CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION
The challenge for most organisations today is how to come up with a working formula for achieving organisational excellence. According to Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw, and Oosthuizen (2004:237) an organisation’s competitive edge no longer lies in its product but in its people. Recruiting the right people, motivating them and, melding them into a team that works well together can be identified as critical to an organisation’s ability to practice good customer relations, react to market changes quickly, innovate, and subsequently achieve a competitive advantage. The concept of job satisfaction has also been deemed vital for organisations which aim to achieve organisational excellence. According to Armstrong (2003:240) job satisfaction refers to the attitudes and feelings people have about their work. Positive and favourable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction whilst negative and unfavourable attitudes indicate job dissatisfaction. Armstrong (2003:240) argues that organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) that helps organisations to be more successful, is most likely to happen when employees are motivated, feel committed to the organisation and when their jobs give them high levels of satisfaction.

Organisational citizenship behaviour is defined as behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of an organisation (www.wikipedia.com). It involves
employees going an extra mile in the conduct of their duties which is imperative to the achievement of organisational goals. If OCB is viewed as one of many factors that lead to the success of any institution, organisations should put in place measures that facilitate the occurrence of such behaviour. One of the measures identified in literature is ensuring that employees are satisfied with their jobs. According to Baron, Bryne, Nayler and Branscombe (2006:544) satisfied employees are the ones who engage themselves in discretionary or pre-social behaviour that is edifying to the effective functioning of the organisation. Job satisfaction therefore plays an integral role in the achievement of OCB. Organisations have to ensure that factors which facilitate employee satisfaction are present if they wish to achieve organisational excellence and competitiveness through organisational citizenship behaviour.

In Zimbabwe, the unfriendly economic situation characterising the country has impacted negatively on the way organisations are being managed. To date the country has the highest inflation figures estimated at above 2000000% (www.newzimbabwe.com). The hyper inflation has negative implications for organisational performance in that the demand for products has been declining significantly as the high inflation is eroding the purchasing power of customers. Also, the inflation rate is having adverse effects on production as many organisations are finding it difficult to purchase the raw materials needed for production due to the high prices charged on them. This situation has actually caused many organisations to reduce capacity whilst others have resorted to downsizing. The lack of availability of foreign currency in the country is also having a negative effect on those organisations which rely on it to import raw materials. The
government through the Reserve bank has been making efforts to make foreign currency available for strategic organisations. However this system has been condemned by many as it is perceived to be beneficial to only a few organisations (The Financial Gazette, 17 April 2008) High interest rates demanded by financial institutions have also impacted negatively on organisational performance. Many organisations are finding it difficult to borrow funds to finance their various business endeavours.

Due to the challenges caused by the prevailing economic situation many organisations are struggling to meet the needs of their employees. One of the problems that have resulted from the inability of organisations to meet their employee needs is job dissatisfaction. According to the Zimbabwean National Employee Satisfaction Survey Report (2008) Zimbabwe has got the least satisfied employees with their remuneration at 34.98% and, communication at 49.95%. As a result, employees are neither committed nor loyal to their employers. This situation has adverse effects on the extent to which employees engage themselves on OCB which according to literature is one of many factors that contribute to organisational success. According to LePine & Van Dyne (2001:327) many organisations that have become successful on account of good employee management have been able to do so through OCB which manifests itself through employee motivation, satisfaction, involvement and commitment. What this means is that organisations in Zimbabwe should put in place measures that ensure job satisfaction in order to achieve excellence through OCB.
1.2 Problem statement

The economic woes afflicting Zimbabwe today have made it almost impossible for organisations to take significant strides in their drive towards achieving organisational excellence. Business institutions are struggling to survive the hostile economic environment. Many employees in the country are unhappy with their current situation and would prefer leaving should they get an alternative job elsewhere. The Zimbabwean Independent (28 February 2008) reveals that, given a choice, 87.50%, of the workers in Zimbabwe would want to leave their current employers whilst the remaining 12.50% would rather stay put. The labour turnover is being instigated by the decline in the quality of life due to poor remuneration levels, high taxation and poor organisational policies on benefits (The Financial Gazette, 24 January 2008). According to Robert (1997:248) labour turnover is positively related to job dissatisfaction and it brings with costs to an organisation. Such costs include that of recruitment, training of new employees, high scrap and waste rates as well as high accidental costs for new employees. Robert (1997:248) further states that not only does labour turnover bring costs to an organisation, it also causes loss of production and efficiency, lack of commitment in the organisation as well as inconsistency in providing service to customers.

Job dissatisfaction manifesting itself in the form of labour turnover in organisations in Zimbabwe is likely to have negative implications on OCB, a factor identified as critical to organisational success. According to Werner (2007:335) only satisfied employees seem more likely to display positive behaviour that contributes to the overall functioning of the
organisation. In this regard, management in organisations in Zimbabwe must be more concerned with the extent to which their employees experience job satisfaction. According to The Financial Gazette (24 January 2008) management in organisations in Zimbabwe have been using salary and benefits, promotion and career development as some of their job satisfaction measures. However, some of these measures have been identified as incommensurate with the dictates of the prevailing economic environment. Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2005:55) state that the ability of an organisation to innovate, successfully implement business strategy and to achieve competitive advantage largely depends on employee satisfaction and OCB. Assuming that management in organisations in Zimbabwe have been using the above mentioned job satisfaction measures, the fundamental questions that need to be addressed then are: have they succeeded in satisfying employees, and are employees engaging in Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

1.3 Objectives of the study

- To determine job satisfaction levels of employees in the organisations.
- To determine the extent to which employees in the organisations are engaging in OCB.
- To analyse the correlation between job satisfaction and OCB.
- To recommend job satisfaction measures that can be used by the organisations to enhance OCB.
1.4 Hypothesis

This study hypothesises that job satisfaction correlates positively with organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

1.5 Significance of the study

Research has shown that job satisfaction may result in positive outcomes in organisations which have low absentee levels and higher productivity rates amongst employees (Robbins 2005:3). This study aims to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour, a factor that has been identified as critical for organisational success. Koys (2001:101) contends that OCB is vital to the survival of any organisation. It maximises the efficiency and productivity of both the subordinates and the organisation which ultimately contributes to the effective functioning of an organisation. Establishing a link between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour could be of benefit to organisations as management could put in place human resource practices that increase the levels of job satisfaction among employees and hence impact positively on their organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.6 Delimitations of the study

The purpose of demarcating this study is to make it more manageable and focused. However, this does not suggest that areas that have been left out are not important.
1.6.1 Size of the organisation

This study is limited to five organisations in Zimbabwe namely; Delta Beverages, Tube and Pipe Industries, Netone Zimbabwe, Nicoz Diamond Insurance and Sovereign Health International. In total these organisations employ approximately 2500 employees.

1.6.2 Type of the organisation

The organisations used in this study were drawn from different industries to have a general perspective of employee attitudes and behavior. Delta Beverages is an organisation in the manufacturing industry which manufactures of alcohol and soft drinks. Tube and Pipe Industries is an organisation involved in the manufacturing of steel products. Netone Zimbabwe is an organisation that is based in the mobile telecommunications industry. Nicoz Diamond Insurance is an organisation that is in the service industry and provides insurance services. Sovereign Health International is an organisation that is in the service industry and provides a medical aid service.

1.6.3 Geographical demarcation

The data collection for this study was limited to the aforementioned organisations involved in this study and the collection of data was limited to the branches of these organisations based in the Harare region of Zimbabwe.
1.6.4. Units of analysis

The study was limited to middle management, supervisors and first level employees. According to Mason and Ekman (2007:78) middle level employees refers to those employees responsible for implementing strategies and policies. Supervisors are those individuals who oversee the manner in which operational employees conduct their tasks. They provide emotional and technical support as well as guidance with work related tasks (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003:77). First level or operational employees are those who are involved in the day to day operations of the organisation (Wiesenfield, Broncker & Thibault, 2000:32).

1.6.5. Subject of evaluation

The concept of job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behavior can be divided into the following areas

**Job satisfaction**

- Intrinsic job satisfaction
- Extrinsic job satisfaction

**Organisational citizenship behavior**

- Altruism
- Sportsmanship
- Courtesy
- Conscientiousness
1.7 Definitions of key concepts

**Job satisfaction:** According to Wood and Jack (2001:114) job satisfaction is the degree to which an individual feels positive about their work.

**Intrinsic job satisfaction:** Hancer and George (2003:86) contend that intrinsic job satisfaction is that which “satisfies people's psychological needs, such as security, personal interest, responsibility, achievement, advancement, and moral values.”

**Extrinsic job satisfaction:** Basset- Jones and Lloyd (2005:929) refer to extrinsic job satisfaction as non job related variables which cause job dissatisfaction.

**Organisational citizenship behavior:** Organisational citizenship behaviour is defined as behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of an organisation ([www.wikipedia.com](http://www.wikipedia.com)).

**Altruism:** Altruism consists of discretionary behaviours which are aimed at helping specific persons with an organisationally relevant task or problem (Schnake, Cochran & Dumler, 1995:1)
**Sportsmanship:** Sportsmanship refers to “the inclination to absorb minor inconveniences and impositions accruing from the job without complaints or excessive demands for relief or redress” (Konovsky & Organ, 1996:255).

**Courtesy:** Courtesy refers to behaviours that are intended to help prevent problems of coworkers (Organ & Ryan, 1995:782). These behaviours contribute most importantly to the smooth functioning of the organisation, and involve both formal and informal cooperation amongst employees (Organ 1997:85; George & Brief 1992:310; Konovsky & Organ 1996:255).

**Conscientiousness:** Conscientiousness refers to more “impersonal contributions to the organisation” such as excellent attendance, and adherence to organisational rules and policies (Organ & Ryan, 1995:782).

**Civic virtue:** Civic virtue refers to behaviours that represent active involvement and interest regarding organisational issues, as well as the governance of the organisation as a whole (Organ & Ryan, 1995:782).

1.8 **Outline of the dissertation**

Chapter 1: Introduction, problem statement and outline of the study.

Chapter 2: The concept of Job satisfaction

Chapter 3: The concept of Organisational citizenship behaviour.

Chapter 4: Research methodology
Chapter 5: Presentation and discussion of results

Chapter 6: Conclusions, recommendations, limitations and future research directions.

1.9 Concluding remarks

The present chapter provides an overview of the problem under investigation. It also provides detail of significance of the research. An outline of the study as a whole is also given. The ensuing chapter focuses on reviewing literature related to the concept of job satisfaction.
CHAPTER TWO
THE CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

2.1 Introduction

Few organisations have made job satisfaction a top priority, perhaps because they fail to understand the significant opportunities that lie before them. Employee satisfaction is an important issue in determining an organisation’s bottom line (www.managementhelp.org). Mockler (2002:251) argues that employee satisfaction seeks to address an organisation’s bottom line through factors such as innovative thought, good customer care, quality production and profitability, and lower absenteeism together with higher turnover. Additionally, Atchison (1999:18) opines that many organisations are spending much time on employee satisfaction initiatives in an effort to reduce turnover and improve productivity which will help organisations to succeed. Thus job satisfaction is an important factor that must be made available in an organisation.

The present chapter reviews literature related to the concept of job satisfaction. The chapter will first give an overview of what the term job satisfaction means. In which various definitions from different scholars will be used to explain this phenomenon substantively. The chapter also discusses theories that seek to explain the concept of job satisfaction. Most of the theories to be used will be drawn from motivational theories. The theories are divided into content and process theories of motivation. The chapter also examines factors that influence job satisfaction. These factors range from
2.2 Definition of job satisfaction

Numerous definitions have been used in an attempt to explain the term job satisfaction fully. According Birly and MacMillan (1997:112) two major approaches hold sway with regard to the conceptualisation and definition of job satisfaction. The first approach takes a macro level perspective in which the concern is related to the general feelings individuals have about their jobs which takes a global assessment or overall evaluation of a job. For example; Anderson (2001:26) defines job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience. Anderson (2001:26) notes that the definition incorporates both cognition (appraisal) and affect (emotional state). Thus Anderson assumes that job satisfaction results from interplay of cognition, and affect, or put differently; thoughts and feelings. Robbins (2005:24) conforms to Anderson (2001:26) by defining job satisfaction as a collection of feelings an individual holds towards his or her job. A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive feelings towards the job while a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds negative feelings towards it. Thus job satisfaction is a result of the overall reaction towards a job.

In contrast, the second approach emphasizes the facets of the job. That is the extent to which the individual is satisfied with different facets or aspects of the job. For example, job satisfaction is seen in terms of the discrepancy between what one expects and what
one actually gets in the work environment. Hewstone and Stroebe (2001:562) define job satisfaction as an effective reaction to a job that results from the incumbent’s comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired. Similarly, Birly and MacMillan (1997:112) regards job satisfaction as the extent to which rewards actually meet or exceed the perceived equitable level of rewards. In this regard, performance on the job requires that an individual’s expectations and aspirations in terms of reward considerations and fulfilment needs be met. If these needs are fulfilled, employees will be satisfied with the outcome of the job and greater satisfaction would generally motivate employees in performing their tasks more efficiently, thus resulting in an increase in the organisation’s productivity.

The concept of job satisfaction can be characterised as a subjective assessment of one’s work, that is, there is no single satisfactory definition of the concept. However, although job satisfaction is viewed with a multifaceted approach, this research adopts the definition by Robbins (2005:24) as stated above which places emphasis on a global assessment or overall evaluation.

2.3 Theories of job satisfaction

This section of the chapter discusses theories that conceptualise of job satisfaction. The theories will be drawn from motivation theories and will be divided into content and process theories.
2.3.1 Content theories

Content theories suggest that motivation and satisfaction results from the individual's attempt to satisfy needs (Amos, Ristow, Pearse and Ristow 2009:175). Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Adelfer's ERG theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory and Locke's goal setting theory will be discussed in this section of the study.

2.3.1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

According to Schermerhon, Hunt, Osborn (2004:93), Abraham H. Maslow's hierarchical model of human needs can be used to identify the factors affecting job satisfaction. The hierarchy of needs identifies five distinct levels of individual needs. These include physiological, safety, social, esteem and self actualisation needs.

- Physiological needs. According to Schermerhon et al. (2004:93) these represent the most basic of all human needs which are the basic biological needs. These include food, water, shelter and clothing. According Maslow's theory people would first want to have these needs fulfilled before they move on to the next level of needs.

- Safety needs. These include the need for security, protection and stability in the physical and interpersonal events of day-to-day life. According to this theory people want to feel safe, secure, and free from fear. In this regard, they need stability, structure, and order. In the workplace, job security and fringe benefits, along with an environment free of violence, fills these needs. The theory reiterates that individuals would want to satisfy safety needs only if their basic biological needs have been satisfied.
Social needs. This involves the need for love, affection, a sense of belonging in ones’ relationships with others. Daft (1997:51) also explained this need by writing that it involves the need for friends, family, and intimacy for social acceptance and affection from one’s peers. In the workplace, this need is satisfied by participation in work groups with good relationships among co-workers and between workers and managers.

Esteem needs. According to Robbins (2005:24), esteem needs include the need for status, recognition and achievement. People want the esteem of others and they want to be regarded as useful, competent, and important. People also desire self-esteem and need a good self image. In the workplace, increased responsibility, high status, and recognition for contributions satisfy these needs.

Self actualization. This is the highest motivation level according to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. This involves people striving to actualize their full potential, in order to become more of what they are capable of being. They seek to attain self-fulfillment. In the workplace, people satisfy this need by being creative, receiving training, or accepting challenging assignments (Daft, 1997:51).

Schermerhon et al. (2004:93), state that, Maslow assumes that some needs are more important than others and must be satisfied before other needs. The theory states that individuals experience a hierarchy of needs, from lower level to higher level of psychological needs. One has to satisfy the current needs before going to the next level of needs. For example, physiological needs must be satisfied before safety needs can be attended to. Thus the theory assumes that the fulfilment of each need level suggest
satisfaction. Using Maslow’s theory managers can motivate and ensure job satisfaction in their employees by making sure that each individual need level is satisfied. Satisfaction of such needs can be done through offering suitable rewards. For example, managers can satisfy employee’s physiological needs through provision of accommodation and a staff canteen. Similarly, employee security needs can be satisfied through ensuring that employees are given salaries, retirement annuity and medical benefits. For social needs managers can ensure employees’ job satisfaction by encouraging social interaction amongst employees. This can be done through encouraging employees’ participation in trade union activities. Managers can design challenging jobs, delegate responsibility and encourage participation in decision making in order to satisfy employees’ esteem needs. The needs for self actualisation can be satisfied through the provision of executive training, provision of challenges and encouraging creativity. Managers can also maintain job satisfaction in their employees by making sure that a satisfied need is continually met.

However, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs has its limitations. Schermerhon et al. (2004:93) highlighted that it has been suggested that higher order needs (esteem and self actualization) tend to be more important than lower level needs as an individual moves up the corporate ladder. Schermerhon et al. (2004:93) further argue that needs vary according to a person’s career stage, the size of the organisation and its geographical location. More so, there is no consistent evidence that satisfaction of a need at one level decreases its importance and increases the importance of the next level of needs.
2.3.1.2 Aldefer’s ERG theory

Alderfer’s (1972) ERG theory is also based on needs but differs from Maslow’s theory in three basic respects (Schermerhon et al. 2004:93). Firstly, the theory collapses Maslow’s five needs categories into three. These three are existence needs, relatedness and growth needs. According to Adelfer’s theory existence needs refer to the desire to satisfy physiological and material wellbeing, whilst relatedness needs involve the desire to satisfy interpersonal relationships. Growth needs are the desire for continued personal growth and development. Schermerhon et al. (2004:93) contends that whereas Maslow’s theory argues that individuals progress up the needs hierarchy, the ERG theory emphasizes a unique frustration regression component. An already satisfied lower level need can become activated when a higher level need cannot be satisfied. Thus, if an employee is continually frustrated in his or her attempt to satisfy growth needs, relatedness needs can again surface as key motivators.

Unlike Maslow’s theory the ERG theory contends that more than one need may be activated at the same time. According to Schermerhon et al. (2004:93) more research is needed to shed light on the validity of the ERG theory. In particular, the theory’s provision for regression to lower level needs is a valuable contribution as it may explain why in some organisations, employees grievances mainly focus on wages, benefits and working conditions. These needs are related to existence needs. Schermerhon et al. (2004:93) further contend that although these needs are more important, their importance may be exaggerated because employee’s jobs cannot otherwise satisfy relatedness and growth needs. The ERG theory thus offers a more flexible approach to
understanding human needs than does Maslow’s hierarchy. The ERG theory explains that should need satisfaction does not take place employee frustration will occur. Managers therefore need to understand that to maintain job satisfaction levels they should put into place measures that ensure that employees are able to meet the needs without frustration.

2.3.1.3 Herzberg two-factor theory

Herzberg’s (1959) two factor theory of job satisfaction and motivation has been widely used in job satisfaction circles. According to Hewstone and Stroebe (2001:347) Herzberg’s two-factor theory holds that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are driven by different factors. Satisfaction is influenced by motivational factors whilst dissatisfaction is influenced by hygiene factors. Motivating factors are those aspects of the job that make people want to perform well and provide them with satisfaction. For example, achievement in work, recognition and promotional opportunities. The motivating factors are considered to be intrinsic to the job as individuals may have a degree of control over them. Hygiene factors include aspects of the job that are extrinsic to the individual such as remuneration, company policies, supervisory practises and other working conditions. According to the two-factor theory hygiene factors are the non-task characteristics of the job that create dissatisfaction. They are also referred to as extrinsic factors because the individual does not have control over them. Anderson (2001:28) contends that factors that lead to job satisfaction are often derived from those that lead to dissatisfaction. Similarly, Anderson (2001:28) further contends that intrinsic factors are strongly correlated with satisfaction while extrinsic factors are correlated with
dissatisfaction. Therefore, based on these findings, the elimination of hygiene factors from a job would only remove dissatisfaction, but not necessarily bring satisfaction. To bring satisfaction, the organisation must focus on motivating factors such as making the work more interesting, challenging and personally rewarding. Since both hygiene and motivational factors play an important role in determining employee performance at the workplace, organisations should ensure that these factors are available to their employees.

Mitchell (2001:43) contends that Herzberg's theory has made important contributions to motivation theory. They further state that Herzberg’s theory extends Maslow's ideas and made them more applicable in the workplace. The theory focused its attention on the importance of job centered factors in the motivation of employees. Furthermore, Mitchell (2001:43) contends that Herzberg’s theory gave rise to an increasing interest in job enrichment and restructuring of work. However, like any other theory, Herzberg’s two-factor theory has its own limitations. Scholars like Schermerhon et al. (2004:94) argue that just like any other content theory, Herzberg’s theory fails to account for individual differences. Graham and Messener (1999:196) argue that Herzberg’s theory assumes that all employees react in an identical manner to changes in motivation and hygiene factors. Secondly, Herzberg’s theory fails to link motivation and needs to satisfaction and performance. Anderson (2007:28) argues that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.
2.3.1.4 Locke and Latham’s Goal-setting theory

The goal setting theory by Locke and Latham is another theory that can be used to explain employee satisfaction in the workplace. It is the provision of a specific target that an individual tries to achieve or something that an individual attempts to accomplish. Werner (2007:87) argues that having goals can provide satisfaction and motivation to individuals. The theory reiterates that goals can provide satisfaction and motivation to people because it allows them to compare their current performance with the performance required to achieve a particular goal. If they are not achieving the higher level set by the requirements of the goal they will feel dissatisfied that they are not achieving the higher level of performance and will thus work harder to attain it. If they succeed and achieve their goal they will feel a sense satisfaction in the form of achievement and self esteem. Thus, managers can use the theory to maintain job satisfaction through personally setting, and helping their employees set attainable goals. The theory however has been criticised by many scholars. Werner (2007:87) argues that not all jobs are amenable to the goal setting approach. The theory seems to work well for simple jobs but does not work well for complex jobs particularly jobs in which the goals cannot be measured easily. Goal accomplishment can become an obsession for some people and they can concentrate all their energies on achieving a particular goal whilst neglecting other important aspects of their job.

Content theories assume that motivation is best understood by focusing on the structure of innate or learned needs that people seek to satisfy. The present study adopts Herzberg’s Two Factor theory as the theory guiding of the concept of job satisfaction.
Unlike other content theories, Herzberg’s theory was chosen because it focuses on factors in a real organisational setting, for example, supervision, organisational policies, job security recognition and recognition to determine employee satisfaction.

### 2.3.2 Process theories

This component of the chapter discusses process theories of motivation to explain the concept of job satisfaction. According to Amos et al. (2009:175) process theories explain the process by which behaviour is initiated, directed, sustained and stopped.

#### 2.3.2.1 Affect Theory

Locke’s Range of Affect Theory (1976) is arguably the most famous job satisfaction model. The main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job (www.wikipedia.com). Furthermore, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work, for example, the degree of autonomy in a position moderates how satisfied or dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are met or when they are not met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who does not value that facet. Managers must therefore understand the needs of their employees and make an effort to fulfill these needs. They can carry out research on their employees to determine their specific needs. Furthermore, managers can enquire from other successful organisations as to how they have been able to determine and meet employee needs.
2.3.2.2 Equity theory

Equity theory developed by Adams (1962:422), finds that equity exists when people consider whether their compensation is equal to the compensation of others who perform work of similar value. According to Daft (1997:51) the equity theory focuses on individuals’ perceptions of how fairly they are treated in comparison to others. Daft (1997:51) suggests that people judge equity by comparing inputs such as education, experience, effort, and ability to outputs such as pay, recognition, benefits, and promotion. According to this theory when the ratio between the input and output is out of balance, inequity occurs. Individuals will work to reduce perceived inequity by doing the following: either change input that is increasing or reducing effort. Changing outcomes, for example, requesting a salary increase or improved working conditions distort perceptions which involve trying to influence other employees to change their own salaries. According to Daft (1997:51) individuals might also leave the organisation if the perceived inequity is not redressed. In this regard to maintain motivation and employee satisfaction when administering compensation and incentive programs, managers must be careful and insure that reward programs are equitable and if programs are not perceived as equitable, then they will not contribute to employee satisfaction.

The equity theory, like any other, also has its weaknesses. Greenberg (1988:606) contends that present research on the theory has focused on the outcome of financial compensation. Yet financial compensation is but one in many outcomes derived from a job. Very little is known about the effects on motivation when manipulating other outcomes. Furthermore, Mitchell (2001:38) argues that the whole issue of organisations
deliberately manipulating their employees to induce feelings of inequity raises serious moral and ethical questions. Few employees would want to work for an organisation that willingly causes them to experience inequity.

### 2.3.2.3 Value Percept Theory

Anderson (2001:32) argues that the value that individuals place on a job is what determines their satisfaction in the job. The theory holds that only the lack of fulfillment of those items that individual's value would cause dissatisfaction. Accordingly, Locke's value percept theory expresses job satisfaction as the difference between what one wants and what one has. The theory predicts that the discrepancy between what is desired and received is dissatisfying only if the job facet is important to the individual and individuals consider multiple facets when evaluating their job satisfaction. The application of the value percept theory is similar to that of the affect theory. Managers should determine what their employee's value and try to satisfy these values. This in turn facilitates job satisfaction as the theory suggests that the fulfillment of employee values is what determines their satisfaction at the workplace. The value percept theory has got its critics, such as Anderson, who claims that one of the problems of the value percept theory is that what one desires and what one considers important are likely to be highly correlated Anderson, (2001:32). Although in theory these concepts are separable, in practice many people will find it difficult to distinguish between the two. For example, why should one desire a great deal of pay if remuneration is not important to him or her?
Much like many of the content theories; for example, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and the Two Factor theory of motivation by Herzberg (1959), the process theories of motivation states that positive outcomes and high levels of motivation can be expected only when employees believe their treatment to be fair. The idea behind those theories being is to strike a balance between inputs and outputs, that is, in a way that seems reasonably equal.

2.4 Factors that influence job satisfaction

A number of factors have been identified as factors that influence job satisfaction. According to Armstrong (2003:241) job satisfaction is influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors of motivation. Armstrong (2003:241) classified these factors into motivational and hygiene factors. Motivational factors are those aspects of the job that are intrinsic to the job whilst hygiene factors are those aspects of the job that are extrinsic. Intrinsic or motivational factors are those aspects of the job that the job holder can have control over and can include factors such as the work itself, recognition, responsibility, feedback and growth (Herzberg, Mausner & Synderman 1993:122). Hygiene factors are those aspects of the job that an individual does not have control over and include aspects such as company policies, supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships and working conditions.
2.4.1 Intrinsic factors

This section of the study focuses on intrinsic factors that influence job satisfaction. According to Atchison (1999:18), intrinsic sources of job satisfaction come from within the individual and are essentially longer lasting than extrinsic sources.

2.4.1.1 Work itself

According to Robbins et al. (2003:7) the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results facilitates job satisfaction. A study by Robbins (2005:7) reveals that employees tend to prefer jobs that give them opportunities to use their skills and abilities and which offer a variety of tasks, freedom and feedback on how well they are performing. These characteristics make work mentally challenging and create feelings of pleasure and satisfaction for employees. To make work interesting and create feelings of satisfaction managers therefore have to ensure that employees are given tasks that are challenging and which provide them with satisfaction. Syptak, Marsland and Ulmer (1999:1) add that work itself is perhaps the most important factor to influence employee motivation and satisfaction. Accordingly, Syptak et al. (1999:1) state that helping employees believe that the work they are doing is important and that their tasks are meaningful is important in determining the job satisfaction of employees. On the contrary, they also argue that employees may not find all their work meaningful, interesting and rewarding. It is therefore the responsibility of managers to show their employees how their work...
contributes to the organisation’s bottom line. This, in turn, makes work meaningful and interesting which facilitates employee satisfaction.

2.4.1.2 Recognition

Recognition is another intrinsic factor which literature suggests facilitates job satisfaction. For example, Josias (2005:55) argues that almost all workers value being praised for their work. Locke (1976:1297) found recognition to be one of the most frequently used elements cited as a cause of satisfaction or dissatisfaction in employees. Similarly, Syptak et al. (1999:1) argue that acknowledging employees for handling a particular situation well creates feelings of satisfaction. Management in organisations can therefore use recognition as a source of job satisfaction for their employees. The recognition could either be tangible or intangible. Examples, of such tangible and intangible recognition could include promotions, salary increases, and verbal commendations.

2.4.1.3 Job Autonomy

According to Syptak et al. (1999:1) employees will be more satisfied and motivated to do their jobs well if they have full responsibility over their work. This requires giving employees enough freedom and power to carry out their tasks so that they feel as if they own the result. Anderson (2001:31) adds that as individuals mature in their jobs, managers need to provide opportunities for added responsibility to improve the job satisfaction of their employees. In organisations management should ensure that such
added responsibility must not only be in the form of an additional work load but also provide employees with new challenges which make their work more meaningful.

2.4.1.4 Person-environment fit

Person-environment fit is the degree of compatibility between an employee and his or her work environment (Kristof, 2006:246). Bowling and Hammond (2008:63) argue that a good fit between what an employee wants and what the organisation or the job actually provides contributes to an employee’s level of satisfaction. Similarly, Sekiguch (2004:179) notes that individuals seek out organisations that have a career environment which matches their own interests. A high person-environment fit or congruence results in satisfaction, organisational stability and achievement. In contrast, low person-environment fit is likely to result in dissatisfaction and ultimately make the employee leave the organisation. Hence, managers should ensure a conducive working environment for all employees which can be achieved through conforming to standardized workplace designs.

In addition to this, Kristof (2006:246) argues that people do not interact with only one part of their environment; rather, they are simultaneously nested in multiple dimensions of the environment. Kristof (2006:246) further asserts that, many of the consequences attributed to a person-fit environment are not simply the result of fit or misfit with a single aspect of the environment. Instead, broad consequences such as satisfaction, commitment, stress, adjustment and withdrawal are more realistically affected by the compilation and interaction of fit assessments across multiple aspects of the
environment. Organisations can provide their managers with training in order to understand the multiple dimensions that make up the working environment. This can be done to ensure that managers possess the necessary knowledge and skills as to how they can identify and provide an individual employee with a conducive working environment.

2.4.2 Extrinsic factors
Extrinsic factors of job satisfaction will be examined in this section of the chapter. According to Atchison (1999:18) extrinsic factors of job satisfaction are determined by conditions that are beyond the control of the employee.

2.4.2.1 Social and organisational support
According to Bowling and Hammond (2008:63) research has consistently found positive relationships between both social support and perceived organisational support and satisfaction. Syptak et al. (1999:1) support Bowling and Hammond (2008:63) by arguing that part of the satisfaction of being employed is the social contact it brings. According to Syptak et al. (1999:1) allowing employee’s a reasonable amount of time for socialization provides them with satisfaction and this will help develop a sense of camaraderie and teamwork. If allowing socialization at the workplace creates satisfaction with antecedents such as camaraderie and teamwork, managers should allow employees to socialize since this will result in organisational effectiveness. In view of the above argument, Paine and Organ (2000:51) opine that organisational structures that allow employee participation and involvement in decision making instill satisfaction
in their employees. Accordingly, Paine and Organ (2000:51) further contend that this, in turn, results in feelings of self belonging within the employees and reduces withdrawal behaviour such as absenteeism and turnover which are costly to organisations.

2.4.2.2 Supervision

The receipt of support from one’s supervisors has been widely examined as a potential cause of job satisfaction. Robbins et al. (2003:7) argue that the extent to which supervisors support their subordinates technically, emotionally, and socially influences job satisfaction. Similarly, Bergh and Theron (2001:191) note that working with supervisors who are friendly and supportive facilitates job satisfaction. They argued that the type of supervisor who facilitates job satisfaction is one who shows interest in employees and offers praise for good performance and listens to employees for opinions and advice. Bergh and Theron (2001:191) also argue that the style of leadership adopted by a supervisor plays an integral role in determining job satisfaction levels in an organisation.

Foels, Driskell, Mullen and Salas (2000:676) using a meta-analytic integration of research evidence in their study of democratic leadership on group member satisfaction, reveal that there is a significant tendency for groups experiencing democratic leadership to be more satisfied than groups experiencing autocratic leadership. Sadler (2003:25) contends that in transformational leadership leaders see themselves as change agents and they thus set out to make a difference and to transform the organisation for which they are responsible. They are courageous and
can deal with resistance, take a stand, take risks and confront reality. These leaders also believe in people and as a result they have well-developed beliefs about motivation, trust and empowerment. The belief about motivation in transformational leaders clearly indicates that leaders using this style of leadership are people oriented and would want to achieve goals by empowering subordinates. Empowering subordinates through added responsibilities and challenging tasks results in job satisfaction. Thus, if research indicates that employees experiencing democratic and transformational leadership styles are more satisfied with their work, managers should adopt these approaches as satisfied employees put on their best for the organisation which is important for organisational effectiveness.

2.4.2.3 Working conditions

According to Syptak et al. (1999:1) the environment in which people work has a tremendous effect on their level of pride they invest in themselves and the work they are doing. Syptak et al. (1999) argue that the provision of up to date equipment and machinery facilitates job satisfaction. Syptak et al. (1999:1) also mentions that avoiding overcrowding and allowing employees to have their own space, be it a desk or locker, is critical in determining employee satisfaction levels. Furthermore, they point out that placing employees closer together with little or no personal space can create tension amongst the employees and may lead to dissatisfaction. Similarly, Robbins et al. (2003:7) contend that working conditions that are conducive to doing one’s job well include safety and comfort, a clean environment, relatively modern and adequate facilities. Employees react to unfavorable working conditions negatively and this
explains why absenteeism and staff turnover in some organisations is very high (Punnett, Greenidge & Ramsey, 2007:214). In order to enhance productivity and job satisfaction, organisations should provide a conducive working environment for their employees.

Gerber, Nel, Van Dyke, Haasbroak, Schultz, Sono and Werner (2003:58) argue that psychological working conditions determine employee satisfaction. According to Gerber et al. (2003:58) psychological working environment refers to the psychological effect of work pressure on individuals and groups. For example, the nature of the job has an impact on employees. Jobs that are designed in a way that demand intelligence, achievement or attention may not lead to boredom, fatigue and inefficiency. Management in organisations therefore has a task of making sure that jobs are designed in such a way that does not negatively affect the psychological wellbeing of an employee. Management can achieve this by encouraging delegation to reduce work load, enhance job enrichment and promote job rotation.

2.4.2.4 Pay

Employees often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organisation. Gerber et al. (2003:59) argue that people perceive their remuneration as an indication of what they are worth to the organisation. People compare the contribution they make to the organisation with what they receive in turn. In this regard inequity will result in job dissatisfaction. In their own opinion, Bergh and Theron (2001:189) add that employees want pay systems and promotions that they perceive as
being just, unambiguous and in line with their expectations. When pay is perceived as fair based on job demands, individual skill level and community pay standards, satisfaction is more likely to result. Similarly, individuals who perceive that promotion decisions are made in a just and fair manner are likely to experience satisfaction from their jobs. Tseane (www.managementhelp.com) supports the argument by Bergh and Theron (2001:189) by asserting that employees should be remunerated according to the amount of effort they put in their jobs to create a sense of satisfaction. If job satisfaction is related to the manner in which outcomes meet or exceed expectations, as well as the fair and equitable distribution in terms of rewards, managers are tasked with the responsibility of ensuring that remuneration of employees is according to the contribution they make to the organisation, so as to create and maintain job satisfaction in their employees.

The concept of fairness in remuneration also has tremendous effects in determining employee satisfaction at the workplace. Syptak et al. (1999:1) argue that organisations should have clear policies related to salaries, raises and bonuses that every employee in the organisation can understand. Having clear policies reduces ambiguity and shows employees that they are not unfairly treated. Spector (1996:226) concurs with this argument by asserting that it is the fairness of pay that determines satisfaction rather than the actual level of pay. If an employee’s compensation is perceived to be equitable in comparison to those of others, satisfaction is more likely to occur. Syptak et al. (1999:1) expounds on Spector (1996:226) by arguing that to maintain fairness in compensation, management should consult salary surveys. Salary surveys can be
consulted to see whether the salaries the organisation offer are comparable to those of other organisations in the same field and area. Consulting a salary survey has an advantage in that it reduces labour turnover and creates satisfaction as employees are treated equally to those in other organisations.

2.4.2.5 Co-workers

Working with co-workers who are supportive is another factor that facilitates job satisfaction. According to Oshagbemi (2000:213), research indicates that individuals who perceive that they have better interpersonal relationships with co-workers report high levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, Luthans (1995:122) contends that the nature of the work group can have an impact on job satisfaction. Luthans (1995:122) argues that friendly, cooperative co-workers are a modest source of job satisfaction to the individual employees. This is because the work group serves as a source of support, comfort, advice and assistance for the individual employee.

Aamodt (1997:326) adds that employees observe the levels of satisfaction of other employees and then model these behaviours. Hence, if an organisation’s veteran employees work hard and positively in their jobs, new employees will model the same behavior and be both productive and satisfied. Managers should therefore encourage veteran employees to work hard and put the interests of the organisation first so that other employees can emulate their behaviour which would result in job satisfaction in other employees.
Additionally, Syptak et al. (1999:1) argue that part of the satisfaction of being employed is the social contact it brings. They argued that allowing employees reasonable amounts of time for socialization during breaks, lunch and in between clients, helps instill satisfaction through a sense of camaraderie and teamwork in employees. Managers can adopt such methods to help build satisfaction in their employees. However, at the same time, they should also crack down on identifiable in-appropriate behaviour amongst employees in these social gatherings as it can have negative implications on the behaviour of other employees.

2.4.2.6 Promotional opportunities

According to Chelladurai (2006:270) job satisfaction with promotion is based on an employee’s satisfaction with the company’s promotional policy and the administration of that policy. Chelladurai (2006:270) argues that it is the frequency of promotions, the importance of promotions and the desirability of promotions that influence an employee’s satisfaction level. Ospina (1996:173) adds that the concept of fairness plays an important role in job satisfaction with perceived opportunities for advancement. Ospina (1996:173) further asserts that the availability of good chances and the perception that promotions are handled fairly contribute to job satisfaction. The more that promotions are perceived as available and fair the more employees will be satisfied with their jobs. In concurrence, Robbins et al. (2003:28) argue that employees seek promotion policies and practices which they perceive of as fair and unambiguous and in line with their expectations. Research by Robbins et al. (2003:28) also reveals that employees who perceive that promotion decisions are made in a fair and just manner
are most likely to experience job satisfaction. In view of this argument, organisations should have clear and fair policies on promotion, which their employees understand, since literature points out that job satisfaction results from fair and unambiguous policies.

2.4.2.7 Company and administrative policies

An organisation’s policies can be a great source of frustration for employees if the policies are unclear, unnecessary or if not applicable to and adhered by everyone. According to Syptak et al. (1999:1) although employees will never feel a great sense of motivation or satisfaction by an organisation’s policies, the organisation can decrease satisfaction by making sure that its policies are fair and apply equally to all employees. Syptak et al. (1999:1) adds that making sure that everyone has a printed copy of an organisation’s manual is another way that management can make sure that every employee in the organisation knows what is required of him or her. This will serve as a reminder to employees so that they will not be caught under obscured vision or the wrong side of the law since they know what is required of them by the organisation. Accordingly, Syptak et al. (1999:1) also argue that comparing your organisational policies with those of similar organisations in your area can be helpful in determining whether the policies in your organisation are unreasonably strict or whether some penalties are too harsh, which can create frustration amongst employees and subsequently dissatisfaction. Managers can use this method as it reduces activities such as absenteeism and turnover which are the results from employee frustration and dissatisfaction.
2.4.2.8 Job enrichment

Good management has the potential for creating high morale, high productivity, and a sense of purpose and meaning for the organisation and its employees (www.answers.com). Managers who are serious about the satisfaction of workers can also take deliberate steps to create a stimulating working environment. One such step is job enrichment. Job enrichment is a deliberate upgrading of responsibility, scope and challenge in the work itself. It usually includes increased responsibility, recognition and opportunities for growth, learning and achievement. Robbins et al. (2003:29) argue that restructuring work by making it more interesting and challenging increase job satisfaction. In line with this argument, Hitt, Miller and Colella (2006: 246) argue that the task itself is the key to employee motivation and satisfaction. Specifically, a boring and monotonous job stifles motivation to perform well, whereas challenging jobs enhances satisfaction.

Hitt et al. (2006:246) further contend that there are three ingredients to a more challenging job which are variety, autonomy and decision authority. Hitt et al. (2006:246) also argue that two popular ways of adding variety to routine jobs are job enrichment and job rotation. Job enrichment and job rotation keep employees from complacency and reduce boredom. Stimulating the human mind through the diversity of challenges is a sure way to bring to the forefront its creative instincts and take the individual and organisational performance to a higher level. Thus managers need to take innovative measures to make the working environment more interesting through
activities such as job enrichment and rotation which results in increased individual and organisational performance.

2.4.2.9 Organisational Culture

According to Hitt et al. (2006:481) organisational culture refers to the shared values and norms that influence the behaviour of employees in an organisation. Kilmann, Saxton and Serpa (1985:5) also define organisational culture as the shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms that knit an organisation together. According to Kilmann et al. (1985:5) organisational culture is very important in determining individual and organisational performance. They argue that if individual values and beliefs are not compatible with those of the organisation, feelings of dissatisfaction may occur within the individual that may also have negative implications on his or her performance and that of the organisation at large. Lund (2003:219) argues that job satisfaction varies across corporate cultural typology. Empirical evidence from Lund (2003:219), on organisational culture and job satisfaction in transportation industries, reveals that bureaucratic cultures are not conducive in creating employee commitment, job satisfaction and work group cohesion. However, employee commitment, job satisfaction and work group cohesion are positively related to mechanistic cultures. This is also in line with the thinking of Robbins (2005:7) who argues that job satisfaction invoked an alignment of cultures on the vertical axis that represents a continuum of organic processes with an emphasis on flexibility and spontaneity with mechanistic processes which emphasize control, stability, and order. In view of the above arguments, management in organisations should adopt organisational
cultures that align individual beliefs and values with those of the organisation. This is important in that it reduces feelings of dissatisfaction and enhances individual employee performance which is critical for the attainment of organisational goals.

2.4.2.10 Job security

According to Yousef (1998:36) the importance of job security stems from the fact that it is critical for influencing work related outcomes. For instance, job security is an important determinant of employee health, that is, the physical and psychological wellbeing of employees, employee turnover, employee retention, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Chirumbolo and Hellgren (2003:24) assert that research conducted over the last decade shows how job insecurity can be harmful to both the individual and the organisation. Chirumbolo and Hellgren (2003:24) argue that a growing body of job insecurity research shows that job insecurity is linked to physical and mental health problems. Chirumbolo and Hellgren (2003:24) further argue that job insecurity can have effects not only on the employee’s wellbeing but also on his or her work related attitudes. Job insecurity can result in decreased job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This situation could be costly to organisations as they may be forced to incur costs for recruitment associated with labour turnover and reduced production due to absenteeism. As a retention strategy management must instill some sense of job security in their employees which results in job satisfaction and organisational commitment. These factors are critical in that they promote employee performance and reduce unwanted behaviour such as labour turnover and absenteeism which adds costs to the organisation.
2.5 Job satisfaction and demographic factors

Research has found diverse and conflicting explanations on the relationship between job satisfaction and demographics. Some literature has shown that demographics can have a significant impact on job satisfaction, whilst others have produced inconclusive results regarding the relationship.

2.5.1 Gender

Research on the impact of gender on job satisfaction has produced inconsistent results. Some studies have produced results which suggest that women are more satisfied with their jobs than men whilst others suggest that the reverse is true. Mello (2006:96) contends that because women have traditionally assumed the role of care giver, both for children and for elderly and disabled dependents, the issue of work life balance is closely related to gender issues. Mello (2006:99) defines work life balance as the balance between an employee’s needs at work and their personal lives. Mello (2006:99) argues that research shows clear gendered differences in the value placed on work life balance between men and women as a factor in determining job satisfaction. Mello (2006:99) further argues that for women, work and life balance was the most important factor in determining job satisfaction, whereas for men this was only allotted importance after issues of benefits, job security, pay and communication with management.

Consistent with the findings by Mello (2006:96) that men and women have different values. Several studies, for example, (Beutel & Marini 1995:436; Lueptow, Garovich & Lueptow, 1998:509) indicate that the relative importance of job characteristics is gender
based. In general, men value extrinsic attributes such as high salaries and the opportunity for advancement. On the other hand, women are more likely to seek intrinsic rewards such as job contentment and positive relations with co-workers. The distinction between the research findings can be interpreted as showing that the traditional roles of women as empathetic and personal oriented shows in their job orientation whereas men are oriented towards competitiveness.

However, other researchers have also found that there is no significant difference in job satisfaction between women and men (Alavi & Askaripur 2003:591; Carr & Human's 1988:60). According to Josias (2005:62) a possible explanation for the lack of a significant difference in job satisfaction between men and women is offered by Tolbert and Moen (1998:168), who maintain that men and women attach value to different aspects of the job. In view of this argument, it is therefore difficult to measure differences in job satisfaction based on gender.

### 2.5.2 Age

Many investigations have examined the relationship between age and job satisfaction (Ang, Goh & Koh, 1993:31; Oshagbemi, 1998:95; Luthans & Thomas, 1989:23). However, results from these studies have produced inconsistent evidence and such conflicting results have left the true nature of the relationship unresolved.

According to Moyes, Williams and Koch (2006:153) the career stage theory can be used to explain the possible relation between age and job satisfaction. The theory suggests
that upper levels of management within an organisation are generally not available to younger employees. Thus, it is the older employees that typically enjoy the increased power and prestige associated with these positions. This is also consistent with other researchers, for example (Saal & Knight, 1988:246; Mello 2006:67) who has found that job satisfaction increases with age. Mottaz (1986:359) offers several reasons for the positive association between age and job satisfaction:

- Younger employees place significantly greater importance on intrinsic rewards like interesting and challenging jobs compared to older employees who are more concerned with extrinsic rewards such as pay and fringe benefits. Thus younger employees are dissatisfied with their jobs because they demand more than what their jobs provide.

- Older employees possess more seniority and experience which enables them to move easily into rewarding and satisfying jobs.

- Older employees consider rewards such as interesting work, autonomy and promotion as less important and difficult to attain. They thus demand less of such rewards from their jobs and are therefore more satisfied with their work than younger employees.

- After having stayed in their jobs for some time, employees tend to adjust their work values to the conditions of the workplace, resulting in greater job satisfaction.

In view of the above, it is important for supervisors to improve the job satisfaction of younger employees by making sure that they both have interesting and challenging
jobs, especially the kinds of jobs that utilise their skills. Supervisors can also improve their job satisfaction by fulfilling their promises of promotion or relief from monotonous assignments.

2.5.3 Level of education

Research on job satisfaction and educational level has produced inconclusive results Gurbuz (2007:36). According to Gurbuz (2007:36) some studies for example, (Okpara, 2004:327; Al-Aljmi, 2001:91; Andrews 1990:151) have determined a positive relationship while others show that job satisfaction and level of education are not related (Bowen, Radhakrishna, & Keyser, 1994:1; Griffin, 1984:195).

According to Wright and Davies (2007:36) the reason why there is a positive relationship between educational level and job satisfaction is because the provision of training will foster an increase in professionalism and further exploitation of management methods. Priti (1999:283) concurred with this argument by saying that well trained individuals know the scope expectations and depth of their jobs and will be able to add building blocks to their professionalism as they progress through careers. This has the effect on employees of creating feelings of pleasure and satisfaction. Organisations can encourage their employees to improve on their education. They can offer educational grants for employees who want to expand on their education. They can also provide training and development. Training and development equips employees with the necessary skills and knowledge on how to perform a particular task. This is important in that it improves the efficiency levels of an employee, increases the
capacity to adopt new technologies and methods and helps prepare employees for promotions. These factors improve an employee’s morale at the workplace and reduce unwelcomed behavior, such as absenteeism and turnover.

2.5.4 Tenure

Tenure is another demographic variable that influences job satisfaction. According to Sarker, Crossman and Chinmeeepituk (2003:745) the underlying assumption behind the tenure job satisfaction relationship is that dissatisfied employees resign while satisfied ones stay with the organisation. Research on the relationship between job satisfaction and tenure suggests that tenure is positively related to job satisfaction (Oshagbemi 2000:213). Numerous explanations have been given to this positive relation. Ronen (1978) in Sarker et al. (2003:745) suggests that the positive relationship originates in the idea that intrinsic satisfaction in a job is a major contributor to changes in the overall satisfaction of employees over time, where tenure is related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In an attempt to explain this relationship Savery (1996:18), argues that employees tend to adjust their work values to the conditions of the workplace, which result in greater job satisfaction. Alternatively, employees who experience little responsibility, interest, recognition or achievement are more likely to experience dissatisfaction and leave the organisation. Employees with longer service may experience higher satisfaction because they have found a job that matches their needs or find opportunities for promotion which might lead to higher job satisfaction.
Clark, Oswald and Warr (1996:57) also suggest that an inverse relationship may exist between these two variables. Longer tenured employees tend to be dissatisfied with their jobs as compared to short tenured employees. Clark et al. (1996:57) argue that a possible explanation to this argument is that longer tenure in a job may result in boredom and lower levels of satisfaction. However, this may be due to low job mobility and external labour market conditions. In view of the discussion above, it can be observed that literature is inconsistent on the relationship between job satisfaction and tenure. This means that more research is needed to clarify this relationship. However, it is important for managers to encourage their employees to have longer tenure with the organisation. They can achieve this by making sure that their jobs are intrinsically satisfying through providing challenging jobs which provide room for initiative and creativity, in addition to which feedback is provided.

2.5.5 Job Level

Few studies have attempted to investigate the relationship between job level and job satisfaction (Oshagbemi 1997:511). The basic assumption behind this relationship is that job satisfaction increases as one goes up the corporate ladder. Research has confirmed this relationship, for example, Huang and Van De Vliert (2004:329) found that compared to white-collar employees, blue-collar employees are less satisfied with their jobs. They state that a possible explanation for this may lie in the fact that employees at lower job levels are less likely to find mentally challenging work than employees at higher job. In concurrence, Saal and Knight (1988:382) argue that employees in professional and managerial jobs are paid more, have better promotional prospects,
autonomy and responsibility which increases their levels of satisfaction. To improve the satisfaction levels of lower level employee’s managers can use techniques such as job rotation and job enrichment which makes work more interesting.

Huang and Van De Vliert (2004:330) also produced another explanation to this relationship by arguing that the notion that job satisfaction increases in relation to job level increase may vary between countries. They are of the opinion that the notion that higher job levels give rise to higher job satisfaction may not be without problems in some countries because mentally challenging and intrinsically motivating work might not or would hardly be valued in those countries. For example, Anderson (2001:36) found that, whereas British employees were motivated more by intrinsic job factors such as achievement, the work itself, and recognition, Nigerian employees were motivated more by extrinsic job factors such as pay, fringe benefits, and working conditions. The variations in these job satisfaction levels can be explained using Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. Employees in first world countries may be motivated by intrinsic factors because the organisations in those countries are able to fulfil their lower level needs on Maslow’s hierarchy such as the physiological, social and security needs. Organisations in third world countries, on the other hand are struggling to provide for their employee’s lower level needs.

2.6 Measuring job satisfaction

This section of the study discusses approaches to measuring the concept of job satisfaction and the instruments used to measure it. Three approaches to measuring the
concept will be examined. Examples of these approaches include the use of rating scales, critical incidents and interviews. Measuring instruments such as the Job Description Index, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, Job In General Scale, Job Satisfaction Survey will also be discussed. Particular attention, however, will be given to their reliability and validity in measuring the concept.

2.6.1 Approaches to measuring job satisfaction

According to Schneider, Gruman and Coutts (2005:237) the two most widely used approaches to measuring job satisfaction using rating scales include the global approach and the facet approach. The global approach considers overall job satisfaction and simply asks an employee to respond to one general question. For example, ‘by and large, how satisfied are you with your job’. Answers to the question are usually rated on a five point scale ranging from highly satisfied to dissatisfied (Schneider, et al. 2005:237). In the facet approach job satisfaction is considered to be composed of feelings and attitudes about a number of key aspects or facets of the job. According to Schneider et al. (2005:237) examples of typical aspects of the job that are included are the nature of the work itself, quality of supervision, pay, fringe benefits, promotion opportunities, job conditions and relations with other employees such as supervisors and co-workers. These facets are rated on a standardized scale and then summerised to create an overall job satisfaction scale.

McKenna (2000:279) contends that measuring job satisfaction with rating scales has got its advantages and disadvantages. Examples of the advantages include; being short in
length and can be rapid in completion, the language used is general and occupationally specific and therefore caters for a broad spectrum of employees, and ability to quantify responses which can facilitates comparisons between groups. The disadvantages of these methods include the fact that; not everybody may be honest and straightforward when answering the questionnaire. The reliability and validity of the questionnaire and whether it is able to measure job satisfaction consistently and as well as whether it measures what it is supposed to measure are all called into question. Finally, the distortion of results due to wording of the questionnaire and the choice of topics contained in it are also negative consequences of this style of measurement tool.

The critical incidents technique is another approach that can be used in measuring job satisfaction. With this approach employees are requested to focus their attention on some situation or incident (McKenna 2000:278). For example, employees are asked to relate what they like or dislike about a particular aspect of their job. The next step is to have content of this specific job related information analysed in order to identify factors that can either cause job satisfaction or prevent it. The critical incidents technique has got an advantage in that respondents have greater freedom to express themselves, which is not the case with rating scales (McKenna 2000:278). However, the disadvantage of this approach is that it is time consuming in comparison to the rating scale approach.

Another approach to measuring job satisfaction is the use of interviews. According to McKenna (2000:280) as a more open ended approach than critical incidents interviews
offer the interviewee wider scope in terms of responses. Furthermore, the interviewer can probe because he or she has the opportunity to ask questions and seek clarification on responses and observations that are unclear. However, the short coming of this technique is that it is time consuming and is subject to interview bias which can arise when the interviewer’s preconceptions concerning the issue raised, and misunderstanding of the responses, contaminate the outcome.

2.6.2 Instruments used for measuring job satisfaction
This section of the study discusses the measuring instruments of job satisfaction. Examples of these instruments include the Job Description Index, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, Job In General Scale, and Job Satisfaction Survey.

2.6.2.1 Job Description Index (JDI)
The JDI is one of the most widely used job satisfaction measures (Gregoire & Jungers 2007:484). According to Spector (1997:12) the JDI questionnaire was developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin in 1967. The key characteristics of the JDI instrument is that it uses 72 items to measure work on present job, present pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision and coworkers. The items are measured on a five point likert scale. Another key characteristic of the JDI is that it allows for testing in several languages and dialects (Gregoire & Jungers, 2007:485). The JDI is also seen as a reliable and valid job satisfaction measure (Almost & Doran, 2005:309). In a study conducted by Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek & Frings-Dresen (2003:191), on the reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction, the results of the study by Van Saane et al.
(2003:191) indicate that JDI is reliable in measuring job satisfaction. The instrument recorded an internal consistency of 0.84 to 0.90 in a homogeneous population of accountants and 0.81 in a heterogeneous population. The test retest reliability in a heterogeneous population ranged from 0.62 to 0.79. Similarly, Almost and Doran (2005:309) reported that the reliability scales of the instrument in nursing studies were consistently high and ranged from 0.69 to 0.93. In terms of validity, Van Saane et al. (2003:191) in a heterogeneous population reported a convergent validity of 0.49 to 0.70. These figures indicate that the instrument has a good validity rate.

2.6.2.2 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The MSQ is another satisfaction questionnaire that has been popular among researchers (Spector 1997:13). According to Fields (2002:15) the questionnaire was developed by Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist in 1976. Spector (1997:13) reports that the MSQ comes in two forms, a 100 item long version and a 20 item short version. The long version consists of five facets per item whilst the short form consists of only one. According to Spector (1997:13) the MSQ contains questions on both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of the job. The questions are measured on a five point likert scale. The MSQ is a measure of job satisfaction with established reliability and construct validity. According to Fields (2002:7) in terms of reliability, coefficient alpha values for the 20 item MSQ ranged from 0.85 to 0.91. Furthermore, Fields (2002:7) state that coefficient alpha values for intrinsic satisfaction ranged from 0.82 to 0.86. Similarly, for extrinsic satisfaction, Fields (2002:7) state that coefficient alpha values ranged from 0.70 to 0.82. Lastly, in terms of validity, Fields (2002:7) reported that job satisfaction correlated
positively with life satisfaction, non work satisfaction, job involvement and performance expectancy.

2.6.2.3 The Job In General Scale (JIG)

According to Spector (1997:18) the Job In General Scale was designed to assess overall job satisfaction rather than facets. Its forma is the same as the JDI and it contains 18 items. Each item is an adjective or phrase about the job in general rather than a facet. The total score is a combination of all items. Spector (1997:18) adds that the JIG instrument has high internal consistency reliability. The internal consistency reliabilities coefficients ranges from 0.91 to 0.95 across several samples. According to Spector (1997:18), in terms of validity the JIG correlated well with other global measures of job satisfaction. For example, Spector (1997:18) found a 0.78 correlation of the JIG with the JDI work scale, and with the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) with a correlation of 0.53.

2.6.3.4 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The JSS is a multidimensional instrument that was originally developed for the social service sector (Van Saane, et al., 2003:191). The response format of the instrument is a six point likert scale ranging from ‘disagree very much’ (1) to ‘agree very much’ (6). According to Spector (1997:11) the JSS has proven to be a reliable instrument. The instrument recorded test retest reliabilities of 0.34 to 0.74. Van Saane et al. (2003:191) found that in terms of validity there was convergent validity between JSS and the JDI. Similarly, Spector (1997:11) reports that the JSS is proven to correlate with a number of
scales and variables that have been shown in literature to correlate with other job satisfaction scales. These include job characteristics as assessed with the JDS (Spector 1997:11). The job characteristics ranged from age, organisational level, absence, organisational commitment, leadership practices, intentions to quit the job and turnover.

**2.6.3.5 The Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)**

The Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975:159) is an instrument that was developed to measure the effects of job characteristics on people (Spector 1997:17). The instrument contains subscales to the measure nature of the job and job tasks, motivation, personality, psychological states (cognitions and feelings about the tasks), and reaction to the job. According to Chelladurai (2006:279) in the JDS respondents express their satisfaction with the aspects of their job by responding on a seven point scale ranging from extremely dissatisfied to extremely satisfied. The JDS is also seen as a reliable instrument (Spector 1997:17). Miner (2007:60) reports that the instrument reported reliabilities of individual scales ranging from 0.56 to 0.88 with a mean of 0.72. In terms of validity, Miner (2007:60) reports that the instrument does not discriminate between different jobs. In their study, on reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction, Van Saane *et al.* (2003:191) found convergent validity of the JDS ranging from 0.32 to 0.71 and discriminant validity ranging from 0.12 to 0.28. These figures indicate that the JDS has a good validity rate.
2.7 Consequences of job satisfaction

This section of the chapter reviews literature related to consequences of job satisfaction. Examples of such consequences include pro-union voting, quality of life, life satisfaction, commitment, organisational citizenship behavior, performance and withdrawal behavior such as, absenteeism and turnover.

2.7.1 Pro-union voting

In their own study, Kreitner and Kinicki (1995:163) revealed that there is a significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and pro-union voting. According to them people tend to vote for unions when they are dissatisfied with their jobs. In this regard if organisations want to maintain a non-unionized status they should monitor their employee satisfaction levels since union activities such as invoking industrial action disrupts productivity in the workplace.

2.7.2 Quality of work life

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1995:163) job satisfaction has important implications for an individual as it affects his or her quality of work life. Kreitner and Kinicki (1995:163) define quality of work life as the overall quality of an individual's experience at work. They argue that job satisfaction is associated with increased heart disease, increased stress and poor mental health. Bowling (2007:167) argues that work stress is theoretically and empirically related to job satisfaction and may cause mental and physical illness. According to Bowling (2007:167) research and theory on work stress suggest that work stress is a result of work stressors such as; role ambiguity and role
conflict, role overload, organisational constraints, work-family conflict and interpersonal conflict which are all negatively associated with job satisfaction. Management in organisations must be concerned about the welfare of their employees. If work stress is positively related to mental and physical illnesses, removing such negative work related outcomes by improving job satisfaction ensures non disruption in productivity, through factors such as absenteeism in the form of sick leave and employee turnover.

2.7.3 Organisational commitment

According to Robbins et al. (2003:192) organisational commitment refers to the degree to which an individual identifies with his or her organisation of employment. Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982:82) argue that organisational commitment affects an organisation in many ways. From the perspective of society, if low levels of commitment affect a large number of organisations, the level of productivity, as well as the quality of services produced will be negatively affected. Furthermore, a committed workforce reduces costs to an organisation which are brought about by activities such as absenteeism and turnover. Feinstein and Vondrasek (2001:6) provide contextual differences between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. According to Feinstein and Vondrasek (2001:6), commitment is a more global response to an organisation and job satisfaction is a response to specific or various facets of the job. Job satisfaction is an attitude towards work related conditions, facets or aspects of the job. Whereas commitment suggests more of an attachment to the employing organisation as opposed to specific tasks, environmental factors and the location where the duties are performed (Mowday, et al., 1982:82). When discussed on these terms
commitment should be consistent with job satisfaction over time. Furthermore, Mowday et al. (1982:82) argue that although day to day events in the workplace may affect an employee’s job satisfaction levels, such transitory events should not cause an employee to seriously re-evaluate his or her attachment to the overall organisation.

Considerable research has been done to ascertain the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Several researchers, for example, (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974:603; Price, 1977:56; Rose, 1991:104) have made the case that job satisfaction is a predictor of organisational commitment. However, some researchers such as Bateman and Strasser (1984:95) have also suggested an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment by claiming that it is organisational commitment which results in job satisfaction. In their study, of the causal relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, Vandernberg and Lance (1992:235) suggested four hypotheses: that job satisfaction causes organisational commitment; organisational commitment causes satisfaction; satisfaction and commitment are reciprocally related and that no causal relationship exists between the two. Vandernberg and Lance (1992:235) found that job satisfaction is a strong antecedent of organisational commitment, while the results supported the idea that organisational commitment is casually antecedent to job satisfaction. Although research is yet to provide a substantive direction of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, it is imperative that this relationship be determined since organisations stand to benefit most from having a committed
workforce. This would reduce high rates of absenteeism and turnover which result in excessive costs and a decrease in productivity that most organisations cannot afford.

### 2.7.4 Organisational citizenship behaviour

Another important consequence of job satisfaction similar to organisational commitment is organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). According to Robbins (2005:2) OCB refers to discretionary behaviour that is not part of an employee’s formal requirement but which nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. OCB is a phenomenon that has got five behaviours in it which includes altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, sportsmanship and conscientiousness. These behaviours lubricate the social machinery of the organisation and provide the flexibility needed to work through many unforeseen contingencies (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine & Bachrach 2000:546).

The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour has received a great deal of attention from many researchers for example, (Koys, 2001:101; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993:1). According to Foote and Li-Ping Tang (2008:933) the reciprocal relationship between job satisfaction and OCB makes it unlikely that researchers will be able to conclusively determine the direction of causality between job satisfaction and OCB in the near future. Directional causality remains uncertain, but ample evidence indicates that such a relationship does exist, and it can be concluded that job satisfaction is likely to be highest in organisations where OCB is prevalent (Murphy et al., 2002:289).
According to Murphy et al. (2002:289) OCB maximizes, and promotes, the effective functioning of an organisation. It contributes to organisational effectiveness through its impact on the context in which the task is performed. Organisational citizenship behaviours are important and desirable for an organisation in relation to the extent to which they achieve results such as more effective communication which allows for best practices to be shared among the work groups (De Groot & Brownlee 2006:1118). While constructive change oriented communication contributes towards organisational effectiveness, LePine and Van Dyne (2001:327) argue that the presence of OCB in an organisation can increase effectiveness through mechanisms such as increased managerial and co-worker productivity, more effective use of scarce resources and increased organisational effectiveness. Managers therefore must be worried about the availability of job satisfaction since it is an important antecedent to behaviour such as OCB which results in organisational effectiveness. According to Anderson (2001:35), Herzberg (1959) argues that to ensure job satisfaction organisations should provide both intrinsic and extrinsic factors of job satisfaction and motivation for their employees. Such intrinsic factors include recognition, autonomy and responsibility, whilst extrinsic factors include supervision, good interpersonal relationships and conducive organisational policies. Thus, to ensure the prevalence of OCB in the workplace managers must ensure that their employees are satisfied with their jobs.

### 2.7.5 Performance

The relationship between job satisfaction and performance has been an issue of continued debate and controversy in the field of industrial psychology for many years.
There has been considerable debate on whether job satisfaction causes performance or whether performance causes satisfaction. Schermerhorn et al. (2004:101) assert that research indicates that no simple and direct link exists between individual job satisfaction at one point in time and work performance at another point. According to Bowling (2007:167) most business managers traditionally think that job satisfaction is key in determining job performance with the prevailing thought being that if you are satisfied with your work, you will perform better than someone who is not happy at work. However, this has been contested by various scholars. Bowling (2007:167) states that satisfaction does not cause performance. A cause and effect relationship does not exist between job satisfaction and performance. Instead, the two are related because both satisfaction and performance are a result of employee personality characteristics such as self esteem, emotional stability, extroversion and conscientiousness.

On the other hand, Robbins et al. (2003:77) argue that if we move away from the individual level to that of the organisation, there is renewed support of the original notion that job satisfaction causes performance. Robbins et al. (2003:77), explains that when satisfaction and productivity data are gathered for the organisation as a whole, rather than at an individual level, research has found that organisations with more satisfied employees tend to be more effective than organisations with less satisfied employees. The performance of an organisation is important in that it determines its survival. To ensure survival managers must make sure that their employees experience job satisfaction. Managers can carry out job satisfaction surveys so that they are able to determine what it is that their employees think about their present workplace situation.
and how it can be improved. This can go a long way in maintaining satisfaction levels which result in increased organisational performance.

2.7.6 Withdrawal behaviours

Many theories hypothesize that many people who dislike jobs will avoid them either permanently by quitting or temporarily by absenting (Borda & Norman, 1997:789). Withdrawal behaviour is referred to as behaviour through which employees remove themselves from the workplace, either temporarily or permanently (Saal & Knight, 1988:243). Research on workplace withdrawal behaviours has mainly focused on two important behaviours notably; absenteeism and turnover. These two have been focused on because they both involve withdrawal from work and stem from the underlying motivation to escape a dissatisfying job (Cohen & Golan 2007:416).

2.7.6.1 Absenteeism

The relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism has had mixed reactions in the field of industrial psychology. Research has produced differing results regarding this relationship. Some researchers have found that the relationship between these two concepts is relatively strong while others say that it is weak. Luthans (1995:129) found that there is a relatively strong relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. Luthans (1995:129) found that the conditions that influence absenteeism generally also influence satisfaction and other moderating variables, such as the degree to which people feel that their jobs are important. Absenteeism from the workplace has negative impact on productivity. Managers therefore are tasked with ensuring that their
subordinates are satisfied with their jobs since disruption of productivity hinders organisational effectiveness.

However, other researchers have found that the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism is weak. According to Jex (2002:126) empirical research provides a weak support for the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. For example, in their meta analysis of 31 studies Hacket and Guion, (1985:340) found a marginal correlation of 0.9 between job satisfaction and absenteeism which suggests that the relationship between the two is weak. They also offer a number of explanations for the weak relation between job satisfaction and absenteeism. One of the reasons they outlined was of the measurement of absenteeism itself. They argued that although, at first glance, absenteeism appears to be a rather simple variable, it is actually complex. For example, when measuring absences, one can distinguish between excused absences and unexcused absences. Excused absences would be allowed for events such as illnesses and funerals. Unexcused absences are those moments when employees would simply not show up for work. In this regard one could argue that job satisfaction would be more likely to play a critical role in unexcused absences than in excused absences.

2.7.6.2 Turnover

Turnover is defined as the voluntary separation of an individual from an organisation (Cohen & Golan, 2007:432). It involves people terminating their contract of employment. Employee turnover disrupts organisational continuity and brings with it costs to said
organisation. Such costs may include recruitment costs, training costs and waste and scrap rate costs of new employees. Job satisfaction has been identified as a major determinant of employee turnover (Cohen & Golan, 2007:432). Apart from job satisfaction other factors have also been identified as important in determining employees’ intentions to permanently leave the organisation. According to Robbins et al. (2003:79) such factors include labour market conditions, expectations about alternative job opportunities and length of tenure with the organisation.

According to Wood, Wallace, Zeffene, Fromholtz and Morrison (2001:114) job satisfaction affects an employee’s intentions to leave the organisation. They argued that satisfied employees are less likely to leave the organisation whilst dissatisfied employees are more likely to leave. Spector (1997:226) also argues that, studies have been reasonably consistent in showing a correlation between job satisfaction and turnover and in this regard employees with low satisfaction are therefore more likely to quit their jobs. In this regard managers should ensure that their employees are satisfied with their job to such an extent that they would not think about leaving the organisation. According to Herzberg (1959), in Anderson (2001:38), the provision of both intrinsic and extrinsic sources of satisfaction are imperative in determining an individual's satisfaction level. Such intrinsic and extrinsic sources can be in the form of recognition, praise, authority, conducive working environment, clear and unambiguous organisational policies and good interpersonal relationships.
In view of the above argument that job satisfaction is inversely related to turnover, Robbins et al. (2003:79) argue that evidence indicates that an important moderator of the satisfaction/turnover relationship is the employee’s level of performance. Specifically, level of performance is less important in predicting turnover for superior performers. This is so because the organisation would make considerable efforts to keep these people. They would get rewards such as pay raises, praise, recognition, increased promotional opportunities, etc. Robbins et al. (2003:79) argues that the opposite tends to apply for poor performers. Few attempts would be made by the organisation to retain these employees. There may even be stubble pressure to encourage them to leave. In this regard, Robbins et al. (2003:79) argue that we would therefore expect that job satisfaction will be more important in influencing poor performers to stay than superior performers. However, Robbins et al. (2003:79) argue that, regardless of satisfaction, superior performers are more likely to remain with the organisation because they receive recognition, praise and other rewards which give them reasons to remain with the organisation. Managers should therefore continue to intrinsically motivate their employees since it encourages them to stay with the organisation.

From another perspective, Josias (2005:78) argues that a major controlling factor in the satisfaction and turnover relationship is the prevalence of unemployment generally. It is maintained that the more difficult it is to get a job the less likely that one would think of quitting or resigning. Rusbult and Farrel (1993:429) support this argument by saying that when making turnover decisions, employees weigh the rewards and costs
associated with the current job. They measure their material and psychological investment and assess the quality of alternative employment.

2.8 Concluding remarks

The present chapter presents an overview of the concept of job satisfaction. The chapter first discussed various definitions that explain job satisfaction. It then went on to examine theories that provided guidelines to the concept of job satisfaction. Many of the theories were drawn from motivational theories and these were divided into content and process theories. Facets of job satisfaction were also examined. The facets were divided into intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors of job satisfaction. In relation to intrinsic factors of job satisfaction, factors such as the work itself, recognition and promotional opportunities were discussed. With regard to extrinsic factors, facets such as supervision, company policies and working conditions among others were discussed. The chapter also examined the consequences of job satisfaction with factors such as its impact on pro-union voting, turnover and absenteeism, commitment, life satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour being discussed. The ensuing chapter reviews literature related to the concept of organisational citizenship behavior.
CHAPTER 3

THE CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed literature on the concept of job satisfaction. In the chapter, various definitions that explain the concept were discussed. The chapter also examined the various theories that explain the concept of job satisfaction. Factors that influence the concept of job satisfaction and its consequences were also discussed in the chapter.

Over the years, the topic of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) has generated a considerable amount of scholarly attention. This widespread interest in OCB primarily stems from the fact that OCB leads to improved organisational effectiveness (Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997:262). Ishak (2005:16) confirms this view by arguing that employees who go the extra mile by performing spontaneous behaviours that go beyond their role prescriptions are valued by their management. This phenomenon is critical for organisational effectiveness because managers cannot foresee all contingencies or fully anticipate the activities that they may desire or need employees to perform. In addition, Wyss (2006:10) notes that “an organisation which depends solely upon its blueprints of prescribed behavior is a very fragile social system.” According to Wyss (2006:10) one of the essential behaviours for a functioning organisation is “innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond role prescriptions.” In this regard, organisational citizenship behaviour as represented by
employees going beyond role prescription becomes an important determinant of organisational success.

The present chapter discusses the concept of organisational citizenship behavior, a phenomenon that involves going beyond formally prescribed roles. The discussion of the concept will focus on the concept definition, origin, dimensions, importance, theories and factors that influence the concept.

3.2 Definition of organisational citizenship behavior

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) is a concept that has been studied in a variety of domains and disciplines ranging from human resources management, marketing, economics to health care. According to Singh (2007:55) OCB is behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of an organisation. Singh (2007:55) argues that the term discretionary as used in the definition means that the behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of a person’s employment contract with the organisation. The behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable.

Following the original definition of OCB by Singh (2007:55) many new definitions of OCB have followed. For example, Lam (200:262) defines OCB as behaviours of employees as opposed to their underlying values or attitudes. It is seen as those actions
that are beyond formally prescribed roles and job descriptions, that is, extra role behavior rather than expected role behavior. In this regard, OCB is behaviour that involves employees going an extra mile in the conduct of their duties. Similarly, Schnake (1991:735) defines OCB as functional, extra-role, pro-social behavior, directed at individuals and groups in an organisation. According to Schnake (1991:735) OCB thus includes discretionary pro-social ethical behavior, such as helping newcomers to the organisation, assisting co-workers on the job, not taking unnecessary breaks, and volunteering to do things in excess of their job description.

Organ (1997:85) also describes OCB as “the good soldier syndrome” consisting of cooperative and constructive gestures that are not mandatory in role behaviours. The gestures include altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and courtesy, and are sometimes referred to as dimensions of OCB. In agreement with OCB as ‘the good soldier syndrome,’ Turnipseed and Murkinson (2000:281) argue that OCB is not prescribed role behavior, but improves the quality of performance and involvement in the organisation which in turn releases more creativity and innovation into the organisation. In this regard, OCB is an important determinant of organisational success which leaves management with the role of ensuring and maintaining its availability.

Despite, the fact that many definitions have been used to explain the concept of OCB, the behaviour can be concluded to be a matter of individual choice or group choice that involves employees going beyond formally prescribed roles. The behavior is important
to organisations as it increases their efficiency. However, for purposes of continuity this study will adopt the initial definition of OCB by Organ (1988:4).

3.3 Origins of Organisational citizenship behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as a concept is now almost 25 years old Singh (2007:55). According to Cohen and Kol (2004:386) the concept has its roots in the work of Katz and Kahn (1966:101) who identified three types of behaviours required of employees for the effective functioning of an organisation. These were the decision to join and remain in the organisation, the performance of prescribed roles in a dependable manner, and the undertaking of innovative and spontaneous activities beyond the prescribed role requirements. The last of these was termed extra-role behavior by Katz (1964:131) or OCB by Bateman and Organ (1983:587). The latter term was meant to denote organisational beneficial behaviours and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by a contractual guarantee of compensation. The term OCB was therefore first introduced by Bateman and Organ (1983:587). Organ (1988:4) originally described OCB as individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and which in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. According to Organ (1988:4) OCB is behaviour that contributes indirectly to the organisation through the maintenance of the organisation's social system. Thus, OCB consists of informal contributions that participants can choose to make, or withhold, without making considerations regarding sanctions or formal incentives. OCB therefore
derives its practical importance from the premise that it represents contributions that do not belong in formal role obligations.

According to Becton, Giles and Schraeder (2008:494), Organ’s early work has been the subject of much research and debate. Organ’s original definition prompted a debate in the literature concerning whether OCB is really distinct from in-role behaviour. Morrison (1994:1543) asserts that some researchers have argued that employees accept OCB as part of their in-role requirements even though they may believe them to be discretionary forms of behaviour that are not formally rewarded by the organisation. Subject to this debate the concept of contextual performance was later introduced to replace the OCB construct. Becton et al. (2008:494) argue that contextual performance encompasses much of the same behaviour as OCB but does not stipulate that the behaviour be discretionary and unrewarded, as OCB was originally conceptualized. Furthermore, they reason that perhaps, in response, Organ later redefined OCB to include behaviour that contributes to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance (Organ 1997:91). Although this revised definition recognizes the relevance of OCB to task performance, OCB is still primarily viewed as behaviour that is generally discretionary and less likely to be formally or explicitly rewarded in an organisation (Podsakoff, et al., 2000:513).

Becton et al. (2008:494) also assert that additional research has been conducted to further refine and define the citizenship behaviour construct. Becton et al. (2008:494) argue that some researchers focused on developing new frameworks which incorporate
alternative constructs such as pro-social behaviour, organisational spontaneity and contextual performance (Coleman & Borman, 2000:25; Podsakoff, et al., 2000:513). On the other hand, other researchers have concentrated on redefining the OCB construct, especially concerning its discretionary nature (Morrison, 1994:1543; Tepper, Lockhart & Hoobler 2001:789). Williams and Anderson (1991:601) suggest that OCB could be distilled down to two dimensions that is citizenship behaviour focused towards an individual, and that which incorporates behaviour targeted at the organisation or unit. Within this context the true nature of OCB can be concluded to be elusive and more research must be done to determine its true nature.

Lievens and Anseel (2004:229) posit that research on OCB has benefited greatly from Organ's (1988:4) conceptualization of OCB as consisting of five distinct factors which are sometimes referred to as the dimensions of OCB. These factors consist of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue and courtesy. However, it is important to note that research on these dimensions is still ongoing in the field of organisational behaviour with different scholars coming up with their own dimensions. This study will however, focus specifically on Organ’s (1988:4) dimensions of OCB.

### 3.4 Dimensions of Organisational Citizenship behaviour

According to Moorman (1993:759) organisational citizenship behavior consists of a wide range of behaviours. The behaviours are not requirements as part of a specific job description. They are generally not rewarded when undertaken nor is there any reprimand if they are not undertaken. Thus OCB is not enforceable by law but is a
matter of choice. The wide range of behaviours that are encapsulated in the term OCB are also known as dimensions of OCB. These include altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy and sportsmanship.

- **Altruism:** According to Organ (1997:85) altruism is defined as all the ‘discretionary behaviours that have the effect of helping a specific other person with an organisationally relevant task or problem’. Werner (2007:337) argues that it involves voluntary action that helps fellow employees with work related problems. For example, helping fellow employees with incomplete work, finding information related to their jobs and helping fellow employees use new equipment.

- **Civic virtue:** Allison, Voss and Dryer (2001:285) state that this involves participation in and support of organisational functioning of both a professional and social nature. In general, it involves protecting the organisation’s best interests. Examples of this would include, participating in organisational policy making, attending optional meetings and attending company sponsored events.

- **Conscientiousness:** According to Tayyab (2005:54) this is discretionary behavior by an employee that goes above and beyond the minimal requirement of the organisation. For example, arrive at work early and leave late, avoiding unnecessary breaks, being punctual, making constructive suggestions and completing tasks before they are due are all markers of employee conscientiousness.
Courtesies: According to Werner (2007:336) courtesy involves a discretionary act of thoughtfulness and considerate behaviour that prevents work related problems for others. For example, notifying the employer if one is going to be late or absent, notifying colleagues before you do things that will affect them and informing colleagues of delays in work progress.

Sportsmanship: This involves the willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions at the workplace without complaining and keeping a positive attitude, for instance, not complaining about working conditions to complete a project, working conditions that are uncomfortable but not dangerous and having a deadline brought forward (Allison, et al., 2001:285).

From the discussion above it is imperative to note that research on these dimensions is still ongoing in the field of industrial psychology, therefore, consensus surrounding their nature is still elusive.

3.5 Importance of OCB to an organisation

Organisational citizenship behavior has been such a pervasive phenomenon in both research and practice that several meta-analyses have been conducted on the subject (Comeau & Griffith, 2005:310). The persistence with which OCB has been studied illustrates the important effect that this behavior has on research and practice, and the extent to which management views the concept as important. Murphy et al. (2002:287) reason that this kind of behaviour is important for the growth and success of an organisation. This is because OCB is important in determining the effectiveness, efficiency and productivity of the organisation (Murphy, et al., 2002:287).
According to Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2005:199) one way in which organisational citizenship behavior might increase the efficiency of an organisation is by enhancing employee productivity. For example, experienced employees voluntarily helping new employees learn about the activities in the organisation enable the workers to become productive employees by improving their efficiency. This also enhances the efficiency of the entire work group. Borman and Motowildo (1997:99) also argue that OCB may enhance the efficiency of an organisation by freeing up various types of resources for more productive purposes. They argue that employees who help each other with work related problems enable their superiors to spend more time on more productive business. For example, managers can devote their time to strategic planning, improving business processes and securing valuable resources for production. Likewise, Organ et al. (2005:203) assert that employees who are conscientious free up their manager’s time because the manager can delegate more responsibilities to them and they require less supervision.

According to Organ (1988:4), OCB may also improve an organisations’ performance by reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions and helping to coordinate the activities of work groups. According to Organ (1997:85) a natural by-product of courtesy and sportsmanship is that they enhance team spirit, morale and cohesiveness, thus reducing the need for group members or managers to spend energy and time on group maintenance functions. Additionally, Organ et al. (2005:204) argue that not creating problems for others, that is civic virtue, and exhibiting sportsmanship reduces intergroup conflict and diminishes the need to spend time on
conflict management activities. Organ et al. (2005:204) further assert that the coordination of activities among group members and between work groups may also improve when employees voluntarily attend and actively participate in work unit meetings or when they touch base with members of their team or members of other groups to avoid creating problems for those workers.

George and Battenhausen (1990:698) argue that OCB may improve efficiency of an organisation by enabling the organisation to attract and retain the best employees. They argue that many of the best employees and best candidates enjoy working in a positive environment with a closely knit group of co-workers. When employees endorse and promote the organisation outside and contribute to its reputation the organisation will seem more attractive to good job candidates. In concurrence, Organ et al. (2005:204) notes that helpful behavior may directly contribute to such an environment by enhancing moral and fostering group cohesiveness and a sense of belonging to a team, thus making the organisation a more attractive place to work. Furthermore, they note that when employees exhibit sportsmanship by refraining from trivial issues, they set an example of putting the interests of the work unit or group ahead of their own selfish interests thus strengthening a sense of loyalty and commitment to the organisation.

Organisational citizenship behavior may also help enhance an organisation’s ability to adapt to changing environments (Organ, et al., 2005:205). For example, when employees in close contact with the market environment volunteer information about the changes in the environment and make suggestions on how the organisation can
respond to the changes in the environment. Organ et al. (2005:205) argue that when workers voluntarily attend and actively participate in meetings they may enhance an organisation’s responsiveness by aiding the dissemination of valuable information. In addition, when employees demonstrate the willingness to take new responsibilities (sportsmanship) or learn new skills (self development), they may enhance the organisation’s ability to adapt to changes in its environment.

Begum (2005:456) argues that OCB maximizes the efficiency and productivity of both subordinates and the organisation. At subordinate level, Podsakoff et al. (1997:262) demonstrated that OCB helps new employees become productive faster, and helps to spread 'best practices' in organisations, thus enhancing the performance of those who learn these best practices. Cooper and Barling (2008:114) argue that at an organisational level research has shown that OCB is significantly related to customer service quality and sales performance as well as performance quality and quantity. In an attempt to explain how OCB contributes to organisational efficiency through customer service quality and performance quality, Begum (2005:456) argues that OCB impacts positively on an employee’s quality of work, which also has an impact on the quality of service and customer loyalty of the organisation. Similarly, Kelley and Hoffman (1997:407) claim that OCB improve the performance of an organisation through increased customer loyalty. They point out that a positive relationship exists between OCB and customer loyalty for organisations. According to Kelley and Hoffman (1997:407) the ground of such organisational success depends on a positive
relationship between employees and the organisation. That is, the organisation must meet the needs of its employees for it to be successful through its employees.

3.6 Theories of Organisational Citizenship behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour is a concept that is still being researched in the field of Industrial Psychology. Many theories have attempted to provide an explanation for the occurrence of this concept. Examples, of these theories are the social exchange theory, psychological contract theory, impression management theory, identity mechanism theory, leader member exchange theory, path goal theory and the expectancy theory.

3.6.1 Social exchange theory

Greenberg and Scott (1996:129) assert that the social exchange theory is most commonly used by researchers in predicting work behaviours in the field of organisational behaviour. The theory proposes that employees exhibit positive or negative behaviour as a response to the treatment they receive from their employers. According to Greenberg and Scott (1996:129) the central aspect of this theory is the norm of reciprocity. A strong social exchange relationship between the employer and employee will help maintain positive working relationships and would elicit positive sentiments such as satisfaction, commitment and trust in employees which in turn will move employees to engage themselves in OCB. Thus, employers need to treat their employees fairly such that they can reciprocate the good gesture in the form of
behaviour such as organisational citizenship behaviour which contributes to organisational effectiveness.

The social exchange theory also has its fair share of criticism. Miller (2005:88) argues that the theory reduces human interaction to a purely rational process that arises from economic needs. Miller (2005:88) further contends that the theory favours openness as it was developed in the 1970s when ideas of freedom and openness were preferred, but there may be times when openness is not the best option in a relationship.

3.6.2 The Psychological Contract Theory

The psychological contract theory explains a two way exchange process of perceived promises and obligations between employees and their employers. According to Armstrong (2006:226) it is an open ended agreement about what the individual and the organisation expect to give and receive in return in the employment relationship. The contract represents a dynamic and reciprocal deal. Armstrong (2006:226) posits that the theory holds that employees expect to be treated fairly as human beings, to be provided with work that uses their abilities, to be rewarded equitably according to their contribution, to be able to display competence, to have opportunities for further growth, to know what is expected of them and to be given feedback on how well they are doing. On the other hand, employers expect employees to do their best on behalf of the organisation, to put themselves out for the organisation, to be fully committed to its values, to be compliant and loyal and to enhance the image of the organisation to its customers and suppliers. Bratton and Gold (2007:15) contend that at the heart of the
psychological contract theory is an exchange of individual employee commitment, motivation and task performance beyond expected outcomes by the organisation. According to Lam (2001:262) these actions which are beyond formally prescribed roles and job descriptions that is extra role behavior rather than role behavior is what is called OCB. This is important in organisations because it brings about organisational success through efficient use of resources.

3.6.3 Identity mechanism theory

Another theoretical explanation for OCB is based on an identification mechanism. According to the theory employees engage in OCB because they incorporate the organisation into their social identity (Chattopadhyay 1999:273). Thus behaviours that benefit the organisation, such as OCB, are seen to benefit the self. Coyle, Kessler and Purcell (2004:85) argue that identification with the organisation leads to the internalization of the organisation’s goals, and as a result individuals broaden the definition of inrole performance to include OCB. Thus effort directed towards preserving, supporting, and improving the organisation proceeds naturally from the congruence between a member’s self-definition and the organisation’s definition. In this regard, organisational identification aligns individual interests and behaviours with interests and behaviours that benefit the organisation. Organisations therefore need to provide conducive working conditions to their employee’s which would enable them to incorporate the organisation into their social system to such an extent that they are able to align their interests and behaviours with the values of the organisation. This ultimately results in displaying of behavior such as OCB that benefit the organisation.
3.6.4 Impression management theory

The impression management theory is another theory that provides an explanation for the concept of OCB. Like the social exchange and identity mechanism theory, the impression management theory explains OCB with reference to an employee’s ongoing relationship with the organisation (www.changingminds.org). According to Bolino (1999:82) the theory holds that OCB is spurred by strategic reasons as employees seek to improve their future prospects in the organisation. Thus OCB is seen as part of employees’ attempts to influence the images others have of them, increase performance evaluation ratings, and enhance promotion opportunities.

3.6.5 Leader Member Exchange Theory

According to Organ et al. (2005:55) the leader member exchange theory is based on the leader’s style. It encompasses how supportive the leader is, to what extent the leader provides structure to and of clarity the roles and expected behaviours of group members and how much participation the leader provides for subordinate input. Organ et al. (2005:95), contend that the assumption in leadership theory and research is that a leader actually has a specific style that he or she uses towards a group as a whole and that leader effectiveness could be explained in terms of that style. Organ et al. (2005:95) reason that if leader behaviour is some function of the subordinate’s abilities and attitudes and if subordinates vary demonstrably in such abilities and attitudes then the leader will not enact one style, but different styles with different subordinates. Furthermore, leaders have a very good reason to vary those styles with different group members as leaders can seldom fulfil their responsibilities if all group members do what
is minimally required and enforceable. Leaders need a greater degree of contribution that some members are able and willing to provide. To induce such contributions the leader has to provide such members more than he or she is bound by formalities to offer. Therefore the leader makes a distinction between hired “hands” and “cadres”. With hired hands the leader maintains a contractual relationship: the leader gets minimum required input from the subordinates and provides them with what he or she as a supervisor is supposed to give. On the other hand, Organ et al. (2005:95) contend that with cadres the leader essentially negotiates what he or she is willing to offer, for example, more discretion in task assignments, more input in workplace decisions, and access to additional organisational resources such as training or sponsorship of conferences in exchange for the subordinate’s contribution beyond the strictest definition of the job. This extra contribution by cadres is what is called OCB. Managers can adopt this leadership approach because it promotes organisational effectiveness through quick attainment of organisational goals as the workload is reduced on part of the managers. This leadership approach is also important to employees in that it intrinsically motivates them.

Van Breukelen, Schyns and Le Blanc (2006:295) contend that the main challenge for the Leader Member Exchange theory is to gain more insight into the mutual behaviours, attributions, and evaluations which facilitate or inhibit the development of high-quality working relationships.
### 3.6.6 Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership has also been used to explain the concept of OCB. The theory was developed to describe the way in which leaders encourage and support their subordinates in achieving set goals by making the path that they should take clear and easy (www.changingminds.org). In particular, leaders clarify the path that subordinates take, remove roadblocks that are stopping their progression and increase the rewards along the route. Organ et al. (2005:95) asserts that the Path-Goal Theory is based on the application of the expectancy theory model of motivation. The expectancy theory reiterates that people choose the level of effort they wish to exert at work, based on their assessment that increased effort will lead to increased performance which in turn will lead to increased rewards. Organ et al. (2005:95), note that the motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for their goal attainment and making the path to their payoff easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route. Thus effective leaders are those who motivate subordinates by clarifying the paths by which subordinates can attain their goals and increasing personal outcomes when these goals have been reached.

House (www.changingminds.org) identified four types of leadership behaviours that fit within the Path-Goal Framework. These include supportive leadership, directive leadership, participative leadership and achievement oriented leadership. Supportive leadership involves considering the needs of the subordinate, showing concern for their welfare and creating a friendly working environment. This entails increasing the
subordinate’s self-esteem and making the job more interesting. This approach is best when the work is stressful, boring or hazardous (www.changingminds.org).

Directive leadership involves telling subordinates what needs to be done and giving appropriate guidance along the way. This includes giving them schedules of specific tasks to be completed at specific times. Rewards may also be increased as needed and role ambiguity decreased by telling them what they should be doing. Participative leadership involves consulting with subordinates and taking their ideas into account when making decisions and taking certain actions. The participative leadership approach is best when subordinates are experts and their advice is both needed and they expect to be able to give it. The achievement oriented leadership involves setting challenging goals. In this case, both the leader and subordinate are involved in the setting of the goals. With the achievement oriented leadership, high standards are demonstrated and expected. The leader shows faith in the capabilities of the subordinate to succeed and is best used when the task is complex. The Path-Goal theory can also be presented diagrammatically as illustrated in Figure 1.
According to Organ et al. (2005:95) the relationship between leader support and OCB is not part of the original Path Goal Theory. Schnake et al. (1995:209) have argued that directive and supportive leadership behaviours may influence OCB because they are likely to be perceived by employees as helpful behaviours on the part of the leader that employees would feel obligated to reciprocate. Supportive leadership may be viewed by employees as helpful because it indicates that the leader is concerned with employee’s welfare. Directive leadership maybe viewed as helpful because it reduces that uncertainty about how employees can do their jobs. Schnake (1991:735) further argues that because these behaviours are beneficial to employees and reduce uncertainty they...
might cause employees to like their supervisor more, which in turn would make the employees want to help the supervisor in any way that they can, including going beyond what is required of them. When employees go beyond what is required of them the displayed behavior is what is called OCB, and is of benefit to the organisation in that it leads to the efficient utilization of resources. Supervisors can be encouraged to adopt such leadership styles since they result in organisational effectiveness and efficiency through the full utilization of resources when employees reciprocate their good treatment by going beyond the call of duty.

3.6.7 Expectancy Theory
Another theory that seems to explain the concept of OCB is the expectancy theory. Armstrong (2006: 226) argues that the concept of expectancy was originally contained in the valence- instrumentality- expectancy theory by Victor Vroom in 1964. According to Armstrong (2006:226) valence stands for value, instrumentality is the belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another and expectancy is the belief that action or effort will lead to an outcome. The theory holds that individuals choose between alternatives which involve uncertain outcomes. The individual’s behavior is not only affected by his preferences amongst these outcomes but also by the degree to which the individual believes the outcomes to be possible. Armstrong (2006:226) defines expectancy as a monitory belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome. According to Armstrong (2006:226) expectancies may be described in terms of their strength. Maximum strength is indicated by subjective certainty that the act will be followed by the outcome, while minimal strength is indicated by subjective
certainty that the act will not be followed by the outcome. The strength of expectations
may be based on past experiences, for example, the idea that employees who go
beyond the call of duty are rewarded. In these circumstances motivation to perform will
be increased. To maintain such employee performance at the workplace managers
should reward their employees in accordance with their contribution. This will motivate
the employee to continue performing and even go beyond the call of what they are
expected to do.

The expectancy theory has also made some important contributions to motivation
theories. Unlike other theories, the expectancy theory takes into account individual
perceptions and thus personal histories, allowing a richness of response not obvious in
other theories which assume that people are essentially the same. However, the
expectancy theory has also been criticised. Mitchell (2001:42) argues that the greatest
difficulty in testing the theory stems from the fact that theory is so comprehensive that it
is virtually impossible to concurrently test all aspects of the theory.

Despite the fact that numerous theories have been discussed to explain the concept of
organisational citizenship behavior, the present study adopts the social exchange theory
as the main theory guiding the concept. The social exchange theory is adopted because
it emphasizes the norm of reciprocity which explains why employees exhibit positive or
negative behaviour as a response to the treatment they receive from their employers.
The norm of reciprocity in the theory is used in this study to hypothesise that job
satisfaction correlates positively with organisational citizenship behaviour, that is, only satisfied employees would engage themselves in organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.7 Factors that influence organisational citizenship behavior

In this section of the chapter, literature related to factors influencing the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour will be discussed. Examples of these factors include mood, perceived organisational support, leader support, leadership style, organisational structure, perceptions of fairness, professionalism, personality, work related stress, motivating potential score, commitment and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the influence of demographic variables such as gender, tenure and age on organisational citizenship behavior will also be examined.

3.7.1 Mood

According to George and Forgas (2001:3) mood (or affect) within organisational settings influences both what and how employees think. They argue that mood exerts influence on, and becomes incorporated into a person’s cognitive and behavioral processes. According to Forgas and George (2001:3) mood firstly affects how employees deal with tasks, and secondly, information recall, thereby influencing organisational judgments and behaviours. William and Shiaw (1999:656) argue that employees in a positive mood have significantly higher intentions to demonstrate OCB, than other employees. Research on mood by (Carlson, Charlin & Miller, 1988:211; Schnake, 1991:735) have found that employees in a positive mood are more likely to be more helpful than their more moody counterparts. Specifically, George (1991:299) found significant correlations
between positive mood and both altruism and customer service amongst 221 salespeople. From George’s (1991:299) findings it appears that employees in a positive mood at work were more likely to engage in both role-prescribed and extra-role forms of citizenship behaviours. Similarly, George and Forgas (2001:3) gave an explanation for this relationship. They argued that positive mood causes employees to perceive co-workers in a positive light and therefore to be more attracted to them. Thus, employees who are in a positive mood look favourably to help other employees in need of help, and see it as an opportunity to assist them. In this regard, managers should make sure that employees' positive mood is maintained at the workplace. This can be achieved by creating a conducive working environment that is favourable to all the employees.

3.7.2 Perceived organisational support

Wayne, Shore and Liden (1997:82) contend that perceived organisational support is a variable that represents social exchange between the employee and the employing organisation. According to Moideenkutty (2000:1), perceived organisational support refers to the perception of employees that the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Moideenkutty (2000:1) suggest that in order to meet their needs for praise and approval, and to determine the organisation's readiness to reward greater effort to meet organisational goals, employees form global beliefs about the organisation's commitment to them. Such beliefs form the basis for perceived organisational support, which will in turn increase employees' affective commitment to the organisation and the expectancy that greater work effort will be rewarded. Affective commitment implies identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the
organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1996:252). Furthermore, Moideenkutty (2000:1) note that the belief that greater efforts will lead to rewards will help to establish trust in the long-term fairness of the organisation to recompense positive, discretionary behaviours. Thus, a positive relationship between person-organisation support and organisation directed OCB can therefore be expected. Managers should thus put in place organisational structures that facilitate the realisation of an employee’s potential. This is important in that it persuades employees to engage in discretionary behaviour with the belief that effort will lead to reward.

3.7.3 Leader support and OCB

Chen and Chiu (2008:10) define supervisor support as the degree to which supervisors value their subordinate’s contributions and care about subordinates’ well being. According to Whittington, Goodwin and Murray (2004:593) most of the studies on supervisor support uncovered similar findings by saying that high levels of supervisor support will lead to key organisational outcomes such as employees’ organisational citizenship behavior. Research has demonstrated that, in general, higher supervisor support can enhance the employee’s displays of OCB (Podsakoff, et al., 2000:513). For example, findings from a two meta analysis by LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002:52) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer (1996:259) confirm a modest positive correlation between supervisor support and OCB, indicating that supervisor support is generally helpful in motivating employees’ OCB.
In this regard, some past studies have confirmed a positive relationship between supervisor support and employee’s engagement in OCB. Chen and Chiu (2008:10) argue that literature is yet to provide evidence of the intricacies embedded within the relationship and it is yet to precisely model the process in which supervisor support leads to employees’ engagement in OCB. Some scholars have, however, tried to provide evidence to this outstanding literature. For example, in a study of 422 employees and their supervisors at two banks, Chen and Chiu (2008:10) found that supervisor support would improve job satisfaction, which would in turn increase the frequency of employees’ helping behavior. Furthermore, an investigation of 182 real-estate salespersons by Netemeyer, Boles, Mckee and Mcmurrian (1997:85) found that employees with higher supervisor support were more likely to have a higher person–organisation fit. Taken together, the above research findings demonstrate that supervisor support may enhance the performance of employees’ OCB through cognitive processes. Thus, based on these findings it can be concluded that supervisor support results in the employee’s engagement in OCB. To ensure employees’ engagement in OCB supervisors should offer support to their subordinates. The support can be tangible by providing the resources needed for production, and intangible in the form of verbal commendation such as praise.

3.7.4 Leadership style and OCB

Very little research has been conducted to ascertain the relationship between leadership style and OCB (Schnake, Dumler & Cochran 1993:352; Mester, Visser, Roodt & Killerman, 2003:79). However, these studies have produced contrasting
results. In their study on the relationship between leader behavior and OCB, Schnake et al. (1993:352) found transactional leadership characterized by limited employee discretion to make greater contribution to the prediction of OCB than super leadership characterized by employee autonomy and control. Schnake et al. (1993:352) argue that a possible reason for these results could be that the jobs in the study were all relatively low task scopes. In reaction to the study by Schnake et al. (1993:352), Mester et al. (2003:9) found the existence of a significant relationship between the transformational leadership style and OCB. Following these findings, although they produced contrasting results, it can be observed that job scope level has got a moderating effect on the relationship between leadership style and OCB. Therefore, these results indicate that for managers to attain high levels OCB from their employees they can use different leadership styles in jobs of different scope levels. For example, the leadership approach to middle level employees can be different to that of lower level employees.

### 3.7.5 Organisational structure and OCB

According to De Groot and Brownlee (2006:1116) little empirical research has been undertaken to investigate how more macro level variables such as organisational structure may affect employees’ engagement in OCB (George & Jones 1997:153). De Groot and Brownlee (2006:1116) argue that previous theoretical developments suggest that the structure of an organisation might affect the relationship in one of two ways. Firstly, structure may act as an antecedent to OCB with different levels of structure leading to higher or lower OCB levels without directly affecting organisational effectiveness. Secondly, structure may moderate the OCB organisational effectiveness
such that the presence of OCB will interact with structure promote an even greater increase in affectivity in some structures rather than others.

De Groot and Brownlee (2006:1116) define an organisational structure as a set of decisions made regarding a variety of organisational areas such as the amount of specialization necessary for tasks, the amount of autonomy present or the type of interdependencies present. However, there are several organisational structures. According to De Groot and Brownlee (2006:1116) the idle structure of an organisation is one that allows it to respond effectively to its relevant environment. The mechanistic structure is one that is efficient in stable environments where there are few unknown external contingencies that might arise and necessitate quick, decisive action (De Groot & Brownlee, 2006:1116). Jobs in mechanistic organisations are highly specialized requiring little effort, cognitive strain or group interaction. An organic structure is suitable for organisations in unstable or changing environments where continued unforeseen situations emerge that have to be addressed quickly to ensure the continuation of an organisation (De Groot & Brownlee, 2006:1116)

In their study, George and Jones (1997:153) found that OCB level is higher in less structured organic organisations than more structured, mechanistic organisations. Since mechanistic organisations are designed in a way that tends to stifle personal initiative. George and Jones (1997:164) argue that this may be the reason why there are lower levels of OCB in mechanistic structures. As opposed to mechanistic structures which tend to constrain OCB, organic structures, with loosely defined roles and high levels of
interdependence, contribute to higher levels of OCB. In view of the above, managers should put in place organisational structures that facilitates organisational effectiveness. An example of such a structure, as indicated above, is an organic structure which encourages higher levels of OCB. Literature suggests that OCB is important to organisations in that it lubricates the social machinery of an organisation, reducing friction and increasing its efficiency (Podsakoff, et al., 2000:546).

3.6.6 Perceptions of Fairness

Beugre (1998:85) asserts that the degree to which employees feel fairly treated influences their tendency to engage in extra role behaviour. Employees who are fairly treated tend to increase their citizenship behaviour compared to those who are unfairly treated. Similarly, Schnake (1991:753) argue that a general sense of fairness may lead to employees lacking concern as to whether a certain activity is required or whether they are going above and beyond the call of duty.

Several studies, for example, Kim and Mauborgne (1996:499) have found a positive relationship between perceived fairness and organisational citizenship behaviour. In their study, Kim and Mauborgne (1996:499) found that the exercise of procedural justice inspired managers to go beyond the call of duty and engage in innovative actions, spontaneous cooperation and creative behaviour on behalf of execution of decisions. Kim and Mauborgne (1996:499) also found that procedural justice was related to commitment decisions, in role decisions and extra role decisions. Similarly, Robinson and Morison (1995:289) found that employees are less likely to display civic virtue when
they felt that the organisation had failed to provide promised relational obligations such as career development and training. They argue that violation of a promise can be considered a form of unfair treatment in the sense that the injustice is rooted in the act of betrayal rather than the outcome per se.

Thus, it might be a sense of betrayal or unfair treatment that leads to erosion of trust and hence the erosion of organisationally directed organisational citizenship behavior. Beugre (1998:87) notes that this result may be interpreted in terms of the equity theory which maintains that employees would want to maintain an equitable balance between their contributions and what they receive from the organisation. When they feel that the organisation has failed to provide sufficient outputs by not fulfilling promised obligations, they may withhold their discretionary inputs. In organisations, Human Resources managers play a critical role in encouraging OCB through promoting fairness. OCB can be encouraged by designing effective appraisal systems that are perceived as equal, by carefully crafting management development programs, designing jobs that are geared towards increased employee satisfaction and commitment, and establishing fair compensation systems.

3.7.7 Professionalism and OCB

In their study, Podsakoff et al. (2000:513) found that job attitudes, task variables, various types of leader behaviours, and role perceptions appear to be more strongly related to OCB. Podskaoff et al. (2000:513) argue that some of these characteristics are inherent in the concept of professionalism. George and Jones (1997:153) explicate this
view by arguing that a person with low levels of knowledge, skill and experience may not be helpful to co-workers in providing them assistance with work tasks because a low skill level constrains his or her ability to be helpful. By contrast, a person who is knowledgeable may have many opportunities to be helpful. From another dimension, Cohen and Kol (2004:386), define professionalism as the extent to which one is committed to one's profession. Conceptually, George and Jones (1997:153) argue that an individual who experiences positive moods at work and has positive attitudes towards the organisation or the job may be more likely to perform OCB than a person with less positive workplace reactions. Similarly, a person with high levels of professionalism is also expected to perform more OCB. In view of the above arguments, management needs to maintain high levels of professionalism in their organisations so as to induce employees to engage in OCB.

3.7.8 Personality
According to Organ et al. (2005:82) the idea that personality influence performance dates back from the early 20\textsuperscript{th} century and appears to be pervasive among scholars. Personality is seen as the distinctive qualities of a person, especially those distinguishing personal characteristics that make one socially appealing (www.answers.com). Organ et al. (2005:82) postulated a framework of five personality traits that one would expect to pose much relevance for OCB. The five personality traits include agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, extraversion and intellectance. Organ et al. (2005:82) note that agreeableness is a factor that comprises friendliness, likeability and a generally easy manner of getting along with others in pleasant
relationships. People who score high on this factor are presumably predisposed to thinking well of customers, co-workers and colleagues. They argued that one would hypothesize that such persons would be inclined to offer help if the appropriate situation presented itself, to anticipate the needs of others and not to take offense easily. Thus people might reason that this factor would substantially relate to the OCB dimensions of helping, courtesy and sportsmanship.

Conscientiousness encompasses the personal traits of dependability, painfulness, self discipline and perseverance. Organ et al. (2005:82) assert that one might link these characteristics to the more impersonal forms of OCB, such as generalised compliance and possibly civic virtue. They argued that behaviours which fall into the civic virtue category such as punctuality, good attendance, unerringly the following rules of the work group, governance and principled conduct could be considered conscientiousness behaviour.

Organ et al. (2005:82) also note that neuroticism which is sometimes referred to as emotional stability; extraversion and intellectance or openness to experience does not have discernible relations with OCB. The case for relating either neuroticism or extraversion to OCB is not straight forward as compared to agreeableness and consciousness, but some considerations lead us to think that there might be some relation. For example, because emotionally unstable individuals tend to be more preoccupied with their problems they may not have the psychic stamina to attend to the problems of others therefore they might help their co-workers less than their emotionally
stable counterparts. In contrast, extraverts tend to be more responsive to social stimulation and to have wider circles of friends and acquaintances so they could present or create more opportunities for providing help than introverts would. They would also derive some gratification from doing so.

However, in their meta analysis study, Organ and Ryan (1995:776) found out that personality measures are weaker predictors of OCB. They found out that plausibly agreeableness, emotional stability and extroversion failed to correlate with any dimension of OCB significantly but conscientiousness correlated with OCB. From the findings by Organ and Ryan (1995:776) it can be said that personality is a weaker predictor of OCB. However, more research should be conducted in relation to this relationship to validate the results of the study by Organ and Ryan (1995:776).

3.7.9 Group Cohesiveness
According to Kidwell, Mossholder and Benette (1997:775) group cohesiveness has been identified as an important situational antecedent of promotive behaviours, like OCB, because highly cohesive groups give rise to a strong social identity that can enhance members' desires to help one another. George and Bettenhausen (1990:698), in their study at the group level found that group cohesiveness correlated with a group measure of pro-social behavior. They note that cohesiveness may impact OCB through its broader effect on group members' affective states. Members of cohesive work groups experience more positive mood states than do members of non cohesive groups. Furthermore, Kidwell et al. (1997:775) argue that social psychological research
literature on helping behavior gives evidence that a positive mood state may induce or correlate with proclivities to exhibit altruism toward others at least at the individual level of analysis.

Kidwell et al. (1997:775) also postulate that research on group process variables provides additional general support for potential group-level effects of cohesiveness on OCB. Broadly speaking, the more cohesive a work group, the greater the conformity to group norms. Additionally, Kidwell et al. (1997:775) notes that norm conformity in groups is higher because of the pressures exerted by members on one another and the interpersonal rewards that are available through within-group interactions. Thus, it should be emphasized that although the literature on group norms is supportive of group-level OCB links with cohesiveness, such support is conditioned upon whether OCB is considered important by members for group functioning. This is the case because group norms generally form only around behavior that is important to group functioning (Kidwell, et al., 1997:775).

3.7.10 Work related stress

According to Podsakoff et al. (2000:513) the nature of work, such as work related stress has got an impact on OCB. Stress refers to a physical and emotional reaction to potentially threatening aspects of the environment. Tang and Ibrahim (1998:534) assert that role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, underutilization, responsibility for people and lack of participation can cause employee stress. Tang and Ibrahim (1998:534) argue further that based on neuroticism it could be reasoned that people who have
experienced high levels of stress are unlikely to engage in OCB. Rather they may find time to relax and coast whenever they can. Managers are therefore tasked with creating a conducive working environment that does not promote negative factors to production such as stress which hinders the occurrence of important behavior such as OCB. They should rather ensure safe and conducive working conditions for their employees to promote behaviour like OCB which results in organisational effectiveness.

3.7.10.2 Motivating Potential Score

Very little research has been done to ascertain the relationship between OCB and motivating potential score (MPS). According to Tang and Ibrahim (1998:534) based on Hackman and Oldham’s (1975:159) job characteristic theory of work motivation, the motivating potential score can be recognized as the extent to which employees see their jobs as intrinsically motivating. The theory reiterates that people with high MPS tend to be more motivated and satisfied than those with low. Thus, employees with a high MPS tend to engage in OCB more than those with low MPS. A study in Tang and Ibrahim (1998:534), confirms this relationship, it found that organisational based self esteem is related to MPS. While OCB is also related to organisational based self esteem, general job satisfaction, organisational commitment and management respect with relatively high correlations between skills, task significance, autonomy and feedback and measures of motivation have been found. In this regard, managers should create jobs with a high MPS, that is, jobs with high intrinsic motivation. They can achieve this by making the jobs more interesting by providing challenging and meaningful assignments. This is important in that it enhances the job satisfaction of employees and possibly
results in behaviours such as OCB which impact positively on organisational effectiveness.

3.7.11 Organisational commitment and OCB

In recent years the concept of organisational commitment has been discussed alongside organisational citizenship behaviour. There has been considerable debate on whether the former influences the later or vice versa. According to McKenna (2000:281), organisational commitment refers to the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in the organisation. McKenna (2000:281) argues that it is observed when the individual strongly identifies with the organisation, agrees with its objectives and value system and is willing to expand effort on its behalf. Furthermore, Cho and Johansen (2008:32), asserts that it results from employees’ subjective evaluations of their contributions and the firm’s inducements.

Research has found that employees tend to develop strong commitment responses when the inducements exceed their expectations and contribution. When the inducements do not exceed expectations research found that commitment is not likely to occur (Meyer and Allen 1991:61). Moreover, Stemper and Van Dyne (2001: 517) note that when employees perceive that their employment relationship is based on an economic exchange, they will meet the minimum requirements without exert extra effort such as helping coworkers, making suggestions for work improvements, performing duties beyond the minimum requirements, and participating in organisational meetings. These extra efforts are often called OCB. Managers should ensure that employee’s
inducements are beyond their expectations to instill commitment in their employees. Managers can conduct surveys to determine employee’s expectations. The surveys can be carried out at an organisational level and industry level such that the inducements can be in line with the market conditions.

Research by Feather and Rauter (2004:81) found that employment status has a moderating effect on the relationship between organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours. Feather and Rauter (2004:81) found that organisational commitment was positively correlated with OCB among full-time employees, whereas there was no significant relationship among part-time workers. In contrast, a study by Van Dyne and Ang (1998:692) revealed a different and interesting finding. The relationship between organisational commitment and OCB was strengthened for part-time employees, but not for full-time workers. This implies that if a part-time employee is more committed to an organisation, he or she will more likely perform citizenship behavior. On the other hand, the increased commitment did not lead to more behaviours among full-time employees. Van Dyne and Ang (1998:692) contend that behaviours of part-time employees are contingent on their commitment, but the behavior of full-time employees is dependent on their attitude. Based on these findings, managers need make sure that all their employees are committed to their work regardless of work status to ensure OCB in their organisations.
3.5.12 Job satisfaction and Organisational citizenship behavior

Job satisfaction is one aspect of employees’ attitudes at the workplace that is presumed to be related to OCB. According to Gadot and Cohen (2004:133) the general assumption behind this relationship is that only highly satisfied employees are likely to engage in OCB because of a reciprocal exchange relationship. This view is in line with the social exchange theory which proposes that employees either exhibit positive or negative behaviours as a response to the treatment they receive from their employers (Greenberg & Scott 1996:129). Greenberg and Scott (1996:129) argue that the central aspect of this theory is the norm of reciprocity. A strong social exchange relationship between the employer and employee will help maintain positive working relationships and would elicit positive sentiments in employees such as job satisfaction, commitment and trust which in turn will move employees to engage in OCB.

Several studies have been conducted in a bid to ascertain the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB (Organ & Konovsky, 1989:157; Bateman & Organ, 1983:587; Murphy et al., 2002:287). However, results obtained in these studies have produced different results. The majority of the studies have determined a strong correlation between job satisfaction and OCB, while some have produced a correlation to some of the dimensions of OCB and with others showing no correlation between job satisfaction and OCB. According to Adam (2000:1) it has been found in 15 independent studies that a strong correlation exists between job satisfaction and OCB. In their study, Organ and Konovsky (1989:157) found that job satisfaction is the strongest measure that correlates to OCB. Similarly, Bateman and Organ (1983:587) also detected a substantive
relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. This is consistent with Murphy et al. (2002: 287), who in their study conducted in Australia, reported positive correlations between job satisfaction and OCB (r = 0.40 and r = 0.67 respectively). From their findings, Murphy et al. (2002:287) stress that management should focus on OCB to maintain a competitive advantage for the organisation. This is because OCB has been identified as behaviour that leads to the effective functioning of the organisation.

Some studies have shown a relationship between job satisfaction and some of the dimensions of OCB. In a study conducted by Schnake (1991:735) they found that job satisfaction explained the variance in only two of the five OCB dimensions. Likewise, results from a study conducted by Fahr, Early and Lin (1997:421) show that satisfaction accounts for unique variance either in altruism or the compliance dimensions of OCB. Adam (2000:1) also found that job satisfaction correlated with altruism, but did not directly correlate with generalized compliance in either large or small organisations. In view of the discussion above, it seems that job satisfaction can lead to the attainment of certain dimensions of OCB. Managers must therefore be worried about the attainment of these dimensions as they all include performance that is beyond prescribed roles which is imperative for organisational effectiveness and efficiency.

Studies have also shown that job satisfaction correlates with OCB only in the presence of a moderating effect. For example, Moorman (1993:759) found that when the relationship between justice and OCB is controlled, job satisfaction does not relate to OCB. Furthermore, when perceptions of overall fairness are controlled, job satisfaction
relates to only two out of five OCB dimensions. Organ and Lingl (1995:339) investigated an alternative explanation for the link between the two constructs. They investigated personality as the underlying source for both constructs. The research was conducted cross-culturally, and compared the United States to the Middle East in terms of OCB and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The results showed that the American sample had a lower work ethic and higher individual self esteem in comparison to the Middle Eastern sample, but that job satisfaction accounted uniquely for OCB in both cases. The effect of job satisfaction on OCB therefore differs across cultures. From the findings of these studies it can be concluded that the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB depends on the nature of the job satisfaction measure.

On the same note of job satisfaction impacting positively on OCB, other studies have shown that job satisfaction must be the mediating factor itself for OCB to be achieved. For example, Chiu and Chen (2005:523) investigated the relationship between job characteristics and OCB, and recommended that managers enhance employees' intrinsic job satisfaction to promote the display of OCB. This is as a result of intrinsic job satisfaction being regarded as the mediating mechanism between job significance and OCB. Another study by Podsakoff et al. (2000:513) reveals that job satisfaction itself can be a moderating variable between organisational commitment and OCB. They found that employees who are satisfied with their jobs identify themselves with the organisation and would want to reciprocate their positive experiences with the organisation that is their satisfaction by performing duties beyond their job descriptions. From this discussion it can be observed that the presence of job satisfaction is an
important factor in the attainment of OCB. Organisations should therefore ensure that they put in place measures that facilitate the occurrence of job satisfaction. This is because job satisfaction impacts positively on OCB either as a factor or as a moderating effect.

Although research has indicated that job satisfaction impacts positively on OCB, some researchers are still skeptical of the relationship between the two. This is because the results of some research have shown that job satisfaction is not related to OCB. Adam (2000:1), found out that job satisfaction is not related to OCB. In an attempt to explain why job satisfaction is not related to OCB, Adam (2000:1) argues that the contrasting results between the two variables may be due to the nature of the job satisfaction measures. For example, Organ (1997:85) claims that when job satisfaction, OCB and perceptions of fairness are measured together. The Perception of fairness explains an increase in variance in OCB. Scholl, Cooper and McKenna (1987:113) in their research also found that pay equity correlated 0.41 with OCB, while the correlation of pay satisfaction was 0.19. The research therefore suggests that, according to Scholl et al. (1987:113) fairness is a predictor of OCB, while job satisfaction is not. The results of these studies which suggest that job satisfaction is unrelated to OCB produces a perspective that contrasts the general assumption that job satisfaction impacts positively on OCB. More research should therefore be conducted in order to make the relationship transparent.
From the discussion made above, it is quite evident that the general assumption that job satisfaction is related to OCB still holds water. Research has shown that job satisfaction is related to OCB in many ways, ranging from the link to dimensions of OCB, to job satisfaction acting as a moderating factor that facilitate the attainment of OCB. However even though there is overwhelming evidence that job satisfaction impacts positively on OCB, more research on this relationship must be conducted as research has also proven that a relationship between the two is elusive.

3.8. Demographic variables and organisational citizenship behaviour

Very little has been written on organisational citizenship behaviour and demographic variables. Research on demographic variables and OCB has mainly been focused on gender and age with little being done on other variables such as tenure and job level.

3.8.1 Gender and OCB

Research on gender and OCB has produced interesting results. On one hand literature has produced results that indicate that females engage more in OCB than their male counterparts. On the other hand, it suggests that females and males engage in different types of OCB. In their study Allen and Rush (2001:2562) hypothesised that individuals perceive women to participate in OCB in general more frequently than men. They assigned undergraduate participants one of three job conditions which are masculine, feminine, and gender-neutral and one of two employee gender conditions. Participants rated 10 task behaviours for their assigned job and 10 OCBs with regard to the likelihood that a female or male employee would engage in the given behavior. Results
indicated that overall, women were seen as more likely to engage in OCB than their male counterparts. The results of the study by Allen and Rush (2001:2562) can also be explained in relation to the argument by Kark and Waismel-Manor (2005:12) who contend that women engage in OCB more than men because women are typically perceived as concerned with the welfare of others, as caring and considerate of others, and as holding a higher level of empathy and sympathy. Such characteristics are likely to facilitate helping behaviours.

From an alternative point of view, research on gender and OCB also indicates that males and females engage in different types of OCB. Farrel and Finkeilstein (2007:57) assert that research suggests that women are more likely to participate in the helping dimension of organisational citizenship behavior whereas men are more likely to participate in the civic virtue dimension. According to Farrel and Finkeilstein (2007:57) in three laboratory studies which were conducted to test the hypothesis that observers expect employees to participate in gender congruent OCB and that, when exhibited, observers are more likely to attribute gender incongruent OCB than gender congruent OCB to impression management motives. Results indicated that OCB in general was found more in women than in men. Only under specific conditions was OCB-civic virtue behaviours expected more from men. The contrasting results in these studies make the true nature of the relationship between gender and OCB unspecific. In this regard more research can be done to ascertain the true nature of the relationship.
3.8.2 Age and OCB

Kuehn and Al Busaidi (2002:107) in their study found age to be significantly related to OCB. They found that older adults tend to conduct themselves on the basis of meeting mutual and moral obligations or internal standards whilst younger adults have a more transactional focus. Similarly, Wagner and Rush (2000:379) found that OCB differs between younger and older adults. In their study, Wagner and Rush (2000:379) found that fair treatment is a priority for younger employees whereas older colleagues had a more inherent value for helping others and may render assistance out of a norm of benevolence. Thus, OCB is more prevalent in older employees in comparison to younger employees.

In contrast, Chattopadhyay (1999:284) contends that OCB is found more in young employees than in older employees. Chattopadhyay (1999:284) further argues that younger employees may engage in OCB to ingratiate themselves with more established older employees so as to be noticed. On the other hand, older employees would see no need to prove themselves to younger employees. This behavior would lead to the observed positive relationship between age dissimilarity and OCB for younger employees. Additionally, Finkelstein, Burke and Raju (1995:652) argue that younger employees view peers of a similar age as more competent and skilful than older employees. The younger employees therefore feel that it will be more difficult for them to be noticed and rewarded by their supervisors if their peers are more similar in age, they feel that they face greater competition. To be noticed by their supervisors’ younger employees would then engage themselves in extra role behavior. The contrasting
results on the relationship between age and OCB make the true nature of the relationship uncertain to scholars. For the sake of organisational efficiency and effectiveness, managers should make sure that measures are put in place which allow for all employees in the organisation to engage themselves in OCB.

### 3.9 Concluding remarks

The present chapter looks at the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour. The chapter examined the various definitions that explain OCB. The chapter also discussed the dimensions of OCB. The dimensions discussed include altruism, civic- virtue, sportsmanship, courtesy and conscientiousness. An overview of the origins of organisational citizenship behavior was also discussed. The chapter also focuses on the importance of organisational citizenship behavior. Theories that explain OCB were also discussed. Examples of such theories included the social exchange theory, leader member exchange theory, path-goal theory, expectancy theory and the psychological contract theory. Factors that influence the concept of OCB such as mood, commitment, perceptions of fairness and job satisfaction amongst others were also looked at in the chapter.
CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Chapter three reviewed literature related to the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour. The chapter also discussed literature on the significance of this concept, outlined theories that guide this concept and its antecedents.

This chapter shifts the focus of the study to a discussion of the research methodology for this study. In this chapter, the research design, population, sampling methods, measuring instruments and statistical techniques used to analyse data will be discussed.

4.2 Research Design

Research design refers to the steps researchers follow to complete their study from start to finish. It includes asking research questions based on theoretical orientation, selection of respondents, data collection and reporting of the results (Marvasti, 2004:8). Similarly, Kumar (2005:84) defines a research design as a plan, structure, and strategy of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions or problems. The plan is the complete scheme or program for the research. It involves plans for data collection, the instrument for gathering information, how information gathered would be processed and analysed to give meaning to a research finding. Kumar (2005:84) posits that the function of a research design is to conceptualise an operational plan to undertake the various procedures and tasks required to complete a study, and to
ensure that these procedures are adequate to obtain valid, objective and accurate answers to the research questions.

Research design can be quantitative or qualitative. According to Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2007:47) quantitative researches collect data in the form of numbers and use statistical means of data analysis. Similarly, Goodwin (2002:521) defines quantitative research as a category of research in which results are presented as numbers, typically in the form of descriptive and inferential statistics. Qualitative research on other hand is a category of research activity characterised by narrative analysis of information collected in the study (Goodwin 2002:521). Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997:44) argue that qualitative research produces verbal summaries of research findings with no statistical summaries or analysis.

Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997:44) argue that the difference between quantitative and qualitative research design is that data obtained in qualitative research is commonly obtained with the use of interviews and observations and can be used to describe individuals, groups and social movements. Leedy (2001:67) on the other hand argues that quantitative research design allows the researcher to answer questions about the relationships between measured variables with the purpose of explaining, predicting and controlling certain phenomena. Terre Blanche et al. (2007:132) add that findings obtained from quantitative research are generalisable and the data is objective. Accordingly, this research project will adopt the quantitative research approach as there
is a need to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour.

4.2.1 Ethical considerations

There are numerous ethical issues that researchers encounter during the various stages of a research project. Goodwin (2002:516) claims that ethics refers to a set of principles prescribing behaviours that are morally correct. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003:131) provide a list of key ethical issues that normally require adherence when undertaking a research project, these include:

- Voluntary nature of participation and the right to withdraw partially or completely from the process.
- Consent and possible deception of participants.
- Maintenance of the confidentiality of data provided by individuals or identifiable participants and their anonymity.
- Privacy of possible and actual participants
- Reactions of participants to the way in which you seek to collect data
- Effects on participants of the way in which you use, analyse and report your data
- Behaviour and objectivity of the researcher.
The present research considers a number of the following ethical issues. The researcher sought informed consent from the respondents and assured them of the confidentiality and transparency of the information which was being sought. The researcher informed the respondents of their right to acceptance or withdrawal from participation in the research at any point in time during the research. Respondents were also informed that the information sought was solely for academic purposes and for the improvement of the organisations.

4.3 Research Strategy

Research strategy is a plan of action that gives direction to your efforts, enabling you to conduct research systematically rather than haphazardly (Babbie, 2007:34). There are a number of research strategies available to any researcher. Examples of these include experimental studies, case studies, exploratory studies and surveys.

According to Singh (2007:66) experimental studies are characterized by a control group and an experimental group and subjects are assigned randomly to either group. In experimental studies, researchers try to maintain control over all factors that may affect the result of an experiment. This is because experimentation is believed to be, and used as, one of the most important research designs available to determine causality between variables. Another important feature of experimental studies is that it allows the researcher to manipulate a specific independent variable in order to determine what effect this manipulation has on other dependent variables (Singh, 2007:66). Robson (2002:178) defines a case study as a strategy for doing research which involves an
empirical investigation into a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real context using multiple sources of evidence. The case study method can be used by researchers if they wish to gain a rich understanding of the context of the research and the processes being enacted. Saunders et al. (2003:93) make a point that an important feature of the case study method is that it can use various data collection methods. These methods may include questionnaires, interviews, observations and documentary analysis. Exploratory research on the other hand attempts to clarify why and how there is a relationship between two aspects of a situation or phenomenon (Kumar, 2005:10). The emphasis on this method is on studying a situation or problem closely in order to explain the relationship between variables. For example, how the home environment affects children’s level of academic achievement.

The survey strategy was used for this research. Goodwin (2002:523) defines a survey as a descriptive method in which participants are asked a series of questions or respond to a series of statements about a particular topic. The survey method has many advantages (Haslam & McGarty 2003:54). Firstly, this method is easy to administer. In this regard researchers can examine relationships between variables which would be extremely difficult to isolate experimentally, such as wealth, socio-economic status and age. The method allows researchers considerable scope to investigate many aspects of phenomena at the same time in the environment where they occur. Secondly, coupled with appropriate statistical methodology the survey method also allows researchers to make predictions about the relationships between particular variables. For example, if researchers discover through a survey that older people feel more attracted to their
partners, then they will be able to predict (with a quantifiable amount of uncertainty) both how attracted someone is to his or her partner if they know the person’s age and how old someone is if they know how attracted that person is to the partner.

4.4 Population of the study
According to McClendon (2004:131) the population of the study is the total number of possible units or elements that are included in the study. It is the aggregate of all units that have a chance of being included in the sample to be studied. The population of this study was drawn from five organisations in Zimbabwe namely Tube and Pipe Industries, Delta Beverages, Sovereign Health International, Netone and Nicoz Diamond Insurance. The population constitutes approximately 2500 employees who are under the employ of the abovementioned organisations on a permanent basis.

4.5 Sampling Frame
According to Singh (2007:88) sampling frame is defined as a subset of the population, which provides a broad and detailed framework for selection of sampling units. Goodwin (2002:404) defines a sampling frame as a complete list of individuals from which the sample will be drawn. Thus a sampling frame involves selecting the respondents of the study. According to Saunders et al. (2003:154) deciding on a sampling frame depends on the research questions or objectives of the study. For example, if your research questions or objectives are concerned with registered nursing homes in an area, your sampling frame will be a complete list of all registered nursing
homes in that area. The sampling frame of this study was composed of middle level employees, supervisors and lower level employees in the five organisations.

4.5.1 Sampling

McClendon (2004:5) informs the reader that sampling is the process of selecting a subset of units to be studied from a large aggregate called the population. Kumar (2005:169) posits that the main aim in selecting a sample is to achieve maximum precision in your estimates within a given sample size and to avoid bias in the selection of your sample size. Similarly, McClendon (2004:5) argue that the objective of sampling is to select units in such a way that no selection bias will occur. McClendon (2004:5) posits that selection bias means that some units in the population are more likely to be selected than other units. If selection bias is present, the sample units will not be representative of the entire population. In this study the sampling frame comprised of middle level managers, supervisors and lower level employees.

4.5.2 Sample

Gray (2004:405) defines a sample as a set of objects, occurrences or individuals selected from a parent population for a research study. Similarly, Shaughnessy, Zechmeister (1997:148) refer to a sample as a subset of a population actually drawn from the sampling frame. Saunders et al. (2003:156) posit that the most important aspect of a probability sample is that it represents the population. A perfect representative sample is one that exactly represents the population from which it is taken. Bryman and Bell (2003:93) add that a representative sample is crucial to
quantitative research and must reflect the population accurately so that inferences can be drawn. Shaughnessy and Zeichmeister (1997:136) contend that the ability to generalise from a sample of the population depends critically on the representativeness of the sample, otherwise sampling bias would occur. Coolican (1999:36) argues that sampling bias occurs when there is an over representation of a particular variable in the population. In this regard, a sample would be representative of the population from which it is drawn when the characteristics of the sample closely match the same characteristics in the population.

### 4.5.3 Sampling Procedure

Once a suitable sample size has been determined, the next important thing is to determine the appropriate sampling technique to use in obtaining a representative sample. The choice of an appropriate sampling technique depends on the sampling procedure one undertakes. Sampling procedure, according to Terre Blanche et al. (2007:133), refers to the method used by the researcher in the selection of cases to observe. There are two types of sampling procedures namely, probability and non probability sampling.

Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997:543) define non probability sampling as a sampling procedure in which there is no way to estimate the probability of each element’s inclusion in the sample. Examples of non probability sampling include convenience, purposive and snowball sampling. According to Goodwin (2002:125) convenient sampling involves the researcher simply requesting volunteers from a group.
of people who meet the general requirements of the study. This method has an advantage in that it is less costly and easy to use. However, the disadvantage of this method is that not every person in the population has a chance of being selected. In purposive sampling, the researcher deliberately selects the subjects against one or more trait to give what is believed to be a representative sample. Haslam and McGarty (2003:110) suggest the use of purposive sampling as it involves obtaining a sample with a population that has a particular characteristic, experience or understanding. According to Macnee and McCabe (2006:122) the potential disadvantage of this type of sampling is the possibility of prematurely focusing the data collection on one experience, characteristic or understanding and missing the broader range of data that may come from a convenience sample. For snowball sampling, initially a number of respondents are selected at random and then interviewed and their views sought concerning the topic in question. They are then asked to nominate other people who are also members of the population under investigation. The second wave of respondents is then interviewed and asked to nominate more population members. Thus, the sample is constructed by addition of wave after wave of respondents (snowball effect). The advantage of snowball sampling is that it is economical and can be useful particularly when research seeks to find characteristics that are rare in the population.

Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005:155) define probability sampling as a sample that has been selected using random selection so that each unit of the population has a known chance of being selected in the sample. Examples of probability sampling include simple
random sampling, cluster sampling, systematic random sampling and stratified random sampling.

Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997:152) define simple random sampling as sampling in which every element has an equal chance of being selected in the sample. This method has got a disadvantage in that it can be cumbersome and time consuming. According to Wilburn (2006:126) cluster sampling involves dividing the population into groups (clusters) of items that serve as primary sampling units. A random sample is then taken on these clusters to select respondents. The main reason for sampling clusters is that it is not time consuming and reduces the cost of locating and listing the sample as opposed to the selection of individual items at one time. Thus, the purpose of cluster sampling is not to get the most efficient sample but to get the most precise results per unit cost (Wilburn, 2006:126).

According to Breakwell, Hamond, Smith and Schaw (2006:114) in systematic sampling you begin by assigning every population unit a unique number in ascending order. Next, you calculate the sampling interval \((i)\), which is the required ratio of the sample size of the total population \((i=N/n)\). A random number between \(i\) and 1 is then generated, called the seed number, representing the unique identifier of the first population unit to be included in the sample. Then the sampling interval \(i\), is added to the random number between 1 and \(i\) and this is regarded as the second unit in the sample. The process is continued until the end of the sampling frame has been reached and the desired sample size is achieved. For example, assuming that you have a sampling frame containing 1600 names and you want a random sample of 200 to receive your questionnaire. The
sampling interval would be $1600/200=8$. The next step is to use random tables to select a number between 1 and 8 to give a seed number to start with. Say you get a 5 you would select the 5th person on the list, then the 13th (5+8), then the 21st (8+13) and so on. According to Breakwell et al. (2006:114), this method has an advantage in that it is easy to use and convenient but however, a complete sampling frame is required and this can be very expensive in a geographically dispersed population.

Stratified random sampling was used for this research. Stratified random sampling, according to Saunders et al. (2003:231), is a modification of random sampling in which you divide the whole population into two or more strata based on one or more attributes. In this study employees were divided according to departments, for example, the accounting department, human resources department, information technology and finance department. Each department represented a stratum. To ensure that samples adequately represented the relevant strata (departments), respondents were randomly selected from within each stratum, that is, from each department.

4.5.4 Sample size

Haslam and McGarty (2003:110) contend that once researchers decide on a sampling procedure the next step is to decide on a sample size. Haslam and McGarty (2003:110) argue that the idea behind choosing a sample size is that it should be representative enough of the parent population. The bigger the sample the more likely it will reflect the population of the study. Terre Blanche et al. (2007:49) argue that a large sample size allows inferences to be made from the population. It also reduces the uncertainty of
sampling bias and consequently inappropriate conclusions. Kumar (2005:181) argues that the purpose of undertaking research is the main determinant in deciding on a suitable sample size. In addition to Kumar (2005:181), Saunders et al. (2003:155) argue that the choice of deciding on a suitable sample size depends upon:

- The confidence you need to have in your data, that is, the level of certainty that characteristics of the data collected will represent the characteristics of the total population
- The margin of error that you can tolerate, that is, the accuracy you require for any estimates made from your sample
- The type of analysis you are going to undertake, that is, the type of relationships you want to establish
- The total size of the population from which your sample is drawn.

Previous research provides a researcher with an empirical and comparative benchmark upon which the researcher can base his/her judgments. The sample size previously used by researchers can serve as a guide to the sample size that will be appropriate for the purpose of a research. The sample size for the present study consists of 202 employees drawn from the five organisations used in the study.
4.6 Data Collection

A questionnaire was used to collect data for this study. Nachmias and Nachmias (1997:103) define a questionnaire as ‘a list of questions that must be formulated, constructed and sequenced to produce the most constructive data in the most effective manner. Questionnaires were used because:

- They translate the research objectives into specific questions that are asked of the respondents.
- They also standardise the questions and response categories so that every participant responds to identical stimuli.
- They speed up the process of data analysis as all the respondents are asked the same questions.
- They are less expensive and offer greater anonymity.

4.6.1 Research Questionnaires of the study

Two questionnaires were used to collect information in the study. The questionnaires sought information on job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. With regard to job satisfaction, questions were drawn from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). Questions in this part of the questionnaire were split between those related to intrinsic and those related to extrinsic job satisfaction. On the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour, questions were drawn from a questionnaire by Konovsky and Organ (1996:255). These questions were divided between five dimensions that make up the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour. These
dimensions include altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy and sportsmanship.

4.6.1 The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The MSQ is designed to measure an employee's satisfaction with his or her job. The MSQ comes in two forms, a 100 item long version and a 20 item short form. The long form contains five items per facet whilst the short form contains one. Questions contained in the short form are also contained in the long version. However, questions for this study were drawn from the long version of the questionnaire. The researcher chose 40 questions that are related to the present study from the MSQ. The MSQ is measured on a five point likert scale ranging from, Highly dissatisfied (1), Dissatisfied (2), Not sure (3), Satisfied (4), Highly Satisfied (5).

4.6.2 Reliability and validity of the Questionnaire.

According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997:545), a measurement is reliable only when it is consistent in producing results. Similarly, Godwin (2002:521) defines reliability as the extent to which measures of the same phenomenon are consistent and repeatable. Goodwin (2002:545) further argues that measures high in reliability contain minimum measurement error. Validity refers to the ability of an instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure (Coolican, 1999:31). The reliability and validity of the questionnaires are discussed below.
4.6.2.1 Reliability and validity of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

Research has been conducted to determine the reliability of the MSQ. Chan, Berven and Thomas (2004:453) using the long form of the MSQ found an internal median consistency reliability of 0.86 whilst the median retest reliability was 0.83. In another study, Larson, Lakin, Bruininks and Braddock (1998:47) found the internal consistency of the questionnaire ranging from 0.87 to 0.92 with a median of 0.90. The test-retest reliabilities where 0.89 over a week and 0.70 over one year. According to Fields (2002:7) a lot of studies, for example (Klenke-Hamel& Matheui, 1990:791; Smith & Brannick, 1990:91) have focused on the predictive validity of the MSQ. Fields (2002:7) reported that in these researches overall job satisfaction was negatively correlated to role conflict, role ambiguity and propensity to leave. In other studies overall job satisfaction correlated positively with life satisfaction, job involvement and performance expectancy (Hart 1999:564; Smith & Brannick, 1990:91). These studies provide evidence that the MSQ has got a strong predictive validity.

4.6.1.2 The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour questionnaire.

The OCB questionnaire by Konovsky and Organ (1996:255) was used in this study. The questionnaire measured five constructs of OCB which are altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and courtesy. These constructs were measured on five point Likert scale ranging from, Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neutral (3), Disagree (2), Strongly Disagree (1). Examples of questions on this questionnaire include:
Table 1: Sample of questions on OCB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>的行为</th>
<th>具体问题</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>I help others who have been absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>I show displeasure with other employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic Virtue</td>
<td>I stay informed about developments in the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>I exhibit punctuality in carrying out my responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sportsmanship</td>
<td>I do not complain about work assignments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.1.3 Reliability and validity of the organisational citizenship behaviour questionnaire by Konovsky and Organ (1996:255)

The questionnaire on organisational citizenship behaviour by Konovsky and Organ (1996:255) has not been used extensively in literature. In their study on associations between altruism, burnout dimensions, and organisational citizenship behavior Van Emmeriki, Jawahar and Stone (2005:96) found a reliability of 0.79 of the questionnaire using the Cronbach alpha value. Nadiri and Tanova (2009:31) using the questionnaire also found an internal consistency reliability of 0.63. In terms of convergent validity, in their study Lievens and Anseel (2004:303) using the questionnaire on OCB by Konovsky and Organ (1996:255) found that two of the five dimensions of OCB could not be established. Specifically, the convergent validity of civic virtue and sportsmanship was not satisfactory. Lievens and Anseel (2004:303) argue that the probable reason for this result was because of the fact that these factors were measured by a small number of items in the questionnaire. In terms of discriminant validity, Lievens and Anseel (2004:303) found clear support for the discriminant validity of the five dimensions of OCB measured by the questionnaire.
4.7 Pretesting the questionnaire

Prior to administering the questionnaire a pilot study was undertaken. According to Coolican (1999:10) piloting involves trying out an experiment or questionnaire on a small sample of people in order to highlight ambiguities for which adjustments can be made before the actual data gathering process is done. Similarly, Saunders et al. (2003:308) postulate that the purpose of piloting is to refine a questionnaire so that respondents will have no problem in answering the questions and there will be no problem in the recording of data. Piloting also enables the researcher to obtain some assessment of the questions' validity and the likely reliability of the data that will be collected. According to Saunders et al. (2003:308) the number of people on whom you pilot your questionnaire is dependent on your research questions, objectives, the size of the research project, the time and financial resources that are available as well as how well you have initially designed your questionnaire. For example, very large questionnaire surveys such as the national census will have numerous field trials starting with individual questions and working to larger and more rigorous pilots of later drafts.

In the present research, a total of 15 questionnaires were used for piloting. The choice of using 15 questionnaires was determined by the limited amount of time the researcher had for piloting. The researcher used the university staff for piloting for the sake of convenience. The reason for piloting this study was to determine whether the questions on the questionnaire were ambiguous or not. The results of the pilot study indicated that
some questions were not clear enough for the respondents which actually caused the researcher to rephrase them.

4.8 Administering of the questionnaire

According to Saunders et al. (2003:310) once a questionnaire is designed, pilot tested and amended, the questionnaire can be used to collect data. There are various ways available for administering a questionnaire. Examples of these ways include postal questionnaires, online questionnaires and self administering of the questionnaire.

According to Kumar (2005:129) postal questionnaires involve sending the questionnaire to prospective respondents by mail. The approach presupposes that the researcher has access to each respondent’s address. Usually a self addressed envelope and a covering letter accompany the questionnaire. However, this approach of questionnaire administering has got its limitations. One of the limitations is that it has a low response rate since the researcher does not have direct contact with the respondents. According to Saunders et al. (2003:311), online questionnaires are usually administered through emailing or via a website. A good response rate using this method is dependent on the recipient being motivated to answer the questionnaire and to send it back (Saunders, et al., 2003:310). This approach has a disadvantage in that not all members in a given sample may have access to the internet or may know how to use it.

Thus, the self administering approach was used for this research. This approach involves the researcher having direct contact with the respondents. The approach was
used because it is less expensive, ensures anonymity of the respondents and it has got a high respondent completion return rate as the researcher can make follow ups for unreturned questionnaires.

4.9 Data analysis
A quantitative approach was used to analyse data for this research. Babbie and Mouton (2005:646) define quantitative analysis as the numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect. The research made use of statistical techniques to enable generalisations of the research findings. These included descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics was used to analyse demographic data. According to Goodwin (2004:516) descriptive statistics provides a summary of the main features of a set of data collected from a sample of participants. Inferential statistics was used to determine the relationships between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. According to Gray (2004:335), inferential statistics enable a researcher to make appropriate inferences from those descriptions in order to decide whether those descriptions can also be applied to the population from which the sample is drawn.

4.10 Concluding remarks
The present chapter discusses the research methodology of the study. The study adopted a quantitative research design. A survey research methodology was followed. A questionnaire was used to collect data for the study. Inferential statistics such as the
Pearson product moment correlation method was used to determine relationships between the variables in the study. The next chapter will present and analyse the research findings of the study.
CHAPTER FIVE
PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction
The previous chapter discussed the research methodology of the study. The chapter discussed the research design of the study, ethical considerations, research strategy, sampling procedure, sampling technique and the method used to collect data.

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study. The presentation of findings will commence with descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics in the form of demographic findings will be presented first. The demographic findings include age, gender, marital status, educational qualifications and tenure. The presentation of demographic findings will be followed by descriptive statistics of job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behavior. Presentation and discussion of inferential statistics will then follow. The Pearson Product Moment correlation method will be presented to show the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behavior. The chapter will also present findings on the reliability of the measuring instruments used in this study.

5.2 Presentation of descriptive statistics
This section of the study presents the demographic variables of the study. The variables include age, gender, marital status, educational qualifications and tenure.
Figure 2: Gender distribution of respondents

Figure 2 shows that 57% of the respondents were males and 43% were females.

Figure 3: Age distribution of respondents
Figure 3 shows the age distribution of respondents. 49.5% of the respondents were between the ages of 20-30, 39.1% were between the ages of 31-40, 6.4% were between the ages of 41-50, 1.5% were between the ages 51-60 and 3% were above the age of 61.

Figure 4: Marital status of respondents

Figure 4 indicates that 55.4% of the respondents were married, 41.1% were single, 2.5% widowed and 1% divorced.
Figure 5: Educational qualifications of respondents

Figure 5 shows that 36% of the respondents had degree level qualifications, 32% had diplomas, 17% had high school level qualifications and 15% had certificates.

Figure 6 represents the distribution of tenure of the respondents. 52% of the respondents have been employed by the organisations for less than 5 years, 26.2% for more than 5 years but less than 10 years, 14.4% for more than 10 years but less than 15 years, 5% for more than 16 years but less than 20 years, 1.5% for more than 20 years but less than 25 years and 1% for more than 25 years.
Figure 6: Distribution of tenure

5.3 Measures of central tendency and dispersion

According to Spiegel and Lindstrom (2000:12) measure of central tendency and dispersion is a value that is typical or representative of a set of data. It is also referred to as averages. Measures of central tendency were computed to determine the levels of job satisfaction and OCB in the organisations. The Likert scale adopted in the measuring instrument used in this study provide guidelines to determine whether job satisfaction or OCB levels were high, moderate or low. The Likert scale measured items on a five point scale ranging from; Highly dissatisfied (1), Dissatisfied (2), Not sure (3), Satisfied (4), Highly Satisfied (5). In this regard, using measures of central tendency and dispersion provided in Table 1, a mean value of below 3 indicates a negative inclination towards job satisfaction or OCB whilst above 3 indicates a positive inclination. Table 2 shows the mean values for job satisfaction and OCB in the organisations surveyed.
From Table 2, overall job satisfaction had a mean score of 3.15. Intrinsic satisfaction had a mean score of 3.32 whilst extrinsic satisfaction had a mean score of 2.96. In terms of organisational citizenship behaviour, altruism had the highest mean score of 3.75, followed by sportsmanship which had a mean score of 3.60. Civic virtue had a mean score of 3.43 whilst courtesy had the least mean score of 3.10. The mean score for overall organisational citizenship behavior was 3.46.

As shown in Table 2, the results of the study suggest that extrinsic job satisfaction has the lowest mean response of 2.96. According to Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005:929) extrinsic job satisfaction is employee satisfaction that largely results from factors of the job that are not related to job content. For example, in this study such factors included organisational policies, remuneration, working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relationships and job security. The low mean response of extrinsic job satisfaction as

### Table 2: Means of job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Dev</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
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<td>5.0000000</td>
<td>3.7566007</td>
<td>0.5062057</td>
<td>-0.4572075</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5.0000000</td>
<td>3.4306931</td>
<td>0.7493381</td>
<td>-0.2079247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>5.0000000</td>
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<td>5.0000000</td>
<td>3.1072607</td>
<td>0.5297710</td>
<td>-0.0412299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sportsmanship</td>
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<td>5.0000000</td>
<td>3.6089109</td>
<td>0.5468315</td>
<td>-0.5519561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exjobsatis</td>
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<td>4.2631579</td>
<td>2.9643079</td>
<td>0.6657370</td>
<td>-0.4267878</td>
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<td>intjobsatis</td>
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<td>3.3251129</td>
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<td>-0.6695769</td>
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<tr>
<td>overallocb</td>
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<td>5.0000000</td>
<td>3.4621620</td>
<td>0.3220716</td>
<td>0.6779996</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
indicated by a mean score of 2.96, which situates it below the average mean score 3, indicates that employees in the organisations were not extrinsically satisfied with their jobs. In the organisations surveyed this could have been due to;

In adequate organisational policies that facilitate job satisfaction in employees. An example of such a policy is training and development. Training and development appeal greatly to employees and remain as one of the best ways of motivating employees. Employee’s performance is enhanced through training and development, and this enhances their motivation especially when they find themselves in a programmed training system where the training programme is tailored towards their career progression in the organisation. The presence of such policies as training and development in an organisation can also be an indication of management commitment to build a life-long relationship with employees thereby influencing their motivation and performance levels. In this regard, the low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction found in the organisations in the present study could be because of the unavailability of organisational policies that motivate employees.

In view of the above argument, the low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction found in the organisations could also be attributed to the organisational policies being used by the organisations. Gurbuz (2007:45) argues that if organisational policies are unfair they stand in the way of employee job satisfaction. For example, if an organisation policy states that promotion is done on seniority basis young employees in the organisation may not be satisfied with their jobs, but would rather leave the organisation to one
somewhere where promotion is done according to performance basis. Unfair organisational policies could also be attributed to the inconsistency in extrinsic job satisfaction in the organisations under discussion. Gurbuz (2007:45) contends that if organisational policies are unclear they can lead to job dissatisfaction of employees. Clear organisational policies can go far towards eliminating any misunderstandings between employees and employers about their rights and obligations in the business environment. Lack of clarity on written and standardized organisational policies could lead to employees making errors in the organisation, some of which could lead to disciplinary action. Being subjected to a disciplinary hearing can surely demotivate an employee which may subsequently lead to job dissatisfaction. In this regard, the low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction in the organisations could also have been caused by unclear organisational policies.

Anderson (2001:28) contends that interpersonal relationships are important in organisations because they facilitate job satisfaction. For employees to satisfy their affiliation need, Maslow (1954) cited in Schermerhorn et al. (2004:93) theorized that managers must encourage social interaction, create a team spirit and facilitate outside social activities amongst employees. Hammer (2007:300), in concurrence with Maslow suggests that the principle behind supportive relationships is that people value a positive response from others which helps in building and maintaining self esteem. Interpersonal relationships among employees encourage teamwork and, a less stressful environment, increase motivation and lead to employees enjoying their work and remaining with the organisation. With good interpersonal relationships, employees
support one another emotionally and physically. Work overloads are shared and this support allows employees to do their jobs better, whilst reducing the amount of work pressure and stress on individual employees and thus making work more manageable.

Pleasant working conditions have tremendous effects on the job satisfaction of employees. Anderson (2001:28) contends the working conditions where people work influence their levels of job satisfaction. Syptak et al. (1999:1) argue that provision of up to date equipment and machinery facilitates job satisfaction. Syptak et al. (1999:1) further argue that avoiding overcrowding and allowing employees to have their own space, be it a desk or locker, is critical in determining employee satisfaction levels. Similarly, Gurbuz (2007:45) argues that employees need some degree of personal space, which diffuses tension and improves working conditions. Organisations in Zimbabwe could be failing to provide their employees with pleasant working conditions. This situation could be caused by the prevailing economic situation in Zimbabwe which has caused many organisations to operate below capacity leading to some struggling to finance their various business activities. The inability of the organisations to finance their business activities could also mean that the organisations may be findings difficulties in providing funds to finance the maintenance and providing employees with standardized workplace designs.

Lack of supervision may also be the reason why the extrinsic levels of job satisfaction in the organisations are low. Supervisors in the organisations involved in the present study may be using leadership styles that do not facilitate job satisfaction. Examples of such
are laissez-faire and autocratic leadership. In laissez-faire leadership the leader is not involved in leadership. He or she avoids making decisions, abdicates responsibilities, refuses to take sides in a dispute and shows lack of interest in what is going on. In other words, this type of leader tends to withdraw from the leadership role and offers little in terms of either direction or support. The lack of concern by the leader in this type of leadership may lead to job dissatisfaction with the subordinates. Subordinates under this type of leadership may end up in conflict with each other regarding roles and responsibilities and may also as they try to assume the leadership role. The conflicts between the subordinates could result in bad interpersonal relationships which cause job dissatisfaction.

In autocratic leadership the supervisor retains as much power and decision-making authority as possible. The supervisor neither consults employees nor allows them to give any input. Just like the laissez-faire leadership style the autocratic leadership style could result in job dissatisfaction. According to Northouse (2006:267) employees want jobs that allow them to take part in decision making and have problem solving responsibilities. Supervisors who use this participative leadership style earn the trust of their employees and in turn they respond with cooperation, team spirit, and high morale which subsequently results in high job satisfaction. In this regard if the organisations in the present study have been using leadership styles such as the laissez-faire and autocratic leadership style the inconsistency found in the extrinsic job satisfaction of employees could be a result of using such leadership styles.
The low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction in the organisations could also have been caused by the socio economic instability and the psychological wellbeing of employees in an unstable environment. Due to the prevailing economic situation in Zimbabwe, many organisations have been forced to reduce capacity, others downsizing whilst in some organisations, employees have been forced to come to work on a rotational basis. This situation could have negative impact on the psychological wellbeing of employees. Maslow (1954) in Schermerhorn et al. (2004:93) contends that people want to feel safe, secure, and free from fear. They need stability, structure, and order. In the workplace, job security and fringe benefits, along with an environment free of violence, fulfils these needs. Maslow (1954) further contends that in the workplace security needs can be satisfied through ensuring that employees are given adequate salaries, retirement and medical benefits. In view of the argument by Maslow (1954) the low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction in the organisations surveyed could be attributed to the economic conditions in Zimbabwe which are impacting negatively on the ability of organisations to satisfy their employees job security needs such as adequate salaries, retirement and medical benefits.

Gurbuz (2007:45) argues that although employees do want to be paid fairly for their work, money is not an effective way to motivate individuals. Hays (1999:46), concurs with Gurbuz (2007:45), that if managers reward performance only with money, in many ways they will lose the motivation battle, because there are other powerful motivators such as freedom and flexibility in the organisation. Other scholars contend that money is the most important source of motivation for employees. Amar (2004:96) argues that
money has been the obvious and most important outcome from employment and until a couple of decades back was the only outcome that employers offered to their employees. According to Maslow (1954) cited in Schermerhorn et al. (2004:93), money is important in that it serves the function of meeting physiological needs. Physiological needs represent the most basic of all human needs that is the basic biological needs and include things like food, water, shelter and clothing. According to Maslow’s theory people would want to have their physiological needs fulfilled before other needs are satisfied. If these needs are not fulfilled employees would leave the organisation and seek employment elsewhere where they feel their needs could be satisfied, therefore money is an important motivator.

The present study partly supports and partly rejects Herzberg’s theory which classified money as a hygiene factor that does not motivate employees. The inconsistency surrounding the nature of this relationship could be used to support the findings of this study. If organisations in the present study are only using money as a source of motivation and together with the introduction of other motivation tools, such as flexible working arrangements, it could be the reason as to why the organisations are failing to extrinsically motivate their employees. On the other hand, if the organisations are failing to pay their employees adequately and in the context of the economic situation in Zimbabwe where the purchasing power of employees is eroded by inflation, money could be an important motivator and could explain why the employees in the present study had low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction.
Table 2 indicates that intrinsic job satisfaction had a mean score of 3.32 while extrinsic job satisfaction had a mean score of 2.96 suggesting that the levels of intrinsic job satisfaction in the organisations were moderate. Wood *et al.* (2001:143) contend that intrinsic job satisfaction refers to factors of the job that are related to job content; that is, they are related to what people do in their jobs, for example, the work itself, recognition and job autonomy. The moderate levels of intrinsic job satisfaction in the organisations surveyed could be explained in terms of employee resilience. Beinbridge ([www.about.com](http://www.about.com)) contends that intrinsically motivated people will work on a solution to a problem because the challenge of finding a solution provides a sense of pleasure. In this regard, the moderate levels of intrinsic satisfaction in the organisations in this study could be because of employees deriving motivation from the challenges stemming from the work setting. On the other hand, the lower mean score (2.96) recorded in respect of extrinsic job satisfaction could have been because of managers in the organisations concentrating their energies more on the provision of intrinsic job satisfactions factors in comparison to extrinsic job satisfaction.

Table 2 indicates that altruism had the highest mean response 3.75 in terms of OCB dimensions. According to Organ (1997:85) altruism is defined as all the ‘discretionary behaviours that have the effect of helping a specific other person with an organisationally relevant task or problem.’ Van Emmeriki *et al.* (2005:93) argue that altruistic behaviour indeed exists and that the willingness to consider others in our overall calculations of our own interests is natural to people. This explanation could be used to explain why altruism had the highest mean response in terms of the dimensions
of OCB. If altruism is a natural attribute of people, in relation to this study it can be argued that the high levels of altruism among the OCB dimensions may have nothing to do with job satisfaction as altruism is an inert characteristics of people and whether satisfied or dissatisfied, people may find themselves engaging in the behaviour.

Courtesy had the lowest mean response 3.10 in terms of OCB dimensions. Courtesy involves behaviour that prevents work related problems for others. For example, notifying the employer if one is going to be late or absent, notifying colleagues before doing things that will affect them and informing colleagues of delays in work in progress. The low levels of courtesy in the organisations understudy could have been because of the low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction within the employees. According to Herzberg (1959) in Anderson (2001:35) co-worker or interpersonal relationships are part of extrinsic job satisfaction. If courtesy involves good interpersonal relationships, for example, notifying others before one does something that will affect them or informing others when you are going to be late. Then in this study if interpersonal relations in the organisations surveyed were low this could also have an impact on courtesy which produced the lowest mean response in terms of OCB.

The results of the study indicate that overall job satisfaction had an average mean score of 3.15. The average mean score of 3.15 indicate that job satisfaction in the organisations was moderate. The moderate levels of overall job satisfaction may have been due to the low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction which had an average mean score of 2.96 and moderate levels of intrinsic satisfaction which had an average mean
score of 3.32. Herzberg (1959) in Anderson (2001:35) argues that to ensure high levels of job satisfaction, organisations should adequately provide their employees with both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction measures. According to Herzberg (1959) these measures should be provided simultaneously to employees. The absence of extrinsic job satisfaction measures in the employees leads to job dissatisfaction whilst intrinsic measures motivates an individual to achieve above average performance and effort. In this regard the results of the study may indicate that the average mean score of overall job satisfaction 3.15 may have been due to employees’ dissatisfaction with their jobs and consequent lack of motivation enough to perform their duties.

From Table 2, all the dimensions of OCB reported moderate mean scores with courtesy having the lowest at 3.10 and altruism having the highest mean score of 3.75. The moderate mean scores among the dimension of OCB in the study may have been due to job satisfaction having a moderate mean score of 3.15. The social exchange theory which according to literature explains the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB, suggests a reciprocal relationship in which employers provide job satisfaction to their employees and the employees respond by engaging themselves in OCB. The reciprocal nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB may be used to explain why OCB dimensions had moderate mean scores. This could have been because job satisfaction in the organisations was also moderate.
5.4 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics were used to test the hypothesis of the study, that is, job satisfaction correlates positively with OCB. Specifically, the Pearson Product Moment correlation method was used to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. The Pearson Product Moment correlation method is used because it measures the strength of agreement between two or more variables in social science research (www.isixsigma.com). Goodwin (2002:286) suggests a scale of interpreting the Pearson Product Moment correlation method. According to Goodwin (2002:286) the strength of a correlation is indicated by the size of a descriptive statistic known as the coefficient of correlation which ranges from -1.00 for a perfect negative correlation, through 0.00 for no relationship, to +1.00 for a positive relationship.

Table 3 below shows the Pearson Product Moment correlation matrix indicating the correlation between job satisfaction and OCB. Table 3 reveals that extrinsic job satisfaction had a relatively weak but positive significant correlation with sportsmanship a dimension of OCB (r=0.171, p<0.05). Table 3 also indicates that intrinsic job satisfaction had a relatively weak but positive significant relationship with overall OCB (r= 0.298, p<0.05). Intrinsic satisfaction also had significant positive correlations with some of the dimensions of OCB. It had a significant but relatively weak positive relationship with altruism (r=0.224, p<0.05), civic virtue (r= 0.2216, p<0.05), courtesy (r= 0.17, p<0.05) and sportsmanship (r=0.151, p<0.05). From Table 3 it is evident that overall job satisfaction positively correlates with overall OCB. However, the relationship showed a weak but significant positive correlation (r =0.198, p<0.05). Overall job
satisfaction also correlated with some dimensions of OCB. Overall job satisfaction had a positive but weak relationship with civic virtue ($r=0.165$, $p<0.05$) and sportsmanship ($r=0.181$, $p<0.05$).

Table 3: The Pearson Product Moment correlation matrix between job satisfaction and OCB.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation Matrix between Job Satisfaction and OCB</th>
<th>extrinsic job satisfaction</th>
<th>Intrinsic job satisfaction</th>
<th>Overall job satisfaction</th>
<th>altruism</th>
<th>civic virtue</th>
<th>conscientiousness</th>
<th>courtesy</th>
<th>sportsmanship</th>
<th>Overall OCB</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>extrinsic job satisfaction</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.58551*</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>-0.03242</td>
<td>0.07633</td>
<td>-0.03754</td>
<td>-0.02832</td>
<td>0.17148*</td>
<td>0.05853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intrinsic job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.58551*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>0.6469</td>
<td>0.2803</td>
<td>0.5958</td>
<td>0.6891</td>
<td>0.0147</td>
<td>0.408</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.88569*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1056</td>
<td>0.16519*</td>
<td>0.02981</td>
<td>0.08239</td>
<td>0.18196*</td>
<td>0.19853*</td>
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<tr>
<td>altruism</td>
<td>-0.03242</td>
<td>0.22467*</td>
<td>0.1056</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.20159*</td>
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<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.0224</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conscientiousness</td>
<td>0.07633</td>
<td>0.2216*</td>
<td>0.16519*</td>
<td>0.20159*</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.0224</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
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<tr>
<td>courtesy</td>
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<td>0.0188</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.26122*</td>
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<td>0.5961*</td>
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<td>sportsmanship</td>
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<td>0.09119</td>
<td>0.02981</td>
<td>0.28707*</td>
<td>0.26122*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.22697*</td>
<td>0.21563*</td>
<td>0.64604*</td>
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<tr>
<td>overall OCB</td>
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<td>0.6737</td>
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<td>0.0002</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.0012</td>
<td>0.0021</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at 0.05
The results of the study as shown in Table 3 demonstrate a weak but positive significant correlation between overall job satisfaction and overall OCB ($r=0.198$, $p<0.05$). The significant correlation between overall job satisfaction and overall OCB confirms the hypothesis of this study which assumes that job satisfaction will significantly impact positively on OCB, that is, as job satisfaction increase so will OCB increase. The positive but weak significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and overall OCB found in the present study confirms what has been found in other studies on job satisfaction and OCB, for example, Bateman and Organ (1983:587) found a substantive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Similarly, Murphy et al. (2002:287), in their studies in Australia, found positive correlations between job satisfaction and OCB. However, the weak but positive significant correlation between overall job satisfaction and overall OCB in this study may be attributed to low extrinsic levels of job satisfaction which also correlated with only one dimension of OCB, that is, sportsmanship ($r=0.17$, $p<0.05$).

The social exchange theory could also be used to explain why there was a weak but significant correlation between job satisfaction and OCB. The theory reiterates that employees exhibit positive or negative behaviours as a response to the treatment they receive from the organisation. The central aspect in this theory is the norm of reciprocity between the employees and the employers. Thus the social exchange theory can be used to explain the correlation between job satisfaction and OCB in the present study, that is, the failure by the organisations under study to provide their employees with
adequate job satisfaction especially extrinsic factors of the job could be argued as the reason why the levels of OCB in the organisations were moderate.

The significant but weak correlation between job satisfaction and OCB indicated by the results of this study can also be explained from the perspective of scholars who argue that job satisfaction and OCB correlate in the presents of a moderating effect. For example, Moorman (1993:759) found that when the relationship between justice and OCB is controlled, job satisfaction does not relate to OCB. Furthermore, when perceptions of overall fairness are controlled, job satisfaction relates to only two out of five OCB dimensions. Similarly, Foote and Li-Ping Tang (2008: 933) found that the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behavior was moderated by team commitment, to such an extent that the relationship was stronger when team commitment was high. In this regard it can also be assumed that in this study, in the presence of a moderating effect job satisfaction could have had strong significant correlation with OCB.

Table 3 indicates that extrinsic job satisfaction only correlates with one dimension of OCB, that is, sportsmanship (r=0.171, p<0.05). The correlation between extrinsic job satisfaction and sportsmanship could have been because sportsmanship involves the willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions at the workplace without complaining and keeping a positive attitude, for instance, not complaining about working conditions to complete a project, working conditions that are uncomfortable but not dangerous and having a deadline brought forward.
The results of the study indicate that conscientiousness did not correlate with job satisfaction, that is, conscientiousness did not correlate with extrinsic job satisfaction ($r=-0.037$, $p<0.05$), intrinsic job satisfaction ($r=0.091$, $p<0.05$) and overall job satisfaction ($r=0.029$, $p<0.05$). According to Tayyab (2005:54) conscientiousness is discretionary behavior by an employee that goes above and beyond the minimal requirement of the organisation. It involves going well beyond minimally required role and task requirement. The definition if conscientiousness resembles much of the original definition of OCB by Organ (1988:4) which contends that OCB involves going beyond prescribed duties. The absence of a correlation between conscientiousness and job satisfaction could be explained from the perspective of other scholars who found out that job satisfaction is related to OCB. For example, Adam (2000:1) finds that job satisfaction is not related to OCB. In an attempt to explain why job satisfaction is not related to OCB, Adams (2000:1) argues that the contrasting results between the two variables may because of the nature of the job satisfaction measures. In view of this argument, it can also be argued that the job satisfaction measures used in the present study could have been independent of conscientiousness.

Table 3 indicates that overall job satisfaction did not correlate with all the dimensions of OCB. It only correlated with civic virtue ($r=0.165$, $p<0.05$) and sportsmanship ($r=0.181$, $p<0.05$). The non correlation of job satisfaction and all the dimensions of OCB confirm the argument raised by other scholars who in their studies found that job satisfaction does not correlate with all the dimensions of OCB. For example, Fahr et al. (1997:421) found that satisfaction accounts for unique variance either in altruism or the compliance
dimensions of OCB. Similarly, Adam (2000:1) also found that job satisfaction correlated with altruism, but is not directly correlated to generalized compliance in either large or small organisations. In view of the above argument that OCB does not correlate with all the dimensions attributed to OCB. The same explanation can be used to explain why in the present study job satisfaction did not correlate with conscientiousness.

Table 3 indicates that intrinsic job satisfaction correlated with OCB (r=0.298, p<0.05). The correlation between intrinsic job satisfaction and OCB in this study is consistent with other studies. For example, Tang and Ibrahim (1998:529) found that intrinsic job satisfaction was positively related to OCB. Although, the correlation between intrinsic job satisfaction and OCB in this study is consistent with previous studies, the present study brings in a new dimension to literature on the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB in that, intrinsic job satisfaction correlated with OCB under unstable economic conditions in which organisations are struggling to adequately provide for their employees, whereas in previous studies intrinsic job satisfaction correlated with OCB under stable economic conditions.

5.5 Reliability of the questionnaire
Table 4 and 5 shows the Cronbach alpha coefficient value for the questionnaire of this study. The Cronbach alpha coefficient measures the internal consistency of a measuring instrument (Dornyei 2003:112). According to Leong and Austin (2006:136) the Cronbach alpha coefficient typically ranges from 0 to 1.0 with higher magnitudes being more desirable. Morgan, Gliner and Harmon (2006:1253) reports that an acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficient should be above 0.70.
Table 4: Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of the 40 Questions extracted from Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardized</td>
<td>0.764595</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Cronbach alpha coefficient value for Minnesota Satisfaction questionnaire was 0.76 which therefore indicates that in this study the questionnaire had acceptable internal consistency reliability.

Table 5: Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for the OCB questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raw</td>
<td>0.925237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardized</td>
<td>0.876458</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient value for the OCB questionnaire was 0.87. The value indicates that the questionnaire had good internal consistency reliability.
5.6 Concluding remarks

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study. The chapter commenced with the presentation of demographic findings followed by the presentation and discussion of measures of central tendency of job satisfaction and OCB. The Pearson Product Moment correlation was computed to determine the correlation between job satisfaction and OCB. Cronbach alpha coefficient was also computed to determine the reliability of the questionnaire used in the study. In the chapter it was determined that job satisfaction is significantly correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour.
6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented and discussed the findings of the study. This chapter focuses on the conclusions drawn from the findings of the study. The chapter will also focus on the recommendations drawn from the study, the limitations of the study and directions for future research.

6.2 Conclusions

The findings of the study show that:

- Employees in the organisations surveyed experience intrinsic job satisfaction more than extrinsic job satisfaction.
- Altruism had the highest mean response on OCB which meant that employees in these organisations engaged in altruism more than the other dimensions of OCB.
- There is a substantive correlation between job satisfaction and OCB.
- Job satisfaction does not influence the employee’s engagement in conscientiousness.
- The moderate levels of OCB in the organisations under discussion may have been caused by the moderate levels of job satisfaction in the organizations.
Employees in the organisations surveyed engaged themselves more in the other dimensions of OCB than in courtesy.

6.3 Recommendations

Previous researches have suggested that job satisfaction can cause organisational citizenship behavior, a factor that is critical for organisational effectiveness. The present study finds that a relationship does exist between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. However, the results of the study indicate that job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour levels in the organisations are moderate. In view of these findings the following recommendations could be made.

- To improve the levels of extrinsic job satisfaction through supervision organisations can use training and development to better the knowledge and skills of their supervisors. The organisations can carry out surveys amongst their employees to determine the areas where they are not satisfied with their supervisors. Relevant training and development courses can then be provided to improve the skills levels of the supervisors.

- Management in the organisations can increase the extrinsic satisfaction of their employees by increasing their remuneration to levels that match the market conditions. Management can periodically consult salary surveys to determine what employees in other organisations are being awarded so that they could give their employees’ remuneration that is commensurate with what other
organisations are awarding their employees. This is advantageous in that it instils job satisfaction in employees and reduces unwanted behavior such as absenteeism and labour turnover.

- To increase extrinsic job satisfaction in an unstable economic environment, the organisations in the present study can also implement strategies such as profit sharing plans, skills based pay and gain sharing plans. These schemes have an advantage in that they lead to increased motivation, commitment, teamwork, increased performance, quality and OCB.

- To increase the levels of extrinsic job satisfaction in their organisations, management in the organisations under study should make sure that organisational policies are well communicated to employees. The policies should be unambiguous, that is, they should be clear and disseminated in a manner in which everyone in the organisation can understand them. Employees should also be provided with written copies of the policies. Written copies serve as visible reminders to employees of what is expected of them. This exercise is very important in that it reduces frustration felt by the employees which is a sign of job dissatisfaction.

- Management of the organisations under the present study can increase the levels of extrinsic job satisfaction within their employees by making sure that working conditions conform to standardized workplace designs. Unpleasant
working conditions result in job dissatisfaction. To avoid the effects of job dissatisfaction such as costs resulting from absenteeism, turnover and defect products, management should therefore strive to provide their employees with standardized working conditions.

- Management can increase the levels of OCB dimensions in their employees by recognizing employees who engage themselves in such behavior. The recognition can come in the form of verbal commendation and rewards such as employee of the month. This practice can be very beneficial to organizations, in that, it leads to employee satisfaction which would encourage them to perform better for the organisation.

- To increase the other dimensions of OCB to match the current level of altruism, management in the organisations under study should ensure the presence of factors that facilitate OCB in their organisation. Examples of such factors include job satisfaction, organisational commitment, supervisor support, flexible working arrangements, fairness and teamwork among other factors.

- Management in the organisations under study can improve the levels of OCB dimensions in their employees by understanding individual employees’ OCB type and create a conducive environment which makes the employee continue exhibiting the OCB dimension.
• From the conclusions drawn from the study, it is indicated that the moderate levels of OCB in the study may have been caused by moderate levels of job satisfaction. Thus to increase the moderate levels OCB to high levels, the organisations under discussion should ensure that the job satisfaction levels of their employees is high and that it is both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.

6.4 Limitations

The present study had its own limitations. Some of the limitations encountered in this study include:

• The limitation of the population of the study to organisations in the Harare region only. This might make generalizations of findings of the study difficult.

• Financial constraints also made it impossible for the researcher to conduct his study in other branches of the organisations surveyed across Zimbabwe.

6.5 Directions for future research

• The present research used a quantitative research approach. Future studies may also include a qualitative research approach as it provides room for probing in cases where clarity might be needed.

• This study focused mainly on the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Future studies could also focus on the effects of demographics on these
variables by placing much emphasis on the effects of demographics on OCB where the literature is limited.

- This study focused on whether job satisfaction correlates positively with OCB. However, other studies can also focus on whether determinants of job satisfaction have a moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB.

6.6 Concluding remarks
The present chapter briefly discusses the conclusions drawn from the study. It also provides recommendations that organisations could use to improve job satisfaction and OCB. The chapter also outlines the limitations of the study and also provides directions for future studies.
REFERENCES


Zimbabwe National Employee Satisfaction Survey Report.


www.isixsigma.com Accessed 17 October 2009
www.newzimbabwe.com Accessed March 27
I am a Masters student in the Department of Industrial Psychology, Faculty of Management and Commerce at Fort Hare University. I am conducting research on employee attitudes and workplace behaviour. I am kindly requesting you to fill in this questionnaire. All the information collected from the questionnaire will be used for academic purposes only and will be kept in strict confidence.

Section A
*Please indicate your response by putting an (X) in the appropriate box*

1. Gender
   - Male
   - Female

2. Age
   - 20-30
   - 31-40
   - 41-50
   - 51-60
   - 61+

3. Marital Status
   - Single
   - Married
   - Divorced
   - Widowed

4. Educational Qualifications
   - High School
   - Certificate
   - Diploma
   - Degree
   - Other(Specify)
5. Years of service in the organisation

6. Position in the organisation

Section B

*This section of the questionnaire measures the extent to which you are satisfied with your job. Carefully read each statement and indicate the extent to which you are satisfied or dissatisfied. Please mark with an (X) in the appropriate box.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Highly dissatisfied</th>
<th>Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Highly satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The policies and practices towards employees of this company</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Company policies and the way they are administered</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The way employees are informed about company policies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The way company policies are put into practice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The way my supervisor and I understand each other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The way my boss handles his/her employees</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The way my boss takes cares of the complaints of his or her employees</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The way my boss provides help on problems</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The way my boss trains his or her employees</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The technical know-how of my supervisor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. How my pay compares with that of similar jobs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>---</td>
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<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. My pay and the amount of work I do</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. How my pay compares with that of other workers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. The working condition (heat, lighting, ventilation) on this job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. The pleasantness of the working conditions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The physical working conditions on the job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. The way the company treats its employees</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The opportunities for advancement on this job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. The way promotions are handled on this job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. The way my co-workers get along with each other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. The way my co-workers are easy to make friends with</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. The way my job provides for a secure future</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The way my job provides for a stable employment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. The way I get full credit for the work I do</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. The recognition I get for the work I do</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. The chance to be important in the eyes of others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. The way I am noticed when I do a good job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Being able to take pride in a job well done</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. The feelings of achievement I get from the job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. The chance to do the work that is well suited to my abilities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. The routine in my work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Being able to keep busy all the time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. The chance to do different things from time to</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Section C

*This section of the questionnaire relates to how you behave at the workplace.*

*Please carefully read each statement and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree. Mark with an (X) in the appropriate box.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41. I help others who have heavy work loads</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. I help others who have been absent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. I train or help others to perform their jobs better</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. I take personal interest in other employees</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. I stay informed about developments in the company</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. I attend and participate in meetings regarding the company and conscientiously follows organisational rules</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. I exhibit punctuality in arriving at work on time in the morning and after breaks</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. I always complete my work on time</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. I make positive statements about my department</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. I exhibit poor work quality</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. I exhibit punctuality in carrying out my responsibilities</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. My supervisor informs me before taking important actions</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53. I go out of my way to protect other employees</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. I show displeasure with other employees</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55. I visit other employees at their work stations during work periods</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56. I do not complain about work assignments</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. I like any changes made by management</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. I can handle work pressure and always acts cheerfully</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. I co-operate well with those around me</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING!!
ANNEXURE: B

PERMISSION LETTER

27 July 2009

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I am a student finalising my Masters studies in Industrial Psychology at the University of Fort Hare, South Africa.

The focus of my study is to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour in organisations in Zimbabwe.

The specific aims of the study are:

1. To establish the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behavior; and
2. To recommend job satisfaction measures that can be used by organisations to enhance OCB.

I was wondering if your organisation could allow me to collect some of the data I need for my research. I am more than willing to share my findings with you.

Benefits of the study

Research has shown that job satisfaction may result in positive outcomes in organisations such as low absenteeism and higher productivity among employees. This study aims to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour, a factor that has been identified as critical for organisational success. Establishing a link between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour could be of benefit to organisations as management could put in place human resource practices that increase the levels of job satisfaction among employees and hence impacting positively on their organisational citizenship behaviour.
I have attached an introductory letter from my supervisor for your attention, as well as the questionnaire that I will use to collect the data so that you have a look at the information that I am searching for.

Thank you very much in advance and I am waiting to hear from you.

Yours Sincerely

____________

M. Waini Chiboiva