The effect of perceived organisational support and organisational commitment on turnover intention among academic staff at the University of Fort Hare.

By

Xabiso Ngabase

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SUPERVISOR: Mr J. Delport

CO-SUPERVISOR: Dr N. Dodd
DECLARATION

I declare that “The effect of perceived organisational support and organisational commitment on turnover intention among academic staff at the University of Fort Hare” is the author’s original work and has never been submitted by the author or anyone else at any university for a degree. All the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

_________________________________________

XABISO NGABASE

25 JANUARY 2013
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this project to my Aunt, Miss Saziwe Patricia Ngabase, who brought me up and always wanted the best out of me.
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ABSTRACT

Perceived organisational support and organisational commitment plays a vital role in determining turnover intention. When employees feel that their organisation supports them levels of commitment can increase. Thus, employees feel more obligated because of favourable benefits such as organisational effectiveness and reduced turnover. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effect perceived organisational support and organisational commitment have on turnover intention. The study followed a descriptive survey method. A questionnaire, measured on a Likert Scale was used to collect data from respondents. The sample comprised 98 academic staff at the University of Fort Hare and the response rate was 56.6%. The results indicated that perceived organisational support and organisational commitment are negatively and significantly related to turnover intention. The study also revealed perceived organisational support and organisational commitment on turnover intention did not account for a higher variance when put together, however moderate variance was found. Perceived organisational support in this study was identified as the most effective predictor of turnover intention. In addition to managerial implications and limitations of the study, direction for future research is also suggested at the end of this study. The findings of this study will help in terms of understanding the state of organisational commitment of academics and its relationship with their intentions to leave.

Keywords: Perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, turnover intention, academic staff and lecturer.
CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The higher education sector is worthy of research as it is now an important sector playing a key role in improving productivity and occupational skills, engaging many academics and students and has numerous links with industrial and community activities as well as to enhance the nation’s ability to compete in a volatile global knowledge economy (Capellaras, 2005). The retention of employees is critically important in organisations and institutions where financial sustainability and survival depend on scarce specialist skills.

The retention of human resources refers to attempts to ensure that employees stay in the organisation and that voluntary turnover will be minimised (Jackson & Schuler, 2004). The situation is further intensified if these individuals are unattainable or when it becomes a challenge to obtain these specialists (Phillips & Connell, 2003). To prevent the latter from taking place an institution of higher learning should recognise and appreciate the good performance displayed by an academic.

Academic staff has to be supported by both management (leaders) and a human resources department (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).
Ogunyemi (2007, p. 78) submitted that, “No organisation can achieve its objectives without enough and effective work-force”. Thus there is a need to have committed employees in any organisation. People by nature engage themselves in activities that will benefit them. When employees feel that they are not receiving what they expected they tend to be reluctant to perform better and be loyal to their organisation (Humphreys & Hoque, 2007). Hence the following theories: social exchange, equity and expectancy and Matier’s Push-Pull Model will be employed as a building block in this study.

1.2 Background of the Study

It is generally agreed that the achievement of the university’s strategic objectives is largely dependent on its ability to attract and retain talented individuals. Retention of employees can be a source of advantage for any university, but there are challenges in attempting to retain these employees (Barney, 1991). Academic staff who are well motivated and committed to their institution can build a national and international reputation for themselves and the institution. Therefore, the universities can attract high calibre students, research funds and consultancy contracts (Rowley, 1996).

Employees who are psychologically committed to the organisation show heightened performance, reduced absenteeism, and a lessened likelihood of quitting their job (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The South African labour-market suffers from a shortage of skilled manpower and a continuous brain drain (Kinnear & Sutherland, 2001). Turnover has proven to be one of the most costly and seemingly difficult human resource challenges confronting organisations.
Voluntary employee turnover incurs significant costs for an organisation (Siong, 2006). Thus it is important to identify turnover elements as early as possible in order to enable planners to help implement courses of action. Available evidence indicates that academics quit their jobs usually as a result of unsatisfactory situations such as low motivation and poor conditions of service (Ajayi & Ogunjobi, 2001).

The retention of academics is made increasingly difficult because an academic career may no longer be as desirable and attractive as was previously believed. The retention of academics should be a strategic priority since it is difficult to replace the knowledge, skills and experience of academic staff. These skills are only acquired over a long period of time and are accompanied by extensive experience (Simmons, 2000). From the latter assertion it can be deduced that in order to retain the best talents, strategies aimed at satisfying employees’ needs have to be implemented.

Research conducted by Anderson, Richard, and Saha (2002) among academics in Australian universities confirms this contention, since 79% and 71% of the respondents respectively believed that the image and status of an academic career is declining. It would, however, appear that in future, higher education institutions will be increasingly obliged to make the retention of academics a strategic priority, since 68% of the academic personnel in a study in Australian higher education institutions indicated that they wished to leave higher education (Anderson et al., 2002).
his problematic situation is also experienced in South African higher education institutions, since data indicates that a substantial number (between 5% and 18%) of academics leave higher education institutions, yearly (Koen, 2003). In Canada, it has been argued that one of the challenges that universities will face over the next decade or so is on academic recruitment and retention (Tettey, 2006).

A snap survey, conducted in 2008 by the Sunday Times, found that there were almost 600 vacant posts for professors and lecturers in five South African universities (MacGregor, 2008). Staff, including lecturers, from the country’s 23 higher education institutions (public universities), are being poached by both the private and public sector and they are battling to attract replacements, leaving wide gaps in accounting, statistics, engineering and health sciences departments (Sunday Times, 2008). “A year 2000 survey of full time lecturers in the United States (US) showed that, more than 40% of lecturers had contemplated changing careers” (Ng’ethe, Iravo & Namusonge, 2012, p. 206). This really shows that to retain and attract new lecturers in an academic arena is a challenge.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Higher education plays a major role in providing high level of manpower for the socio-political and economic development of a nation (Hagen, 2002). This means that academics are expected to aid economic revival by utilising their knowledge and expertise through industry linked partnerships.
(Kusku, 2003, p. 347) asserts that, “Higher education institutions are more dependent on the intellectual and creative abilities and commitment of their academic staff than most other organisations”. And the objective of any university is to keep its key employees (academics) so to be successful in the academic arena (Pienaar, 2005). However, the problem is that academics are either leaving the academic arena for public and private organisations creating many vacancies back in their organisations. Statistics revealed by University of Fort Hare (UFH) Human Resources (HR) department indicated that 9.5% of academics voluntarily left the institution in the year 2011. Also, it said that in the year 2010 more than 12% of academics left the institution on their own will.

Such percentages are bad for universities as it is difficult to replace lecturers. Failing to keep these employees is not the only problem but the other problem is failure to attract the right number and skills required to fill the vacancies. Without well qualified and committed academic staff, no academic institution can really ensure sustainability and quality over the long haul. When academics leave their institutions they force the institution to hire new people and obviously the process of recruiting is to some degree expensive. Labour turnover effects revolve especially around the costs related to decreased organisational loyalty; the loss of knowledge and experience regarding the institution; and the increase in time and cost in training novice academics.
The fact that an academic career seems to have become less attractive may have far-reaching consequences for higher education institutions and society as a whole, as well as the economy of a country if it is regarded as insignificant and unimportant. That means labour turnover to some extent jeopardise the nation’s aim to produce quality human capital and workforce. Moreover, academics perceived that they have ‘lost their voice’ as the management of universities had become increasingly reluctant to listen to them, had lost respect for their knowledge and expertise, had increased their teaching loads and the administrative burden had become, unmanageable hence they would like to quit (Humphreys & Hoque, 2007). Thus, a research on perceived organisational support (POS) and organisational commitment (OC) on turnover intention (TI) among academic staff should take place.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study seeks to investigate the effect of POS on OC and TI among academic staff at UFH. Committed academics are the key towards the success of public universities in South Africa (SA). Academics have a high need for support and recognition. There are few empirical studies thus far which have been conducted to examine the role of perceived organisational support (POS) to enhance the level of organisational commitment of academics using the academics working with the public institutions of higher learning. Hence, this study will contribute to the literature by addressing the latter. Also, solutions to alleviate high turnover rate will be conceptualised.
1.5 Objectives of the Study

This study seeks to determine the following elements:

- To investigate the impact of perceived organisational support and organisational commitment on turnover intention.
- To review strategies to alleviate turnover at universities.

1.6 Hypotheses

1.6.1 Hypothesis 1

$H_0$: Perceived organisational support is not negatively correlated to turnover intention.

$H_1$: Perceived organisational support is negatively correlated to turnover intention.

1.6.2 Hypothesis 2

$H_0$: Organisational commitment is not negatively correlated to turnover intention.

$H_1$: Organisational commitment is negatively correlated to turnover intention.

1.6.3 Hypothesis 3

$H_0$: Perceived organisational support and organisational commitment when put together account for a higher proportion of variance in turnover intention than each of them separately.
Perceived organisational support and organisational commitment when put together does not account for a higher proportion of variance in turnover intention than each of them separately.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study
The purpose of demarcating a study is to make it more manageable and to this end, the proposed research was limited to only three variables (POS, OC and TI) and one organisation, UFH in the Eastern Cape (EC) province of SA.

1.8 Size of the Organisation
The selected organisation in the study has a population of 313 academics. Two campuses were used, one in Alice and one in East London.

1.9 Type of the Organisation
The study was limited to UFHEC province of SA. Available literature indicates that academics experience a high turnover and retention problems (Ng’ethe, 2012).
1.10 Geographical Demarcation

The data for the study was limited to UFH in the EC province of SA and only 2 campuses, in Alice and East London, were selected.

1.11 Unit of Analysis

The study was limited to academic staff that are teaching or lecturing only from both campuses. This category of employees will be requested to answer structured questionnaires that ask for information on the relationship between POS and OC on TI.

1.12 Outline of the Dissertation

This thesis comprises five chapters. In Chapter one along with the explanation of the purpose of the study, information is provided on the basis of which the conceptual model would be developed for the study. In Chapter two a review is done of the available literature on POS, OC and TI. The literature review focuses on the above variables and the linkages between each variable. Hypotheses are developed based on previous findings and theories. In chapter three the details of the methodology are discussed.
This section focuses on the measurement of each variable and validity and reliability issues of survey instruments are discussed. Discussion on data collection procedures and statistical analyses are presented in the section as well. Chapter four examines the hypotheses and presents results of statistical analyses. In Chapter five a brief summary of the study is provided and implications as well as recommendations for future studies are discussed.

1.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter has outlined the background, objectives, and significance of the study. Statistics clearly indicated that a number of academics are keen to leave their profession for other jobs - such as jobs found in a public and private sector. Some of the lecturers are about to retire and there are few to replace them. Having that been said, the shortage of academics is a threat to any nation as manpower skills are dependent unto them. The next chapter will provide a general overview and factors that influences retention and turnover in South Africa and some other countries in the world.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one has provided a general background and put the problem of employee retention and turnover in perspective. The chapter also stated the objectives, hypotheses, significance and the delimitations of the study. The chapter served as the background for understanding the research problem. This chapter will review the literature on POS, OC and TI. Special attention will be given to the relevant theoretical perspective and previous studies done in this area. In this study the impact of POS and OC on TI will be discussed in depth. Also, in this study OC is acting as a mediating variable. And lastly, three components of OC will be discussed. It is acknowledged that POS and OC is a significant predictor of employee behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviour, absenteeism and turnover (Jarosu, 1997). Employees who perceive a high level of support tend to be committed to their organisations. On the other side employees who are committed are more likely to attend work, stay with an organisation, arrive at work on time, perform well, and engage in behaviours helpful to the organisation than are employees who are not committed (Aamodt, 2007).
2.2 Nature and Formation of Perceived Organisational Support

POS is assumed to be a universal belief that employees form concerning their valuation by the organisation. Based on the experience of personally relevant organisational policies and procedures, the receipt of resources, and interactions with agents of the organisation, an employee would distil the organisation’s general orientation toward him or her (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS provides the basis for trust in the organisation to observe and reward extra effort carried out on its behalf. Development of POS is fostered by employees' personification of the organisation. This personification of the organisation is supported by the organisation’s legal, moral, and financial responsibility for the actions of its agents; by rules, norms, and policies that provide continuity and prescribe role behaviours; and by the power the organisation exerts over individual employees (Shore & Shore, 1995).

2.2.1 Perceived Organisational Support

Supportive leader behaviours and a generally facilitative organisational climate may be subsumed under a variable entitled “POS.” Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986, p. 504) demonstrated that, “Individuals tend to form global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being”. Eisenberger et al., (1986) defined POS as employees in an organisation from global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being.
From a social exchange perspective, it can be argued that academics who perceive a high level of support from the organisation are more likely to feel an obligation to repay the organisation in terms of affective commitment (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). According to Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro (1990), employees who feel supported by their organisation and care about the organisation would engage in activities that help to further the organisation’s goals.

Fair treatment, supervisory support, and rewards and favourable job conditions showed a strong relationship with POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The organisations with the perception of high-support of the employees become more attractive for the employees and the probability of intention to quit decreases because the employees do not look for alternative jobs (Allen, 2003). In the literature, POS has been defined in various ways. POS is also defined as “how much the organisation values employees’ contributions and cares about them” (Allen, Armstrong, Reid, & Riemenschneider, 2008). There are many ways in which employees can think of their organisation as being supportive and they consider three variables: fairness, organisational rewards, recognition, pay, and promotions.
2.2.1.1 Antecedents of Perceived Organisational Support

In this review of literature focus will be put on three general forms of favourable treatment, such as, fairness, supervisor support, human resource (HR) practices that enhance POS and these favourable treatments are discussed below:

Fairness of treatment - Fairness is often discussed in terms of two types of justice: procedural and distributive. Procedural justice concerns the fairness of the ways used to determine the distribution of resources (distributive justice) among employees (Greenberg, 1990). Shore and Shore (1995) suggested that repeated instances of fairness in decisions concerning resource distribution should have a strong cumulative effect on POS by indicating concern for employees’ welfare. Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) distinguished between structural and social determinants of procedural justice.

Structural determinants involved the formal rules and policies that affect employees, including employee input in the decision process (that is, voice), adequate notice before implementing decisions, and receipt of accurate information. Price (2001, p. 601) asserts that, “Distributive justice is the extent to which rewards and punishments are related to job performance”. Social aspects of procedural justice, sometimes called interactional justice, involved the quality of interpersonal treatment in resource allocation. Social aspects include treating employees with dignity and respect and providing employees with information concerning how outcomes are determined.
Support from Organisational Representatives – Supervisors (Head of Departments) usually act as representatives of the organisation, having responsibility for directing and evaluating subordinates’ performance; employees view their supervisor’s favourable or unfavourable orientation toward them as indicative of the organisation’s support (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Just as employees form global perceptions concerning their valuation by the organisation, they develop general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being, which is, perceived supervisor support (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Additionally, employees understand that supervisors’ evaluations of subordinates are often conveyed to upper management, further contributing to employees’ association of supervisor support with POS. Researchers have most often measured supervisor support by substituting the word supervisor for organisation, for example, “My supervisor really cares about my well-being” (Shore & Tetrick, 1991; & Rhoades et al., 2001).

Human Resource Practices - Human resources management (HRM) practices plays a key role in developing and maintaining the exchange relationship between the employee and the organisation. Favourable HRM practices that signify an investment in human capital and demonstrate recognition of employee contributions have been suggested to promote POS (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003).
The following falls under HRM practices:

- Organisational Rewards - Shore and Shore (1995) suggested that human resources practices showing recognition of employee contributions should be positively related to POS. A variety of rewards and job conditions have been studied in relation to POS—for example, recognition, pay, promotions, role stressors, and training.

- Recognition, pay, and promotions - Accordingly, opportunities for recognition, pay, and promotion have been found to be positively associated with POS. In some studies, employees were asked to evaluate the fairness of their outcomes relative to a reference group, that is, distributive justice (Greenberg, 1990). According to organisational support theory, favourable opportunities for rewards serve to communicate a positive valuation of employees' contributions and thus contribute to POS, which, in turn, increases OC. Employee recognition is the timely, informal or formal acknowledgement of a person's or team's behaviour, effort or business result that supports the organisation's goals and values, and which have clearly been beyond normal expectations (Zhou, Long & Wang, 2009). Appreciation is an essential human need and employees respond to appreciation expressed through recognition of their good work because it confirms that their work is valued.
Al-Omari (2009), states that employees tend to stay in organisations when they feel that their capabilities, efforts and performance contributions are recognised and appreciated by others.

- Dockel (2003) strongly argues that people should not only be rewarded financially but they should also be offered opportunities to grow within the organisation. Employees who perceive that they are stagnant in their positions aren't motivated and will not stay in unfulfilling positions.

- Chew (2004) argues that, compensation provides recognition but other forms of non-monetary recognition are also important, for example, from managers, human resource department, team members and peers, customers and others. Less than half of the academic staff in a national study, 2004, conducted in Malaysia indicated that they were satisfied with their salary and fringe benefits (Rosser, 2004). A good pension retirement and job security have been shown to be important personal issues that may affect the satisfaction and commitment of academics in colleges and universities. According to Tettey (2006, p. 603) states that, “Dissatisfaction with salaries is one of the things which are undermining the commitment of academics to their institutions and careers, and consequently their decision or intent to leave”.

- Tettey (2006) established that promotional procedures in African universities were long, stressful and cumbersome, while the requirements were unreasonable, for example, the possession of a doctorate as a prerequisite for promotion beyond the position of a lecturer.
Further to that, Shoaib, Noor, Tirmizi, and Bashir, (2009) argued that attractive remuneration packages are one of the very important factors of retention because it fulfils the financial and material desires.

- Promotion for academic staff is dependent on teaching, research and publications; however, due to financial constraints, non-prioritisation of research by government and inadequate publishing facilities, publishing of refereed articles has become a monumental challenge for Kenya and other African academics (Kipkebut, 2010).

- Training - Wayne et al., (1997) suggested that job training is discretionary practice communicating an investment in the employee, thus leading to increased POS. By offering training and development opportunities the academic staff will feel that the university is investing in him or her and that there are opportunities for growth within the organisation and hence gives meaning to the current job (Dockel, 2003). Academics sometimes get training on research ethics, taken to workshops which will aid them in handling students from different backgrounds. They also attend professional activities and national and international research meetings and others as their training and development.
2.2.2 Psychological Outcomes of Perceived Organisational Support

2.2.2.1 Felt Obligation
When one person treats another well, the norm of reciprocity obliges the return of favourable treatment. The reciprocity norm may also apply to employee–employer relationships, compelling employees to recompense advantageous treatment they receive from their work organisation (Gouldner, 1960).

2.2.2.2 Affective Organisational Commitment
POS fosters OC by meeting employees’ socio-emotional needs, such as the needs for esteem, approval, and emotional support. The fulfillment of these needs should facilitate the incorporation of employees’ organisational membership and role status into their social identity, thereby creating a strong emotional attachment to the organisation (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998).

2.2.2.3 Performance–Reward Expectancies
Shore and Shore (1995) is of the view that there is a reciprocal relationship between POS and performance–reward expectancies. Providing employees with favorable opportunities for rewards, the organisation would convey high regard for its employees and increase POS. In turn, POS would increase employees’ expectancies that high performance will be rewarded by the organisation.
2.2.3 Behavioural Outcomes of Perceived Organisational Support

Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) asserted that organisational support theory assumes that felt obligation, fulfilment of socio-emotional needs, affective commitment, and performance–reward expectancies all contribute to increased performance and decreased withdrawal behaviour. Accordingly, Rhoades and Eisenberger’s (2002) meta-analysis reported that POS had highly reliable effects on in-role performance, extra-role performance, and turnover.

2.3 Organisational Commitment

Scholl (1981) stated that OC is defined as the attitude of the employee towards his or her job or the strength that attach an employee to the organisation. Bateman and Strasser (1984, p. 95) submitted that OC has been operationally defined as “multidimensional in nature, involving an employee’s loyalty to the organisation, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation, degree of goal and value congruency with the organisation, and desire to maintain membership”.

OC has been studied in the public, private, and non-profit sector. Meyer and Allen (1991) identified three types of commitment; affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. According to Allen and Meyer (1996), employee commitment is not limited to national boundaries or particular organisations, but is a universal issue and needs further research.
It plays a key role in attaching the employees to the organisation in such a way that the more organisational commitment is deeper, the longer employees continue to stay with the organisation.

In line with the current studies, Tek (2009) found evidence that POS has a direct influence on OC based on research amongst 134 academicians in four private universities in Malaysia. Nehmeh (2009) stated that research has found that the more committed the employee is to the organisation, the greater the effort exerted by the employee in performing tasks. Highly committed employees wish to remain associated with the organisation and advance organisational goals, and are therefore less likely to leave (Nehmen, 2009). Multiple definitions of organisational commitment are found in the literature.

2.3.1 Dimensions of Organisational Commitment

2.3.1.1 Affective Commitment

Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) characterised affective commitment by three factors: (1) belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values, (2) a willingness to focus effort on helping the organisation achieve its goals, and (3) a desire to maintain organisational membership. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979, p. 225) further stated that, affective commitment is “when the employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals in order to maintain membership to facilitate the goal”.
Meyer and Allen (1984) initially proposed that a distinction be made between affective and continuance commitment, with affective commitment denoting an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation and continuance commitment denoting the perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation. Affective commitment antecedents are studied in the form of personal characteristics or what the employee contributes to the workplace. There have been mixed findings regarding what characteristics influence greater commitment.

Allen and Meyer (1990) later suggested a third distinguishable component of commitment, normative commitment, which reflects a perceived obligation to remain in the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1997) continue to say that employees retain membership out of choice and this is their commitment to the organisation. And that choice is driven by POS, that is, when employees feel that the organisation really cares for them and their achievements are being recognised.

2.3.1.2 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is associated with the costs that employees perceive are related to leaving the organisation. Continuance commitment studies two antecedents: investments and alternatives. These studies often look at investments such as time, money, or effort. Meyer and Allen (1984) maintain that continuance commitment can be used to refer to anything of value that an individual may have invested (for example, time, effort, money) that would be lost to be deemed worthless at some perceived cost to the individual if he or she were to leave the organisation.
Such investments might include contributions to non-vested pension plans, development of organisation specific skills or status, use of organisational benefits such as reduced mortgage rates and so on. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving or abandoning the respective entity, for example quitting from a particular organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Meyer and Allen (1997) recognised that in order for there to be continuance commitment between the employee and organisation, the employee must be able to identify alternatives.

### 2.3.1.3 Normative Commitment

Normative commitment because it is the more recently defined type of commitment does not have a lot of research identified. Normative committed employees experience a sense of culture or work ethic that makes them to stay in organisations as they feel that they ought to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1990). For any number of reasons, such as a feeling of indebtedness, need for reciprocity or organisational socialisation, normatively committed employees feel that they ought to remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Meyer and Allen (1997) investigated on the development of the psychological contract between the employee and the organisation. Psychological contracts are the beliefs that a person has about what will be exchanged between them, the employee and the organisation, therefore influencing their obligation to the organisation.
From the above assertion it can be deduced that normative commitment deals with the sense of obligation of an employee, based on his or her values and norms. Normative commitment can be conceptualised as the belief that employees have a responsibility to their organisation (Bagraim, 2003).

2.3.2 Development of Organisational Commitment

Nyengane (2007) is of the view that the value of OC is enhanced when relationships with desired outcomes are identified and when antecedent variables are identified. That could mean the development of OC is largely determined by the social exchange theory. Reber (1995, p. 7321) states that, “The theory of social structure is based on the principle that most social behaviour is predicated on the individual expectation that one’s actions with respect to others will result in some kind of commensurate return”. Hence, a variety of researchers of OC have tried to find out what it is about the organisation and the employee’s experiences that influence the development of the OC once the individual has selected membership in an organisation. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) have grouped factors that may lead to greater OC into three major groups. Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993) stated three categories of factors affecting OC and are as follows:

- Personal characteristics,
- work experience, and
- Organisational characteristics.
2.3.2.1 Personal Characteristics

Variables associated with commitment that may be significant for those employed in universities generally include personal characteristics such as age, tenure, gender, educational level, position, and race (Thornhill, Lewis & Saunders, 1996). Employees’ views of their own proficiency can play a very important role in the expansion of OC. A study on OC literature makes known of a list of demographic features that have been related with employee commitment. The association among demographic variables and affective commitment are neither strong nor consistent (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.3.2.2 Work Experience

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), work experience variables have the strongest and most consistent correlation with OC in most studies. OC to the organisation is very significant amongst academics whose leaders permit them to take part in decision making and treating them with consideration (Decottis & Summer, 1987). The strongest relations between OC and behaviour will be pragmatic for behaviour that is applicable to the academics to which the commitment is directed. Meyer and Allen (1997) argue that OC has a possible general appeal for those work environments where employees are supported, treated fairly and made to feel that they make contributions to the organisation. That kind of experience can fulfill a significant order of desires that would add to perceptions of sense of achievement.
2.3.2.3 Organisational Characteristics

Meyer and Allen (1991) are of the view that OC come into existence because of incidents which pleases employees and influence them feel a need to be physically and psychologically comfortable in their organisations. These incidents comprise those that lead to an awareness of support from the organisation. Organisational characteristics such as structure, culture and organisational level policies can induce perceptions of organisational support to induce OC. Thus, employees who perceive a high level of support from the organisation are more likely to feel an obligation to repay the organisation in terms of OC (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

2.3.4 Consequences of Organisational Commitment

According to Allen and Meyer (1996), there is one reason OC has come into sight as a focus in the study of work attitudes because behaviour is demonstrated in relation with TI and turnover. Again, Meyer and Allen (1991) propose that unrelated outcomes are associated with the different factors motivating employees to remain with the organisations. Mathieu and Zajac (1990), states that commitment has been significantly negatively associated with TI.

Meyer and Allen (1996) warn that OC dimensions might contain different results for work-related behaviour. Meyer (1997, p. 61) states that, “Employees high in affective commitment demonstrate emotional attachment, identification with and involvement in the organisation”. These employees are less likely to think about quitting their jobs and more willing to accept change.
Normative commitment is also expected to have similar consequences as affective commitment. This type of commitment focuses on moral obligation which is linked to socialisation practices of the organisations (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1998). Analysing the latter assertion academic staff has a responsibility to be loyal to the irrespective universities or colleges. Thus such employees are less likely to leave, be absent and be more open to change.

The third dimension of OC, continuance, has a comparable relationship as affective commitment with TI. However, employees with high levels of continuance commitment generally react negatively to change (Hackett, Bycio & Hausdorf, 1994). It is evident from the above assertions that universities need to elicit higher levels of affective and normative commitment in order for them to retain, motivate and attract employees (Price, 1997).

### 2.4 Turnover Intention

In turnover literature, authors also used other labels for turnover, such as quits, attrition, exits, mobility, migration or succession. Unlike actual turnover, TI is not explicit. Intentions are statements about a specific behaviour of interest (Berndt, 198). Intention to leave the organisation has been studied over several decades which in turn contributed to the findings of the positive and negative aspects of turnover (Mossholder, Bedeian, Norris, Giles & Feild, 1988).
Organisational efficiency has been shown to be highly correlated with a low turnover rate. Ajzen (1991) successfully demonstrated that behavioural TI is consistently seen with moderate to strong correlations with turnover. Turnover is defined as the “individual movement across the membership boundary of an organisation” (Price, 2001, p. 600).

The concept “individual” refers to the employees within an organisation and the notion of movement can be interpreted either as an accession or a separation of the company. Most of the researches’ attention is concentrated on the members, which voluntarily leave the organisation, since most of the turnovers are voluntary and subject to control by the manager (Price, 2001). Voluntary turnover means that the employee (s) decides to leave the organisation on his or her own accord (Morrell, Loan-Clarke, & Wilkinson, 2001). In this case an employee can choose to resign or be on an early retirement for whatsoever reasons. For example, dismissal, retrenchment, and death can make an employee leave a particular organisation.

Deery and Jago (2009) asserts that research into the antecedents of labour turnover has, traditionally, focused on the impact that job attitudes such as job satisfaction and OC have on an employee’s TI. The most frequently used formula to calculate employee turnover rate per year in organisations is; number of exits over a number of employees and then multiply it by 100. For example, Turnover rate = number of exits/number of current employees x 100.
2.4.1 Antecedents of Turnover Intention

2.4.1.1 Age

Demographic characteristics have been advanced in several models as predictors of withdrawal (Hayes, O'Brien-Pallas, Duffied, Shamian, Buchan, Hughes, Laschinger, North, & Stone, 2006). Age is one of the most studied demographic factors for both absenteeism and turnover. The basic rationale for the relationship between age and turnover is that older workers are not likely to quit because of the person-organisation fit that emerges over time (Martocchio, 1989). Age is expected to relate to TI in the same way and for the same reason. Moreover, older employees have more investment in the organisation (for example, pension plans) and more to lose from voluntary turnover.

2.4.1.2 Tenure

Cotter (1996) is of the view that tenure and academic freedom are critical ingredients in attracting and retaining the best and brightest to academic life and allowing academics to challenge bias, untruths and dogma. These rights are critical to allowing academics to freely express themselves without fear of political and administrative consequences. Trimble (2006) defines academic tenure as “an arrangement under which faculty appointments in an institution of higher education are continued until retirement for age or physical disability, subject to dismiss for adequate cause for unavoidable termination on account of financial exigency or change of institutional program”. Tenure refers to the number of years that a person has been formally employed in an organisation.
TI or intent to quit, it was found that tenure is inversely related to turnover in such a way that those who have stayed longer in the organisation have less intention to leave their organisations (Trimble, 2006).

### 2.4.1.3 Educational Level

Increase in educational level correlates negatively with OC while those who do not plan to further their education become more committed (Dubin, Champux & Porter, 1975). This is because highly educated employees instead become committed to their professions which increase their mobility. When employees have higher levels of education, it becomes more difficult for the organisation to provide sufficient rewards (as perceived by the individual) to equalise the exchange. Hence more highly educated academics would be less committed to their organisations and perhaps more committed to their profession (Steers, 1977).

### 2.4.1.4 Gender

Kalderberg, Becker and Zvonkovic (1995) found no significant differences in the work attitudes and commitment of males and females. Other researchers like Hawkins (1998) found no significant difference between the mean level of TI for female and male high school principals. Women can exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment that men can. However, females experience too many challenges than males when seeking employment as possible explanations to the high continuance commitment of women which later could result to turnover (Wahn, 1998). As a closing remark Ngo and Tsang (1998) support the notion that the effects of gender on TI are very limited.
2.4.2 Strategies for Employee Retention

2.4.2.1 Leadership

The term leadership is not universal and it varies from author to author; essentially it is a relationship through which one person influences the behaviour or actions of other people. One of the critical roles of management is to create a work environment that will endear the organisation to employees (Michael, 2008). The role of leadership and a HOD is crucial in academic retention, and Beardwell and Claydon (2007) writes that, employees leave managers or HODs not organisations. Employees are more likely to remain with an organisation if they believe that their managers show interest and concern for them, if they know what is expected of them, if they are given a role that fits their capabilities and if they receive regular positive feedback and recognition.

2.4.2.2 Supervisor Support

Supervisors usually act as agents of the organisation, having responsibility for directing and evaluating subordinates’ performance; employees view their supervisor’s favourable or unfavourable orientation toward them as indicative of the organisation’s support (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Just as employees form global perceptions concerning their valuation by the organisation, they develop general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being, that is, POS (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Additionally, employees understand that supervisors’ evaluations of subordinates are often conveyed to upper management, further contributing to employees’ association of supervisor support with POS.
Researchers have most often measured supervisor support by substituting the word supervisor for organisation, for example, my supervisor really cares about my well-being (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988)

2.4.2.3 Work Environment

Work environment is one of the factors that affect employee’s decision to stay with the organisation. Productivity and efficiency are directly affected by how people work, and this equally is affected by their work environment (Armstrong, 2009). This may include issues such as office space, equipments, air conditioning, comfortable chairs just to mention but a few. Many people are dissatisfied if working conditions are poor (George & Jones, 1999). Working environment that is comfortable, relatively low in physical psychological stress, facilities and attainment of work goals will tend to produce high levels of satisfaction among employees. Academic staff also requires office space, research and book support to be able to access the latest information for their teaching and research outputs.

2.4.2.4 Work Overload

Role stressors - Stressors refer to environmental demands with which individuals feel unable to cope (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). To the extent that employees attribute job-related stressors to conditions that are controllable by the organisation, as opposed to conditions inherent in the job or resulting from outside pressures on the organisation, stressors should reduce POS and OC.
Stressors related to three aspects of employees’ role in the organisation have been studied as antecedents to lessened POS: work overload, involving demands that exceed what an employee can reasonably accomplish in a given time; role ambiguity and role conflict, involving mutually incompatible job responsibilities (Ndifuna, 1992).

Work overload - Increased workload is the most stressful aspects amongst academics in their careers. Daly and Dee (2006) observed that heavy workloads, including assignments to teach large classes, may generate hostility toward the organisation and diminish levels of an academic commitment to the institution. Yousaf (2010) observes that increasing workload caused by a huge number of students certainly impacts on the well-being of employees at higher education institutions. It is a widely held belief that the workload of the academic staff has been increasing especially due to expansion of higher education and this has contributed to increased stress level (Metcalf, Rolfe & Weale, 2005).

However, university management should know that too many demands on academic staff could contribute to uncertainty in terms of academic roles and work conflicts among them. Briggs (2005, p. 257) proposes that, “A lack of clarity about roles introduces role ambiguity and role conflict that could have a negative impact on the achievement of personal and organisational goals, resulting in employee anxiety, dissatisfaction and lack of organisational effectiveness”.

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2.4.2.5 Total Package and Salary

Attractive remuneration packages are one of the very important factors of retention because it fulfils the financial and material desires (Shoaib et al., 2009). Less than half of the academics in a national study indicated that they were satisfied with their salary and fringe benefits (Rosser, 2004). Salary retirement and job security have been shown to be important personal issues that may affect the satisfaction of academic staff. Total packages and institutional support in the university significantly influences the OC of lecturers.

2.4.2.6 Autonomy

Autonomy for an academic refers to the ability of a professional to decide on their work, actively participate in major academic decision making, to have work evaluated by professional peers, and to be relatively free of bureaucratic regulations and restrictions (Daly, 2006). Autonomous work may satisfy higher order needs for achievement and accomplishment which in turn can generate positive regard for the employing organisation and higher levels of intent to stay.

2.4.2.7 Recognition

Academic staff are the core employees in universities and their contribution in these institutions should be openly made known for them to feel valued.
Chew (2004) argues that compensation provides recognition but other forms of non-monetary recognition are also important, for example, from managers, team members and peers, customers and others. Employees tend to stay in organisations when they feel that their capabilities, efforts and performance contributions are recognised and appreciated by others.

2.4.3 Factors that Alleviate Employee turnover

The easiest way to retain employees is to augment satisfaction levels; however, that practice can only be successful if utilised in a sophisticated manner (Denisi & Griffin, 2008). Retention programs should be worked out that address the needs of employees who seem likely to resign. On the latter issue, the challenge lies in meeting different employee needs, as these are varied (Mello, 2010).

The seven factors identified by Walker (2001) that can improve employee retention are:

- Appreciation of, and compensation for, work performed.
- Provision of challenging work.
- Chances to learn and be promoted.
- Appealing organisational atmosphere.
- Positive relationships with colleagues.
- Healthy balance of personal and professional life.
- Good communications.
2.5 Theoretical Frameworks

Figure 8: A proposed theoretical framework

Variables identified from the literature were used to construct the above theoretical framework. A number of theories will be used to further explain the relationship of the three variables used in this study. The main variables of interest are POS and OC and TI. In this study POS affects OC and in return the level of commitment will determine whether an employee will quit or not.

2.5.1 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory is based on the idea that social behaviour is the result of an exchange process, whose purpose it is to maximise benefits and minimise costs.
The beginnings of this theory can be traced to the studies of Thibaut and Kelley, Homans and Blau (as cited in Brinkmann, 2005). The exchange can be understood in terms of material and non-material goods, such as the symbols of approval or prestige (Brinkmann, 2005).

According to this theory, individuals consider potential reward and risks of social relationships. Further it implies that all human relationships are shaped by using a subjective reward-cost analysis and the comparison of alternatives. Farmer and Fedor (1999, p. 352) states that, “Someone who gives much will expect to get at least the same amount back from others and in return persons that receive a lot from others will be under pressure to give much back to them”. Academics will terminate or abandon the relationship as soon as the costs outweigh the benefits.

2.5.2 Equity Theory

Equity theory (1965) is concerned with the perceptions people have about how they are treated as compared with others. The theory posit that employees seek to maintain equity between the input they bring into a job (education, time, experience, commitment and effort) and the outcome they receive from it (promotion, recognition and increased pay) against the perceived inputs and outcomes of other employees. Failure to find equity leads to various actions one of which may be to leave the organisation.
The major strength of this theory is that, it recognises that individual inputs such as education, experience, effort should be recognised in such a way that equity is experienced. It also shows that individual employees are part of the larger system. This theory therefore guides in understanding what may influence academic staff to leave in that they keep on comparing what academic staff earns in other universities and other comparable organisations in order to realise a balanced state between the inputs-outcome ratios. In turn this contributes to labour mobility within and outside the boundaries of academics (Beardwell & Claydon, 2007).

2.5.3 Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory is widely used in TI. Basic to the idea of expectancy theory is the notion that people join organisations with expectations and if these expectations are met they will remain members of the organisation (Daly & Dee, 2006). According to turnover and retentions frameworks developed from this theory, decisions to stay or leave an organisation can be explained by examining relationships between structural, psychological, and environmental variables.

Empirical studies (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004) employ the model of employee intent to stay that is grounded on expectancy theory which includes structural, psychological and environmental variables. Structural variables include, work environment, autonomy, communication, distributive justice and workload. Psychological variables include job satisfaction and OC and the environmental variables include availability of job opportunities.
However, Sutherland (2004) established that job satisfaction and OC do not necessarily lead academics to be loyal, long defined as the intention to remain with the employer.

2.5.4 Matier’s Push-Pull Model

Drawing most heavily on the work of March and Simon (1958) and Flowers and Hughes (1973), Matier (1990) proposed that both internal and external environmental factors are critical in an individual’s final decision to leave. Matier used a push-pull metaphor to explain how an academic quit. The internal factors include intangible and tangible benefits of the job, such as personal and institutional reputation, autonomy, wages, facilities, work rules, and fringe benefits. The external factors are non-work-related, such as quality of life, family, friends, and non-job-related financial considerations.

The push-pull forces are intentionally and unintentionally created by the faculty members’ employing institutions, by other higher education institutions and private sectors that extend serious offers to faculty members (Putten & Wimsatt, 1998). Matier has concluded that although both push and pull factors play a part in an individual’s decision-making process, the internal push is more operative than the external pull in an individual’s decision. “Without strong internal pushes to invite individuals seriously to consider external offers, lavish external pulls are typically not sufficient in and of themselves to disengage a faculty member” (Matier, 1990, p. 58).
2.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented an overview of the research literature related to the present study. Also, it provided an overview of the theories on perceived organisational support, organisational commitment and turnover intention. The next chapter will explain how the research was actually carried out.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter literature on POS, OC and TI was discussed. Also theoretical framework was linked to all the above listed variables. This chapter presents the methodology used in the study which includes a description of the population and the sample. The measuring instruments used for data collection are discussed, focusing on their rationale, dimensions, validity and reliability. Also, procedure for data collection and the statistical techniques used relating to the research are delineated.

3.2 Research Design

Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) assert that a research design is a plan or a blue print of how a researcher intends to conduct a study. This 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. The present study used the quantitative research design which Strauss and Corbin (1990) cited in Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997, p. 22) describe as “studies whose findings are mainly the product of statistical summary and analysis”.

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3.3 Research Method

The survey method was used to collect data for the present study. Surveys are mainly conducted by using questionnaires. Surveys are characterised by their use of predetermined questions for all respondents (Nicholas, 2007). The survey method was chosen because survey research is designed to deal more directly with the nature of people’s thoughts, opinions and feelings.

3.4 Target Population

According to Singh (2007, p. 88), a, “Population is a group of individuals, objects, or items from among which samples are taken for measurement”. The target population of the present research comprised only academic staff at the University of Fort Hare. Academics were selected in 2 campuses, that is, Alice and East London. University of Fort Hare has a total population of 313 academics (N = 313).

3.5 Sample

According to Sekaran (2003, p. 226), sampling is “the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties characteristics would make it possible for us to generalise such properties or characteristics to the population elements”. Similarly, Bryman and Bell (2000) refer to samples as the population that is selected for investigation. Samples involve collecting information from a portion of the larger group, and on this basis, infer something about the larger group (population).
A representative sample is crucial to quantitative research and must reflect the population accurately so that inferences can be drawn. Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997), states that a sample will be representative of the population from which it is selected if the aggregate characteristics of the sample closely approximate those same aggregate characteristics in the population”.

### 3.5.1 Sample Size

The sample should be large enough to allow inferences to be made about the population. A very small random sample may be quite unrepresentative and the same is true for a large non-random sample (Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). Sample size is determined in part by practical constraints such as the number of the population, finance and the time available. Raosoft sample size calculator was used to come up with the sample size. Employees were encouraged to partake in the study, and therefore 173 questionnaires were administered out of which 98 (n = 98) questionnaires were returned, thereby yielding a response rate of 57%. According to Sekaran (2000), a 30% response rate is regarded as acceptable for most research purposes. The sample size was determined by the researcher using simple random sampling method. Thus, there are limitations in this study and the results cannot be generalised to other universities other than UFH. Struwig and Stead (2001) provide some factors that should be taken into consideration when deciding on a sample size:
• The basic characteristics of the population: A small sample will be sufficiently representative in a homogenous population. In such a case, a sample of one respondent would be enough to measure the characteristics of others. Conversely, a large sample will be required in a heterogeneous population. The researcher should therefore enlarge the sample in a heterogeneous population and contend with a small sample size where the population has the same characteristics.

• Objective(s) of the research: The objective(s) of the research play(s) a role in deciding the sample size that produces the right quality and quantity of information needed. Thus, in drawing a sample, the researcher must ensure that the characteristics of the population are well represented in order to make meaningful inferences.

• Data analysis, credibility, time and financial constraints: Time and financial constraints often limit the sample size to a manageable proportion even though a larger size is recommended. Provided a correct and reliable sampling procedure has been followed.

• Non – response factor: This, according to Bryman and Bell (2003) occurs whenever some members of the sample refuse to cooperate, cannot be contacted or cannot supply the required data. When the non – response rate is high, it is recommended that a larger sample size be used.

• Statistical precision: Research designs that are less concerned with statistical accuracy (for example, qualitative, interpretative, exploratory etc.) typically do not draw large or random samples.
However, the right size of the sample must be amenable to mathematical calculation especially in the case of random sampling techniques.

3.6 Sampling Error
A sampling error is therefore defined by Bryman and Bell (2003, p. 93) as “The difference between a sample and the population from which it is selected even though a probability sample has been selected.” Samples are selected by chance and any member of the population has the chance of being selected. Samples would therefore never be the same and would always produce some degree of differences even when the same questionnaire and instructions are given, the results would still be different. Sampling errors cannot be completely eliminated but can be minimised by the researcher (Mugo, 2007).

3.7 Sampling Procedure
Sampling procedure refers to the process of selecting elements to be observed (Singh, 2007). Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) broadly divide sampling procedure into probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is a sample that has been selected using random selection so that each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected for the sample. Singh (2007) give examples of probability sampling to include systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster and simple random samplings.
From the above discussion, probability sampling procedure using simple random sampling appears to be the most popular method used by researchers because it allows generalisation to the population. The present study used the probability sampling procedure using simple random sampling method because of its merit over other sampling procedures. A list of academic staff was obtained from the HR department.

3.8 Data Collection

Data collection is the process of gathering relevant information about the subject from research participants. According to Martins, Loubster and Van Wyk (1999, p. 90), “The data gathering process may vary from relatively simple observation at a specific location to an extensive survey of large corporations across the world”. Various methods used in data gathering, especially in the social sciences and business include questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions and observation of participants. In the present study a survey questionnaire was used to collect data because of its numerous advantages and its ability to yield the most satisfactory range of reliable data. Questionnaires are most suitable in a quantitative study such as the present one.

3.8.1 The Research Questionnaire

Since this is quantitative research, the researcher made use of structured questionnaires to collect data from the employees. According to Struwig and Stead (2001, p. 89), “Questions asked in questionnaires come from a review of available literature on the subject matter and interviewing people and suggest that the questions
and design of the questionnaire should be adapted to the educational levels and background of the respondents”.

### 3.8.2 Description of the Research Questionnaire

A survey questionnaire was used to collect data from respondents in the present study. The research questionnaire was divided into four sections, including biographical information. Instruments measuring the variables in regard comprised 34 items and seven items addressing biographical information. Section A only asked three questions and Section B comprised questions that enabled respondents to evaluate the extent to which the management cares about them (POS). Section C sought questions about the commitment of the respondents and they were divided into three components of commitment: affective, continuance and normative commitment.

### 3.8.3 Reliability of the Questionnaire

The reliability of the scales used in the study was measured using Cronbach’s alpha. Struwig and Stead (2001) describe Cronbach’s alpha as a measurement of how well a set of items measure a single one-dimensional talent construct. When data have a one-dimensional structure, Cronbach’s alpha will usually be low. Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient is typically equated with internal consistency (De Vellis, 1991). For consistency to be present, the alpha must be above 0.7, but not higher than 0.9 (Struwig & Stead, 2001; & Sekaran, 2000).
In this study TI was assessed using three-item scale measured by Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham’s (1999) with Cronbach’s alpha 0.77. Item included, for example, “How often do you think about leaving the job”. The first item for turnover intention was rated on a 5-point scale from 1 (very frequently) to 5 (very rarely). The second item, with different values, was rated on a 5-point scale from 1 (completely likely) to 5 (not at all likely).

POS was assessed using a measure from Eisenberger et al., (1986). Employees rated their POS using eight items from the short form of the Survey of POS (Items 1, 3, 7, 9, 17, 21, 23, and 27). Cronbach’s alpha for POS was measured 0.84. Items for POS were measured on a 5 point Likert scale with anchors, “strongly agree” (5), “Agree” (4), “Neutral” (3), “Disagree” (2), “Strongly disagree” (1). Items included, for example, “My organisation cares about my opinions” and “Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem”.

OC was measured using the 24-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). This scale measures affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Internal consistency estimates (alpha coefficients) obtained in several studies employing the OC scales range from 0.74 to 0.89 for affective commitment scale, 0.69 to 0.84 for continuance commitment scale, and 0.69 to 0.79 for normative continuance scale.
Responses were recorded on a 5 point Likert scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). Items included, for example, “I enjoy discussing my organisations with people outside it” and “It would not be too costly for me to leave my organisation now” and “I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation”.

3.8.4 Administration of the Questionnaire

Different methods of administering questionnaires are open to a researcher. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997, p. 141), “Questionnaires can be administered through postal mail, telephone interviews, internet or self – administered. Whatever method the researcher uses places a responsibility on the researcher who bears the costs of getting the questionnaires across to the respondents”. The questionnaires in this study were administered through internet emails and subjects were expected to open the link and automatically would see a questionnaire.

The research obtained a list of academics from UFH human resources department. Once the questionnaire was filled a respondent would press submit on a questionnaire and the data would go straight to the researcher’s data base. The computer assisted electronic method of administering questionnaire is fast becoming popular among researchers. The method is however fast and anonymity of respondent is better assured. This encourages respondents to be as honest as possible when responding to the questions.
Internet method enables the researcher to collect information from any part of the world within a short period of time and use little or no money (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997).

3.9 Statistical Analysis
According to Nicholas (2008) data analysis can be described as the act in which data that is collected during the research process, are transformed into useful information and conclusions. In this study descriptive research to investigate the effects of POS and OC on TI was used. Descriptive statistics enable researchers to display the obtained data in a structured, accurate and summarised way. Researchers use descriptive statistics to summarise a set of scores and making them more comprehensible (Aron & Aron, 1999). Also, Pearson correlation and linear regression will be used to analyse inferential statistics.

3.10 Ethical Considerations
The participants were all informed about the aim and purpose of the study and told exactly what will be involved and what would happen to the data gathered from them. Data obtained from the participants were kept confidential. Data was and will not be released to other people or be published unless agreement has been obtained from the source or disguised.
The study made use of numbers rather than names to ensure confidentiality. The selection of research subjects was the result of fair selection procedures and resulted in fair selection outcomes. Permission was obtained from UFH human resources department to disseminate the questionnaires. The request was in writing stating the purpose of the study and the requirements from participants.

3.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter addressed the research methodology of the study. An extensive explanation was given about the research design, the selection of the sample, the procedure used to gather the data and the measuring instruments used. The next chapter will present the results of the research.
4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the research methodology and design used during the current study were outlined. This chapter will discuss those results in relation to the hypotheses. In the exploratory analysis tables and graphs were used. The results were analysed using SPSS.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

In this study 173 questionnaires were distributed and 98 participants responded fully. The following descriptive statistics for the sample (n = 98) provides a profile of the respondents in terms of gender, age, position, highest qualification, faculty, length of service and home language. Demographic results of the respondents are presented below using statistics and frequency distribution charts:
## Statistics

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<th></th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>Highest Qualification</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Length of service</th>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>2.54</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>Std. Deviation</td>
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<td>1.423</td>
<td>0.496</td>
<td>2.026</td>
<td>0.635</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

### Table 1: Statistics computed for biographical data

#### 4.2.1 Gender

![Gender Distribution](image)

**Figure 1: Gender distribution of the respondents**
According to figure 1, 57(58.2%) of respondents are females, while 41(41.8%) are males. Table 1 indicates that the modal class for gender is 1 and the mean value is (S.D = 1.42). Table 1 and 2 depicts that females are the majority in this study.

### 4.2.2 Age

![Figure 2: Age distribution of the respondents](image)

---

**Table 2: Frequency distribution of gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>58.2</td>
<td>58.2</td>
<td>58.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
<td>Cumulative Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 and under</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 to 34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 to 44</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>65.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Frequency distribution of age

From figure 2 it can be seen that respondents between 22 to 34 years and 35 – 44 years have the same total of 31(31.6%), while 21(21.4%) of the respondents are between 45 and 54 years old. Respondents who are between 55 and 64 years recorded 10(10.2%). The respondents above 65 years recorded 3(3.1%), while respondents under 21 years scored the lowest percentage, 2(2%). From table 1 it is depicted that there are 2 modal classes for age, mean value of 3.15 (SD = 1.13) meaning that most respondents are between 22 to 34 and 35 to 44 years.
4.2.3 Position

![Position chart]

Figure 3: Position of the respondents in their organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>junior lecturer</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lecturer</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senior lecturer</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>associate professor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>89.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>92.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senior professor</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Frequency distribution of position

As shown above, figure 3, the majority 42(42.9%) of the respondents are senior lecturers. The respondents who are junior lecturers recorded the second highest percentage, 32(32.7%). A total of 11(11.2%) of the respondents are lecturers and 7(7.1%) are senior professors. Only 3(3.1%) of the respondents are associate professors and professors.
From table 1 it is shown that the modal class for position is 3 with the mean value of 3.00 (S.D = 1.42) meaning that the majority of the respondents are senior lecturers.

4.2.4 Highest qualification

![Chart showing highest qualification frequencies and percentages]

**Figure 4: Highest qualification of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest qualification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>honours</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>masters</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doctorate</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>98</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5: Frequency distribution of highest qualification**
From figure 4 it can be seen that 52(53.1%) of the respondents have a Masters qualification, while 36(36.2%) have a Doctorate qualification. Only 10(10.2%) of the respondents have an Honours qualification. The modal class for highest qualification obtained is 2 (Masters Degree) and the mean is 2.27 (S.D = 0.63).

4.2.5 Faculty

![Faculty Distribution Chart]

**Figure 5: Faculty distribution of the respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>management and commerce</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>science and agriculture</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>44.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>62.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social sciences and humanities</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>91.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>law</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6: Frequency distribution of the faculties**
Table 6 indicates that most respondents work in the faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities 29(29.6%) and Science and Agriculture 26(26.5%). The respondents from the faculty of Management and Commerce, and Education recorded 18(18.4%) and 17(17.3%) respectively. In figure 5 it is shown that a few number of the respondents from the faculty of Law 8(8.2%) participated. It is evident from table 1 that the modal class for the faculties is 4 and social sciences and humanities, mean value of 2.83 (S.D = 1.26), have the majority of respondents who participated in the study.

4.2.6 Length of Service

![Length of service](image)

**Figure 6: Length of service of the respondents**
Table 7: Frequency distribution of length of service

Table 7 indicates that 49(50%) of the respondents have between 2 and 5 years of service with the organisation. On the other side 20(20.4%) of the respondents have been in the organisation for a period between 6 and 9 years. The respondents who have 1 or less year with the organisation recorded 13(13.3%). A total of 10(10.2%) of the respondents have been in the organisation for a period between 10 and 13 years, whereas 6(6.1%) have been in the organisation for 14 years and above. From table 1 it is shown that the modal class is 2 meaning that most people have been in UFH between 2 to 5 years. The mean value for the length of service is 2.46 (S.D = 1.04).
4.2.7 Home Language

Figure 7: Home language distribution of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isiZulu</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>74.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sotho</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Frequency distribution of home language

Figure 7 indicates that the majority of respondents are Xhosa 47(48%) or other 21(21.4%). A total of 15(15.3%) of the respondents are English, while 5(5.1%) of the respondents are Afrikaans. Only 6(6.1%) of the respondents are Zulu, whereas 4(4.1%) of the respondents are Sotho.
Table 1 show that the modal class for home language is 1 meaning that Xhosa speaking respondents are the majority in this study with the mean value of 1.42 (S.D = 1.13).

### 4.3 Descriptive Statistics for Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TI</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.169</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.555</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Descriptive statistics for variables

Table 9 shows descriptive statistics, mean and standard deviation for all the variables used in this study (POS, OC and TI). The descriptive analysis results revealed the mean value for TI is 3.07, (S.D = 1.169), on 5 Likert scale which means that the respondents on average were thinking of quitting their jobs. POS have a mean value of 2.92, (S.D = 0.742), on 5 Likert scale meaning that slightly above (majority) average respondents felt that their employer did not support them. Also, for OC the mean value is 2.80, (S.D = 0.555), on a 5 Likert scale which means that respondents slightly above average showed no signs of commitment.
4.4 Inferential Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TI</th>
<th>POS</th>
<th>OC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.505**</td>
<td>-.430**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.505**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.410**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.430**</td>
<td>.410**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 10: Pearson correlation

4.5.1 Hypothesis 1

\(H_0\): Perceived organisational support is not negatively correlated to turnover intention.

\(H_1\): Perceived organisational support is negatively correlated to turnover intention.

The results from table 10 indicates that there is a moderate, but significant, negative relationship between POS and TI (\(r = -0.50, p < 0.001\)). The researcher rejects the null hypothesis and concludes that there is sufficient evidence, at the 1% level of significance, that there is a negative relationship between POS and TI.
4.5.2 Hypothesis 2

$H_0$: Organisational commitment is not negatively correlated to turnover intention.

$H_1$: Organisational commitment is negatively correlated to turnover intention.

Also, from table 10 it is shown that there is a negative relationship between OC and TI ($r = -0.43$, $p < 0.01$). The researcher rejects the null hypothesis and concludes that there is sufficient evidence, at the 1% level of significance, that there is a negative relationship between OC and TI.

4.5.3 Hypothesis 3

$H_0$: Perceived organisational support and organisational commitment when put together account for a higher proportion of variance in TI than each of them separately.

$H_1$: Perceived organisational support and organisational commitment when put together do not account for a higher proportion of variance in TI than each of them separately.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of Estimate</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
<th>( F ) Change</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig. F Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.561(^a)</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.991</td>
<td>( R^2 ) Change</td>
<td>21.804</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), OC, POS

Table 11: Model of Linear Multiple Regression
Table 11 indicates that, the empirical model has achieved a reasonable Adjusted R-Square of 24.3%; depicting that 24.3% of the variation of employee’s TI can be accounted for by POS and OC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>42.797</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21.399</td>
<td>21.804</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>93.233</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>.981</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>136.031</td>
<td>97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: tri  
b. Predictors: (Constant), OC, POS

**Table 12: ANOVA**

Table 12 indicates that the analysis of variance with p-value 0.001 is recommended and proved the validity of the model. Overall, the empirical model of TI is proved significant and useful (p < 0.001).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>42.797</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21.399</td>
<td>21.804</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>93.233</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>.981</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>136.031</td>
<td>97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: tri  
b. Predictors: (Constant), OC, POS

**Table 13: coefficient of the variables**

The Multiple Linear Regression Model (table 13) in this study is as follows:

\[ TI = 6.149 - 0.563 \text{ (POS)} - 0.513 \text{ (OC)} \]
Multiple Linear regression models for TI explored the effect of both POS and OC towards TI. Anticipated and hypothesised relationships between POS and OC on employee TI have been supported and varied from the derived model. This explanation of variance was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) at the 0.05 significance level. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the most significant findings obtained based on empirical analysis of the data. Chapter five presents a discussion of the findings obtained and contextualises the research findings based on POS, OC and TI.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
After presenting the results of the research in the previous chapter, the implications of these results are now discussed in the light of the literature review in the first few chapters of this research. The discussion will include demographic information with regards to the sample, results obtained from the descriptive statistics and correlation for POS, POS and turnover intention. Limitations and conclusions will be drawn based on the obtained results and recommendations for future research will be discussed.

5.2 Descriptive Statistics
The aim of this research was primarily to determine the relationship between POS and OC on turnover intention amongst academic staff at UFH in the EC. A literature survey was conducted to form the hypothetical basis for the study.

5.2.1 Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Organisational Support
The sample in the study consists of 98 (n = 98) participants. The results for POS as expounded in table 9 reveals that participants responded slightly above average. It is evident because the mean score is 2.92 and that can be regarded majority.
The standard deviation is 0.73 meaning that the data set obtained is not scattered and most of responses have little variance.

5.2.2 Descriptive Statistics for Organisational Commitment

In terms of OC of the participants the results of the study as elucidated in Table 9 displays a slightly above average level of OC. The latter is indicative of a mean score of 2.80 which can be regarded as above (slightly) the average level.

5.2.3 Descriptive Statistics for Turnover Intention

Table 9 depicts that on average academics experienced TI. TI is indicative of a mean score of 3.07 and hence participants on average would like to leave. The standard deviation is 1.18 and it is acceptable as it is not more than the mean score.

5.3 Inferential Statistics

5.3.1 Discussion of Findings

The following hypotheses were investigated to explore the relationships between POS, OC and TI.

**Hypothesis 1:**

Perceived organisational support is not negatively correlated to turnover intention.
Finding 1:

Results emanating from this research indicate that a statistically significant and negative correlation exists between POS and TI \((r = -0.47, p < 0.01)\). Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

The negative relationship between POS and TI was also evident in some other studies (Wayne et al., 1997; Eisenberger et al., 2001). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) concluded that desire to remain with an organisation had a large, positive relationship with POS. Based on this stream of research, a negative relationship between POS and TI was hypothesised. Theory on organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) implies that employees who receive high levels of support from the organisation are inclined to repay the organisation. It is true that if organisational support increases TI is likely to go down, and the opposite is true.

The negative relationship between POS and TI was also evident in some other studies (Wayne et al., 1997). In other words, high POS raises the individual emotional commitment (Chen, Rober, Kelly, Ivan & Justin, 2008). The emotional commitment towards the institution will increase the efforts to achieve organisational goals by showing greater participation and employee retention (Martin, 1995). As a concluding remark, employees who feel that their organisation does not value their contribution or care about their well-being, would be expected to develop withdrawal feelings and exhibit negative attitudes such as intention to leave (Grandey, 1997).
**Hypothesis 2:**

Organisational commitment is not negatively correlated to turnover intention.

**Finding 2:**

From this study it is evident that there is a negative relationship between OC and TI ($r = -0.43, p < 0.01$). The researcher rejects the null hypothesis and concludes that there is sufficient evidence, at the 1% level of significance, that there is a negative relationship between OC and TI.

To support the findings of this study, OC has been proven to be negatively related to TI and many studies have shown the relationship between OC and TI (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Research has suggested that OC is one of the major predictors of TI (Felfe, Yan, & Six, 2008). Allen and Meyer (1991) argued that employees who are highly committed are less likely to leave the organisation.

Another study, support this research findings, found that scores on OC were negatively correlated with TI (Allen, 2003). OC in this study is also treated as an intervening variable between POS and TI. Therefore, employees with high level of OC are less likely to intend to quit than employees who are relatively not committed (Joiner et al., 2004).
**Hypothesis 3:**
Perceived organisational support and organisational commitment when put together account for a higher proportion of variance in turnover intention than each of them separately.

**Finding 3:**
This study has found that it may be deduced that a relatively moderate variance in TI (24.3%) can be accounted for POS and OC. POS and OC when put together does not account for a higher proportion of variance in TI than each of them separately. The results from Multiple Linear Regression Model indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between POS and OC on TI, thus the null hypothesis was rejected.

Eisenberger *et al.*, (1986) are of the view that employees who receive high levels of support from the organisation tend to be committed and are inclined to repay the organisation. In other words, higher levels of POS create obligations within individuals to repay the organisation with continued stay and higher commitment (Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996). Another important organisational outcome that might result from POS is commitment to the organisation hence POS and OC are put together to find out if there will be a higher variance in terms of TI.

POS may lead directly to withdrawal cognitions and turnover. However, many turnover models suggest that OC mediate relationships with withdrawal (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). OC plays a critical role in both the turnover and POS literatures.
POS and OC are conceptually and empirically linked, and OC is well established as an important antecedent in models of turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Thus, POS might be expected to be related to turnover through its impact on OC (Wayne et al., 1997).

5.4 Implications for Practice

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of POS and OC on TI among academic staff at the UFH. The second purpose was to examine the strategies to alleviate high levels of turnover at institutions of higher learning. There have been various studies investigating the correlation between POS and TI and OC and TI. The findings indicate that POS would have an influence on TI, and correlates negatively. In this study the findings indicated OC as the mediator between POS and TI. Consequently, the findings point out that POS does not directly result in high employee commitment or that if employees are committed they will not have intentions of quitting. When employees believe that the organisation is displaying its commitment to them and is supporting them then the employees perceive the organisation as supportive and these employee views make them more devoted to their organisations which in turn will alleviate TI (Chang, 2005).

A significant negative relationship was also found between OC and TI. An attempt was also made, discussion in literature review, to cover the influence HRPs has on POS. The findings would be more important for academicians and practitioners because an organisation practices several diverse HRPs and not some specific HRP.
The findings would give an opportunity to decide which practices work for an organisation and which do not. Studying the effects of POS and OC on TI would not seem to be effective as it will not be possible to detect which kind of support the academicians are looking for or considering.

In terms of biographical data females were found to be the majority, 58.2%, while most respondents were between the ages of 22 and 44, consisting of 62(62.4%) of the entire population (N = 98). From the statistics, table 1, and bar charts it has been shown that majority of the respondents were senior lecturers (42.9%). Most respondents possessed a Masters Degree (53.1%), while respondents who have a Doctorate degree consist of 36.2%.

Most of the participants came from the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities (29.6%), whereas 50% of respondents have been with UFH for a period between 2 and 5 years. In terms of home language Xhosa speaking people dominated (48%) in this study.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

Even though this study made several contributions to TI research and the UFH, it has more than a few limitations. There are a number of limitations of this study that need to be discussed:
• First, survey questionnaires were disseminated to 173 respondents, 98 respondents returned the survey questionnaires. The sample size may not be fully representative of the population of all the universities in SA. Thus, a small sample size is one of the main limitations of this research.

• Secondly, the research was limited to UFH in the EC province. Universities in industrialised and urban provinces were not surveyed due to financial and time constraints. This factor may therefore limit the extent to which the findings of the present study can be generalised.

• The third limitation is that the population, from faculties and departments, was not stratified. That can be a problem because there are certain departments or faculties which might be under/overrepresented. And the last limitation in this study is that focus was put on academics who are lecturers and not the entire populace of academia.

• And lastly, the research project employed the Likert Scale questionnaire hence restraining participants from articulating their own ideas in a different way from that of the researcher.

5.6 Recommendations

The high rate at which university lecturers quit their job in is one of the problems facing university management. Available evidence indicates that lecturers quit their job usually as a result of unsatisfactory situations such as low motivation and poor conditions of service (Ologunde, 2005).
The following are recommendations universities can use to make sure that academics view their organisations as caring; persuading employees to be committed and reduce turnover:

- From the questions asked in the questionnaire it was discovered by the researcher that academics had no confidence in their employer. They responded negative to most of the questions. Heads of Departments (HODs) should be made agents of Human Resources department and be taught on managing their staff (academics).

- The present study found that sense of belonging was one of the variables that significantly influenced academics to be loyal. University management and Human Resources department can improve on this by creating structures that make employees proud of and identify with the organisation. Such structures include corporate social responsibility, ethical practices, employee welfare, and advancement of the general good and development of the larger society.

- Most employees felt that their organisation did not care about their wellbeing. That could mean health and wellness programmes are not being used or just not there. Health and wellness programmes significantly influences employee retention. The design and maintenance of a work organisation that both supports the organisation’s objective and provides an environment that is safe and healthy for its employees will certainly help in the retention of employees. These programmes send a strong message to employees that management is interested in their health and well-being and those of their families.
• The present study discovered that most of the employees complained that their organisation would not listen to their opinions and when given a chance their employer would take advantage of them.

• A grievance procedure where academics can lodge their complaints should be established and be disseminated to everyone. This could help both the organisation and employees have a good relationship and develop a better understanding of each other.

• From the literature it is explained that overpopulated lecture halls can cause occupational stress which could motivate some other lecturers to have intentions of quitting. The solution to that is that the school shouldn’t compromise and take students more than they could handle.

• During June and December examinations the school should employ tutors to be responsible for marking of the examination scripts. That could alleviate work overload which is correlated with turnover intention.

• University of Fort Hare should amend their rewards policy. This time around academic staff should be involved in the amendment of a new policy.

5.7 Suggestion for Further Research

The following research areas can be considered for study by other researchers in future:
• Future research can be conducted to investigate the relationship of demographics on turnover intention so to foresee the turnover propensity of a variety of groupings in universities.

• This current study was partial to 1 university selected. An inclusive study that will cover all 23 public universities in SA may bring about a more generalised ending.

• There is a relationship between HRM practices and POS on turnover intention. There has been little research on the relationship between HRM practices and POS. All previous studies either used employees’ overall perception of the organisation’s HRM practices effectiveness) to study the influence of HRM practices on POS or included only certain types of HRM practices such as promotion and training and development on POS (Chang, 2005).

• Further research in HRM practices can help academicians to find which variable influence turnover intention. All HRM practices do not work for all organisations, therefore, it is important for HR managers to figure what HRM practices are working and what are not (Wayne et al., 1997).

• A study that will provide a scope for future contribution, with different HRM practices, with different organisations and a different population has to be considered.

• Overall, that kind of study could provide scope for academicians to find the best HRM practices that would work for a certain institution of higher learning.
5.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter’s aim was to draw conclusions in respect of the study and suggested ways by which UFH can improve retention practice and reduce the rate of turnover in their organisations. The chapter also identified some factors that limited the scope of the study. Recommendations were made based on the findings of the study while suggestions for future research direction were provided.
6.1 References


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My name is Xabiso Ngabase. I am a Masters student at the University of Fort Hare in the Department of Industrial Psychology. I am presently conducting a study on: “The effect of perceived organisational support and organisational commitment on turnover intention among academic staff at the University of Fort Hare”.

You are requested to complete the questionnaire as accurately and honesty as possible. Accurate and honest completion will assist in motivating your organisation to care about your opinions and wellbeing, enhance commitment and alleviate turnover. This research study is strictly for academic purposes and all the information provided by you will be treated confidentially.
The purpose of the study is to collect information on the relationship of perceived organisational support, organisational commitment and turnover intention amongst higher education staff. This survey will only take 10 minutes of your time and your input is greatly appreciated. This study intends collecting information for research purposes only. All information is strictly confidential. There is no obligation to complete the study. For further information kindly contact the researcher at xngabase@yahoo.com

* Required

**Biographical Data**

Please provide us with some basic biographical details.

1. Age

   21 and Under

2. Gender

   Male

3. Home Language

   isiXhosa

4. Highest qualification attained

   Bachelor’s degree

5. Position in the organisation

   Junior lecturer
6. Length of service

7. Faculty

**Intention to quit**
This section will assess your current turnover intentions.

8. How often do you think about leaving the job? *

   - Very Frequently

9. How likely are you to look for a new job within the next year?*

   - Completely likely

**Perceived organisational support**
This section will assess the extent to which you believe your organisation supports you.

10. My organization cares about my opinions.

   - Strongly agree

11. My organization really cares about my well-being.

   - Strongly agree

12. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.

   - Strongly agree

13. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.

   - Strongly agree
14. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.

Strongly agree

15. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.

Strongly agree

16. My organization shows very little concern for me.

Strongly agree

17. My organization is willing to help me, if I need a special favour.

Strongly agree

Organisational Commitment
This section assesses the extent to which you are committed to your organisation and the type of commitment you demonstrate.

18. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

Strongly agree

19. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.

Strongly agree

20. I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own.

Strongly agree

21. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.

Strongly agree

22. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.

Strongly agree
23. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.

Strongly agree

24. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Strongly agree

25. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Strongly agree

26. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.

Strongly agree

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

Strongly agree

28. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

Strongly agree

29. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now.

Strongly agree

30. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

Strongly agree

31. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

Strongly agree
32. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

33. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice — another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

34. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.

35. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.

36. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me.

37. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.

38. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.

39. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.

40. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.
41. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore.

Strongly agree