidou, Gerogiannis & Fitsilis, 2010). Therefore, it is important to discover the reasons as to why employees leave, in order to curb labour turnover because high labour turnover negatively affects the job satisfaction of remaining employees.

In an increasingly competitive and dynamic business environment effective staffing, development and retention of human resources remain a critical aspect of organisational survival, adaptation and competitive advantage (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013). Developing good retention strategies and keeping labour turnover to target has become a significant strategic issue for many organisations (Döckel, Basson & Coetzee, 2006). Therefore, it is commonly accepted that the satisfaction level of the employees is a crucial element of attracting and retaining them (Samuel and Chipunza, 2013). Buckingham (2001) stated that when effective academics leave the institution, it loses an essential element of human capital and this loss may be doubled if they join forces with a competitor.

The new demands and behaviours by employees in organisations have led to a renewed interest in employee attitude research in an attempt to establish why people leave and what action may be taken to retain them (Tsinidou, et al ,2010).

In addition, Naicker (2008) agreed that the focus on organisational culture and employee satisfaction researches is a way of determining satisfaction within the organisation, is one of the most important trends in organisations.

In addition, upcoming researchers should focus on the leadership ability, accepted culture and competence of leaders because of the increasing findings relating the impact of leader's personality traits and leadership competencies on the productivity, satisfaction and general experiences of employees' quality of work life. Research recommendations show that exceptional leadership style and good employee behaviour may shape a positive organisational culture. Most prefer a good approach to the management of subordinates and this forms a preferred organisation culture (Naicker, 2008).

5.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter gave an overview of the relationship between the variables under study based on the available literature. Most of the literature provided revealed significant relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The implications of the relationships between the variables of interest were discussed both in general and specifically at the institution of higher education. The next chapter will focus on research methodology.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHOD

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the literature review on the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention. This chapter will focus on the research methodology. Subsequently, the research methodology explains the research design, study population, data collection, measuring instruments, as well as statistical procedures used to analyse and interpret data. The discussion is based on three key variables of the study which are organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The research design selected can be explained as quantitative and non-experimental with the use of primary data. The chapter further provides detailed discussions of the target population, sampling, data collection methods and instruments used. The validity and reliability of the research instruments are also described.

6.2. RESEARCH APPROACH

This research applied the deductive approach because the researcher developed a conceptual framework for the study which the researcher subsequently tested using collected data and also needed to describe causal relationship between variables (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The study identified the nature and factors influencing the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intention. Therefore, a quantitative approach was deemed appropriate for the study because collecting data using quantitative techniques enables the researcher to study a large number of respondents within a short space of time. The other advantage is that using the same instruments and questions allows for standardised information to be collected. The quantitative technique also enabled the researcher to test the relationships between the dependent and independent variables using reliable statistical methods.

6.3. RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is a blue print or a plan detailing on how research will be implemented De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2011). This study is a quantitative study that used a survey to collect information from the employees in order to investigate how organisational culture is related to job satisfaction and turnover intention among academic staff members at the University of Limpopo. A quantitative, cross-sectional survey design was used for this study. A cross-sectional survey design collects data at one point in time from one selected sample in order to represent the larger population (Hall, 2008). This study is a cross-sectional study since data was gathered over a month period.

Martin (2007) posited that the main purpose of research survey is to collect information from one or more people on a set of organisationally relevant constructs. In addition, the study setting of this study is non-contrived setting because the daily operations in the institutions were not disturbed.

6.4. UNIT OF ANALYSIS

The purpose of the study is to determine the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention among academic staff at a selected higher education institution. Thus, the unit of analysis is at individual level among academic staff members at the University of Limpopo institution regardless of their status in the university. Therefore, unit of analysis in this study includes each individual academic employee or member.

6.5. STUDY POPULATION

A study's population can be defined as a study object, which may include individuals, groups, organisations, events or the conditions to which they are uncovered, (Martin, 2007). In addition, Cozby (2009) defined population as all of the events, things or individuals to be represented in a study. In this study, the population consisted of all academic staff members of the University of Limpopo, South Africa. The University of Limpopo consists of four faculties, namely; the Health Sciences, Humanities, Science and Agriculture and Management and Law. The total size of the population is 474(N=474).

6.5.1. Demographic variables

The current study assessed the demographic characteristics of the subjects under investigation in order to draw a broader understanding of the population.

- Age

The study checked the age composition of the university's academic staff members through the participants. This assisted in identifying the dominant age within the university.

- Gender

This assisted in identifying the composition of the institution looking at gender and to identify the gender that is in dominant.

- Job position

This variable assisted in determining the academic employee's position in the university.

- Academic Qualifications

The study looked at the levels of qualification of the respondents with the purpose of checking the composition at the university for the purposes intervening to assist university in the development and empowerment of their employees.

- Tenure

The focus here is the number of years the respondents have spent working at the organisation.

6.6. SAMPLE AND SAMPLING SIZE

In this study, researcher used the convenience sampling method, this method assisted in receiving a large number of completed questionnaire quickly, it was more convenient and time effective. The researcher distributed 220 questionnaires to the academic employees and who were available and willing to participate. Out of the 220 questionnaires which were distributed only 198 questionnaires were suitable for analysis, because 6 were spoilt and 16 were not returned.

Table 7

Primary data of the population

This table depicts the primary data of target population that was collected from the Human Resource Management section of the University.

Professors (including associate professors and senior professors)	63
Senior Lecturers	124
Tutors and Junior Lecturers	66
Lectures	221
	TOTAL: 474

Table 7 indicates the academic statistics as of the 30th of March 2016: University of Limpopo – (Source: Human Resource Management).

6.7. VARIABLES AND MEASUREMENT PROCEDURES

The variables under the study are two dependent variables, one independent variable and five social demographic variables. The independent variables are organisational culture and job satisfaction, the dependent variable is turnover intention. Lastly, the social demographic variables as discussed above were gender, age, educational qualification, job position and length of service in the current organisation.

6.8. DATA COLLECTION METHODS AND INSTRUMENTS

This study used primary data. The primary data were collected by the use of structured questionnaire. This technique was selected due to the advantages associated with the method such as low cost of administration; it is more relevant to a large sample (Kothari, 2004). Hall and Hall (2008) stated that the data collection process involves making decisions regarding scales to be used, the nature and role of the questionnaires.

In order to ensure that the study is conducted effectively and efficiently, the details of the procedure followed when collecting the information is required in conducting the research in order to achieve the objectives of the study. Section A, B and C of the questionnaire are part of the instrument that was aimed to measure the variables under study. The questionnaire that was used in the study was categorised in three sections (A, B & C).

Table 8

Layout of the Questionnaire

Section A measures the organisational culture. Section B of the questionnaire measures job satisfaction and section C measures the turnover intention of the participants.

Section		Item
A	Organisational Culture	28
B	Job satisfaction	20
C	Turnover Intention	15

6.8.1. Organisational culture questionnaire (OCQ)

Harrison (1993) developed the Organisational Culture questionnaire which comprises of four distinct dimensions which are power, role, achievement and support. These dimensions consist of 28 structured questions. This questionnaire uses a four-point Likert-type scale so that respondents rate the current dimensions of organisational culture. According to Harrison (1993), the rating for this instrument is designed as follows for the two scales: 1 = Least dominant view or least preferred alternative 2 = Dominant view or preferred alternative 3 = Next dominant view or preferred alternative 4 = Most prevailing view, or preferred alternative. According to Harrison (1993) the reliabilities of the four dimensions of the organisational culture questionnaire, calculated by the Spearman-Brown formula, are for achievement (0.86), power (0.90), role (0.64) and support (0.87). The overall reliability of the questionnaire is 0.85 (Harrison 1993).

This model was selected because Harrison and Stokes (1992) developed a research scale that they repeatedly tested and discovered to have a favourable reliability and construct validity (Harrison, 1993). The instrument developed by Harrison and Stokes (1992) has also been subsequently tested in the South African environment (Louw & Boshoff ,2006).

6.8.2. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The job satisfaction instrument is divided into intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and as well as general satisfaction. The intrinsic satisfaction dimension comprises of the activity, discretion, variety, social status, moral values, security, social service, authority, ability, utilisation, responsibility, recognition, creativity and achievement. The extrinsic satisfaction dimension consists of factors such as supervision –human relations, supervision-technical, company policies and practices, compensation rate, advancement, working conditions, and co-workers (Martin, 2007).

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was be utilised as an instrument to examine the job satisfaction level among the academic employees at the University of Limpopo. The first section of this instrument consists of five demographic items. The second part of this questionnaire consists of two subscales which are; intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.

The survey items consist of a total of 20 items which included 12 items for intrinsic job satisfaction, six items for extrinsic job satisfaction and two items for general satisfaction. The responses range by 6-point Likert scaling from 1= “Extremely satisfied” to 6= “Very Dissatisfied”. Reliability for internal consistency ranges from 0.84- 0.91 for intrinsic subscale, 0.77- 0.82 for extrinsic subscale, and 0.87- 0.92 for general subscale (Martin, 2007).

In addition, a meta-analysis of MSQ found the overall mean correlation of 0.67 and the reliability ranging from 0.45 to 0.69 (Kabungaidze, Mahlatsana & Ngirande, 2013).

6.8.3. Turnover Intention Questionnaire(TIQ)

The employees’ turnover intention was evaluated by the scale that was developed by Bothma and Roodt (2013). This study used the shortened version of this scale which comprises of six 6 items. The item responses will range from a five-point interval scale that is from 1= “Never” to 5= “Always”. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha=0.80$ (Bothma & Roodt, 2013).

6.9. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

In administering the questionnaire, permission was requested from the university’s research office and management to distribute questionnaires to all academic staff members. Written permission was granted by the research office by issuing an ethical clearance certificate to conduct research from the faculties. The purpose and use of data for the study was explained to respondents in an accompanying cover letter which is at the beginning of the questionnaires. The researcher went to each and every office of staff members and delivered the questionnaire after explaining the purpose. Consent was also requested from the respondents before distribution of the questionnaires. Questionnaire distribution was done in such a way as to cause no disturbance to work performance of the respondents.

The questionnaires were distributed to employees from 09th of July 2018 and the final date for collection was the on the 17th of August 2018.

The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents during breaks (during lunch time and after hours to those who asked the researcher to come later) and also the participants were made aware of the time they have to complete the questionnaire. Respondents were given seven working days depending on when they received the

questionnaire to complete. After seven days, questionnaires were collected from the respondents for inspection before they were coded into the system.

6.10. DATA ANALYSIS METHODS

A statistical computer package, Statistics Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 25.0 published by International Business Machines (IBM) was used as a technique to process the data collected from the respondents. Descriptive statistics (mean, frequencies, standard deviations and percentages) and inferential statistical analyses were used. The advantage of using descriptive statistics is that it assists in summarising data and it is also important in interpreting the results of quantitative research. Coded data were also summarised using graphical presentations for the interpretation of results. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient were calculated to analyse the relationships between the variables, i.e. organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention (was measured on an interval scale).

T- tests were calculated to measure the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction elements. Cronbach alpha was also calculated to determine reliability of variable. The Friedman ranks test was used to measure the dominant existing organisational culture. Once the data was collected and coded, the following step was to analyze in order to it to have reliable results on the variables under study. The correlation analysis was employed to determine if there is any correlation between the dominant organisational culture (power, achievement, role and support), job satisfaction (global as well as intrinsic and extrinsic) and employee turnover intention. The correlation analysis determines the direction and strength of the relationship between two or more variables as well as statistical significance of the relationships.

6.11. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The survey was conducted among academic employees of the University of Limpopo. The ethical consequences which were taken into consideration include the informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity of participants. The participants were informed about the purpose of the study, the contribution of their participation and how the results were to be useful before collection. The researcher made it clear to participants they were not deceived into taking part in the study. The participants were also assured that they would not be affected in any way when taking part in the study and no individual data was reported in this study.

They were informed that information provided would be treated as confidential and that only group responses would be reported for research purposes. The researcher obtained an ethical clearance certificate from the research office of the institution that grants permission to conduct the study.

6.12. HYPOTHESES

The conceptual hypotheses described in chapter 1 are as follows:

6.12.1. Main Hypotheses

H1: There is a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and total job satisfaction.

H2: There is a negative relationship between dominant organisational culture and turnover intention.

H3: There is a negative relationship between overall job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

6.12.2. Secondary Hypotheses

The literature that was gathered indicated that organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention can be categorised into different dimensions. Organisational culture consists of four dimensions, job satisfaction is subdivided into intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction elements and lastly, turnover intention refers to people who already left organisation.

For the purpose of this study the dominant dimension organisational culture, both the intrinsic, extrinsic and total level of job satisfaction were identified. The employee turnover is considered. The total scores for each of the organisational culture dimensions and the scores for the domains of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction were also obtained. Therefore, the following sub-hypotheses were developed:

H4: There is a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and extrinsic job satisfaction.

H5: There is a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and intrinsic job satisfaction.

H6: There is a negative relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

H7: There is a negative relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

6.13. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provide an explanation of the research approaches, study area, research design, unit of analysis, and target population and ethical considerations which were observed during the period of this study. The population for this study comprised of academic employees from the University of Limpopo. In addition, the data collection methods, measuring instruments and research procedure were reported on and how the data was collected and analysed by making use of descriptive statistics. The next chapter focuses on results of the study.

CHAPTER 7

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

7.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and discusses the research results in terms of the responses of participants. The reliability of the measuring instruments was established using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients. The data pertaining the variables included in the study was collected by means of the three measuring instruments and are presented by means of calculation of descriptive measures, mean and standard deviation, paired sample tests, Friedman test and correlations analyses. The researcher also made use of tables and figures in the presentation of data. The distributions of items are discussed using both frequencies and percentages. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analyses were used to test the relationship between the three variables and the two components for job satisfaction.

The participants comprised of females and males with different age groups, race, ethnicity, educational level, experience and position. In attempt to increase the response rate the researcher reminded the respondents to complete the survey and response rate of (93%) was obtained with 198 participants taking part. The next section consists of the main results, which will be reported by means of tables and figures.

7.2. RESULTS

7.2.1: Distribution of demographic statistics

The descriptive statistics outlines an overview of the demographic profile of the study's sample. The demographic information is shown in different tables. The research uncovered the demographic results of the following variables, gender, age, educational level, position and tenure and the researcher made use of figures to illustrate the demographic outcomes.

Table 9

Demographic statistics: Gender, age, educational level, position and tenure.

CATEGORY	FREQUENCY (F)	PERCENT (%)
GENDER		
Male	93	47.0
Female	105	53.0
Total	198	100
AGE		
20-30 years old	45	22.7
31-40 years old	19	9.6
41-50 years old	78	39.4
51 and older	56	28.3
Total	198	100
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL		
Undergraduate education	24	12.1
Post graduate qualification	174	87.9
Total	198	100
POSITION		
Tutor/Junior lecturer	48	24.2
Lecturer	85	42.9
Senior Lecturer/Associate professor /professor	65	32.8
Total	198	100
TENURE		
Below 1 year	17	8.6
1-5 years	63	31.8
5-10 years	88	44.4
More than 10 years	30	15.2
Total	198	100

The interpretation of the results depicted in table 9 are discussed in the following section:

Table 9 above depicts that among the research participants 93 (47%) were males, while females were 105 (53%). The results also indicated a gender imbalance in the sense that most of the respondents were females. In addition, most of the participants were aged between 41-50 years 78 (39.4%), followed by 51 and older years 56 (28.3%), followed by the group between 20-30 years 45 (22.7%), and the least number of the participants were those aged between 31 and 40 years 19 (9.6%).

In addition, Table 9 above also reveal that most of the participants have postgraduate qualifications (honours, masters and doctoral) as their highest qualification obtained 174 (87.9%), this is followed by those who have undergraduate degrees 24 (12.1%). These results indicate that few participants had undergraduate qualifications in the selected institution. Moreover, employees with postgraduate qualifications had a significant dominance in the study.

In terms of position the results show that most of the participants were lecturers who constituted 85 (42.9%) of the study. This was followed by senior lecturers, associate professors and professors who constituted 65 (32.8) and the least participants in terms of position consisted of tutors and junior lecturers at 48 (24.2%). In relation to tenure of the participants, the results show that only 17 (8.6%) of the participants had worked at the university for less than a year, followed by 63 (31.8%) who worked at the institution for 1-5 years. This is followed by 88 (44.4%) of participants who had worked at the university for a period between 5 to10 years and lastly the results also reveal that 30 (15.2%) had worked for a period of more than 10 years with the institution.

7.2.2. Reliability of the variables

The Table 10 explains the reliability coefficients of variables are depicted. The reliability of the organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention subscales was determined using Cronbach's alpha coefficient and is presented in Table 10 below.

Table 10

Reliability of the variables

SCALE	NUMBER OF ITEMS	CRONBACH ALPHA	LEVEL OF RELIABILITY
Organisational culture	28	.681	Good
Job satisfaction	20	.738	Good
Turnover Intention	6	.729	Good

The reliability of the constructs (organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention) were assessed by using Cronbach's Alpha coefficients. According to Pallant (2010) the Cronbach Alpha is used as a measure of internal consistency. In addition, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient refers to the degree to which the measuring instrument items are consistent in the construct it is attempting to measure. The correlation coefficient ranges from plus or minus one. A high Alpha coefficient indicates that the reliability is also high. The internal consistency is used to describe the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same concept.

Sekaran (2006) added that reliabilities with less than 0.60 are seen as indicating poor consistency while those in the range of 0.70 – 0.80 are deemed acceptable and those above 0.80 are considered as very excellent. The Table 10 depicted above indicate that the Cronbach Alpha values for both independent (organisational culture, job satisfaction) and the dependent variable (turnover intention) are acceptable.

As depicted in Table 10, taking into account the organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention subscales, it can be seen that all the instruments had an acceptable level of reliability. It can be seen that the alpha coefficients of the three subscales ranged from 0.68 to 0.73, indicating internal consistencies within the acceptable range.

The Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for the three scales were above 0.60; namely, organisational culture (0.681), job satisfaction (0.738) and turnover intention at (0.729). The acceptable cut off point for reliability is 0.70, job satisfaction scored the highest followed by turnover intention and the variable that scored least is organisational culture.

7.2.3. Distribution of variables: Power culture, role culture, achievement culture, support culture, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, total job satisfaction and turnover intention.

It is evident that from Table 10 that the means and standard deviations are relatively equally distributed for the power culture, role culture, achievement culture, support culture, intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, overall job satisfaction and turnover intention. Total job satisfaction obtained a high mean scores which also indicate that the respondents are most probably satisfied with the existing organisational culture dimension (achievement culture).

Table 11

Means and standard deviations

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Power culture	198	19.83	2.891
Role culture	198	19.59	2.946
Achievement culture	198	20.86	3.822
Support culture	198	18.82	3.047
Intrinsic job satisfaction	198	32.72	6.811
Extrinsic job satisfaction	198	22.34	3.642
Total job satisfaction	198	54.81	9.044
Turnover intention	198	19.43	4.723

The results depicted in Table 11 indicate that the items were favourably answered i.e. a positive inclination towards job satisfaction. However, this is further emphasized and highlighted by the fact that the majority of the items obtained above mean values. Job satisfaction is measured on a five-point scale, ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5). Since the Likert scale is divided into five categories, the middle category ("3") indicates a neutral response to the items. A higher score is indicative of higher levels of satisfaction experienced by the individual. The above table indicates that the majority of the items in this case scored higher than "3" suggesting an overall positive inclination to job satisfaction.

Therefore, it can be seen from Table 11 that the average score for intrinsic job satisfaction is 32.72 (6.811) and the score obtained for extrinsic is 22.34 (3.642). Therefore, since intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction scored above the mean score it can also be seen that job satisfaction had the most positive response in the sample. In addition, it is also evident total job satisfaction scored above the average category of "3". Turnover intention scored positively with a score of (19.43) 4.73. Subsequently on the overall level, all the dimensions shared a positive outcome.

It is evident from the Table 11 that the mean score of the respondents on power culture was 19.83 (2.891) and this dimension was found to be the least dominant in the existing culture. The mean score for the role culture was 19.59 (2.946) and this was found to be the second lowest culture scale. Furthermore, the score of the respondents on achievement culture was 20.86 (3.822). The scores for this dimension reveal that most respondents perceived that the existing achievement culture was most dominant. Lastly, the support culture scored 18.82 (3.047) and this culture scale was ranked as the second highest culture.

From the above frequency table, it can be seen that achievement culture dimension had the most positive response from the sample, with one full category above the mean value. These mean scores indicate that for each response per respondent the dominant culture was identified as the culture with the highest score. Of the three other dimensions i.e. power, role and support culture dimension scored mean scores above (2.5) which was the obtained mean score for this study. The obtained mean scores indicate that there are positive sentiments inherent in overall response of participants.

7.2.3. Paired sample test between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction

In this subsection of analysis, t-tests are reported. The t-test is used to find out the significance of difference between means of two independent samples. The two independent samples considered in this study are intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Note that only simplified names are provided, (DF= degree of freedom and SD= standard deviation).

Table 12

T-test between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction

Paired Samples Statistics					
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	intrinsic	32.72	198	6.811	.484
	extrinsic	22.34	198	3.642	.259

The results in Table 12 indicate that intrinsic job satisfaction received high scores with mean= 32.72 and standard deviation= 6.811, and for extrinsic job satisfaction the resulted showed results with a mean= 22.34 and standard deviation= 3.642. These results indicate that most participants in the study are more satisfied with the intrinsic dimension than the extrinsic dimension of job satisfaction.

Table 13

T-test between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction

Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	intrinsic	-10.379	6.149	.437	9.517	11.241	23.751	197	.001
	extrinsic								

In a repeated-measures t-test the value of df will be one less than the number of participants in the study (in this case there are 198 participants, so $df = 197$). A repeated measures t-test was performed between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction to determine whether or not there is a significant difference between the two variables. There is strong evidence that there is a significant difference between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, $t(197) = 23.751, p < 0.001$.

7.2.4. Distribution of organisational culture dimensions

The Friedman test is used when there are three or more correlated groups or repeated measures situations (Polit & Beck, 2004). In this case the ranking test was used to determine the overall mean score for each organisational culture dimension in order to determine the scores for each culture type.

Table 14

Friedman rank test of organisational culture dimensions

Friedman Rank Test	
	Mean Rank
Power culture	2.50
Role culture	2.39
Achievement culture	2.95
Support culture	2.16

The Table 14 above shows the results for the four organisational culture dimensions that were analysed with the Friedman rank test. It is evident from Table 14 that there is an overall difference between the organisational culture types, thus there was a need for pair-wise comparisons to identify which culture dimension is dominant and different from the other culture types. Results indicate the score differences among the distributions of the four types of organisational culture. Power culture scored a mean= 2.50, role culture with mean= 2.59, and achievement culture scored a high mean= 2.95 and the lowest score is for the support culture dimension with a mean=2.16.

Considering the results depicted above it can be concluded that the dominant organisational culture is the achievement dimension as it scored significantly higher compared to the other culture types.

Table 15

Chi-square for organisational culture dimensions

Test Statistics	
N	198
Chi-Square	42.986
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	.001

Table 15 above indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the four organisational culture dimensions since the chi-square value is 42.986, $df=1$, $p<0.001$. This result implies that the academic employees hold different views about the type of culture that exists within the institution.

Figure 5. Organisational culture dimensions

The figure below reveals the result of the total sum of scores for each different cultural dimension. It is evident from the graph that the achievement culture dimension obtained the highest score which is 4131. It is followed by the power culture which scored 3926, whilst the role culture sitting at a total score of 3879. Lastly, the lowest score of 3726 was obtained by the support culture dimension which is the least dominant culture at the institution.

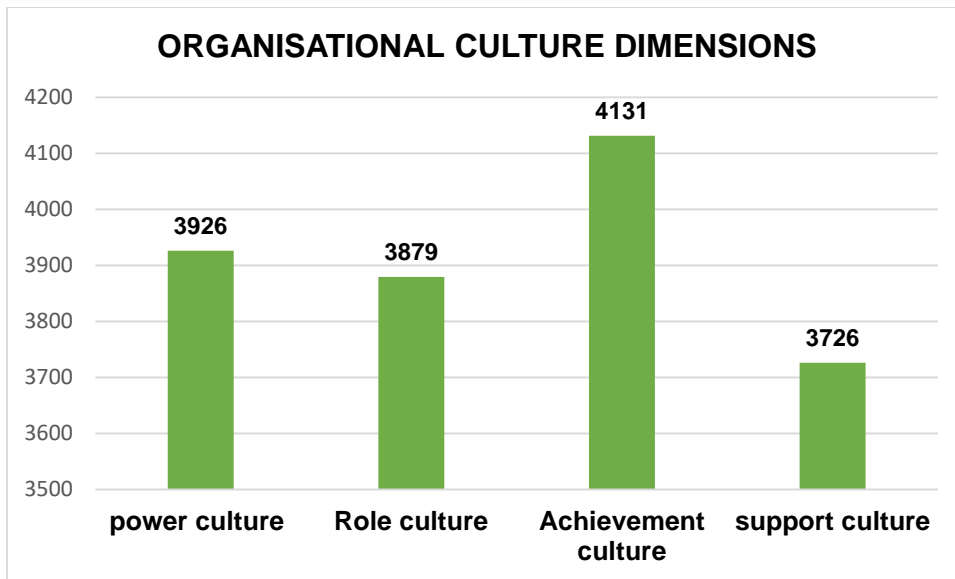


Figure 5. Overall scores for organisational culture dimensions

The figure shows that most of the respondents view the existing culture as achievement orientated. Therefore, the role and support culture are the least existing cultural dimensions and the achievement culture was selected as the dimension to correlate with the other variables in this study.

7.2.5. Correlations for the variables of the study

The Pearson product moment correlation (one-tailed) test was used to analyse the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The tables below present the correlation analysis results of the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

The primary research question in the study is: Is there a relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention? The following operational hypotheses were formulated in attempt to answer the question above.

Table 16*Correlation between achievement culture and total job satisfaction*

Correlation between achievement culture and total job satisfaction			
		Achievement	Job satisfaction
Achievement	Pearson Correlation	1	.642**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.004
	N	198	198
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).			

H1: There is a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and total job satisfaction.

The relationship between achievement culture and total job satisfaction is illustrated in Table 16 based on the $r = 0.642^{**}$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.004$, a statistically positive relationship does exist between achievement culture and total job satisfaction, it is given that the $p\text{-value} > 0.05$. The hypothesis is accepted. This finding are in line with a study by Martins and Martins (2003) that has been conducted globally which indicated that achievement and role cultures are positively related with job satisfaction. Therefore, when employees perceive the dominating culture to be positive they become more satisfied.

Table 17*Correlation between achievement culture and turnover intention*

Correlation between achievement culture and turnover intention			
		Achievement culture	Turnover intention
Achievement culture	Pearson Correlation	1	-.104
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.144

	N	198	198
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H2: There is a negative relationship between dominant organisational culture and turnover intention.

Concerning the correlation between achievement culture and turnover intention, the results in Table 17 above indicate an $r = -0.104$ with a $p\text{-value} = 0.144$ ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$). The results indicate that there is a non-significant negative relationship between the two variables. The hypothesis is rejected.

However, the finding was contrary to Aydm (2012) revealed that turnover intention has a negative effect on the culture of any organisation. He further suggested that employee motivation and intention to stay would be high when there is organisational culture correlation between the employees actual and desired organisational culture. This is understandable because positive organisational culture increases staff alignment and retention.

Table 18

Correlation between total job satisfaction and turnover intention

Correlation between total job satisfaction and turnover intention			
		Total Job Satisfaction	Job Turnover intention
Total Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	-.689*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002
	N	198	198
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).			

H3: There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

The relationship between total job satisfaction and turnover intention is illustrated in Table 18 based on the $r = -0.689$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.002$.

This indicates that a negative relationship does exist between total job satisfaction and turnover intention and its statistically significant, given that the p-value > 0.05. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted, because the results indicate that the relationship is statistically significant. This results support the theoretical proposition that an employee who is satisfied with his/her job, is unlikely to leave or to have an intention of leaving the organisation.

Table 19

Correlation between achievement culture and intrinsic job satisfaction

Correlation between achievement culture and intrinsic job satisfaction			
		Achievement	Intrinsic
Achievement	Pearson Correlation	1	.256**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.002
	N	198	198
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).			

H4: There is a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and intrinsic job satisfaction.

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficient between achievement culture and intrinsic job satisfaction was $r = .256^{**}$ with a p-value = 0.002 (p-value > 0.05) indicating that the correlation is significantly positive. The hypothesis was accepted.

This is supported by Sabri, Ilyas and Amjad's (2011) who investigated the organisational culture in Pakistan institution and the findings showed that the influence of achievement and support cultures on job satisfaction have been positive and significant among academic members in both the public and private higher education institutions. A positive organisational culture enhances the employee's satisfaction level and also promotes a good citizenship behaviour.

Table 20

Correlation between achievement culture and extrinsic job satisfaction

Correlation between achievement culture and extrinsic job satisfaction			
		Achievement	extrinsic
Achievement	Pearson Correlation	1	.175**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.035
	N	198	198
** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).			

H5: There is a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and extrinsic job satisfaction.

The relationship between achievement culture and extrinsic job satisfaction is illustrated in Table 20 based on the $r = .175^{**}$ with a p-value = 0.035, it indicates that a positive relationship does exist between achievement and extrinsic job satisfaction however it is not statistically significant, given that the p-value > 0.05. This hypothesis was rejected.

However, this finding was contrary to Luddy (2005) who revealed that there are specific culture types that are related to the extrinsic job satisfaction of employees. The achievement culture, was discovered to be most common amongst educational or academic members. In addition, Brenton and Driskill (2010) also identified a significant relationship between organisational culture and intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction elements of employees in specific job levels.

Table 21*Correlation between turnover intention and intrinsic job satisfaction*

Correlation between turnover intention and intrinsic job satisfaction			
		Intrinsic JS	Turnover Intention
Intrinsic JS	Pearson Correlation	1	-.124
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	N	198	198

H6: There is a negative relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

The results of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficient between achievement culture and intrinsic job satisfaction was $r = -.124$ with a $p\text{-value} = 0.000$ ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$). The evidence indicates that there is a statistically significant negative relationship between the two variables. The hypothesis was accepted. A supporting study by Schwepker (2001) revealed that positive and statistically significant relationships had been established in many research exploring turnover intentions and actual job satisfaction.

Mottaz (2006) stated that high level employees within an organisation are more interested in intrinsic rewards because the employee's professional expertise increase. The relationship between job satisfaction and actual employee turnover is moderated intentions of employees.

Table 22

Correlation between turnover intention and extrinsic job satisfaction

Correlation between turnover intention and extrinsic job satisfaction			
		Extrinsic JS	turnover intention
Extrinsic JS	Pearson Correlation	1	-.077
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	N	198	198
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).			

H7: There is a negative relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

The relationship between turnover intention and extrinsic job satisfaction is illustrated in Table 22 based on the $r = -.077$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.000$, the results indicate that a significantly negative relationship exists between turnover intention and extrinsic job satisfaction, given that the $p\text{-value} > 0.05$. Therefore, based on the results above the hypothesis was accepted.

This is also in line with a study conducted by Mottaz (2006) about intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on turnover intention and they discovered that low level employees in the organisation perceived extrinsic factors such as pay aligned as motivators to stay with the organisation. Every employee paves their way up in order to get high salaries and this increases competition among employees.

7.3. CHAPTER SUMMARY

The results obtained from the research identified the characteristics of the sample, the respondent's view of the dominant existing culture's relationship with job satisfaction and turnover intention, as well as the correlation of job satisfaction and turnover intention. In addition, validity, reliability, paired sample, chi-square and Friedman tests were conducted. A summary discussion of the findings will follow in Chapter Eight.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS, CONCLUSION

8.1. INTRODUCTION

The main question asked was whether there is a relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention of academic employees in the University of Limpopo?

To respond to the research question different hypotheses were tested.

The main purpose of the final chapter is to draw final conclusions regarding this study. Therefore, this chapter outlines the findings pertaining the study and their relationship to the relevant theories. Based on the results obtained from the study, a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications is also presented. Furthermore, this chapter outlines key research findings as well as the future research implications and are compared to previous research findings similar to the current study. The chapter also includes a discussion of the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

8.2. CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed at finding out the nature of the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention among academic employees at a higher education institution. The data was collected using a standardised questionnaire from the University of Limpopo employees, and only academic staff were considered for the study. The present findings of the study support previous research findings on the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. The findings are consistent with Bashayreh's (2009), Trivelas and Dargenidou's (2009) whose studies indicate that a relationship between the variables of interest does exist. Trivelas and Dargenidou's (2009) reported that specific culture archetypes are related to the job satisfaction of employees, with different dimensions of higher education service quality.

This research initiative has revealed that the existing culture of the University of Limpopo is that of achievement culture. One of this study objective was to identify the dominant culture in the selected institution of higher education therefore, as indicated by the research results it reveals that it is achievement culture. In the context of universities organisational culture is by its nature a somewhat different entity compared to the organisational culture of manufacturing enterprises. However, the results also revealed that some respondents believe that support culture is practiced in the institution as it scored secondly. This research finding reveal that the employees of this institution value trust and open communication.

The findings of this study however are inconsistent with those of Manetje and Martins (2009) which indicated that the dominant culture in their respective sampled organisations is the power culture. This may be due to the nature of the consulting industry as opposed to a higher education institution, which places significant emphasis on individual performance as well as the achievement of specified project goals. In addition, Van Stuyvesant Meijen (2007) identified achievement culture as the dominant preferred culture within the respective organisation. Their study concurs with the findings of this study which also indicate that the dominant preferred culture is the achievement culture.

Previous research clearly shows that there is a strong link between employee satisfaction levels and turnover intention rate. The study findings support the hypothesis that (*H1*) there is a negative relationship between total job satisfaction and turnover intention, these results are consistent with a number of studies, such as Luddy (2005) and Lunds (2003). The results also show that, each additional unit increase in job satisfaction is associated with a decrease in turnover intention. Sheraz, Wajid, Sajid, Quershi and Rizwan (2014) conducted a survey on more than 200 professional workers in Pakistan. Their study concluded that there is a negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intent, the findings are consistent with the results of a study of higher education in Thailand (Salam, 2017). Thus, it is the nature of the environment that counts and an institution that encourages good working conditions and practices that will likely bring an improvement in employee behaviour.

In addition, another study was conducted by Olowookere, Adekeye, Adejumo, Agoha, and Sholarin (2016) who investigated the correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic elements of job satisfaction and turnover intentions in Lagos Kingdom that involved employees within manufacturing organisations. The study indicated that the that intrinsic elements are inversely related to turnover intention, whilst extrinsic factors are positively related to turnover intention. these scholars also suggested that organisations that increase intrinsic factors in the workplace will minimise turnover.

In relation to the present study's hypothesis (*H3*) it appears that the direction of the relationship between both job satisfaction and turnover intention as dependent variables are significantly negative. The present findings on the correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention are in line with the findings of other researchers such as Arendolf (2013) as discussed in the literature review. The overall findings of the study reflected that that the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention was found to be statistically significant.

However, hypothesis (*H2*) that predicted a negative relationship between dominant organisational culture and turnover intention was rejected. Hypothesis (*H5*) of this study stated there is a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and intrinsic job satisfaction. The results showed a significant correlation. The existing dominant culture can be attributed to the institutions strong vision and values and the developed strategies that has helped to carry or articulate the vision and mission of the company. The developed policies and programmes also aims at instilling values that are likened to the existing achievement culture. It is encouraging to state that the vision and values initiative have managed to achieve its purpose for this institution.

The study of the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention of academic employees from the studied South African university deduced, from the data analysis that, academic employees had positive views on the achievement culture existing at the target institution. Hypothesis (*H4*) of this study predicted a positive relationship between dominant organisational culture and extrinsic job satisfaction. The results showed that academics were gently satisfied with their jobs and there was a moderate relationship between dominant organisational culture and total job satisfaction.

The findings are supported by Lund (2003) who conducted a study on the impact of organisational culture on job satisfaction amongst marketing specialists in America. The results indicated that job satisfaction is associated with support and achievement cultures and also negatively correlated with power and role cultures. There is a need for the institution to enforce the creation of an organisational culture that leads to employee satisfaction, this practice is also important towards the establishment of academic employee adjustment to a newly establishment of people oriented institution in a developing context.

According to Parker and Wright (2002) enabling an environment which enhances employee's job satisfaction and performance in their work by their institution is imperative. Egan et al., (2004) explained that employees assess job satisfaction based on intrinsic and extrinsic elements of the job, such as feelings of accomplishment with the job, and extrinsic job elements, such as compensation. The level of employee job satisfaction describes the cumulative level of fulfilled job expectations. Therefore, employees expect their job to provide a mix of these elements, for which each employee has unique preferential values. While the range and significance of these preferences differ across employees, when the accumulation of unsatisfied expectations reaches a critical threshold there is less job satisfaction and greater possibility of dissatisfied employees, which results in greater employee turnover.

Moreover, stronger job satisfaction leads to increased employee retention, decreased turnover, and stronger employee morale. The same holds true for the correlations between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and turnover intention (i.e. hypotheses *H6 & H7*). According to Sempane, Rieger and Roodt (2002) and Beam (2006) job characteristics are associated with intrinsic satisfaction such as the content, autonomy, responsibility, achievement and variety, whereas the context of job performance is associated with the extrinsic elements, such as the salary, company policies, job security and work relationships. Furthermore, Silverthorne (2004) deduced that turnover results to huge costs in an organisation, including direct costs of replacing an employee and indirect cost related to loss of experience and lowered productivity. These costs have important implications for an organisation. Therefore, when strategies are developed to reduce turnover that leads to significant benefits to an organisation.

Studies conducted by Brough and Frame (2004); Saari and Judge's (2004) reported that similar job satisfaction scores among employees do not imply that they are all satisfied with all job factors. Therefore, it can be assumed that academic professionals at higher education institutions may rate similar score of satisfactions levels yet there might be differences regarding specific elements of job satisfaction that contributed to each individual's score. Thus, this study assumes that an academic employee may be generally satisfied with their job, but not be satisfied with certain intrinsic or extrinsic elements of the job. To reduce turnover intention, employees need to feel satisfied with their jobs and the culture of organisation.

Subsequently, the current culture type which is achievement culture characteristics believes that the satisfaction levels found amongst the academic employees of the University are only working at this institution out of obligation and need. It seems that there are serious undercurrents as to why this may be happening. This may be due to intrinsic and extrinsic factors such as compensation, working conditions, management, procedures and policies or a myriad of other reasons could be attributed to the low satisfaction that is prevalent in the selected institution.

The overall findings of this study confirmed the research hypotheses and these findings have both theoretical and practical implications, several methodological limitations should be acknowledged as a result. The fact that achievement culture is dominant in the institution, indicates that the employees would, according to Harrison and Stokes (1993) like to have a culture where people help one another beyond the formal demands of their jobs, they communicate a lot and like spending time together.

The dominant preferred culture of achievement also indicates that the respondents prefer the use of external rewards and punishments as motivation (Harrison, 1993). Lok and Crawford (1999) also postulated that an organisational culture which sustains the motivation of employees has become crucial in organisations as it reflects the sustainability of the organisation. Furthermore, Ghina (2012) purports that the existing culture of the organisation impacts the employee's attitude and therefore there is a need of engaging the employee's satisfaction through ensuring that the conditions prescribed by the organisation ensures a conducive and productive working environment.

As the institution has an achievement culture the advantage is that the employees share a sense of urgency when attaining worthwhile goals and values as they feel that they are working towards something bigger than themselves as well as high morale, teamwork and a sense of camaraderie exists among colleagues.

Choi, Martin and Park (2008) postulated that a successful and progressive institution should be people-oriented and this involves the institution's support, proper communication procedures and respect of employees. They further stated that the management of an institution should promote an ongoing people-oriented organisational culture if the impact is to be felt by its workforce.

This is supported in a case analysis of the South Korean context, it is believed that a positive people-oriented culture that values respect for every individual employee leads to employee retention and reciprocal responses of job satisfaction (Kulkarni, 2010). Employees also manage themselves and voluntarily do whatever needs to be done in order to meet the organisation's goals. However, the disadvantage of the achievement culture is that employees may believe so much in what they do, that the end comes to justify the means. Employees may become intolerant of their colleagues' personal needs, especially if they sacrifice work for the sake of their family, social life or health and this may result in employees beginning to burn out due to the pressure they place on themselves (Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

Furthermore, in terms of job satisfaction the sample showed moderate levels of job satisfaction indicating that the academic employees are moderately satisfied with their jobs. Both intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction was moderate amongst the sample, indicating that only certain needs of academic employees are being fulfilled. Intrinsic satisfaction is derived from performing work and consequently experiencing the feelings of accomplishment, self-actualisation and identity with the work (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Extrinsic satisfaction results from satisfaction with the work environment and is derived from the rewards the individual receives from peers, managers or the organisation, which can take the form of advancement compensation or recognition (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

8.3. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE PRACTICE

The study recommends that management should ensure that every employee understands and identifies with the culture of the institution, as organisational culture influences the employee behaviour. It recommends further, that job satisfaction levels be monitored periodically towards the achievement of the academic's job satisfaction, drawing on the fact that the institution must celebrate and communicate all positives and dissatisfactions to the management. Committees should be formed to develop action plans that will enhance satisfaction and resolve identified problems.

There should be training of all persons in leadership positions to enable them to function effectively and to learn good people management skills in order improve employee satisfaction levels. The management must also fast track training programmes for existing employees so that current employees can be promoted easily. Open communication and dialogue must be created to build trust between employees and management. The current vision and value plan is working effectively and this strategy should be carried out indefinitely to maintain the current culture of this organisation. The university management must engage each employee individually and map a clear and concise succession path to ensure that each individual and line managers is responsible for this. Management should also develop effective mentoring programmes for skilled employees to pass on knowledge and skills to new and existing employees.

In addition, based on these findings and other literature studies, it is advisable for an institution to diagnose its own culture and verify how it affects the behaviours of employees and their job satisfaction levels. This will give the institution an overview of their employees behaviour under certain circumstances, hence, adjust their circumstances based solely on their own organisational merits.

There is no one size fit all on the influence of culture on turnover intention rates, it is clearly based on the type of employees, the nature of the organisation and the environment in which the institution operates.

Higher education institutions should also take into consideration the factors which impact on the employee's turnover rate in the institution and improve their policies so as to curb employees' desires to leave the organisation. The university management should also consider improving on their retention strategies through seeking other factors which may play a role in enhancing the satisfaction of employees to the university. In addition, the government should increase the budget allocation in higher education institutions and promote fairness among universities such that the gap between top ranked universities and low ranked universities is closed or reduced to ensure that employees remain at a particular institution for longer periods.

In addition, the higher education institutions should also consider designing suitable incentives and bonus structures for academic staff members as they engage in community engagement projects. It would also be of importance for the university to consider emotional intelligence as an important retention factor and address it with adequate leadership programs. These programs should educate university management or those leaders in top management on suitable recognition practices with measurable and clear performance outputs so as to improve the overall institutional retention rate and also enhance employee's satisfaction to the organisation.

8.4. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study can be carried out in more than one university for comparison purposes so as to find out if the results differ on universities or are similar regardless of where the universities are based. In addition, future researchers should also consider conducting qualitative interviews so as to draw more subjective responses from respondents. The university top management should implement a retention strategy that will assist in ensuring that the employees do not look for work elsewhere. Furthermore, for future research, other potential impacting variables such as location should be included so as to determine if the employees are only with the university because it is located near their homes or they are satisfied due to their existing organisational culture.

Employee developmental policies should be formulated by future researchers in order to assist human resource practitioners and leaders of the University to implement effective policies.

Future researchers can also investigate motivational strategies for development of its employees more. As high turnover levels are a direct result of low employee morale. Innovative strategies to enhance employee morale would help increase satisfaction levels, morale can be improved organizing effective team building exercises for staff members.

8.5. CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The study contributes to the generation of new knowledge about organisational culture job satisfaction and turnover intention of academic employees at institutions of higher education. This study forms a base for similar studies and additionally recommends strategies that can be adopted in other institutions in South Africa towards the development of organisational cultures that promote job satisfaction and reduce staff turnover. Lastly, a validation study looking at the three concepts from a phenomenological point of view could be adopted in future, just as part of future studies on turnover intention, job satisfaction and organisational culture can use other variables to get a clear picture.

8.6. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As indicated earlier, the researcher distributed 220 questionnaires and only 198 were returned. A convenience sampling method was used to include participants in the study, per various schools and departments. The study was only conducted at one higher education institution in South Africa and therefore study findings cannot be generalised to all Universities or to other sectors, banking sector, nursing sector or the military sector. This means that the results deduced from the University of Limpopo in South Africa may not be applicable to other universities in Africa or the world at large. The researcher also noted that some participants were not so willing to participate in the study. In most cases, some of the academic employees complained that they were too busy to fill in a questionnaire.

As a result, this could have been a major limitation in the sense that it could be possible that those academic employees who refused to take part in the study had significant information that could have been imperative for the study. The collection of data at a single point in time was also exhausting. In addition, unreturned and spoilt questionnaires also contributed to the limitations.

8.7. IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

More research is needed in South Africa, especially on the organisational culture, satisfaction and turnover intention. Most previous research on these variables has been conducted in the private sector of some Western countries. A bigger and more representative regional and national sample should be used this mean that more than one institution should be investigated in South Africa. This study is only based on a convenient sample of 198 participants in one higher education institution, in addition the concern of this research was that the sample was too small and not representative of the entire target population. The important step that needs to be taken is to conduct the study again, with better follow-up measures to achieve a higher response rate. Despite the generalisation challenge, the following factors need to be considered:

The institution should consider the suggestions as outlined under recommendations to improve their job satisfaction, maintain a conducive culture and minimise employee's intention to quit. The research findings also point out a need for the institution to conduct a more detailed climate survey. Most importantly, a climate survey will have to be conducted to determine aspects such as employee's feelings and opinions about the organisational structure, human resources systems, policies and processes, and any other issues that may have been left as potential challenges. Thus a more comprehensive study should be conducted in future.

8.8. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter discussed the conclusions, implications for future research, recommendations for practice and future research. The study was aimed at investigating the possible relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention at an institution of higher education.

The study of the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention adds valuable information to the Human Resource Management field and the professionals in the understanding, development and implementation of interventions to increase employee satisfaction and reduce intention to leave by improving actual turnover, and consequently sustain a culture that promotes a conducive environment.

The research findings have indicated that the respondents believe that achievement culture is dominant in the institution but the associations of the three variables of interest were proven to be statistically non-significant. However, the overall results of the study indicated that there is reason for the university to start worrying as the employee's level of job satisfaction, organisational culture and intentions to stay are questionable.

Therefore, there was a realisation that the institution should implement better policies in order to improve their job satisfaction, promote a positive culture and encourage staff retentions in the organisation. The practical implications of these findings can assist management in enhancing an array of work behaviours such as job satisfaction and also reduce turnover rate. The institution perhaps needs to put into place support systems that are effective to continuously ensure that performance is kept to the optimum. Lastly, the objectives of this study were fully met.

8.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the conclusions drawn from the study by focusing on both the literature review and empirical findings of the study. Recommendations were provided with reference to practical suggestions for job satisfaction and turnover, and this includes recommendations for future research. Finally, an integration of the study was presented by outlining the support of the findings for the relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Herewith the following empirical research objectives were achieved:

Research objective 1: To identify the dominant culture that exist at the targeted university.

Research objective 2: To measure the relationship between the dominant culture and job satisfaction levels of academic employees.

Research objective 3: To measure the relationship between the dominant culture and turnover intention of academics.

Research objective 4: To assess the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Research objective 5: Make appropriate recommendations so that employees can be retained with effective motivational strategies.

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APPENDICES

A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

ETHICAL CONSIDERATION AND INDEMNITY STATEMENT TO RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT: HUMAN RESOURCE PROGRAMME AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT TO APPEAR IN RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRES AND THE RESEARCH COVER LETTER/PAGE:

IMPORTANT NOTIFICATION TO RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS/RESPONDENTS

1. Completion of the following questionnaire(s) and/or participation in the following interview(s) is voluntary and anonymous/confidential.
2. Only grouped responses are used for scientific analysis and dissemination.
3. The individual identities of respondents (in the unlikely event that it may become known) are protected at all times.
4. By completing this questionnaire/participating in this interview the respondent indemnifies the University of Limpopo and all persons involved with the above project, for whatever reasons, including negligence on the part of the researcher(s) and research supervisor(s) or project leader(s).

Prof C Pietersen (2018)

B: QUESTIONNAIRES

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

Department of Business Management
School of Economics and Management



Private Bag X1106
Sovenga
0727

Tel.: 072 288 1925
Fax.: +27 15 268 3685

E-mail: masekovalencia1@gmail.com

South Africa

Invitation to participate in the research project titled: “The relationship between organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover intention at an institution of higher education”.

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Nomvula Valencia Maseko and I am a registered MCOM student in Human Resource Management at the University of Limpopo. My supervisor is Prof C Pietersen. I am currently in the process of collecting data for my dissertation. The purpose of my research project is to add to understanding of how the relationship between the variables of interest is perceived and experienced by employees working in the higher education sector. As a university employee you are in an ideal position to provide valuable first-hand information from your own perspective.

Please note that your participation in the survey is completely voluntary and that all of your responses will be kept confidential. The survey will take you approximately 10 minutes to complete. No personal identifiers will be revealed during data analysis and writing up of the findings. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours sincerely,
NV Maseko

.....

Supervisor
Prof C Pietersen

.....

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SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS

Please place a cross (X) on the box corresponding to the most appropriate response in respect of the following items:

1. **Gender:**

Male	
Female	

2. **Age**

20-30 years old	
31-40 years old	
41-50 years old	
51 and older	

3. **Educational level**

Undergraduate qualification	
Post graduate qualification	

4. **Job position**

Tutor/ Junior Lecturer	
Lecturer	
Senior Lecturer/ Professor/Associate Professor	

5. **Length of service (at this Organisation)**

Below 1 year	
1-5 years	
5-10 years	
More than 10 years	

SECTION B: TURNOVER INTENTION

The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organisation. Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question:

No.	Statement	Option	Rating	Option
1.	How often have you considered leaving your job?	Never	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Always
2.	To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs?	To no extent	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	To a very large extent
3.	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	Never	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Always
4.	How often do dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	Never	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Always
5.	How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	Highly unlikely	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Highly likely
6.	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	Never	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Always

SECTION C: JOB SATISFACTION

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you a chance to tell how **you feel about your present job**, what things you are **satisfied** with and what things you are **not satisfied** with. On the basis of your answers and those of people like you, the hope is to gain a better understanding of the things that people **like and dislike about their jobs**.

Read each statement below carefully. Decide **how satisfied you feel about the aspect of your job** described by the statement. Tick (✓) for the most appropriate response (alternatives range from 1 to 6) that best reflects your own view. Please answer all statements. **Be frank and honest**. Give a true picture of your feelings about your **present job**.

Answering key: 1-Extremely satisfied (ES), 2-Very satisfied (VS), 3-Partly satisfied (PS),
4-Partly dissatisfied (PD), 5-Extremely dissatisfied (ED). 6-Very dissatisfied (VD)

On my present job, this is how I feel about.....

No.	Statement	ES	VS	PS	PD	ED	VD
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Being able to keep busy all the time.						
2.	The chance to work alone on the job.						
3.	The chance to do different things from time to time.						
4.	The chance to be somebody in the community						
5.	The way my boss handles his/her workers.						
6.	The competence of my supervisors in making decisions.						
7.	Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.						
8.	The way my job provides for steady employment.						
9.	The chance to do things for other people.						
10.	The chance to tell people what to do.						
11.	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.						
12.	The way company policies are put into practice.						
13.	My pay and the amount of work I do.						
14.	The chance for advancement on this job.						
15.	The freedom to use my own judgment.						
16.	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.						
17.	The working conditions.						
18.	The way my co-workers get along with each other.						
19.	The praise I get for doing a good job.						
20.	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.						

SECTION D: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

The following questions are used to identify the culture in your organisation. In the spaces provided, rank order the phrases following each sentence beginning. Do this by placing a "4" next to the ending phrase that you think comes closest to describing **the way things are in your organisation**, a "3" next to the one that comes next closest, and so through "2" and "1" the one that least describes the way things are in your organisation. Please answer all statements.

Rate	1. Employees of the organisation are expected to give first priority to:
	a) meeting the needs and demands of their supervisors and other high level people in the organisation.
	b) carrying out the duties of their own jobs, staying within policies and procedures related to their jobs
	c) meeting the challenges of the task, finding a better way to do things.
	d) co-operating with the people with whom they work to solve work and personal problems.
Rate	2. The organisation treats individuals:
	a) as "hands" whose time and energy are at the disposal of persons at higher levels in the hierarchy.
	b) as 'employees' whose time and energy are purchased through a contract, with rights and obligations on both sides.
	c) as "associates" who are mutually committed to the achievement of a common purpose.
	d) as "family" or "friends" who like being together and who care about and support one another.
Rate	3. Decision - making processes are characterized by:
	a) the adherence to formal channels and reliance on policies and procedures for making decisions
	b) decisions being made close to the point of action, by the people on the spot.
	c) directives, orders and instructions that come down from higher levels.
	d) the use of consensus decision - making methods to gain acceptance and support for decisions.
Rate	4. Work motivation is primarily the result of:
	a) hope for rewards, fear of punishment, or personal loyalty to the supervisor.
	b) acceptance of the norm of providing a 'fair' days work for a 'fair' days pay.
	c) strong desires to achieve, to create, and to innovate and peer pressure to contribute to the success of the organisation.
	d) people wanting to help others and maintain satisfying working relationships.
Rate	5. Employees are expected to be:
	a) Hard working, compliant, obedient, and loyal to the interests of those to whom they report.
	b) Responsible and reliable, carrying out the duties and responsibilities of the jobs and avoiding actions that could surprise or embarrass their supervisors.
	c) self-motivated and competent, willing to take the initiative to get things done; willing to challenge those to whom they report if that is necessary to obtain good results.
	d) good team workers, supportive, and co-operative, who get along well with others.
Rate	6. Relationships between work groups or departments are generally:
	a) competitive, with both looking out for their own interests and helping each other only when they can see some advantage for themselves by doing so.
	b) characterized by indifference toward each other, helping each other only when it is convenient or when they are directed by higher levels to do so.
	c) co-operative when they need to achieve common goals. People are normally willing to cut red tape and cross organisational boundaries in order to get the job done.
	d) friendly, with a high level of responsiveness to requests for help from other groups.
Rate	7. Assignments of tasks or jobs to individuals are based on:
	a) the personal judgments, values and wishes of those in positions of power.
	b) the need and plans of the organisation and the rules of the system (seniority, qualification, etc.)
	c) matching the requirements of the job with the interests and abilities of the individuals.
	d) the personal preferences of the individuals and their needs for growth and development.

Thank you very much for completing the questionnaire.

C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



University of Limpopo
Department of Research Administration and Development
Private Bag X1106, Sovenga, 0727, South Africa
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**TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS
COMMITTEE CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**

MEETING: 05 July 2018

PROJECT NUMBER: TREC/128/2018: PG

PROJECT:

Title: The Relationship Between Organisational Culture, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention at an Institution of Higher Education.
Researcher: NV Maseko
Supervisor: Prof C Pietersen
Co-Supervisor: N/A
School: Economics and Management
Degree: Master of Commerce (Human Resource Management)


PROF FAB MASHEGO
CHAIRPERSON: TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

The Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC) is registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council, Registration Number: REC-0310111-031

Note:

- i) Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure as approved, the researcher(s) must re-submit the protocol to the committee.
- ii) The budget for the research will be considered separately from the protocol.
PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES.

Finding solutions for Africa

D: LETTER OF REQUEST TO THE UNIVERSITY

P.O Box 558
Polokwane
0700
06 July 2018

To: Executive Management (DVC)

University of Limpopo

Private Bag X1106

SOVENGA 0727

SUBJECT: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

Dear, Prof J Singh

I, **Nomvula Valencia Maseko, student number: 201214987**, and I am currently enrolling with the University of Limpopo for a Master of Commerce in Human Resources Management (MCOM). I chose a topic in the field of Human Resources (HR) intentionally after observing that there are organisational culture and turnover intention issues, that might have a negative impact on the satisfaction levels of employees and consequently this might have an impact on productivity in general.

The topic of my research study is: **The relationship between Organisational Culture, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions at an institution of higher education, Limpopo province**. My supervisor is Professor C Pietersen, a specialist in Human Resource Management. My research proposal and a sample of the questionnaires are appended and the research findings and recommendations will be submitted to the University management as well if deemed necessary.

Supervisor's contacts: Tel:(015) 268 3325

Email: Charlotte.Pietersen@ul.ac.za

Your consideration of my plea will be appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

Ms NV Maseko

Tel: (015) 268 3685, Mobile: 072288 1925

Email: Valencia.maseko@ul.ac.za

E: LANGUAGE EDITOR'S LETTER



THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION AT AN INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

To : TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN
From : RENEILWE MALATJI
Date : 10 May 2019
Subject : Editing Maseko N.V.'s dissertation

I hereby declare the above-mentioned dissertation to be accurately edited.

The editing process involved looking at the work in three distinct ways:

- Editing for structure to help the reader follow the logic of the writer's argument.
- Editing for language and style to ensure good use of grammar as well as consistency in writing style such that the reader will be able to concentrate on the content.
- Proof reading in order to eliminate spelling errors, inconsistent formatting and other irritating distractions such that the document should be able to allow the reader to remain focused on the writing.

I am confident that the edited version of N.V. Maseko's thesis will make it relatively straightforward and proficient enough to evaluate.

Sincerely,

Reneilwe Malatji