LABOUR HIRE: THE IMPACT OF LABOUR BROKING ON EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION AND COMMITMENT IN A NUMBER OF NAMIBIAN ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract

Over decades, job satisfaction has generated active empirical research. Similarly, organizational commitment, another attitudinal variable in the work domain, strongly related to, but distinctly different from job satisfaction, received comparatively equal research scrutiny. However, research on the impact of labour broking on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment is nonexistent in Namibia. Using a quantitative approach, within a positivist paradigm, the purpose of this thesis was to examine the impact of labour broking on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment as well as to determine the dynamics that mediate such experiences. These experiences were examined through a 5-dimensional, 72-item Job Descriptive Index and a 3-dimensional, 12-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire over a sample size of 108 temporary and permanent employees, drawn through random probability sampling in a number of Namibian organizations that make use of labour hire services. These experiences were further amplified by face-to-face interviews over a sub sample of 20 employees. Data analysis was carried out using the chi-square, correlation, t-tests and multiple regression techniques of the STATISTICA software. Drawing on the principles of the multi dimensional theory of organizational commitment, the Cornell dispositional theory of job satisfaction and the temporary employee stigmatization model, results revealed that variables of employment status, tenure, inadequate income, inappropriate supervision and fear of job losses ahead of a newly proposed piece of legislat st labour hire practices significantly influenced job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees. Estimates indicate that for a mere change in tenure, job satisfaction levels will significantly rise by 0.26 units, whereas organizational commitment will augment by

0.03 units. However, for every N$ fall in employees' pay, we can expect job satisfaction levels to decrease by 26%, but with significant effects. The study recommends that organizations must adopt policies that grant permanent tenure to all their employees, position them in respected and challenging jobs in which they will grow skills and ensure that all employees are remunerated with pay that signals their contribution to the organizations. In doing so, the negative effects of labour broking wi disappear and employees will be satisfied with their jobs and committed to their organizations.

Acknowledgement

Many thanks on this research go to several people over my time of study. These include divinity, family, friends, co-students, organizations' owners and their employees and academic figures:

God the Father granted me renewed strength and focus. My family provided admirable and indispensable support. Inge and Herbert offered resourceful assistance. Uvatera, Faith, and Kumbee valuably commented on earlier drafts. Leroy Lavita, Okeri Tjeripo, Paulandrew (Pty) Ltd, Otil (Pty) Ltd, Stanrod & Rayfen, Lesrick & Verso and Tamkayla & Munich made this research possible. Prof. Bagraim consented to the use of his OCQ instrument. Mike Routledge supervised this study.

___________To all, my sincere appreciation.

DEDICATION:

To the memory of my grandparents, Andreas Heinrich and Pauline Shivangulula, I have come to see that every good labour yields excellent rewards.

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List of abbreviations

a	Alpha
ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
AC	Affective commitment
ACS	Affective commitment scale
ß	Beta
BCEA	Basic Conditions Employment Act
CC	Continuance commitment
CCS	Continuance commitment scale
$?^2$	Contingency coefficient
$?_c$	Cramer's V
EEA	Employment Equity Act
FS	Faces Scale
ILO	International Labour Organization
JDI	Job Descriptive Index
JDS	Job Diagnostic Survey
JS	Job satisfaction
JSS	Job Satisfaction Survey
LRA	Labour Relations Act
LaRRI	Labour Resource and Research Institute
MSQ	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
n	Sample size
N	Population size
NC	Normative commitment
NCS	Normative commitment scale
NSQ	Need Satisfaction Questionnaire

OC/TC	Organizational/total commitment
OCQ	Organizational commitment questionnaire
p	The threshold for statistically significant results
PE	Permanent employee
PSQ	Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire
r	The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient
r*****	Correlation coefficient
r^2	The square of r, coefficient of determination
TES	Temporary Employment Service
TE	Temporary employee
USA	United States of America
$\bar{x}$	Sample mean
χ^2	Chi - square

Chapter 1 Introduction

This chapter is designed to introduce the reader to the central issues of this research. Essentially, it serves as a route map that guides the reader through the rest of this thesis. In presenting the overview of how the storyline of the research conducted unfolds, the chapter presents why the researcher thought the subject in question was worth studying. To that effect, the research goals are put forward. In addition, the context of the research is set. Furthermore, an outline of the chapters is staged. Finally, the chapter concludes that work domain variables, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, can be impacted upon by flexible forms of employment such as labour broking which will be discussed in the succeeding chapter.

1.1 Introduction

Numerous efforts on job satisfaction give the impression that work ought to provide much more than daily sustenance and a roof over every employee's head (Van Rooyen, 2003). Significant emphasis rests on the fact that, what a person *does*, must be useful, the *overseer* of such work ought to provide technical assistance and behavioural support, the *remuneration* in exchange for work performed must be agreed upon and, for the most part, provide sufficient coverage for expenses, co-workers ought to exhibit respect and honest interactions, whilst *advancement* that is coupled with responsibility and accompanying compensation, must elevate employees and add to the quality of their lives (Amoodt, 2004; Grogan, 2001; Luthans, 1989; Van Rooyen, 2004). Similarly, organizational commitment – the emotional sense toward the organization – ought to arise from favourable experiences and expectations while on the job (Muchinsky, 2006; Spector, 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1997). However, given all these facets, the effects of flexible forms of employment, also known as labour hire or labour broking, on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment remained unexplored.

Public sector reforms, internationalisation of labour supply firms and globalization are some of the factors responsible for the creation of flexible forms of employment in the work domain (Mitlacher, 2007). Consequently, an organization that desires to achieve greater efficiency and cost effectiveness resorts to flexible staffing arrangements (LaRRI, 2006). These arrangements relieve employers from the costly statutory obligations such as being unexposed for unfair dismissals when employees are unfairly dismissed (Mos, 2003). Thus, in their attempt to avoid high costs of direct administration of employees, employers make use of vendors that have the infrastructure to manage such compliance (Noe, Hollenbeck,Gerhart & Wright, 2000). According to Mos, these vendors are normally called agents or labour hire companies who create and put together a workforce for supply to an organization or client company. This kind of employment generates an atypical employment relationship of employer-agent-employee, compared to a conventional one of employer-employee, which, in the case of the former, creates confusion as to whom the employee is employed by as the employment periods are in most cases short (LaRRI, 2006).

Global perspectives show that labour hire is practised as a tool for acquiring needed human resources (Mitlacher, 2007). In *Namibia*, this kind of employment has emerged as a strange phenomenon which mushroomed all over its towns, just after independence in 1990 (LaRRI, 2006). In *South Africa*, the utilization of labour hire services is motivated by the availability of specialised employable corps and is regulated through the *Employment Equity Act* (*EEA*), *Labour Relations Act* (*LRA*) and *Basic Employment Condition Act* (*BECA*) (Macgregor, 2001). Unlike South Africa, Mitlacher informs that the regulation of temporary work in the *United States of America* is governed through the interaction of a borrower-lender relationship. Whereas the Namibian experience shows that labour hire services are mainly targeted toward unskilled and semi-skilled employees in the fishing, retail and mining industry, according to LaRRI, Mitlacher notes that temporary employment in the United states of America targets the superior section of its labour market and employees are required to, at least, hold a high school diploma. *Australia* seemingly shares similar characteristics of labour hire services with Namibia with regard to targeting unskilled and semi-skilled employees employable for periods as short as a few hours in some cases (Johnstone & Quinlan, 2005). Mitclacher further informs that 75% of the *German* temporary employment service has a lasting period of less than five months and is regulated by the *Personnel Leasing Act* (*PLA*), which, in its attempt to ensure equal payment for temporary and permanent employees, has undergone numerous amendments.

1.2 Goals of the research

The overall goal of this research was to determine the impact of labour broking on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In essence, the main interest was to uncover the effects that labour hire, also referred to as temporary employment or labour broking, have on the extent to which employees derive pleasure and contentment in doing their job, and on the extent to which they feel a sense of oneness with their organization (Spector, 2000; Van Rooyen, 2003). In a search for this impact, five crucial activities were performed:

1. The relationship between employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment was established through the application of the correlation analysis (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003). The following hypotheses were tested and are detailed in **table 12** of chapter 5:

H_0: r* = 0 (There is no relationship).

H_A: r* ? 0 (There is a relationship).

2. To further assess the aforementioned impact, the differences between employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment of temporary and permanent employees were explored through the application of the t-test (Howell, 2004). The following hypotheses were tested:

H_0: $\bar{x}$ = 0 (There is no difference).

H_A: $\bar{x}$? 0 (There is a difference).

3. A further strategy adopted was to predict job satisfaction and organizational commitment through multiple regressions techniques (Fox, 1991). The hypotheses that were tested were:

$H_{0:}$ ß = 0 (There is no effect).

H_A: ß ? 0 (There is an effect).

4. The association with and effect size of labour broking on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment was determined through the use of the chi-square (Greenwood & Nikulin, 1996) The following hypotheses were tested:

$H_{0:}$ $?^2$ > 0 (The effect is large).

H_A: $?^2$ < 0 (The effect is small).

Finally, perceptions and clarifications gathered through structured interviews were also helpful in assessing the impact of labour broking on job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees (Miller & Salkind, 2002).

1.3 Context

In determining the impact of labour broking on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment, this study investigated possible feelings that individuals had about the organizations they worked for. These feelings were indicated by the degree of agreement or disagreement with statements of the questionnaires. The participants were employees in a number of organizations that make use of labour hire services in Namibia from diverse economic sectors. The sample group of participants was targeted at 200 employees, however, from a 74.5% response rate, only 108 employees' responses formed part of the analysis of the results of this research. 51 of these employees were temporary and 57 were permanent. 20 employees, 10 temporary and permanent each, took part the structured face-to-face interviews. All participants were anticipated in the age range of ween 18 and 65 and random probability sampling was proposed for an equal and independent chance of inclusion for all participants.

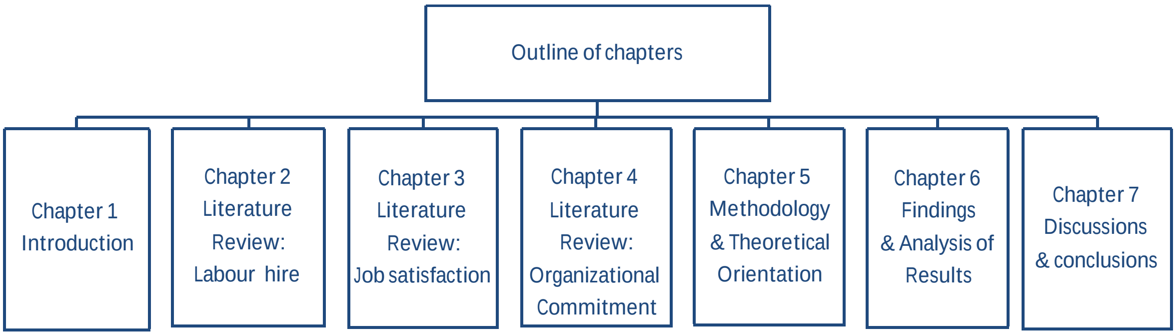
1.4 Motivation for the research

The occurrence and probable consequences of atypical employment in Namibia generated widespread attention after 1990 (Klerck, 2004). In particular, the researcher was interested in the psycho-socio-economic consequences of this kind of flexible employment – the kind of employment that generates a triangular relationship whereby the labour hire company serves as an agent or facilitator in a two-party relationship for a commission by contract (LaRRI, 2006). To explore the said consequences, work domain variables such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment were identified as worth exploring. If at all, labour hire is instrumental in alleviating soaring rates of unemployment does it also account for employee job satisfaction? Do those employed through labour hire feel a sense of oneness with the organizations they work for? Do people enjoy and feel worthy of their work in a triangular relationship? Do they find those who supervise them hard to please or influential? Do they find those they are teamed up with in the execution of their duties, stimulating or easy to make enemies with? Is there an opportunity to advance? Is the remuneration sufficient for expenses under this kind of employment practise? All these questions can be answered under a major theme referred to as the impact of labour broking on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Labour hire, is mainly found in the retail, mining, manufacturing, banking and fishing industries of Namibia (Klerck, 2004; LaRRI, 2006). The largest labour hire company which operates throughout Namibia originated from South Africa (Jauch, 2007). Even though research shows the practise of this kind of employment in developed continents such as North Ameri Europe and Australia, the effects of its expansion to the rest of the world, and to Namibia in particular, cannot be ignored (Johnstone & Quinlan, 2000). This is because employee commitment and job satisfaction can be potentially affected (Boyce, Ryan, Imus & Morgenson, 2007). It is here where we have to ask ourselves the question as to what kind of communities we want to build, especially, when the impact turns out to be psychologically and economically negative.

1.5 Outline of chapters

In addition to the introductory chapter which serves as a doorway to this thesis by introducing the subject matter, setting the context and goals of the research, this thesis is divided into seven chapters which serve as a route map that guides the reader through the rest of this thesis report. To that effect, brief details of the content of each chapter are given to present an overview of how the storyline of the research unfolds. The first three chapters after the introduction are made up of the literature review. The last three chapters encompass the methodology and theoretical orientation, findings and analysis of results and finally, discussions and conclusions. The arrangement of the chapters is presented in **figure 1** below.

Figure 1. schematic presentation of the outline of chapters



Three bodies of literature, namely, labour hire, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, have been reviewed in three different chapters.

1.5.1 Chapter 2 Literature review: Labour hire

The distinguishing characteristics of this chapter are to set the review of labour hire in its wider context. It commences with the definition of conceptual issues to grant a general understanding of the topic. Next, the chapter indicates how labour broking is conceived in the work domain. Subsequently, concerns about labour broking are highlighted. Furthermore, the global perspective of labour hiring is put forward. In addition, the legislative framework and regulation of this important construct is presented. Moreover, the empirical facts on the expansion and progress of labour hire in Namibia are exclusively focussed on. Finally, the chapter concludes that labour hire is labelled as a market mediated arrangement.

1.5.2 Chapter 3 Literature review: Job satisfaction

This chapter reviews literature on the subject matter that has generated active empirical study over decades – Job satisfaction. It commences with the description of job satisfaction. It considers the dynamics of job satisfaction and their theoretical orientation. It continues with a concise evaluation of the dispositional and attitudinal responses to job satisfaction characterised by dynamics such as the work itself, pay, promotion, supervisors and co-workers. Further, the chapter presents some theories of job satisfaction. In addition, the measurement of job satisfaction, in terms of rating scales, critical incidences, interviews and action tendencies is then staged. The chapter concludes that job satisfaction is embedded in the quality of life.

1.5.3 Chapter 4 Literature review: Organizational commitment

The focal point of this chapter is to review another attitudinal variable in the work domain, strongly related to, but distinctly different from job satisfaction. The re presents notable approaches underpinning the subject matter. Further attention is devoted to the types of commitment, their antecedents and their relation to other occupational elements. Various measuring instruments are considered. The chapter concludes that organizational commitment is an allegiance-based construct of the work domain.

1.5.4 Chapter 5 Research Methodology and theoretical orientation

This chapter explains the modus operandi employed by the researcher test the theoretical propositions of this research. To that effect, the systemised rules, procedures and practices are put forward. Epistemological, ontological and ethical considerations are presented. The research design is expounded on. The sampling with its accompanying sample size and sample-specific properties are mapped out. Moreover, the collection, capturing, analysis and interpretation of data is concisely and thoroughly presented. The chapter concludes that the array of measuring instruments includes the job descriptive index, organizational commitment questionnaire and interviews, and data is extrapolated and analysed using the chi-square, t-tests, correlation and multiple regression.

1.5.5 Chapter 6 Findings

This chapter is designed to convey and inform about the facts revealed by this research. It notes about the response rate to this research. Furthermore, the chapter discusses the results of the pilot study. Also, the demographic features of the study population are reported on. Results of all statistical tests are put forward. Tentative statements formulated earlier are tested. Clarifications and perceptions obtained through the interviews are given. The chapter concludes that most statistical tests were below the defined statistical threshold.

1.5.6 Chapter 7 Discussions

In this chapter, scientific judgement of the findings and results of the preceding chapter is given. This means that reflective thought and meaning attached to the research outcomes are provided. In addition, concise organizational and topical implications are put forward. Furthermore, potential value and limitations of this study are outlined. Suggestions for future research are offered. The chapter concludes that the impact of labour broking on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment is driven by psychological, iological and economical factors.

1.6 Conclusion

In a quest to inform the reader about the central issues of this research, the introduction chapter served as the context and the route map – the seven chapters and contents of each – to guide the reader through the thesis report. More importantly, the reader was informed about the goals and motivation of this research. The next chapter deals with the wider context of labour broking.

Chapter 2 Literature review: Labour Hire

Pressures to foster cost-effectiveness promoted the use of atypical employment relationships. In this chapter the issue of labour hire in its wider context is considered. The review commences with conceptual issues to offer an understanding of the topic. Then, the apprehension of labour broking, highlighting issues of stigmatization and stereotyping, is staged. Next, the advent of labour hire is dealt with to indicate how, where and when it has orig Subsequently, global perspectives are drawn on to determine an international tradition and practice of this phenomenon. In addition, the legislative framework and regulation of labour is examined to determine its lawfulness. After that, the characteristics of the Namibian Labour Hire are highlighted to appreciate its link to job sati ion and organizational commitment of employees. Finally, the chapter concludes that labour hire is a market mediated arrangement.

2.1 Introduction

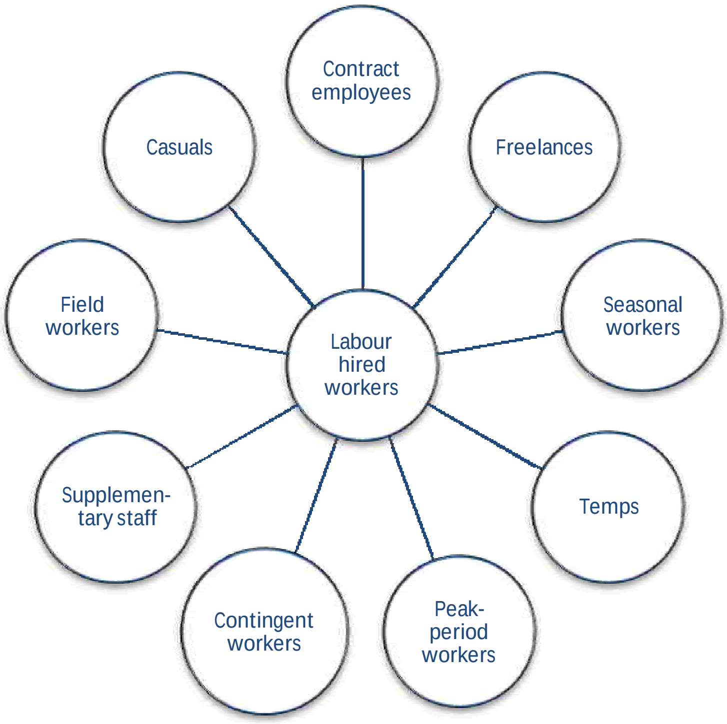
Like any social and employment system, labour hire has an impact on organizational citizens – the employer and employee (Boyce et al., 2007). On employees, labour broking can affect their job satisfaction levels and the degree of commitment to the organizations they work for (Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton, 2001). Despite that, labour hire becomes an option to turn to when the economic outlook turns out pressing – an opportunity to earn income for sustenance in times of economic hardship despite poor basic working conditions and min mum rewards (Berchem, 2005). For the employer, labour hire has been seen to provide competitive advantage – an avenue to pursue greater efficiencies (Jauch, 2007).

In Namibia, labour hire appeared as a relatively new phenomenon (LaRRI, 2006). Global experiences show that a sizeable proportion of the work force is generally influenced by factors such as public sector reforms, internationa ation of labour supply firms and competitive coercion coupled with globalization (Mitlacher, 2007). Mitlacher further argues that, turnover and employee migration are fairly high in the temporary employment services industry and some of the attributing factors to this notion are vested in the modest remuneration of labour hired workers when compared to that of individuals employed through conventional methods of employment. More significantly, those remaining in temporary employment are not only faced with job insecurity, but are sometimes confused with regard to their actual employer as they are presented with twin employment practices (Johnstone & Quinlan, 2005). A lasting solution is reflected in regulation decisions adopted through legislative frameworks in some countries (Macgregor, 2001). Some existing legislations reportedly suffered violations and fairly low levels of regulatory compliance (Mitlacher, 2007). In other countries, a complete ban of temporary employment can be the best option to ease the plight of the workers in ending hazardous working conditions and slavery (LaRRI, 2000a). As this led to labour hire being outlawed in some countries, labour affiliation bodies, such as trade unions in their reluctance to recognize labour hire or temporary agency work and their desire to see it banned, welcomed the government's intentions to outlaw labour hire operations (LaRRI, 2006). This is, to some extent, motivated by the difficulties encountered by the unions in their attempt to systematically manage, coordinate and represent labour hire workers through collective bargaining (Jauch, 2007).

2.2 Conceptual issues and definitions

Labour hire can be defined as impermanent employment services or "third party labour brokerage in which employees recruited by one person are made available to another person for monetary reward" (Van Rooyen, 2003, p.163). Amongst numerous descriptions and a variety of terms, Johnstone and Quinlan (2005) identified labour hire as body hire and peak-period-people engaged by an independent contracting agency and supplied to a host employer for temporary employment. As indicated in **figure 2** below, the temporary nature of labour broking employment further defines workers as freelances, contractual employees, temps, casuals, seasonal workers, amongst others (LaRRI, 2000a; Mitlacher, 2007). It follows that, as Mitlacher argues, when a worker is employed temporarily, a situation of expecting him or her to leave his or her employer in a short period of time is anticipated and created. Macgregor (2001) refers to labour hire as the supply or outsource of skilled and unskilled blue collar workers hired for short- and long-term positions and are known or referred to as field workers regarded necessary for supplementary staffing.

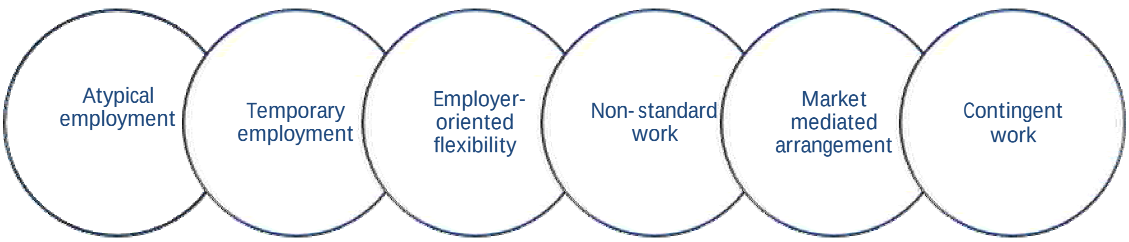
Figure2. A variety of names for labour hire workers



Source: Johnstone and quinlan, 2005; LaRRI, 2006; Mcgregor, 2001, Mitlacher, 2007

As a practice, Abraham, Brewster et al., Cordova, De Grip, Delsen, Houseman, Nardone and Polivka (as cited, in Mitlacher, 2007, p.1) refer to labour hire as non-standard work, flexible working practices and arrangements, flexible staffing arrangements, contingent work, temporary employment, market mediated arrangements and atypical employment. **Figure 3** below, portrays labour hire as a practice.

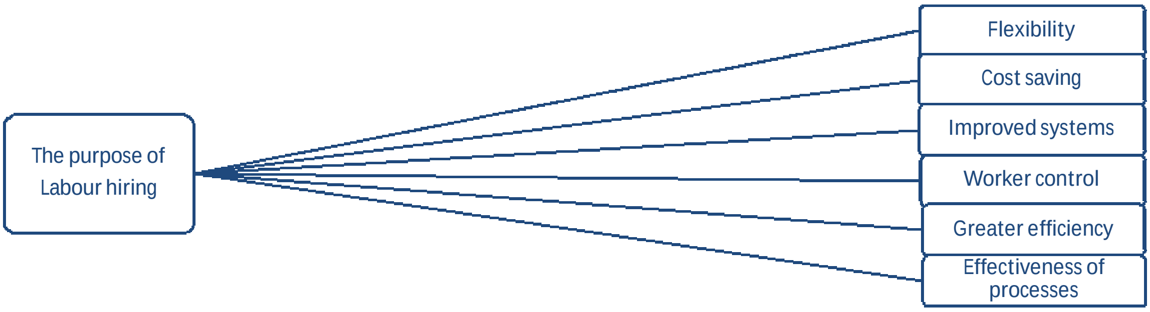
Figure 3. Labour hire as a practice



Source: Mitlacher, 2007; Larri, 2006

According to Noe et al. (2000) temporary employment practices are exercised through external vendors for the purposes of improving systems effectiveness and processes for those employers who anticipate leveraged expertise accessible at lower costs. In the description of labour hire, the commonality found in the variety of these terms is the departure from full time employment (Mitlacher, 2007). Further, this lack of full time employment is characterised by, in most cases, the absence of an indefinite employment contract, the execution of duties at the employer's locality under the employer's direction and supervision (Boyce et al., 2007). From LaRRI's, (2000a) perspective, labour hire is a flexible form of employment enforced and exercised by employers for the purpose of achieving greater efficiency. "The use of labour hire workers reflects, in part, an attempt by employers to regain greater control over workers and their trade unions" (Jauch, 2002, p. 28). **Figure 4** below depicts the purpose of labour hiring.

Figure 4. The purpose of labour hiring



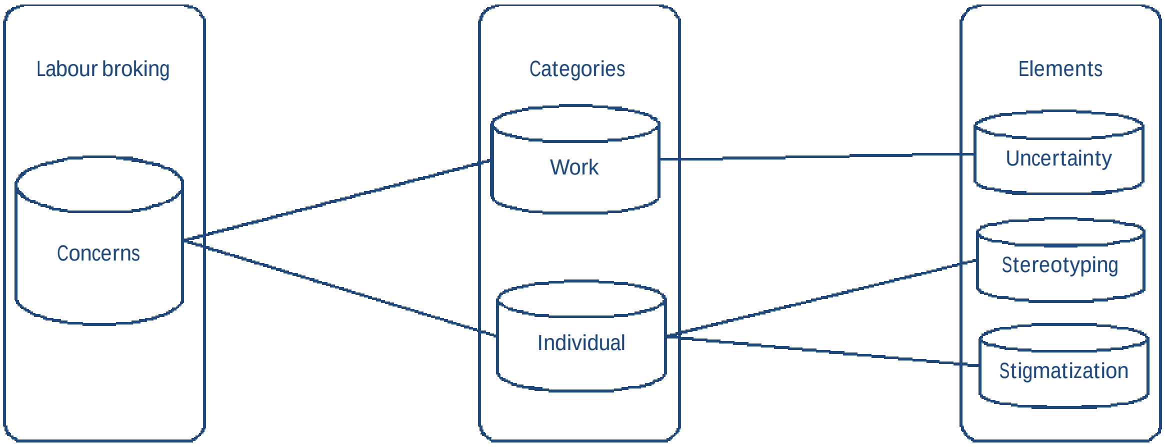
Source: LaRRI, 2000; Jauch, 2002

2.3 Apprehension of labour hire

Despite the fact that temporary employees can be found in professions such a teaching, information technology and law; Kochan, Smith, Wells and Rebitzer (1994) inform that temporary employees are generally employed in hazardous jobs or jobs of low complexity. In addition, the earnings of the temporary employees are significantly below that of their permanent counterparts and in most cases, temporary employees are less likely to have health and pension benefits (Boyce et al., 2007).

In an attempt to develop a model depicting the individual and organizational antecedents of temporary work, Boyce et al. (2007) identified 2 broad categories of apprehension or concern about labour broking. These are depicted in **figure 5** below.

Figure 5. Concerns on labour broking

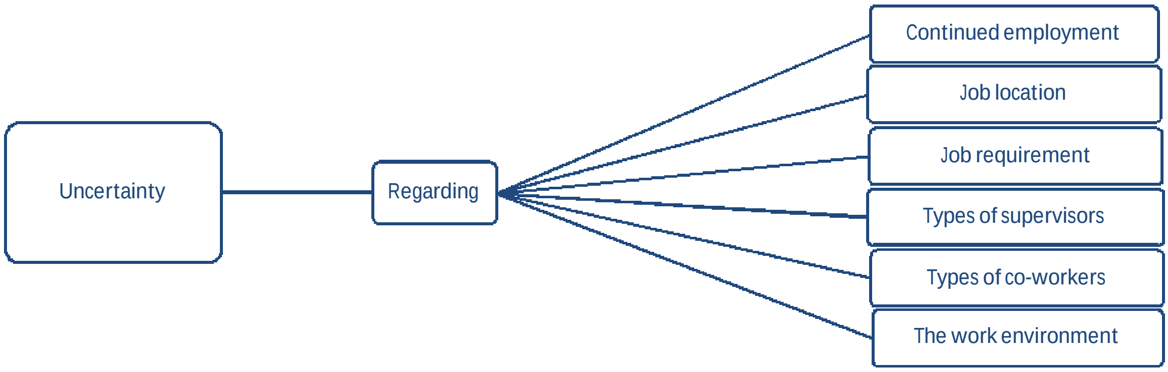


Source: Boyce et al., 2007

2.3.1 Work

Millions of people employed through labour broking go to work every day to ensure that they have a roof over their heads and can sustain themselves on a daily basis (Berchem, 2005). However, in their readiness to exert their physical and mental labour in exchange for remuneration, there is always an element of *uncertainty* (Boyce et al., 2007). Tannert, Elvers and Jandrig (2007) refer to uncertainty as the vagueness about future events – a state of limited knowledge and imprecision. **Figure 6** below illustrates common uncertainties confronting temporary employees.

Figure 6. Common uncertainties confronting temporary employees



Source: Boyce et al., 2007

2.3.1.1 Continued employment

Continued employment refers to uninterruptedly making available services to the employer in exchange for remuneration – a stable guarantee that the employee will continue to render his or her services to the employer in terms of the employment contract (Henson, 1996).

The situation of labour broking shows that, temporary employees are in constant fear of job losses as they can easily be replaced, sometimes without notice, especially due to conflicts or other matters arising from the emp   nt relationship (LaRRI, 2006). The triangular contractual agreement guarantees no continued employment of temporary employees compared to the traditional employment contract under which the permanent employees execute their duties (Henson, 1996).

2.3.1.2 Job location

Job location is a site or premises where an employee renders his or her services to the employer and is usually under the control of the employer (Boyce et al., 2007). Commonly, a job location is known to the employee as the "premises or locality where work is performed" – the setting where the employee returns to everyday in his or her attempt to render the agreed upon services to the employer (Van Rooyen, 2003, p. 165). Van Rooyen (2004, p. 98) informs that "if the employer carries on conducts two or more operations that are independent of one another by reason of their size, function or organization, each of those operations constitutes a separate workplace".

The situation of labour broking shows that, temporary employees perform their duties at the premises of client companies (Parker, 1994). More often than not, a temporary employee can be subjected to change of job location on short notice in view of the fact that the labour broking company services have numerous client companies located at different geographic areas (Henson, 1996).

2.3.1.3 Job requirement

Job requirement refers to the minimum prerequisites specified in terms of qualifications experience, skills, ability and personality traits (Van Rooyen, 2003; 2004). Various organizational tools in which requirements for a job are stipulated include the job description, job specification, and in some cases, a procedure manual which stipulates the step by step elements or aspects   ssary to carry out a job (Noe et al., 2000).

Recent empirical research by LaRRI (2006), shows that, temporary employees are employed in categories of unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled status. However, information on how the job requirement of temporary employees is facilitated, written or otherwise, seems hard to come by. This raises concerns as to how the temporary employees' performance is measured and their remuneration is determined.

2.3.1.4 Type of supervisors.

Supervisors are those organization members who are expected to get work done through supervisees (Kets De Vries, 2001). To that effect, supervisors are expected to guide and provide behavioural support to their supervisees (Luthans, 1989). In addition, every supervisor ought to possess excellent nal qualities and serve as a resource person to his or her subordinates (Robbins & De Censo, 1998).

Reports show that, temporary employees have been or are being ignored in the workplace and barriers are created to prevent them fro interacting with other organization members (Boyce et al., 2007). McAllister (as cited in Boyce et al., p. 13) reports a situation where "supervisors make no contact with a temporary employee beyond their initial cursory instruction, talking in low voices to the permanent employee on either side of the temporary employee, holding meetings from which the temporary employee is excluded and posting notices in areas where the temporary employee is not allowed to go".

2.3.1.5 Type of co-workers

Co-workers can be seen as individual members in the organization employed in similar jobs under the same supervision, who, together form a work group that is expected to serve as a source of support, comfort, advice and assistance (Luthans, 1989).

Temporary employees commonly experience being perceived as threats to job security, especially by their permanent counterparts, consequently, they are treated with deficient support and assistance in the workplace (Stangor & Crandall, 2000).

2.3.1.6 The work environment

The work environment refers to both the physical climatic and psychological conditions under which employees are expected to perform their duties (Aamodt, 2004). Both these conditions can be good or poor (Luthans, 1989).

Kochnan et al.(1994) asserts that temporary employees usually employed in hazardous jobs. Temporary employees are subject to undesirable psychological conditions in the workplace, e.g. stigmatization (Boyce et al., 2007).

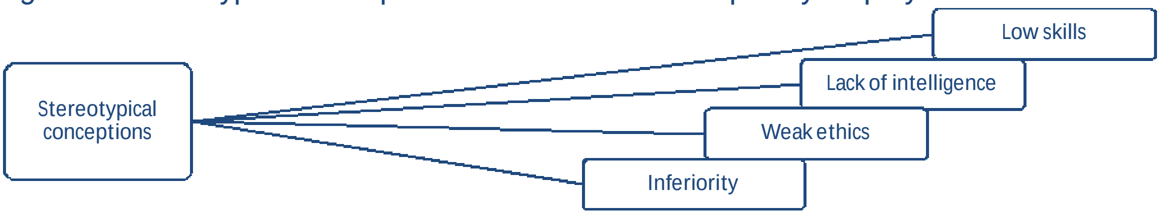
2.3.2 The Individual

The second concern about labour broking spreads from the individual's perception and this can be classified into two major themes, namely stereotyping and stigmatization (Boyce et al., 2007).

2.3.2.1 Stereotyping

Stereotyping is an area of social perception (Noe et al., 2000). It has to do with the tendency of perceiving another person as belonging to a single class or category (Haberstroh, Oyserman, Schwarz & K?hnen, 2002). Ashmore and Del Boca (1991) refer to stereotyping as a series of beliefs, viewpoints and judgements about the characteristics of members of a particular social category. **Figure 7** below illustrates the stereotypical conceptions associated with temporary employees.

Figure 7. Stereotypical conceptions associated with temporary employees



Source: parker, 1994

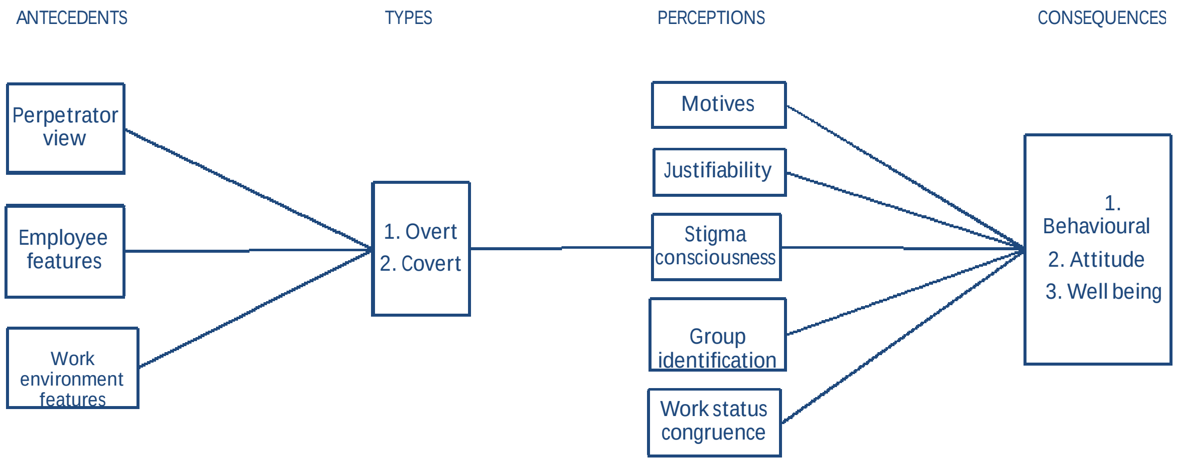
2.3.2.2 Stigmatization

Stigmatization can be referred to as the disapproval of personal beliefs and other personal features which often leads to marginalisation (Link & Phelan, 2001). According to Link and Phelan, stigmatization emerges when the following four factors are present: (a) status loss and discrimination (situations that can cause an unequal or imbalanced state of affairs), (b) the us-and-them scenario (situation of establishing a sense of disengagement by labelling and placing people in distinguishing groups), (c) the set-apart-and-tag scenario (the oversimplification of creating groups e.g. white vs black or old vs young) and (d) belief segments (customary and established cultural norms and belief ties).

In the case of temporary employees, the core of stigmatization falls on work status, because the “stigma associated with temporary work is derived from a lack of status” (Boyce et al., 2007, p. 7). Despite the fact that some temporary employees are employed in high skill and professional occupations, Cohen (1992) argues that the status difference is inherent in temporary work and this is evidenced by a variety of factors such as low pay, lack of pension and other benefits, stereotypical lack of intelligence and the impermanent nature of the temporary employees’ employment relationship.

The above argument is supported by Boyce, Ryan, Imus, Morgeson and Hauer (2005) when they found that at least one fifth of temporary employees in light industrial occupations reported various types of stigmatization. The focal point is that, in the case of temporary employment, stigmatization entails being dealt with in a devalued manner, because of possessing several significant features; in this case, because an employee is a temporary employee (Boyce et al., 2007). To grant a better understanding of stigmatization of temporary employees, the model of stigmatization by Boyce et al. explaining types, perceptions, consequences and antecedents of stigmatization, indicated in **figure 8** below, is drawn on.

Figure 8. Temporary employee stigmatization model



Source: adapted from Boyce et al., 2007

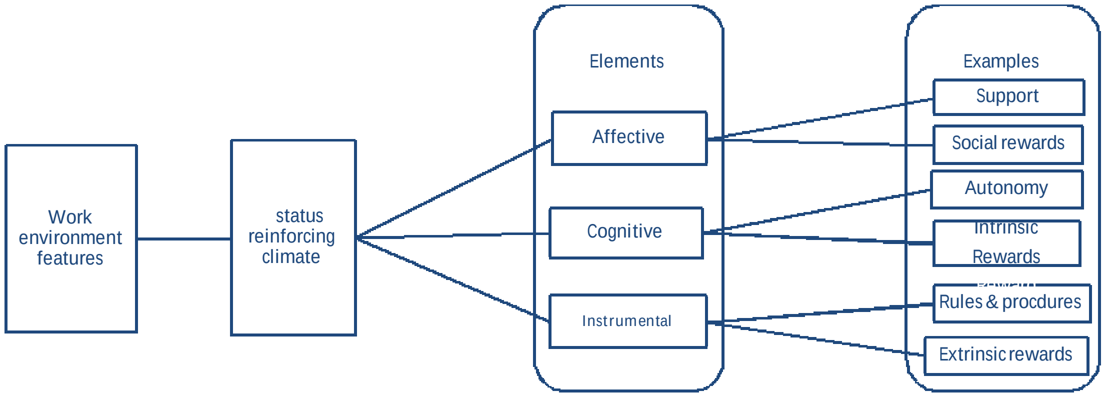
As an antecedent, the *perpetrators view* is confronted with perceived *status* and *threats (*Boyce et al., 2007). The former refers to a condition of reputation or prominence that needs to be controlled in view of the fact that, is being seen can be disliked or rejected (Crandall & Eshleman, 2003). As hard work and determination are viewed as necessary conditions for success, Crandall and Eshleman (2003) suggest that the stigmatised person, in this case the temporary employee, will want to see his or her social status protected, because he or she works hard to be counted in the success category. The latter refers to mistreatment directed toward temporary employees from a viewpoint of threatening the job security of their permanent counterparts (Stangor & Crandall, 2000). What the perpetrators, the permanent employees, are not aware of is that temporary employees are employed to provide flexibility, assist the organization to reduce costs and add expertise knowledge to the organization (Wong, 2003).

The second antecedent, *employee features*, has to do with the visibility of work status (Boyce et al., 2007). Stigmatization treatment, as Boyce et al. put it, is a function of visibility or concealable treatment, and temporary employees are aware that they are known publicly by their neighbours and colleagues. This public knowledge is often triggered by the organizational symbols carried by temporary employees such as the uniforms they wear which have direct bearing on their visibility of work status (Rogers, 2000). Kelly (as cited in Boyce et al., 2005, p.11) shares a sentiment by a temporary employee that reveals this visibility notion: "*As a temp, I was required to wear this humiliating badge at all times while on the job and can still hear the snickers I would get when walking into a conference room*." Stangor and Crandall (2000) recommend this kind of stigma to affect managerial action and organizational policy.

The third antecedent refers to *features of the work environment*. *Status composition* and *status reinforcing climate* can be viewed as environmental factors underlying the experiences of stigmatization treatment of temporary employees (Boyce et al., 2007). In terms of status composition, Deitch, Butz and Brief (2004, p. 208) suggest that "individuals who are sole representatives of their social group tend to be viewed stereotypically and subjected to greater scrutiny than those who are not so isolated." According to Ragins and Cornwell (2001), this phenomenon has been demonstrated across a variety of characteristics such as age, gender and sexual orientation. For example a thirty year old cleaner among twenty year old cleaners can be subjected to treatment of stigmatization.

Therefore, it is against this background that Boyce et al. (2007, p.12) suggest that "temporary workers will be subject to greater stigmatizing treatment in workgroups in which there is a smaller proportion of temporary workers than in workgroups in which there is a greater proportion of such workers." In terms of the second environmental factor, status reinforcing climate, temporary employee can experience stigmatizing treatment along a variety of dimensions (Parker, 1994). Parker et al. (2003) identified three of these aspects as indicated in **figure 9** below.

Figure 9. Elements of status reinforcing climate



Source: Parker et al., 2003

Boyce et al. (2007) asserts that the role of power and status can contain a substantial amount of stigmatizing treatment for the temporary employee. Strong instrumental and affective focus can reinforce stigmatization, however e civility in the form of mutual respect or the cognitive aspect of organizational climate, can lessen stigmatizing treatment of temporary employees (Parker et al., 2003). According to Neuberg, Smith and Asher (as cited in Boyce et al., 2005), stigmatization can range from reasonable dislike and evasion, sentimental and behavioural dismissal to extreme dislike and genocide. Temporary employees may experience various *types* of stigmatizing treatment that can be *overt*, i.e. a mere statement such as "you are lazy", to *covert,* such as change in supervisory behaviour in social interactions (Parker, 1994, p.13).

Boyce et al.'s (2007) stigmatization model suggests that the *perceived motive* of the perpetrator is difficult to pinpoint, however unjust actions ought to be *justifiable* as stigmatizing treatment. Parker et al.(2003) caution that the constant awareness of stigmatization of temporary employees can lead to *stigma consciousness* – a mere individual difference – such that highly stigma conscious temporary employees perceive stigmatizing treatment more often than not compared to low stigma conscious employees.

Perceptions of stigmatization are also found in *group identification*. According to Crocker and Wolfe (as cited in Boyce et al., 2007) "highly identified individuals interpret ambiguous prejudice cues as discrimination ... and can therefore use their temporary status as a lens for event interpretation more often than those ... for whom temporary status is a core part of their self-definition" (pp. 6-17). The fit between employees' ideal work status and actual work status or work *status congruence* is also a ground for stigmatization perception (Boyce et al., 2005). As a result, Boyce et al.'s stigmatization model of temporary employees concludes that, work status congruence may function as a moderator of whether stereotypic treatment results in feeling of stigmatization. *Consequences of stigmatization* are that both the psychological or *well-being* and physical health of the victim can be affected (Major, Quinton & McCoy, 2002). Job *attitudes*, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment can be affected in that the employee may experience mood disorders, or rather, transient mood states (Berchem, 2005). Anderson et al., 2001 indicates that behavioural outcome as a result of stigmatization can manifest in counterproductive behaviours and withdrawal from the part of the temporary employee and may affect any other employee.

2.4 The advent of labour hire

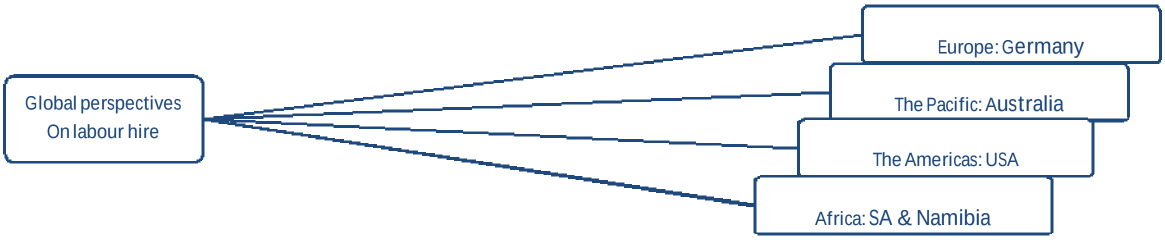
The genesis of labour hire, how, where and when it has originated, is hard to pinpoint. Speculations are that it started as a mere business venture, a way of gaining advantage, making money by controlling and manipulating costs, however, its commencement is traceable over decades (Johnstone & Quinlan, 2005; Noe et al., 2000). Mos (2003) views it as a back-up relief system, mainly used during peak periods and hence responsible for the reduction of a substantial portion of the workforce by a variety of companies, principally, to curtail or limit the unionisation of workers. LaRRI (2006, p. 9) informs that the practice of labour hiring can be seen as a way of relieving employers from labour statutory obligations such as remaining unexposed for unfair dismissals in the event workers are unfairly dismissed – "...in cases of unfair dismissal the labour hire and the client company might seek to deny the aggrieved worker is their employee."

Mos (2003) further noted that the notion of establishing labour hiring entities transformed into a common phenomenon in recent years whereby such companies enjoy the status of separate legal entities providing bour services to their organizational processes, operations and business ventures. However, this practice produced major predicaments where employee safety and underpayment feature prominently. In Namibia, labour hire emerged in the late 1990s and is viewed as an explicit kind of outsourcing (Jauch, 2007; Klerck, 2004). The size of the labour hire industry comprises at least 10 companies of which the biggest, functioning throughout Namibia, originated from South Africa (LaRRI, 2006).

2.5 Global perspectives

Of late, the surging trend in labour hire is seen to be a global Human Resources phenomenon (Mos, 2003). The continents and countries shown in **figure 10** below offered insights on the practice of labour hire globally.

Figure 10. A schematic presentation of global perspectives of labour hire



Source: Johnstone and Quinlan, 2005; LaRRi, 2006; Mcgregor, 2001; Mitlacher, 2007

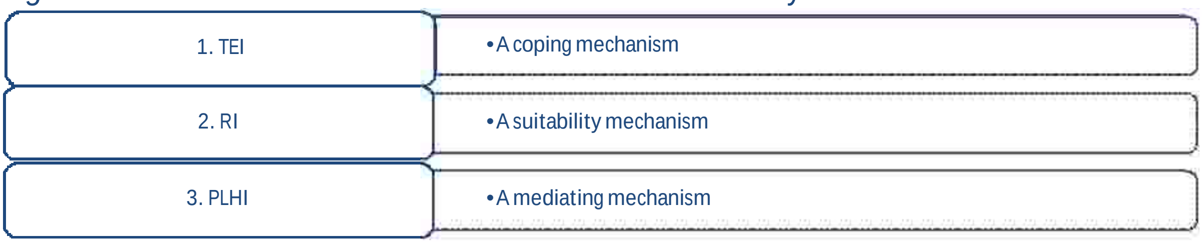
2.5.1 Europe

In Europe, the German experience shows that 1.4% of total employment is apportioned to temporary agency work of which the industrial sector is the main recipient of temporary employees to the tune of 34.8% and 15.5% in production jobs and the service sector respectively (Mitlacher, 2007). Mitlcher further notes that unskilled workers are mainly men who represent 30% of the temporary agency work, indicating that the German labour market utilizes temporary employees in its low qualified segment, which has a short-term duration of about three months or less. In addition, Mitlacher informs that the temporary workers' turnover in Germany is fairly high compared to other types of employment and that the remuneration of these workers is modest compared to that of their permanent counterparts to the tune of 22% and 40% by variation. The *regulation* of hired employees in Germany is administered in terms of the Personnel Leasing Act which recently underwent a variety of amendments, the latest being in January 2004, to ensure equal payment for both hired and permanent workers (Mitlacher, 2007).

2.5.2 Australia

In Australia, the practice of labour hire is nothing new as the use of temporary work agents can be traced back for more than a century in industries like construction and agriculture, and its expansion over the past two decades has been dramatic (Johnstone and Quinlan (2005) note that Labour leasing in Australia is not limited to small operators, on the contrary, global operating firms have grown to be key operators in their own rights. **Figure 11** below shows the three antecedents akin to the Australian labour hire industry (O’Neill, 2004).

Figure 11. Antecedents to the Australian labour hire industry



Source: Johnstone and Quinlan, 2005; O’neill, 2004

According to O’Neill (2004) these antecedents are, firstly, the *traditional agency employment industry (*TEI) which offer coping mechanisms to client companies through expertise knowledge in times of temporary workers shortage, secondly, the *recruitment industry* (RI) which developed in the 1970s and 1980s, specialising in the provision of suitable employees to client companies or testing the suitability of such employees for hiring by the host companies, thirdly, the *pure labour hire industry (*PLHI) which expanded in the late 1980s due to the replacement and supplementary offerings by specialist companies against active employees in vastly unionised and dispute-prone industries.

Johnstone and Quinlan (2005) assert that labour hire workers represent a progressively sizeable portion of the Australian contingent workforce mainly due to public sector reforms, internationalization of labour ply firms and competitive coercion coupled with globalization.

According to O'Neill (2004) recent estimates by the Australian Bureau of Statics indicated that, 290 100 employees have been employed through the temporary work agencies in June 2002 and those paid by the labour hire firms amounted to 162 000 compared to 84 000 in November 2001 and November 1999 respectively. O'Neill further asserts that, the work duration of a labour hired employee varies between a single day to a number of years, however, the standard time-span of labour hire assignments were estimated at six weeks and the payment is fixed in terms of casual rates of pay, despite the equal length in working hours compared to permanent employees. In addition, O'Neill informs that labour hire in Australia is regulated through federal jurisdiction in terms of the Workplace Relations Act (WRA) which prevents hired workers employed for less than 12 months from being unfairly dismissed.

2.5.3 The United States of America

In the United States of America, the bureau of labour statistics indicates 2.6% of total employment constitutes temporary employment, of which 42.4% accounts for the services sector and is dominated by female temporary employees to the tune of 53.8% (Mitlacher, 2007). Further, Mitlacher notes that unskilled and semi-skilled employees are uncharacteristic of the US labour hire industry in view of the fact that hired employees possess high school diplomas and more than 20% to 30% are in possession of college and bachelor degrees, signifying an educated temporary workforce. Also, according to Mitclacher, temporary work in the US is regulated by the interaction of a borrower-lender relationship whereby the client companies and temporary work agents act as borrowers and lenders respectively. Finally, Mitlacher informs that the differences in the remuneration of permanent and temporary employees are determined by qualification and the kind of work, however, according to the US Labour statistics of 2003, the difference in earnings is 24% in favour of permanent employees.

2.5.4 South Africa

Over a decade and more the expansion of labour hire, also known as temporary employment services or labour broking, has been significant in South Africa. Palmer, (2009, p. 2) asserts that " with over 6000 recruitment centres nationwide, the labour broker sector has experienced rapid growth over the period of 1995 to 2002, the R 26 billion employs approximately 500 000 people per year. Factors contributing to the success of the industry are fourfold. Firstly, sonal changes in product demand, staff absence, or a need for employees with scarce skills for a short period of time increases the demand for a flexible workforce. Secondly, labour broking is attractive from an economic-efficiency standpoint, as brokers have incentive to train their workers to possess a pool of skills which are developed further by the multitude of tasks that they perform in the workplace. Thirdly, there is a perception that abour brokers are better suited than their clients to manage compliance with the administration surrounding employment and the costs involved, and the ability of the client to pass the risks associated with employment on to the broker. Lastly, the legislative climate is accommodating, as the *Labour Relations Act* (*LRA*) allows for the lawful operation of the industry." Macgregor (2001) lists three acts which regulate the labour broking industry or temporary employment services in South Africa. These are indicated in **figure 12** below.

Figure 12. South Africa's legislative framework of temporary employment

Source: Macgregor, 2001

The *Employment Equity Act (EEA)* which, in terms of Section 57, pronounces a labour hired or temporary employment services employee an employee of that particular client company if that employee's service provision is for a period of three months or an indefinite period. In addition, the *Employment Equity Act* (*EEA*) stipulates a mutual joint and several liability of the client company and the temporary employment service in the event of unfair discrimination (Macgregor, 2001).

In terms of the *Labour Relations Act* (*LRA*), the coming to being and operations of temporary employment services are permitted and officially recognized, however, an outstanding ruling of this act is grounded in the fact that "an employee of the temporary employment service moreover will remain an employee of the temporary employment service despite the employee performing services for the client of a temporary employment service" (Macgregor, 2001, p. 1). In the event of infringement or violation of the collective agreements and arbitrat awards, the temporary employment service and its client will be held jointly and severally liable in terms of Section 198 of the *Labour Relations Act* (*LRA*), asserts (Palmer, 2009).

Thirdly, the *Basic Conditions Employment Act (BCEA)* is another piece of relevant legislation to South African Labour hire or temporary employment service. Any salary disagreements, overtime disputes and/or improper worki hours arising from the relationship of the temporary employment service with temporary employed employees are governed through Section 82 of the *Basic Conditions Employment Act (BCEA)* (Macgregor, 2001).

As in the case of Namibia, contractual arrangements of the South African temporary service are tripartite – arising from the triangular relationship of employer-agent-employee. The substantial contracts firstly exist between the temporary employment service and the client company and secondly, between the client company and the temporary hired employee (Jauch, 2007). According to Macgregor (2001, p. 1) "the principle agreement entered into between the TES and the client usually provides for a series of indemnities from the TES to the client in spect of various issues, including those areas in which the client would be jointly and severally liable" – however, an additional factor is that the provisions governing the TES' do not apply to independent contractors".

2.6 The Namibian perspective

In Namibia the term labour hire is applied to temporary employment services or temporary agency work. To the Namibian labour market, labour hire practises are post-independence phenomena and labour hire organizations mushroomed prominently in various towns (LaRRI, 2006). More or less 14 labour hire companies are reportedly operational in Namibia, the most dominant, operating across Namibia emanated from South Africa. The client base of these organizations includes both private and state-owned enterprises (Jauch, 2007). The nature of labour hire practiced in Namibia is that of “labour-only contracting where the subcontractor supplies labour only” and is a different subcontracting from the one which supplies goods or services called job contracting in terms of the International Labour Organization (ILO) categories of subcontracting (LaRRI, 2000a, p. 1). **Table 1** below shows the facts sheet of the labour hire operations in Namibia.

Table1

A fact sheet of Labour hire operations in Namibia

Category	Fact
Conception:	After 1990 – a post-independence event
Nature:	Labour-only-contracting
Contract type:	Dual
Contract relationship:	Triangular
Targeted employee type:	Unskilled, semi-skilled, skilled
Client base:	Private and state-owned
Recipient sectors:	Mining, manufacturing, retail, fishing and other
No. Of labour hire companies:	+- 10
No. Of labour hire employees:	+-10 000
Employee remuneration:	N$ 2 – n$ 6, 20/hour
Employment time span:	Ranging from an hour, to months, to years
Legislative framework:	Labour act, act no. 11of 2007
Legislation status:	Inoperative – clause on labour hire temporarily halted
Current standing:	Anticipated transformation/lay-offs

Source: Larri (2000; 2006)

The demand for labour hired workers is motivated by factors such as the irregularity of the work of the client companies, the occurrence of peak periods and overall cost reduction, amongst others (Jauch, 2002). Unlike in the USA, the Namibian labour hire industry is dominated by the use of mostly unskil and semi-skilled workers, therefore; in most cases, the supply of workers by some labour hire companies to client companies ranges from skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labour and is done so in terms of the aspirations of the labour hire end-user – the client company (LaRRI, 2006). Additionally, employees employed through labour hire companie not only faced with job insecurity, but also with uncertainty with regard to their actual employer – the labour broker or the client company (Jauch, 2007).

Impermanency of employment is a significant feature in the use of temporary workers – the duration of employment for people employed through labour hire agencies ranges from a few hours to months and even a year " even if they worked for the same labour hire company and the same client company *for several years*, they have no job security and are employed on the basis of no-work-no-pay – their employment contract with the labour hire company is terminated as soon as the commercial contract between the labour broker and its client ends" (LaRRI, 2006, p. 5). This produces fear of loss of employment among labour-hired workers. The exchange of workers between the labour hire agencies and the client companies is administered through contractual terms of which the contract is of dual a nature, *firstly* between the client company and the labour hire company and *secondly*, between the labour hire company and the labour hired e oyees - the former is referred to as the commercial contract and the latter, the employment contract (LaRRI, 2000a).

This type of contract produced a triangular relationship of employer-agent-employee – atypical to the traditional one of employer-employee (LaRRI, 2006). For the labour hired employee this, sometimes, results in confusion who his or her employer really is. (LaRRI, 2000a). In his special report, Jauch (2002) spells out that, an hourly rate is paid to labour hired workers by the labour hire company and not by the client company directly. According to Jauch (2002, p. 28), "some of these companies deducted as much as 75% from their workers earnings and paid workers as little as R2 per hour. Wages can range between R3,50 and R5,20. Most labour hire workers earn less than R4 per hour. These rates could be compared to an estimated rate of R6,20 per hour paid to casuals employed directly by a company."

Elevating rates of unemployment and social costs made difficult for the Government to outlaw the operations of labour hire companies (LaRRI, 2000a). According to LaRRI (2006, p. 7), the "proposed guidelines for labour hire and employment agencies of 2000 were never implemented and the stipulations in the new Labour Act (2004) are insufficient to deal with the problems experienced by labour hire workers." The major turnaround is found in the new Labour Act (2007, p. 103) gazetted in December 2007, specifically where clause 128 states that "no person may, for reward, employ any person with a view making that person available to a third party to perform work for the third party". The implementation of this clause was brought to a standstill pending the outcome of a lawsuit in the high court by a one of the largest labour hire company against the government (Menges, 2009).

2.7 Conclusion

The objective of this chapter was to consider labour hire in its wider context prior to assessing its impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees. Global perspectives show that labour hire is a market mediated arrangement that hire employees as peak-period-people and supplementary staff for non-standard work to client companies. A number of concerns label labour broking as a less preferred mode of employment. These include certainty of continued employment, change of job location, undocumented job requirement, inappropriate treatment by supervisors, stereotyping and stigmatization. Of concern is that, people employed through labour hire services are prone to stigmatization and stereotyping. A prominent development is that labour hire is facing prohibition in Namibia. The next chapter will consider the topic that has generated active empirical study over decades – job satisfaction.

Chapter 3 Literature review: Job satisfaction

In this chapter, the topic that has generated active empirical study over decades – the extent to which an employee derives pleasure and contentment in doing a job – will be reviewed. The review starts with the description of job satisfaction. Then, the dynamics of job satisfaction, in terms of motional responses, outcome vs expectations and attitudinal responses, pave the way to further review and discuss this important construct. The focal point of this research as drawn from the Cornell Interactive theory of job satisfaction is then staged. The attitudinal responses to job satisfaction, characterised by aspects such as the work itself, pay, promotion, supervision and co-workers, are presented. Three categories of job satisfaction theories, namely, situational, dispositional and interactive, are presented. The measurement of job satisfaction is then set and some of the common measuring tools such as rating scales, critical incidences, interviews and action tendencies are highlighted. The chapter concludes that job satisfaction is embedded in the quality of life.

3.1 Introduction

"When people speak of employee attitudes, more often than not, they mean job satisfaction." (Robbins & De Cenzo, 1998, p. 84).

Over the past decades numerous studies conducted on job satisfaction show that the construct of job satisfaction became a function of factors such as age, education, job level, and productivity – a conviction that *happy workers are productive workers* (Lawler, 1995). According to Lawler, job satisfaction represents a measure of the quality of life for every worker and has to do with the perception of the meaning of fairness through attitudinal responses. In turn the meaning of fairness is perceived in facets such as the work itself, pay or remuneration in the form of salaries and wages, supervision for technical and behavioural support, promotion and association with co-workers (Staw, 1995). Luthans (1989) asserts that the appraisal of the job of an employee is central to job satisfaction. Despite its variation, job satisfaction has different meaning for different people (Cano & Miller, 1992). To some, a pay that covers expenses comfortably, produces a feeling of job satisfaction (Robbins & De

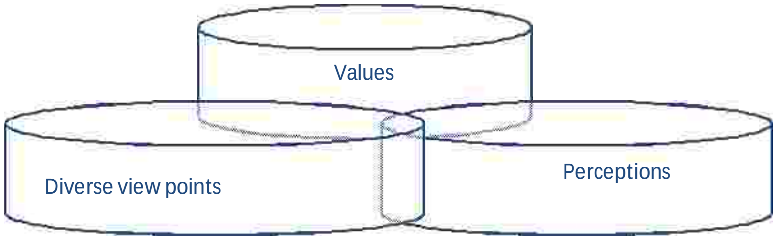
Cenzo, 1998). To others, promotion that is balanced with responsib ty can produce a rewarding emotional state (Spector, 2000).

3.2 Definition

Lock (as cited in Luthans, 1989, p. 176) defines job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal one’s job or job experience.” Luthan’s view of job satisfaction is centred around attitude – the consequence and effect of people’s awareness and perception of how suitably their job provides those things which are viewed as essential and critical to their livelihood. In support, Spector (2000, p. 197) views job satisfaction as an attitudinal variable reflecting the feelings of people about their jobs overall including various aspects – “thus the extent to which people like their jobs.” Van Rooyen (2003, p. 22), holds that job satisfaction is the “extent to which an employee derives pleasure and contentment in doing a job - the degree to which compensation, recognition and opportunity to apply abilities in the job situation meets the expectations of an employee.” Robbins and De Cenzo’s (1998) stance is that job satisfaction conforms to evaluative statements or attitudes concerning organizational events relative to its employees rather than a behaviour shown by the same employees and this attitude is mainly general toward his or her job.

Hulin and Judge (as cited in Muchinsky, 2006) are of the opinion that affective responses to a job are rooted in the deserved-expected-actual-outcome comparison, implying that employees’ expectations that transform into realistic outcomes have the potential to develop into a positive emotional state toward their jobs. In addition, Noe et al. (2000) note that, feelings of job satisfaction are found to be time-bound depending on the circumstances of people. For example, a promotion that comes with a salary increase at the time an employee is financially constrained, generates affective response toward the job that particular employee finds himself or herself in (Spector, 2000). In defining job satisfaction Noe et al. highlight the following three aspects indicated in **figure 13** below. In terms of these three aspects, firstly, Noe et al. say that job satisfaction is deterministic of *values* – what a worker or employee consciously wants or unconsciously desires and aspires to obtain. For example, an employee who values dignity at work may consciously or unconsciously demand to be treated with respect (Peyton, 2003). This implies that, as Peyton puts it, high priority is placed on honest interaction and open communication that ought to be enshrined in the core values or corporate charter of the organization.

Figure 13. Aspects defining job satisfaction



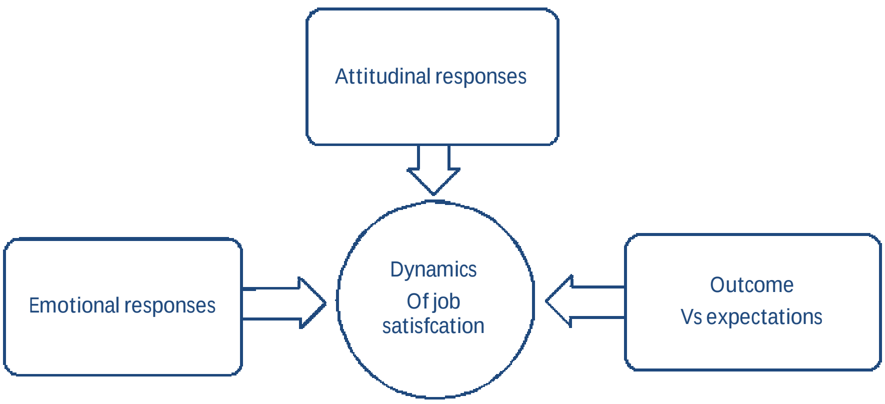
Source: Noe et al., 2000

Secondly, employees in their diversity as people have *different views* and opinions of which values are significant – the critical determinant of employee job satisfaction (Noe et al., 2000). For example, as opposed to the first example above, so e derive job satisfaction through dishonest interaction with others, especially if it carries the approval of their superiors with whom they share similar interests – that of gaining credit at the expense of others (Peyton, 2003). Thirdly, according to Noe et al., there is some presence of an element of *perception* – the perception of a person's current state of affairs relative to his or her values matters.

3.3 The dynamics of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is determined by a mixture of a number of occupational aspects (Cano & Miller, 1992). Luthans (1989) distinguishes between three essential dimensions to job satisfaction. These are indicated in **figure 14** below.

Figure 14. Dynamics to job satisfaction



Source: Blythe, 1997; Luthans, 1989

3.3.1 Emotional responses

This has reference to the invisible responses to job situations which instead amount to inferences (Blythe, 1997). Cano and Miller (1992) assert that the invisibility of these responses is determined by the affective nature of such responses. According Gallup, Hugick and Leonard (as cited in Spector, 2000), this affective nature is, therefore, what a person feels in a job situation. Robbins and De Cenzo (1998) refer to emotional responses as a feeling segment of a person's attitude toward a job or even toward the organization he or she works for.

3.3.2 Outcomes vs expectations

The perfect movement of outcomes ahead of expectation sults in job satisfaction – differently put, "how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations" also amounts to job satisfaction (Luthans, 1989, p.176)

3.3.3 Attitudinal responses

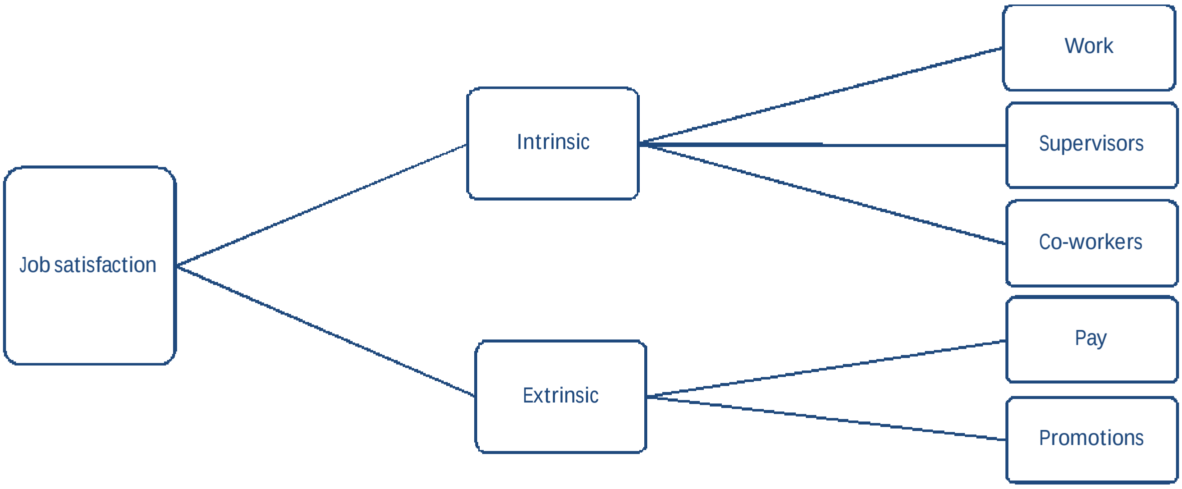
Several related attitudes represent job satisfaction (Luthans, 1989). According to Blythe (1997) attitudinal responses can reflect cognitive, affective and most probably behavioural elements. However, as Robbins and De Cenzo (1998) caution, attitudinal responses have reference to the affective element only – the emotional or feeling segment of an attitude. In other words, it has to do with, how people feel about their jobs, supervisors, co-workers, compensation and advancement opportunities and the organizations they work for (Timothy et al., 2001).

3.4. The anatomy of job satisfaction

Smith et al. (as cited in Luthans, 1989) identify six job elements triggering attitudinal responses and representing the largely central, but critical characteristics of any job about which people have affective responses. These are, according to Timothy et al. (2001), the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, co-workers and working conditions, of which the first five elements are the major facets of job satisfaction as a result of attitudinal responses, whilst other facets such as recognition, the organization itself and its leadership, can also be considered to form part of the anatomy of attitudinal responses to job satisfaction.

Gallup, Hugick and Leonard (as cited in Spector, 2000) found that fringe benefits as part of the pay, communication and security form part of the common job satisfaction facet in the American environment. All these job satisfaction facets can be classified in broader categories such as intrinsic and extrinsic lements. Refer to **figure 15** below.

Figure 15. The anatomy of job satisfaction



Source: Timothy et al., 2001

3.4.1 The work itself

Lawler (1995) found that work has profound effects on both the life of the employee and the community the employee comes from. Therefore as a matter of principle rather than fact, quality of life cannot be discounted or disregarded. It is against this background that Gardner (as cited in Lawler, 1995), echoed the following:

"***Of all the ways in which society serves the individual few are more meaningful than to provide him with a decent job ... it isn't going to be a decent society for any of us until it is for all of us. If our sense of responsibility fails us, our sheer self-interest should come to the rescue"*** (pp. 80-81).

Countless connotations are attached to the significance and understanding of concept *work* (Morgan, 1997). Kelly (as cited in Van Rooyen, 2003) categorises the conceptualisation of this important construct, that for some individuals, *work* can be seen as an innate and instinctive psychological necessity, implanted in human nature, routinely lived out to guard against idleness, boredom and temptation. For others, according to Kelly, it represents inspiration and inventiveness, a trail to supremacy and personal pronouncement that warrants self-respect. From an ethical point of view, Kelly further suggests that, work is an occupational calling – that honourable obligation towards those associated with and a threshold to access the universal ideal. To the majority, *work* is an inherent contract of social responsibility, however, for most of us, *work,* despite its effects, is an indispensable and crucial, but a fundamental prerequisite “to be able to live in dignity with at least a minimum of comfort and security – so much more, than only to provide for daily sustenance and a roof over our head” (Van Rooyen, 2003, p. 51).

Van Rooyen (2003, p. 165) identifies *work* as a “physical and mental exertion by an individual or group of persons, which, when performed, in an employment relationship, is remunerated and is subject to control by the employer and the terms of the employment contract and applicable laws.” Therefore, *work*, to a great extent, according to Morgan (1997), ought to provide an employee with interesting tasks, learning opportunities, a chance to accept responsibil and a sense of accomplishment, amongst others. As echoed in the findings of numerous efforts on job satisfaction, the presence of these features is a crucial ingredient of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001).

Most importantly, Luthans (1989) asserts that, *job design* plays a vital role in determining job satisfaction, therefore the design of single job in any organization ought to at least enclose the following facets: f*irstly*, the job enrichment element. This, as stated earlier, is aimed at motivating workers in their work to finally experience job satisfaction by creating achievable challenging work opportunities, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth. Comprehensively, according to Luthans, job enrichment has to do with designing jobs that include a greater variety of work content, requiring some degree of knowledge and skill, giving workers increased autonomy and responsibility with regard to scheduling, managing and controlling their own performance while giving them the chance for personal growth and a meaningful work experience.

Secondly, the element of job enlargement, which has reference to adding more tasks to the job for variety, enhances job satisfaction through the application of a variety of skills and this implies that the job is enlarged to the degree of prompting workers to use different activities within a task involving the application of different skills, abilities and talents (Legge, 2004).

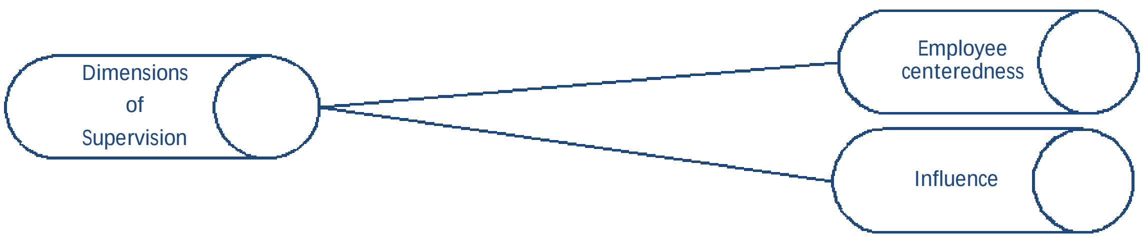
Thirdly, Job rotation is another element of job design enhancing job satisfaction and it involves the lateral transfer or rotation of employees to various jobs with the aim of providing employees with excellent exposure to a range and multiplicity of tasks to build the spirit of challenge and boost energy for achievement and a sense of accomplishment (Amstrong, 2006). *Fourthly*, goal setting as an element of job design also impacts on the satisfaction of employees (Gamble, Strickland & Thompson, 2007). The organization is expected to devise and design methods deterministic of measureable objectives, meaning that methods such as consultative processes between the organizational management and its employees can be employed to provide feedback and build incentives into the structure of the job to ensure job satisfaction which, in turn, boosts job performance and organizational output (Legge, 2004).

Fifthly, the use of a socio-technical approach in job design was proven to play a vital role in the job satisfaction of employees while on the job, specifically, the formation of teams and assigning of responsibility for the job to each team, has proved to balance the social and technical aspects of the job (Gamble et al., 2007). This has the potential of liberating and relieving employees from a burden of worry toward sole responsibility and accountability for the result of the job (Armstrong, 2006).

3.4.2 The supervisors

Supervision can be seen as a practise of watching over the work of employees in subordinate positions through guidance and controlling (Van Rooyen, 2003). Luthans (1989, p. 185) describes supervision as "the ability of the superior to provide technical assistance and behavioural support" and recognizes two styles of supervision, also referred to as dimensions of supervision which affect job satisfaction. **Figure 16** below displays these dimensions.

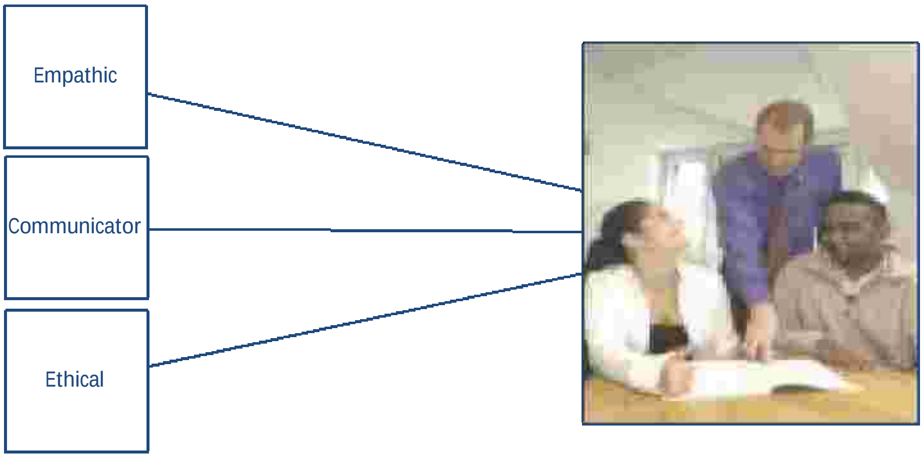
Figure 16. Styles of supervision



Source: Luthans,1989

Employee centeredness is determined by the degree to which a supervisor takes personal interest in the welfare of his or her subordinates (Dunnette & Hough, 1991). The major features of the facet of employee centeredne revolve around, amongst others, prospects of interpersonal relations, communication and the application of organizational justice (Donovan, Drasgow & Munson, 1998). **Figure 17** below shows the characteristics of an employee centred supervisor.

Figure 17. Characteristics of an employee-centred supervisor



Source: Luthans, 1989; Yahoo Image

An employee centred supervisor, through his or her interpersonal relations, has the intelligence and ability to be empathic with his or her assistants (Dunnette & Hough, 1991). He or she understands how they feel and when getting along with them very well, he or she will get work done through them (Kets Vries, 2001). According to Dunnette and Hough, a supervisor in this category is said to possess informational and decisional roles with regard to the work being performed by the employees and the organization which the employees work for. The Supervisory informational roles are activated by assembling pertinent information affe g the well-being of employees and disseminating or transmitting such information to the employees (Donovan et al., 1998). In addition, according to Robbins and De Cenzo (1998), when a supervisor is abreast of what threatens his or her employees emotionally or physically and takes action necessary as a negotiator handle disturbances, it results in the activation of a decisional role vested in him or her and the consequence is employee motivation which results in job satisfaction. In a nutshell, if job satisfaction is vitally determined by employee centred supervisory intervention, then supervisory sociability, tact and diplomacy become indispensable (Daft, 2005).

Thus, a manner of drawing people to oneself as a supervisor the capacity to create natural friendship and embrace others without friction is important to finally develop the talent, gifts and character of the employees toward a common goal, to the extent that job satisfaction is enhanced and, in turn, organizational vision is observed (Munroe, 2005).

An employee centred supervisor through communication – "the process of exchange of information and transmission of meaning between persons, either verbal or written, with a purpose of influencing action" – has the knowledge about the needs of the employees (Van Rooyen, 2003, p.69). The supervisor has the obligation to assist his or her employees to reach their full potential in the course of executing their duties (Maxwell, 2003). This, according to Maxwell, can be done through the process of communication whereby employees' cries and songs – those things that tap and boost their energy on the job must be made known to the supervisor. Daft (2005) asserts that, effective communication is a powerful tool that helps employees to understand the meaning and impact of being on the job contribute to a worthy cause. Krass (1998) found the sharing element of communication to be a determining ingredient of an enhanced and enabling working environment – a conducive environment in which people are at liberty to air their views and act freely, but confidently to learn on the job and apply new methods of doing things to the best of their abilities and be rewarded for their creativity and original thinking. Communication has a positive effect on job satisfaction, especially where employee advice is asked for prior to decision making, and when employees receive constructive criticism and praise for good work (Donovan et al., 1998). Luthans (1989) informs that American employees generally criticise and grumble that their supervisors are less excellent on these dimensions.

Finally, an employee centred supervisory role is dynamic to job satisfaction and can be reflected through fair and ethical interpersonal treatment in terms of interactional justice (Noe et al., 2000).

Despite its inherent subjectivity, complexity and varied understanding of a fair or unfair arrangement, fairness, in any given organization exercised on its behalf by a representative, in this case the supervisor, should conform to standards of procedural and distributive justice (Staw, 1995). In their study of work motivation, job satisfaction and organizational decision making, Martin and Bennett (as cited in Gilliland and Chan, 2001), found that employee perceptions of just treatment by organizational managers, impact job satisfaction and organizational commitment substantially. According to Masterson, Lewis, Goldman and Taylor (as cited in Anderson et al., 2001), the perception of interactional justice is predominantly associated with supervisory related outcomes such as job satisfaction.

Anderson et al. (2001) identify the components of interactional justice to include interpersonally sensitive treatment, honesty and explanations. Just as perceived, interpersonally sensitive treatment has been related to inherent dignity and the desire for reasonable appropriate conduct to have such dignity respected and protected (Finnemore, 1999). Earlier studies by Staw (1995) show that, even the most incompetent and incorrigible subordinate has the to be addressed civilly. Anderson et al. rule out the indisputability of correlation of interactional justice with job satisfaction – a civilly treated employee in private and public will dly exhibit satisfaction arising from civil supervisory conditions. Interactional justice is also measured by a personality attribute all supervisors will not be able to supervise without – a sense of truthfulness, non-deception and consistency in the supervisor's words and action or mere honesty (Daft, 2005; Jaworski, 1996; Maxwell, 2003). A study conducted by Folker and Konovsky (as cited in Anderson et al., 2001) discovered trust in supervisors manifests as a result of procedural justice. Trust creates a pathway of openness and lays the foundations that enable others to confide in the supervisor (Manz, 1999).

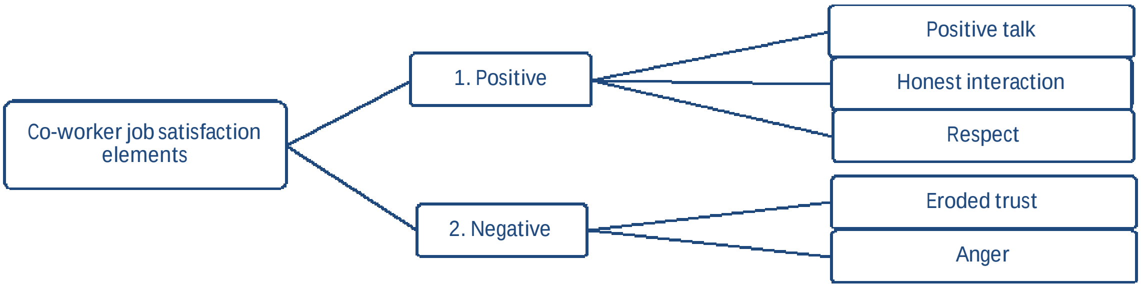
Supervisors, in their responsibility of overseeing the of those reporting to them, have also the duty to rate employee performance accurately and genuinely (Anderson et al., 2001). An estimation by Bernadine and Beatty (as cited in Aamodt, 2004) shows that 90% of all performance evaluations are conducted through the use of performance rating by supervisors and this is done, in most cases, to determine salary increases and promotional decisions. In the event such decisions are made contrary to justice perceptions, trust in the supervisor may fade away, affecting employee job satisfaction (Aamodt, 2007). A meta-analysis by Keeping and Levy (as cited in Anderson et al., 2001) on trust and job satisfaction found r = .61 and recommend an improved performance utility of supervisory rating as perceived fairness has moderate, but direct effects on employee job satisfaction.

Participation influence is the other style of supervision affecting job satisfaction (Aamodt, 2004). Supervisory permission of employee participation in decisions and decision-making processes affecting employee jobs, can lead to higher job satisfaction (Plous, 1993). Not only does employee participation in decisions and decision-making processes enhance employee job satisfaction, but to a great extent, the creation of a participative climate from the part of supervisors encompasses a substantial effect on employee satisfaction as opposed to participation in particular decisions (Nadler, 1984). Although decisions are made in the present, their reward and consequences crop up in the future (Muchinsky, 2006). Equally, according to Muchinsky, giving employees power and influence in decision making in the present, produces a skilfully shaped future for both the organization and its employees and reveals proficiency, expertise, ability and talent in decision making. Employee involvement in decision-making ought to be in all kinds of decisions e.g. in decisions made under conditions of urgency where technical expertise is required and in decisions of a more deliberate analysis of information and data as well as in sequential and conditional decision making (Aamodt, 2007). In a nutshell, this implies that, a supervisor must be in a position to solicit ideas as well as suggestions from his or her employees and openly invite, attract and encourage their participation in decisions that directly affect them so as to enhance their level of job satisfaction (Anderson et al., 2001).

3.4.3 Co-workers

"People who enjoy working with their co-workers will be more satisfied with their jobs" (Aamodt, 2004, p. 326). This sentiment can be approached from two ends, the positive and negative, as seen in **figure 18** below.

Figure 18. Job satisfaction with co-workers



Source: Aamodt, 2004; Aquino, n.d.; Shapiro, 1991

Aamodt (2004) asserts that, the positive is indicative of those who enjoy working with their co-workers due to the fun that they have with one another, as a result, the work becomes more bearable, but on the negative side, job satisfaction becomes unlikely to manifest where co-workers make jobs unbearable. In a study with a sample size of 500 employees, Aamodt discovered a positive relationship between team and organizational commitment to result in higher productivity and a greater willingness to work when compared to job satisfaction.

The positive side is mainly achieved when factors such as positive talks, honest interactions and respect, amongst others, are observed (Aamodt, 2004). In addition, Aamodt asserts that positive remarks about the employer, the job and other employees have been proven to model optimistic, constructive and upbeat circumstances in which, especially, new employees desire to work and have the potential to foster a particular nature in the work group – cooperativeness and friendliness. Despite the fact that, enjoying a job or getting contentment from it, is less essential to job satisfaction, the reverse – job dissatisfaction – is likely to manifest (Trice, 1993). As a result, people become difficult to get along with, and when explored deeper, the likelihood of lack of support, comfort, advice and assistance among the workgroup emerges prominently (Tolbert, 1996). It is against this background that Tolbert advises that honest interaction among the group members or co-workers is essential in any organization and has a direct relationship with job satisfaction and that ethical conduct between co-workers, by acting truthfully in communication, is an ingredient for making the work bearable and enjoyable. In support, Shapiro (1991) asserts that, making true statements about one another with the intention to build the work group, develops interpersonal relationships, trust, frees people from anger and ensures beneficial organizational relationships.

In terms of respect, harmonious relationships within group members manifest naturally and un-demanded when there is high reverence (Shapiro, 1991). Consequently, according to Shapiro, politeness tends to occur – that true identification of respectfulness, valuing others for who they are and represent without looking down on them. On the negative side, work becomes unbearable among the workgroup when the reverse of the positive side given above is reflected. Staw (1995) asserts that "... people's job attitude may be influenced not only by the objective properties of the work, but also by subtle cues given off by co-workers or supervisors" (pp. 99-100).

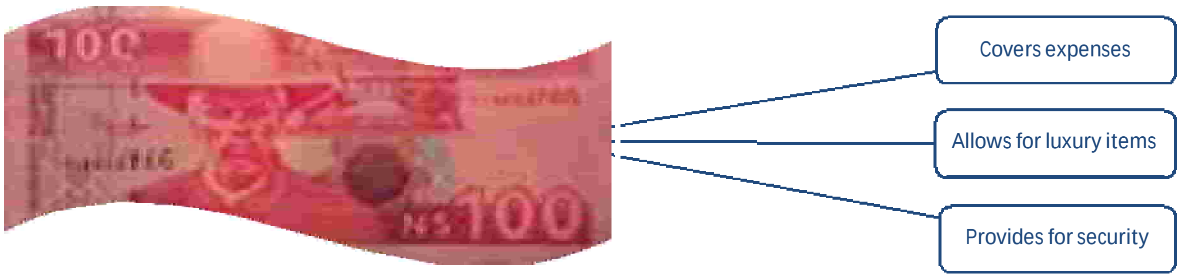
Co-workers who have mastered the art of being less sincere in the work environment appear not to be helpful with job satisfaction (Aamodt, 2007). A study by Aquino (n.d.) indicates that the work group members who provide false information normally know that such information is false and misleading. What are called secrets, are nothing but the concealment of the truth (Shapiro, 1991). Aquino further indicates that, when fabricated truth becomes a workplace norm, its effect on co-workers is that of eroded trust, anger and eventually job dissati ction. In the final analysis Noe et al. (2000) reduce all the above to sound attitudes, desirable values and philosophies, social support and assistance with valued outcomes to be of primary importance in determining job satisfaction.

3.4.4 Pay

Pay is the amount agreed upon in terms of the employment contract between the employer and the employee (Grogan, 2001). This remuneration arises from work performed and services rendered, usually received in monetary value on monthly or weekly intervals, calculated on an hourly basis (Van Rooyen, 2003). In turn Van Rooyen (2004, p. 29) sees remuneration as "the total value of all payments in money or kind made or owing to an employee arising from the employment of that employee."

Money as a considerable feature of job satisfaction is not only viewed by workers as a means of provision for basic needs, on the contrary, it is instrumental in the provision of superior level needs as well (Grogan, 2001). On the other hand, pay can signal how well management views employee input, involvement and contribution to the organization (Milkovich & Newman, 1990). **Figure 19** below, shows some characteristics that ought to be reflected by any pay in general.

Figure 19. Pay characteristics



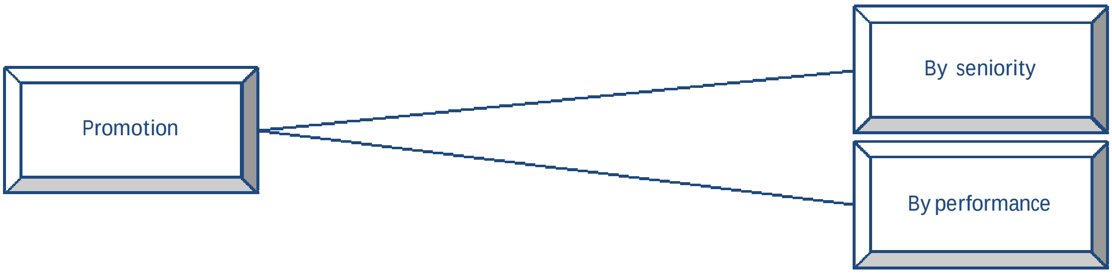
Source: Miner, 1998

For job satisfaction to manifest, the employee pay should, at least, reflect sufficient coverage of expenses, allow for an apportionment towards luxury items and provide for desired security (Miner, 1998). Employee satisfaction is determined by the amount received, the amount anticipated to be received and what should be received (Lawler, 1995). In terms of the fulfilment theory, Lawler argues that an Organizational Psychologist earning R20 000 a month may be satisfied with her salary compared to a Chief Organizational Psychologist who earns R60 000 a month but is dissatisfied with her salary. This, according to Lawler, simply demonstrates that people's reactions to what they receive are not determined by how much they receive, instead, what is received as income by an employee should be devoid of under payment, but sufficient to provide for both the c needs and what the earner views as security.

3.4.5 Promotion

Promotion is indicative of advancement usually coupled with higher compensation and responsibility. Van Rooyen (2003, p. 35) defines promotion as the "elevation of an employee to a higher post within the same organization with increased responsibilities, authority over subordinates, remuneration and status." **Figure 20** below indicates the forms of promotions available to organizations.

Figure20. Forms of promotion



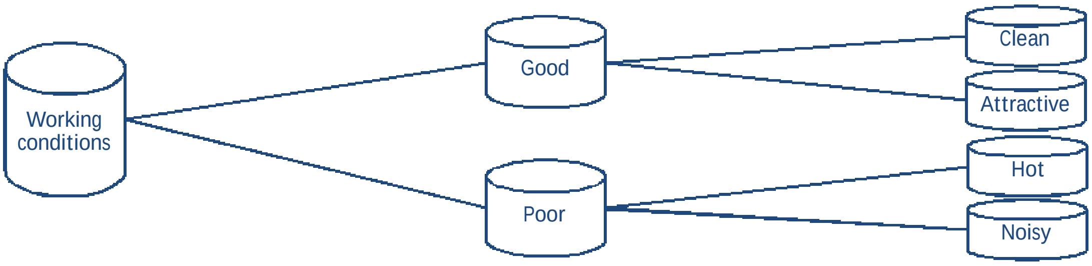
Source: Luthans, 1989

Promotional opportunities have divergent outcomes on job satisfaction due to their differing forms and multiplicity of accompanying rewards, and the usually identified forms of promotion are by seniority and performance as indicated above (Tolbert, 1996). Promotion through seniority often exerts job satisfaction, but not as mu as promotions through performance, therefore, the style of promotion through performance despite its fair appeal becomes disqualified or ruled out, whilst, promotion through seniority – that is the best or most senior employee – becomes more desirable (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996). However, it can turn into the Peter Principle – "promotion of employees until they reach their highest level of incompetence" (Aamodt, 2004, p. 221). In addition Aamodt asserts that the promotion of the best performing employee is most desirable, however it has become policy in many organizations to promote employees with the most seniority.

3.4.6 Working conditions

Working conditions affect job satisfaction of employees and can be approached or perceived from two angles as indicated in **figure 21** below (Schneider, 1990).

Figure 21. Working conditions



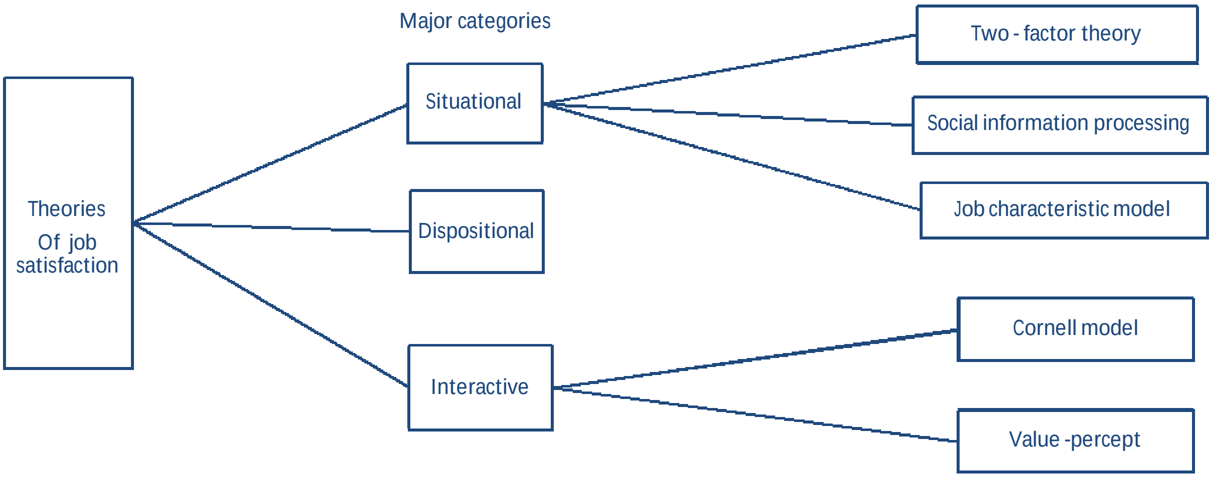
Source: Aamodt, 2004;Luthans, 1989;Schneider, 1990

Good working conditions are characterised by clean, ventilated and attractive surroundings whereas poor working conditions are featured by hot and noisy surroundings (Schneider, 1990). The former is said to have a positive effect on employee job satisfaction in view of the fact that employees may find it easier to carry out their job under such conditions, whereas in the latter conditions, employees may find it hard to progress in what they are doing – hence a probable job dissatisfaction (Aamodt, 2004).

3.5 Theories of Job satisfaction

The origin of job satisfaction has been researched and studied through the application of a variety of theories (Anderson et al., 2001). These theories can be classified into three major categories as indicated in **figure 22** below.

Figure 22. Theories of job satisfaction



Source: Anderson et al., 2001

3.5.1 The situational theory

The situational theory hypothesizes that job satisfaction is a function of the nature of a person's job or other aspects of the environment (Anderson et al., 2001). Despite the proposition of numerous situational theories, Anderson et al. suggest that the most influential are Herzberg's two-factor theory, the social information processing and job characteristics model.

The main debate of *Herzberg's two-factor* theory, according to Brief (as cited in Anderson et al., 2001), is that the dynamics that lead to satisfaction are often different from those that lead to dissatisfaction and these dynamics can be identified as, intrinsic factors, such as, the work itself, responsibilities and motivators, as well as extrinsic factors, such as working conditions, company policies and compensation. In a series of interviews with employees, Anderson et al.(2001) asserts that, the correlation of job satisfaction with extrinsic factors was found to be stronger than with intrinsic factors, therefore, consequently, Herzberg concluded that the elimination of any of the extrinsic aspects from an employee’s job may trigger job dissatisfaction without fostering job satisfaction, therefore, this is seen to suggest that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction ought not to be regarded as two opposite ends on a continuum. However, Anderson et al. further informs that criticism against this theory is that it cannot be replicated by other research to test such findings with independent data and methods.

According to Hulin (as cited in Anderson et al., 2001), the *social information processing approach* argues that employees’ judgement about job satisfaction only comes into existence when asked for and that responses are mainly sourced from external factors such as co-workers’ views. Anderson et al. further warns that this theory was found not to hold in different cultures and its practicality has waned.

The basis of the *job characteristics model* is that job satisfaction is brought about by jobs that contain intrinsically motivating characteristics son et al., 2001). Lawler (1995) identifies these job characteristics as task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy and feedback. In support of this proposition, empirical research by Frye as cited in Anderson et al. produced a score of $r = .50$ between job satisfaction and the afore mentioned job characteristics, indicating that this model was found valid by subsequent research. However, the major limitations of this model, according to James and Jones (as cited in Anderson et al., 2001), are that it made use of self-reports of job characteristics rather than objective reports and insufficiently evidenced that the important psychological states mediate the relationship between job characteristics and outcomes as proposed.

3.5.2 The dispositional theory

This theory studies job satisfaction from two dispositions, the direct and the indirect. (Judge, Lock and Durham,1997). Judge et al. argue that a number of factors are responsible for people’s disposition toward job satisfaction: 1) self esteem, 2) self efficacy, 3) locus of control and 4) neuroticism. According to Judge et al. 1997, firstly, the value an employee places on him or herself, his or her believe in self competency as well as a concrete reliance on oneself to have his or her life in control as opposed to external forces, move in the same direction with job satisfaction – improved levels of self esteem, self efficacy and locus of control produce improved levels of job satisfaction. Secondly, a person's enduring tendency to experience negative emotional states, moves in an opposite direction with job satisfaction. In other words, higher levels of neuroticism result in lo levels of job satisfaction, whereas lower levels of neuroticism trigger higher levels of job satisfaction (Brief, 2001).

As job satisfaction can be studied by mere inference – that it incidentally exists from a progression of logical deduction or induction and co to constructs of personality in terms of the indirect stance of the dispositional theory – Anderson et al. (2001) warns that the dispositional failed to clearly define and carefully measure affective disposition.

3.5.3 The Interactive theories

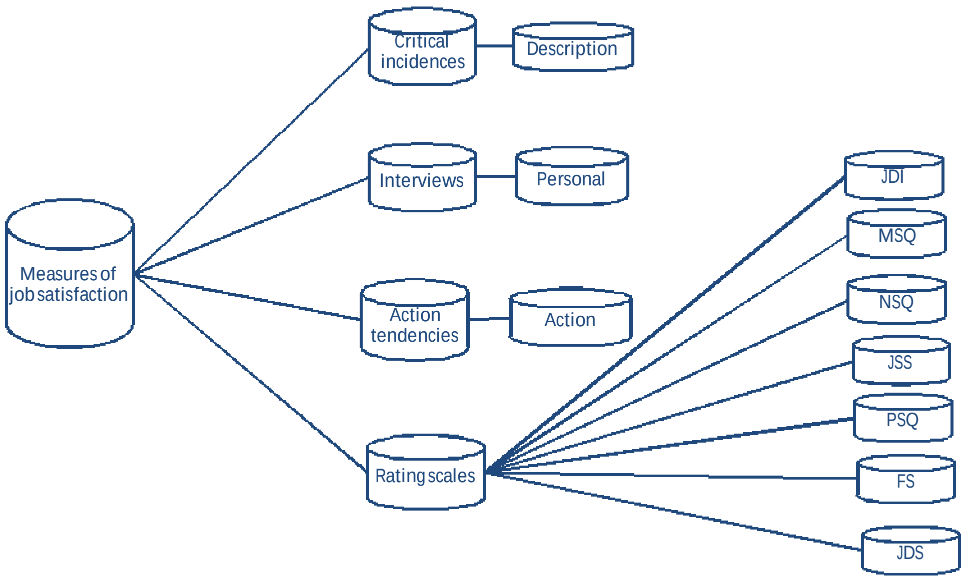
Hulin (as cited in Timothy, 2001) indicates that the interactive theories, both the Cornell model and Value-Percept consider variables from both the person and situation. The *Cornell model* argues that "job satisfaction is a function of the balance between role inputs such as time, effort and training, and role outcomes such as pay, co-workers, supervisors, promotion and working conditions – the more outcomes received relative to inputs invested the higher job satisfaction, all else being equal." (Timothy et al., 2001, p. 31). Timothy et al. further suggest that more research on the Cornell model need to be carried out as it may lack practical testing.

In terms of the value-percept theory, Lock (as cited in Timothy et al., 2001) argues that job satisfaction is a function of value, perceived amount of value and the importance of value to the individual. However, the major predicament of this theory, according to Timothy et al. is that the value perceived and the value content are difficult to separate in real life, therefore its practicality may not deliver the theorised results.

3.6 The measurement of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be measured in a variety of ways as illustrated in **figure 23** below.

Figure23. Common measurement tools of job satisfaction



Source: Anderson et al., 2001; Luthans, 1989, Noe et al., 2000

3.6.1 Critical incidences

A critical incidences method as a tool for measuring job satisfaction was invented by Herzberg (as cited in Luthans, 1989) who used it together with his colleagues in their research on the two-factor theory of motivation. According to Luthans, the core of this approach lies in the description of incidences whereby research participants are required to describe incidents on their job, specifica when they were satisfied and dissatisfied. The incidences are then analyzed through an analysis method called the content-analysis that assists researchers and other users to determine the elements that are closely related to positive and negative attitudes (Noe et al., 2000). The positive attitudes elements are referred to as job satisfaction aspects and the negative sentiments account for job dissatisfaction (Robbins & De cenzo, 1998).

3.6.2 Interviews

Job satisfaction can also be evaluated through the use of personal interviews (Luthans, 1989). Despite that this method allows for in-depth job attitude exploration and follow up, Luthans warns that this method can be time consuming, costly, and interviewer bias as well as misinterpretation of responses can lead to erroneous conclusions.

3.6.3 Action tendencies

As people have the tendency to be inclined to or avoid certain things, Lock (as cited in Brief and Weiss, 2001) suggests the gathering of information on people's action especially when they are in their inclination mode to how they feel about their jobs. Compared to the interview method, Brief and Weiss advice that little self-insight is required and self-bias is significantly reduced in action tendencies. **Table 2** below shows the sample items for action tendencies.

Table 2

The sample items for action tendencies of job satisfaction

Number	Action tendencies sample items
1.	When you wake up in the morning, do you feel reluctant to go to work?
2.	Do you often feel like going to lunch at work sooner than you do?
3.	Do you feel like taking a coffee break more often than you should?
4.	Are you sometimes reluctant to leave your job to go on a vacation?
5.	When you are on vacation, do you ever look forward to getting back to work?
6.	Do you ever wake up at night with urge to go to work right then and there?
7.	Do you ever wish you could work at your job on evenings or weekend?

Source: taken from Locke (cited in Luthans, 1989, p. 181)

3.6.4 Rating scales

Rating scales are the most common measures of job satisfaction (Anderson et al., 2001; Luthans, 1989; Spector, 2000). These include the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), the Porter Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (NSQ), the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ), the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), the Faces Scale (FS) and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Noe, et al., 2000). According to Smith et al. (as cited in Spe 2000) the *JDI* is a 5-dimensional, 72-item index, measuring job satisfaction on 3 responses namely, yes, no, and undecided which respectively attract the scoring points of 3, 0, and 1. **Appendix E** of this thesis provides a sample of the JDI. According to Anderson et al. (2001), the *MSQ* is an invention of Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist. **Table 3** below shows the sample items of the MSQ and their response break down.

Table 3

The sample items of the MSQ and response break down

MSQ SAMPLE ITEMS	VS	S	N	D	VD
On my present job, this is how i feel about:					
1. Being able to keep busy all the time					
2. The way my boss handles the staff					
3. My pay and the amount of work i do					
4. The praise i get for doing a good job					
5. The freedom to use my own judgment					
6. The working conditions					

Source: Selected from Weiss et al. in Luthans 1989. P. 178 VS = very satisfied, S = satisfied, N = undecided, D = dissatisfied, VD = very dissatisfied

Table 4 below shows sample items of the NSQ , an invention by Porter (as cited in Luthans, 1989) which is mainly used for management personnel. Luthans further asserts that the NSQ has been widely used in research and is normative in nature – data availability facilitates comparative analysis over the years. The rating scales of the NSQ are short and can be effortlessly and quickly responded to.

Table 4

The sample items of the NSQ

Sample items of the NSQ

1. The opportunity for personal growth and development in my management position.
   a. How much is there now?
   (minimum) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (maximum)

   b. How much should there be
   (minimum) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (maximum)

2. The feeling of security in my management position
   a. How much is there now?
   (minimum) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (maximum)

   b. How much is there now?
   (minimum) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (maximum)

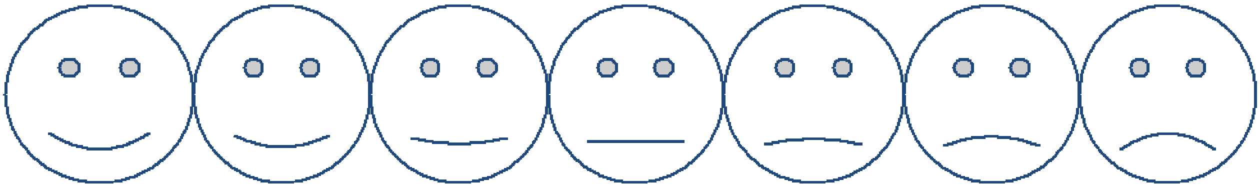
Source: porter, p. 180

The *FS* is widely used and measures overall job satisfaction w just a single item which participants respond to by choosing a face that represents or describes all features of their jobs (Noe et al., 2000). **Table 5** below provide a sample of the FS.

Table 5

The sample of the FS scale of job satisfaction

The FS scale of job satisfaction						
7	6	5	4	3	2	1



Source: Adapted from Noe et al.,2000, p. 372

The JSS, an invention by Spector (as cited in Williams, 2004), is another rating scale which consists of 36 items that measure job satisfaction over 9 facets of which the selected sample is shown in **table 6** below.

Table 6

The sample of the JSS scale

The JSS scale	YES	NO
I feel positive and up most of the time i am working	☐	☐
I feel valued and affirmed at work	☐	☐
I feel informed about what is going on	☐	☐
My values fit with the organization's values	☐	☐
I am fairly compensated	☐	☐

Source: adapted from Richard (rick) Bellingham

The PSQ, a development by Heneman and Schwab (as cited in Lievens, Anseel, Harris and Eisenberg, 2007), suggests pay satisfaction along five comparatively autonomous dimensions: pay level, pay administration, pay structure, pay raise and benefits. **Table 7** below shows the sample sentiments covered in the PSQ.

Table 7

The PSQ sample sentiments

PSQ sentiments (intensity of response five dimensional 1- 5 strongly agree-strongly disagree)	
1. My take home pay. ()	11. The value of my benefits. ()
2. My benefit package. ()	12. Pay of other jobs in the company. ()
3. My most recent raise. ()	13. Consistency of the company's pay policies. ()
4. Influence my supervisor has on my pay. ()	14. Size of my current salary. ()
5. My current salary. ()	15. The number of benefits i receive. (
6. Amount the company pays toward my benefits. ()	16. How my raises are determined. ()
7. The raises i have typically received in the past. ()	17. Differences in pay among jobs in the company. ()
8. The company's pay structure. ()	18. How the company administers pay. ()
9. Information the company gives about pay issues of concern to me. ()	19. The pay criteria or job evaluation factors used by the company. ()
10. My overall level of pay. ()	20. The accuracy of my most recent performance appraisal. ()

Source: Adapted from Faulk, 2002

The *JDS,* developed by Hackman and Olham (as cited in Williams, 2004), measures job satisfaction in terms of skill variety, task identity, task significance autonomy and feedback. **Table 8** below shows a sample of the JDS.

Table 8

The sample of the JDS

Sample of the JDS	
1. My job provides a lot of variety.	2. My job influences day-today company success.
• Strongly disagree	• Strongly disagree
• Disagree	• Disagree
• Slightly disagree	• Slightly disagree
• Agree	• Agree
• Strongly agree	• Strongly agree

Source: Adapted from a 2007 revised Hackman & Olham JDS

3.7 Conclusion

The objective of this chapter was to review the construct of job satisfaction. As the attitudinal focal point of this study, *work* was found to tremendously affect both the life of the employee and his or her community of origin. This is all embedded in quality of life which should be further explored in view of the fact that work means so much more than just to provide for daily sustenance and a roof over one's head. *Pay*, on the other hand, not only means compensation to provide for basic needs, but also, a reflection of involvement, performance and contribut of the employee to the organization. In general terms, an employee's pay ought to provide sufficient coverage for expenses, affordability of luxury items at times and, most importantly, provide for the desired security. *Supervision,* as a fraction of attitudinal response to job satisfaction, strongly places emphasis on the supervisor's ability to provide behavioural support and technical assistance to the employees rather than merely watching over their work. Employee centred supervision, characterised by empathic and ethical interaction, is at the centreline of supervisory behavioural support, whereas employee involvement in decision making tops the list of participatory and influential supervision. *Co-workers,* exerting a positive influence on an individual through their talk and honest and respectful interactions, also contribute to job satisfaction. Overall, job satisfaction is embedded in the quality of life. The next chapter will review another attitudinal construct in the work domain strongly related to but distinctly different from job satisfaction.

Chapter 4 Literature review: Organizational commitment

This chapter reviews another attitudinal variable in the work domain strongly related to but distinctly different from job satisfaction. The review commences with the introduction and conceptualization of the topic of organizational commitment and presents notable approaches underpinning the subject matter. The current review also devotes attention to the types and antecedents of organizational commitment and its relation to other occupational elements. Some ight will be shed on the various measurement tools and instruments of organizational commitment as well as its consequences associated with the intention of organization members to either leave or remain with the organization. The chapter concludes that organizational commitment is an allegiance-based construct of the work domain.

4.1 Introduction

Organizational commitment is viewed as another variable in the work domain, robustly allied to job satisfaction, but absolutely and distinctly different (Spector, 2000). Amid numerous studies of organizational commitment, every single one entirely occupies and engages the connection and attachment of the individual to the organization (Muchinsky, 2006). The most frequently studied conception of organizational commitment is based on the work of Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979), which considers three dimensions, namely the acceptance of the organization's goals, a willingness to work hard for the organization and the desire to stay with the organization.

Further developments based on the work of Mowday et al. (1979), resulted in a contemporary three-factor conception of organizational commitment by Meyer, Allen and Smith (as cited in Spector, 2000), which constitutes affective, continuance and normative organizational commitment. Respectively, these types of organizational commitment have reference to employee aspirations to remain with the organization as a result of emotional attachment, socio-economic costs and obligation by loyalty (Aamodt, 2007). Each type of commitment has distinct antecedents (Muchinsky, 2006). For example, affective commitment is viewed to arise from favourable experiences from the job and met expectations while on the job (Spector, 2000).

Continuance commitment is believed to likely manifest s a result of investments in the job and the difficulty in securing alternative job opportunities (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Normative commitment emerges from a sense of obligation driven by the values of a person and organizational favours made to the person (Jaros, Jermier, Koeler & Sincich, 1993). Measurement tools and instruments consist of Mowday et al.'s (1979) 15-item review, tapping organizational dimensions such as the acceptance of organizational values, goals, assisting the organization through the willingness and desire to remain with the organization. Other tools, though not exhaustive, include Balfoure and Wechsler's (1996) 9-item survey measuring commitment aspects of identification, exchange and affiliation. One of the most contemporary organizational commitment measuring tools is that of Bagraim (2004), a 12-item review that measures aspects of affective, normative and continuance commitment. In relation to other occupational elements organizational commitment was found to relate negatively towards turnover and positively towards job satisfaction (Spector, 2000). As a consequence of organizational commitment, employee migration and intention to depart from the organization was found to be less likely to be a spur-of-the-moment decision, instead; disengagement from the organization is a well pondered over option especially when expectations are not met (Aamodt, 2007).

4.2 Definition

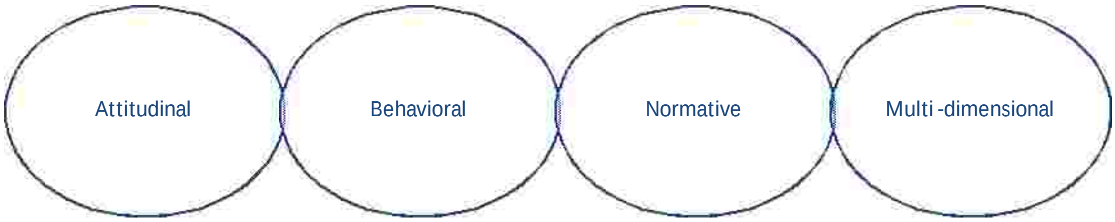
Muchinsky (2006, p. 319) defines organizational commit as "the degree or extent to which an employee feels a sense of allegiance to his or her employer." Netemeyer's (as cited in Spector, 2000) view of organizational commitment is based on the fields of Organizational Behaviour and Industrial or Organizational Psychology and defines it in a broad-spectrum, but general sense, as the psychological bond and attachment of the employee to the organization. A further debate by Netemeyer is that, when compared and contrasted with other occupational or work-related attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational ntification, organizational commitment can be defined as the feelings of employees about their job and the degree to which employees experience a sense of onenes with the organization. Spector (2000) showed organizational commitment to have been involved in a number of models of organizational work; however, despite several variant definitions, all have to do with the attachment or connectedness the individual to the organization.

From a leadership perspective, Daft (2005) defines com itment as an individual's response to superior figures to enthusiastically and w lingly accept direction and carry out instructions in an adherent-supervisor relationship. However, Daft cautions against confusing commitment with compliance as commitment rests upon individual liberty subsequent to recognizing organizational goals and values, whereas compliance has to do with the pursuit of orders and direction applied to the individual through the means of power regardless of the individual's agreement.

4.3 Approaches to organizational commitment

Researchers and Industrial Psychologists have explored and conceptualised the construct of organizational commitment and found that there are numerous approaches to outlining organizational commitment (Suliman & Isles, 2000a). **Figure 24** below displays these approaches.

Figure 24. Approaches to organizational commitment



Source: Suliman and Isles, 2000

4.3.1 The attitudinal approach

The works of Mowday et al (1979) identified *acceptance, willingness* and *desire* as the major attitudes of this approach. Suliman and Isles (2000a) broadly identify *job characteristics, positive work experiences* and *personal characteristics* as the major constituents of the attitudinal approach and that these attitudes have a direct link with the goals of the organization. According to Suliman and Isles, organizational commitment is fundamentally embedded in employees' attitudes shown in their behavioural intentions and these attitudinal elements possess the potential of exerting moderate to serious consequences for the organization. According to Spector (2000), these potential consequences can be reflected, *firstly,* through a notion of making oneself absent from scheduled work – absenteeism. *Secondly,* another potential consequence can manifest through permanent departure or non-returning worker mobility – turnover. *Thirdly,* through failure to provide mandated and agreed upon service at some reasonably defined level of proficiency – job performance.

4.3.2 The behavioural approach

Becker's (as cited in Spector, 2000) side-bet theory forms the groundwork and underpinning of the behavioural approach. The major emphasis is based on the "has to" perception embraced by the employees – "I will remain with this organization because I have to" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 97).

In its endeavour to clarify the conception of organizational commitment the behavioural approach applied the understanding of the concept of *investments* – that an individual's staying with the organization ought to be seen from the angle f calculated investments (Scholl, 1981). These investments are categorised as *economic gains* – pension accruals – and *social gains* – friendship ties with co-workers. The earlier work of Kanter (1968) described it as computed yields; proceeds and returns associated with uninterrupted involvement with the organization, but anticipated to be price-asking should departure from the organization is imagined. A more recent study by Allen and Meyer (1990) seems to strongly support the above with the assertion that, not only social and economic gains are deterministic of the individual's decision to remain with or depart from the organization, but factors such as time and energy are so crucial considerations, as the time spent in the organization mainly influences, cially, monetary accruals, for example in the form of pensions. All in all, the behavioural approach simply brings to the fore that organizational commitment can be influenced by a behavioural attribute – the decision to remain or depart (Zanagaro, 2001).

4.3.3 The normative approach

The normative approach rests on a state of agreement between objects – the balance between the anticipations of an organizational member and the objectives of the organization to eventually produce obligation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Becker, Randall and Reigel (1995) view the normative approach debating congruency between an individual's goals and values and organizational aspirations and objectives as the major force causing the individual's feelings of obligation toward the organization. According to the normative approach an individual's obligation to remain with the organization is expressed through the to" sentiment – I ought to remain with this organization because it is my duty to do so (Randall & Cote, 1991). This approach regards the duty, which an individual deems he or she owes to the organization and which he or she voluntarily ought to perform without being legally bound to perform, as a focal point – the moral obligation developed out of liberty and free will (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). This reflects a natural right which the employee creates for him or herself as supported by a good and valuable precursor spreading from a sound mind (Spector, 2000). Another focal point to this approach is that of loyalty – a feeling of duty toward the organization, but more of a feeling of devotion an individual entertains toward the organization (Randall & Cote, 1991). This internalised norm is not necessarily developed while in the organization, but may be built up and cultivated prior to joining the organization through referent groups such as family, friends and any other socialisation processes (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

4.3.4 The multi dimensional approach

The multi dimensional approach to organizational commitment developed as a result of layers of organizational commitment approaches, of which the base initially reflected affective commitment only (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Progressive studies by Meyer and Allen appended the unitary organizational commitment to continuance organizational commitment and produced a bi-dimensional organizational commitment construct with attitudinal and behavioural ments. This bi-dimensional construct was further enhanced with normative elements and brought to the fore a three-dimensional organizational commitment approach which consists of affective, continuance and normative elements (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Meyer and Allen (1991) note that each factor of the three dimensions characterises the potential descriptions of the individuals' connection to the organization. These progressions also brought about a series of understandings which form part of the multi-dimensional approach consisting of *moral, calculative* and *alienative involvement* elements *(*Zanagaro, 2001)*.* According to Zanagaro, these understandings, in their illustration of employee response to organizational authority, carry the meaning of optimistic orientation spreading from the individual's internalization and identification with organizational goals.

4.4 Types of organizational commitment and their antecedents

Meyer, Allen and Smith (as cited in Spector, 2000) built on Mowday et al's. (1979) three dimensional components of organizational commitment and developed a three-factor conception and type of commitment, constituting affective, continuance and normative commitment. The most contemporary conception of organizational commitment is that of Bagraim's (2004), which taps a 12-item, three-factor dimensional instrument also tapping affective, normative and continuance commitment. **Table 9** below depicts the types of organizational commitments, their antecedents and variables.

Table 9

Types of organizational commitments, antecedents and antecedent variables

Type	Antecendets	Variables
Affective	Personal characteristics	Age, gender, tenure
	Work experience	Job challenge, skill variety, autonomy
	Organizational characteristics	Psychological comfort, physical comfort
Normative	Employment contract	Employee values
	Psychological contract	Employee beliefs
Continuance	Costs	Investments
	Alternatives	Availability of jobs

Source: Spector (2000)

4.4.1 Affective commitment

According to Spector (2000, p. 217), affective commitment occurs when the employee "wishes to remain with the organization because of an e ional attachment." Noe et al. (2000) adds that such emotional attachment to the organization ought to be positive. The conception of organizational commitment comes from Meyer and Allen (1991) as drawn from Mowday's et al. (1982) concept of commitment which, in turn, is an extract from the previous work of (Kanter, 1968). In essence, all in all, these gurus of organizational commitment emphasise the point that affective commitment is identified with an employee who strongly discovers, distinguishes and recognises the goals of the organization; simply he or she wants to share with and remain a part of that organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). According to Allen and Meyer, the dimension of affective commitment can be seen in perspective as the development and establishment of an emotional conne ss to an organization, the association and relationship with that particular organization and the aspiration and desire to maintain organizational membership.

As each type of organizational commitment has different antecedents, Spector (2000) notes that affective commitment surfaces and evolves from job conditions that are beneficial to the employee – favourable experiences on the job and met expectations. For example, according to Spector, if the employee expects a particular job in the organization to provide him or her with a particular reward and it comes to pass that such reward indeed becomes realistic, affective commitment will have a tendency to manifest – expectations are in equilibrium with reality.

Antecedent variables associated with affective commitment develop from factors such as personal characteristics, work experience and organizational characteristics (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Meyer and Allen, amongst other factors, *personal characteristics* include age, gender, and tenure, whereas *organizational characteristics* and work experience respectively have to do with satisfying on-the-job experiences and participatory inclusion in decision making. *Age*, as a feature of personal characteristics, has been found as a constructive predictor of affective organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). A study conducted by Allen and Meyer (1996) on medical personnel and university employees produced a statistically significant positive mean correlation of $r = .36$ between the age of the employees and affective organizational commitment. Som of the interesting features are that affective organizational commitment mainly found in older employees rather than younger ones (Meyer & Allen, 1993). This is supported by the argument of Kalderberg, Becker and Zvonkovic (1995) that the older employees become the more they are attracted to their current employer in view of reduced employment opportunities in the job market.

Gender, according to Kalderberg et al. (1995), was found to have a subtle outcome on affective commitment. This argument is in agreement with the finding by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) which produced a mean correlation of $= .09$ between gender and affective commitment. Tenure, as indicated by Mathieu and Zajac, was found to be positively correlated to affective organizational commitment at $r = .2$ on a mean correlation scale. Meyer and Allen (1993) reported that senior employees as well as the new recruits show evidence of affective commitment more than middle tenured organizational members. Meyer and Allen (1997) put forward that the positive relationship between organizational tenure and affective commitment could be suggestive of a sense of the desire to remain in the organization by highly committed organizational members whereas, those organizational individuals who exhibit a low level of commitment may be predisposed to departing from the organization.

Work experience as a second antecedent associated with affective commitment was found to possess the strongest and most consistent correlations with affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Mathieu and Zajac (1990) the major determinants of work experience toward affective commitment are skill variety, job challenge and the level of employee autonomy in the organization – job scope. Earlier studies by DeCottis and Summers (1987) are of the opinion that an invitation for employees' participation in decision making and humane treatment from supervisors, increases strong affective commitment among employees.

The third antecedent variable associated with affective organizational commitment is the organizational characteristic (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Physical as well as psychological comfort of organizational members within an organization has been proven as employee satisfying and, in turn, found to be crucial ingredients of affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to Meyer and Allen, these ingredients include, amongst others, leadership support, sound corporate policies and procedures, acceptable organizational structure and a shared culture.

An organization founded on sound principles, policies and procedures has strong ground in avoiding migration of quality employees compared to an organization that manipulates and observes less ethical policies and procedures (Noe et al., 2000). A high level of affective commitment is likely to be exerted by fairly treated, supported and respected organizational members (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Also, a shared organizational culture, which is the way organization members do things, constituting the values, assumptions, norms, understandings shared by people within an organization and taught to those joining it, assists organizational members to relate to one another and to the external environment (Spector. 2000). This, eventually, generates a sense of organizational identity and commitment, especially, affective commitment to particular values and the organization as a whole (Daft, 2005).

The following sentiments presented by Meyer et al. (as cited in Spector, 2000, p. 218) are indicative of affective commitment: "*I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization*. *I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.*"

4.4.2 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment has reference to the kind of commitment derived from the costs that the employee connects with leaving the organization (Muchins 2006). Continuance commitment as an organizational commitment dimension has its roots in Becker's (as cited in Spector, 2000) side-bet theory which put forward that the elongated employment of an employee in an organization produces an accumulation of investments on his or her part which grows and turns out to be costly to let go especially, if the employee anticipates to remain for extended periods with the particular organization. According to Spector, continuance commitment exists when a person must remain with the organization in view of le high costs he or she might encounter in the process of leaving the organization. Apart from economic costs, social costs such as friendship ties with colleagues are responsible for continuance commitment (Romzek, 1990). This, in many instances, brings an employee to hold on as a member of the organization for the reason that he or she has to (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Amongst other factors, Spector (2000) identifies at least three factors responsible for continuance commitment. These are: the inability to find other jobs and the availability of jobs in the job market, the need for benefits offered by the current organization and the investments in the current job – benefits accrued including pension accruals and finally, the need for the remuneration or salary offered by the current organization. On the other hand, Allen and Meyer (1990) identify the following factors responsible for continuance commitment: the time invested in the particular organization, the speciality of skills developed while on the job, the non-transferability of skills obtained to other jobs in the job market, the established comradeship or friendships between employees and established political arrangements and agreements. In essence, Allen and Meyer (1990) argue that an employee tends to psychologically attach him or herself to the organization such that any anticipated departure from the organization converts into a loss. This is because of the time and energy the individual has put in the organization as well as the culture specific engagement with that organization and the pride to be identified and associated with such an organization (Romzek, 1990).

From the above it is, however, clear that the antecedent variables associated with continuance commitment amount to investments and job alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It is however worth noting that the investments do not necessarily need to carry a monetary identity, but non-monetary and non-work related investments come into play such as relocation to another country (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The following sentiments presented by Meyer et al. (as cited in Spector, 2000, p. 218) are indicative of continuance commitment: "*Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire*. *It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.*"

4.4.3 Normative commitment.

According to Spector (2000), feelings of obligation are the major drives of normative commitment – the feeling that he or she ought to remain with the organization or employer. According to Jaros, Jermier, Koeler and Sincich (1993), normative commitment can be defined as some moral commitment rather than an emotional attachment, adopted by an individual, mirrored through perceptions and sense of duty and responsibility to the organization. Spector further views normative commitment to arise from the person's values and favours provided by the organization to the individual. Earlier studies by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) are in line with Spector's view in terms of the definition and measurement of normative commitment. The debate put forward by O' Reilly and Ch man is based on congruence – that there are no dissimilarities between the values of the individual and that of the organization and that the direct consequence of such is the development of commitment toward the organization.

One isolated example of normative commitment is found in the works of Randall and Cote (1991) that described an employee who undertook to improve his or her qualification, fully paid for by his or her employer or the organization. At completion or most probably prior to completion, the employee felt that the organization spent a substantial amount of money and time on him or her. As a result a sense of obligation developed within the employee to remain with the organization as a token of compensation. Therefore, amid this sense of obligation a sense of loyalty could also be perceived – the predicament of reciprocating the organizational investment in him or her. Epigrammatically, the following factors are responsible for normative commitment: personal values, feelings of obligation, humanness and loyalty, the moral sense of reward in return, and acceptance of organizational goals and values (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Jaros et al., 1993; Mayer & Schoorman, 1992; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Randall & Cote, 1991; Spector, 2000). The following sentiments presented by Muchinsky (2006, p. 319) are indicative of normative commitment: *"I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal one organization. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this company is that leaving would require considerable sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here."*

According to Meyer and Allen (1990) the understanding the various elements of organizational commitment ought to be seen as not mutually exclusive. This is in view of the fact that, at varying levels of intensity, an individual can simultaneously express tri-commitment to the organization – that is being affectively, continually and normatively committed to the organization at the same time. Consequently, according to Meyer and Herscovitch (as cited in Spector, 2000, p. 89) "at any point in time an employee has a commitment profile that reflect high or low levels of all three of these mind-sets, and that different profiles have different effects on workplace behaviour such as job performance, absenteei m and the chance that the organization member may quit." Aamodt (2007) argues that all the diverse elements of organizational commitment have something in common, namely allegiance. According to Aamodt, the allegiance toward the organization with regard to affective commitment is found in the liking of the organization, whereas that respect to continuance commitment is reflected through, amongst others, the unlikelihood of securing another job elsewhere, whilst normative commitment reflects allegiance toward the organization out of a sense of loyalty.

The focal point in the study of organizational commitm ividual can be committed to different innermost central areas in work – the job, the occupation and the organization (Muchinsky, 2006). In essence, according to Muchinsky, this implies that an individual can develop an emotional connection and feelings of attachment over his or her occupation and a sense of loyalty toward the organization he or she works for. However, the narrowest focal point of commitment identified by Industrial Psychologists is that an individual may express a low level of loyalty towards one's job (Morrow, 1993). Evidence exists that a person may have high occupational commitment, for example to teaching, but reflects a shortfall in organizational commitment (Muchinsky, 2006). In this case, according to Muchinsky, a readiness to change employers within the larger teaching profession and industry might be resorted to by the individual or employee. However, as Muchinsky further asserts, in the event that high organizational commitment is exerted and low job surfaces, moving across jobs within the same organization might be the likelihood.

4.5 Measurement of organizational commitment

Organizational commitment can be measured through the use of various tools and instruments. Mowday et al. (1979) invented an organizational commitment questionnaire, a 15-item review, tapping three organizational commitment dimensions measuring three commitment factors, namely: the acceptance of the values and goals of the organization, the willingness to work to assist the organization and the desire to remain with the organization. According to Kacmar, Carlson and Brymer (as cited in Aamodt, 2007) most people using these scales, combine the constituent factors to yield a single overall commitment score. Building on the work of Mowday et al., Allen and Meyer (1990) expounded a 24-item survey measuring the three organizational commitment elements, 8 each, for the three factors of affective, continuance and normative commitment. Bagraim's (2004) organizational commitment tool, which was applied and sted in the South African context, measures commitment on three broad dimensions namely: affective, normative and continuance commitment over 12 items.

Meyer and Allen (1997) developed various organizational commitment scales to measure the diverse workings of the elements and types of organizational commitment. These scales are recognized as a 9-item survey reflecting the three aspects of organizational commitment (Aamodt, 2007). These are: the ACS or affective commitment scale, the NCS or normative commitment scale and the CCS or continuance commitment scale. To determine the impact of the level of commitment of an individual or employee on outcomes such as quitting behaviour, job performance and absenteeism amongst others, researchers found these scales exceptionally useful and helpful (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.6 Relation to other occupational elements

The study of organizational commitment has attracted and established much rapport with other occupational elements (Spector, 2000). Netemeyer et al. (as cited in Spector) identifies these work environment variables to include job scope, role ambiguity and role conflict. Job satisfaction, job performance, absence and turnover, are other work elements studied in relation to organizational commitment (Spector, 2000). In their meta-analysis, Mathieu and Zajac (as cited in Spector, 2000, p. 219) report of "mean correlations of organizational commitment with several selected work variables" as given hereunder in **table 10**.

Table 10

Commitment and other variables

Variable	Mean correlation
Turnover	-.25
Job satisfaction	.49
Job performance	.13
Role conflict	.27

Source: Spector, 2000

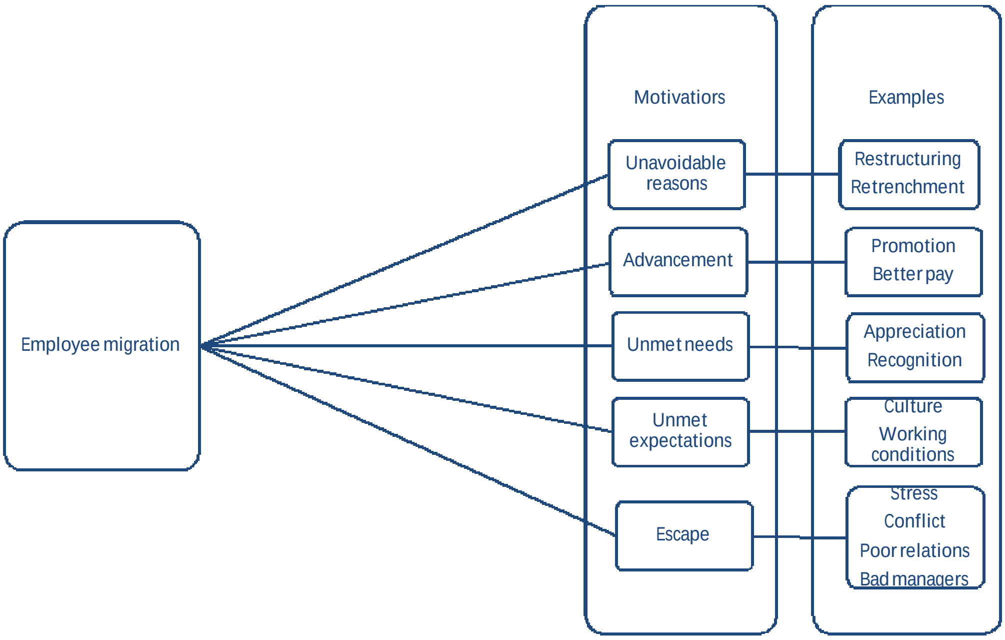
The positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction is indicated by r = .49. This was a strong correlation as researched by Mathieu and Zajac (as cited in Spector, 2000) over a 200 sample study. This parallel, according to Spector, is a perfect predictor that satisfied employees exert a notion of being committed to the organization they work for, more than dissatisfied employees within the same organization. The reverse is also true that dissatisfied employees can be assumed and predicted to be less committed to their organization and will most likely seek out permanent mobility – leaving the organization (Aamodt, 2007). This as Spector notes, is indicated by a turnover that produced a negative relationship with organizational commitment when r = -.25, meaning that as turnover increases, organizational commitment will tend to decrease and vice versa – a movement in opposite directions. Interestingly enough, even though the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance was found to be positive, it amounts to a less robust correlation of r =.13. Spector (2000) finds this result surprising in view of the fact that the major determinant of work co mitment is vested in the willingness of the employee to work hard for the organization. Meyer and Allen (1997) ascribe this kind of situation to the fact that different types of commitment relate and respond differently to performance. This view is further supported by Hackett, Barksdale and Shore (as cited in Spector), that affective and normative commitment are associated with better and enhanced performance, whereas continuance commitment is associated with lower or poorer commitment. By logical implication this means that, according to Spector, individuals who strongly identify with the goals of the organization and those who exert a strong sense of loyalty toward the organization, will perform better than those who believe they are free to quit but are trapped in their jobs due to high costs of losing their organizational citizenship and employment status.

4.7 Consequences of commitment

The types of commitment within their various component determine the kind of commitment consequence to be observed (Meyer & Allen, 1997). *An affectively committed employee* always wants to remain with the organization and may exert efforts to reducing the likelihood of departure from the organization (Aamodt, 2007). Meyer and Allen further indicate that a *continuance committed employee* has it in mind to remain with the organization to mitigate threatening social and economic losses linked to the imaginations of departure from the organization, such that, any opportunity measuring up to the alleviation of such loss may be grabbed, if such departure from the organization is anticipated not to result in investment shortfalls. In addition, Meyer and Allen assert that a *normatively committed employee* is driven by loyalty and trust, such that any opportunities to depart from the organization become easily turned down as they do not measure up to the obligation a person develops toward the organization. According to Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaren (as cited in Aamodt, 2007, p. 362), “employees with low job satisfaction and low organizational commitment are more likely to quit their job.” Premji (2005) attributes the high employee turnover ratio to factors such as better pay and profile, and simultaneously cautions a loss of good or quality employees to be indicative of bad management – people have greater preferences for leaving managers rather than companies to the effect that they take their knowledge, experiences and even contacts with them.

With regard to the *intention to leave or remain with the organization* Aamodt (2007) asserts that organizational members do not awaken on a particular day and quit their jobs, instead, they have been pondering disengaging from their organization over weeks and months. It is against this background that Aamodt maintains that such departure could have been prevented through better communication between management and employees. **Figure 25** below shows the factors responsible for employee intention to leave the organization.

Figure 25. Motivators of employee migration



Source: Aamodt, 2007

The intention to leave the organization is mainly motivated by factors such as unavoidable reasons, advancement, unmet needs, unmet expectations and escape (Aamodt, 2007). Further, as Aamodt puts it, factors such as voluntary retrenchments and restructurings fall in the category of unavoidable turnover factors and, even though employers take the necessary steps required to reduce staff mobility, there might be, simultaneously, very little that an organization can do to prevent turnover as a result of unavoidable reasons.

Promotional opportunities and better pay are advancement factors motivating organizational members to quit their jobs with the current employer Aamodt (2007). Aamodt further cautions that, little promotion within the organization prevents the employer from preventing mobility patterns motivated by the pursuit of promotional opportunities elsewhere, even increased pay, especially if it does not match up with that in the other organization, is found not to stop employee mobility and turnover.

Unmet needs are other factors that are directly responsible for employees' intention to leave the organization (Aamodt, 2007). According to Aamodt, unmet needs can be reflected through employee yearning for constant contact with others including appreciation and recognition. Any absence of person-organization-fit as a result of unmet needs, directly leads to employee mobility, especially to organizations where such needs are anticipated to be met (Spector, 2000).

People, in particular, unethical behaviour of co-workers, bad working conditions and stress are escape elements commonly responsible for employee mobility (Aamodt, 2007). Premji (2005) found that bad managers are the chasers of good quality employees. Aamodt further informs that conflict that is not dealt with in the early stages, poor and stressful working conditions are some of the factors causing organizational turnover. Also, as Aamodt puts it, unmet expectations in the form of pre-conceived ideas about pay, working conditions, organizational culture and advancement opportunities were also found to be direct responsible for employee migration.

4.8 Conclusion

The objectives of this chapter were to review the literature and cover salient features of one of the most popular attitudinal variables in the work domain – organizational commitment. Its overview was presented and the approaches to it were traced. It reviewed and highlighted the salient features of three types of organizational commitment and their accompanying antecedents. The most extensively relied upon measuring tools and instruments of organizational commitment, encompassing an impressive array of validation, were brought to the awareness of the reader. Further review is contained in the report of the relationship f organizational commitment to other occupational elements and its consequences in relation to the intentions of organizational members. This chapter concludes that organizational commitment is an allegiance-based construct of the work domain across the various of organizational commitment and that satisfied organizational members, to a greater extent, exert a notion of remaining committed to the organization. However, in the unfortunate event of unavoidable reasons and unmet expectations, amongst others, the organization becomes prone to permanent employee m and mobility as a consequence. The next chapter will consider the systemised rules, procedures and theoretical analysis of the method that will be employed in this research in determining the effect of labour hire on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Chapter 5 Research Methodology and theoretical orientation

This chapter considers the systemised rules, procedure and practice as well as the theoretical analysis of the method employed in the stu of the subject matter reviewed in the preceding chapters. The research goals and hypothesis are set out and put forward. Epistemological, ontological and ethi considerations are presented. The chapter continues to expound on the research design, procedure and the measuring instruments employed in this study. The sampling with its accompanying sample size and sample-specific properties is mapped out. In addition, the collection, capturing, analysis and interpretation of data are discussed.

5.1 Introduction

Research methodology can be viewed as the method in a particular field of enquiry, thus a set of procedures to be applied within a discipline analysing principles and postulates with the help of different approaches applied on a study, comparative or otherwise (Miller & Salkind, 2002). Within the domain of research methodology, Ghauri, Grønhaug and Kristianslund (1995) distinguish ween exploratory and descriptive research. The former signifies the structure available to explore new avenues and come up with explanations (Miller, 1991). The latter is characterised by a structure where empirical questions are used to give answers to a problem (Mouton, 2001).

5.2 Epistemological and ontological consideration

The analysis of this research study positioned the researcher in an organizational psychological domain with a positivist epistemology and an ontological perspective.

By logical implication, as Terreblanche and Durrheim (2006) put it, the orientation and alignment with this paradigm entails a three-fold purpose: *firstly,* the relationship between the researcher and the participants will be crucial and highly significant in the process of exploring what can be known, s*econdly,* it paves the way for the researcher to consider and take a stance of objectivity in the pursuit of the reality to be studied, *thirdly,* it facilitates the practicality of bringing into reality what the researcher believes can be known of which, amongst others, an accurate account of regulatory laws and mechanisms functioning in social l s vital.

Table 11

Epistemological, ontological and methodological considerations and paradigms

Type of paradigm	Ontology	Epistemology	Methodology
Positivist	Stable external reality	Objective	Experimental, quantitative
	Law like	Detached observer	Hypothesis testing
Interpretive	Internal reality of	Empathetic	Interactional, interpretation
	Subjective experience	Observer subjectivity	Qualitative
Constructionist	Socially constructed	Suspicious	Deconstruction
	Discourse	Political	Textual analysis
	Power	Observer	Discourse analysis
		Constructing versions	

Source: Taken from Terreblanche and Durrheim , 2006, p. 6

Fundamentally, positivism, as a philosophy, the state and quality of being positive, holds that the factual truth and reality are out there, awaiting unearthing that can be uncovered through fixed and specific designs, build on technical grounds and embodied in scientific principles (Durrheim, 2006). Thus, in this way, research becomes more original and objective (Miller, 1991). It is against this background that a quantitative research approach distinguishes itself m a qualitative research approach in the social sciences (Miller & Salkind, 2002). The latter has a vastly different philosophical and theoretical basis held by more qualitative and non-sequential pragmatic consideration (Ghauri et al., 1995). According to Henwood and Pidgeon (1994, p. 227), qualitative research is “based upon the search for detailed description, seeking to represent reality through the of the participants and to be sensitive to the complexities of behaviour and meaning in context,” implying that the researcher’s subjectivity is involved in what needs to be known.

5.3 Research goals and hypotheses

Research goals can be referred to as the objectives that a researcher intends to achieve within a defined period of time over an identified problem (Goldratt & Cox, 2002). *The goals of this research* were to examine the effect of labour broking on job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees and to determine the factors that mediate such experiences. This was done by: determining the relationship between employee job satisfaction and com itment to the organization, examining differences between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees, predicting job satisfaction and organizational commitment in samples and causes of variation, determining association and effect sizes of testable variables and, determining perceptions considering labour broking. **Table 12** below shows the hypotheses that paved the way for the research.

Table 12

Statistical notation and description of the proposed hypotheses by test

Test	Statistic	Description
Correlation	H_{o1}: $r^*_{TE(JS,AC)} = 0$	There is no significant statistical relationship betwe job satisfaction and affective commitment of temporary employees to the organization.
	H_{A1}: $r^*_{TE(JS,AC)}$? 0	There is a significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment of temporary employees to the organization.
	H_{o2}: $r^*_{TE(JS,CC)} = 0$	There is no significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and continuous commitment of temporary employees to the organization.
	H_{A2}: $r^*_{TE(JS,CC)}$? 0	There is a significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment of temporary employees to the organization.
	H_{o3}: $r^*_{TE(JS,NC)} = 0$	There is no significant statistical relationship betwe job satisfaction and normative commitment of temporary employees to the organization.
	H_{A3}: $r^*_{TE(JS,NC)}$? 0	There is a significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment of temporary employees to the organization.
T – test	H_{o1}: $\bar{x}TE_{JS} = \bar{x}PE_{JS}$	There is no difference between job satisfaction of temporary employees and job satisfaction of permanent employees.
	H_{A1}: $\bar{x}TE_{JS}$? $\bar{x}PE_{JS}$	There is a difference between job satisfaction of temporary employees and job satisfaction of permanent employees.
	H_{o2}: $\bar{x}TE_{TC} = \bar{x}PE_{TC}$	There is no difference between overall commitment of temporary employees and overall commitment of permanent employees to the organization.
	H_{A2}: $\bar{x}TE_{TC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{TC}$	There is a difference between overall commitment of temporary employees and overall commitment of permanent employees to the organization.
	H_{o3}: $\bar{x}TE_{AC} = \bar{x}PE_{AC}$	There is no difference between affective commitment of temporary employees and affective commitment of permanent employees to the organization.
	H_{A3}: $\bar{x}TE_{AC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{AC}$	There is a difference between affective commitment of mporary employees and affective commitment of permanent employees to the organization.
	H_{o4}: $\bar{x}TE_{NC} = \bar{x}PE_{NC}$	There is no difference between normative commitment of temporary employees and normative commitment of permanent employees to the organization.
	H_{A4}: $\bar{x}TE_{NC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{NC}$	There is a difference between normative commitment of temporary employees and normative commitment of permanent employees to the organization.
	H_{o5}: $\bar{x}TE_{CC} = \bar{x}PE_{CC}$	There is no difference between continuous commitment of temporary employees and continuance commitment of permanent employees to the organization.
	H_{A5}: $\bar{x}TE_{CC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{CC}$	There is a difference between continuous commitment of temporary employees and continuance commitment of permanent employees to the organization.
Chi-square	H_{o1}: **?**$^2_{JS} > 0$	The effect of temporary employment on employees' job satisfaction is huge.
	H_{A1}: **?**$^2_{JS} < 0$	The effect of temporary employment on employees' job satisfaction is small.
	H_{o2}: **?**$^2_{OC} > 0$	The effect of temporary employment on employees' organizational commitment is huge.
	H_{A2}: **?**$^2_{OC} < 0$	the effect of temporary employment on employees' organizational commitment is small.
Multiple regression	H_{o1}: $ß_{JS\text{-}T} = 0$	Tenure has no effect on job satisfaction of employees.
	H_{A1}: $ß_{JS\text{-}T}$? 0	Tenure has an effect on job satisfaction of employees.
	H_{o2}: $ß_{JS\text{-}I} = 0$	Income (pay) has no effect on job satisfaction of employees.
	H_{A2}: $ß_{JS\text{-}I}$? 0	Income (pay) has an effect on job satisfaction of employees.
	H_{o3}: ? $_{OC\text{-}JT} = 0$	Job title has no effect on organizational commitment of employees.
	H_{A3}: $ß_{OC\text{-}JT}$? 0	Job title has an effect on organizational commitment of employees.
	H_{o4}: $ß_{OC\text{-}NE} = 0$	The nature of employment (type of staff) has no effect on organizational commitment of employees.
	H_{A4}: $ß_{OC\text{-}NE}$? 0	The nature of employment (type of staff) has an effect on organizational commitment of employees.

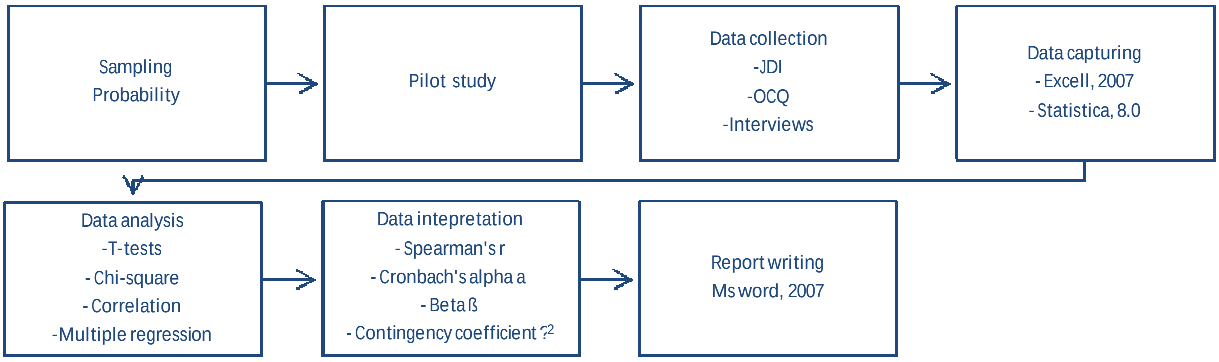
Source: Durrheim, 2002a; Fox, 1991; Patterson, 2000; Spiegel and Stephens, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001.

Durrheim (2002a, p. 128) refers to *Hypotheses* as tentative statements of a relationship between two variables, which in turn, according to Neuman (as cited in Durrheim, p. 128), are "educated guesses about how the social world works". Any useful hypothesis enables the researcher to predict and deductively reason the observable facts, events and phenomena under study (Theodore & Lewis, 2002).

5.4 Research Design

As pointed out earlier, this research was conducted within a positivist paradigm - granting the researcher the opportunity of describing and analysing estimates and sensory phenomena objectively (Miller & Salkind, 2002). As an architectural blue print, according to Bickman, Mouton and Marais, Rog and Hendrick (as cited in Durrheim, 2006), the research design of this study was decided upon and developed along pertinent aspects and elements of *firstly,* determining the purpose of the research, *secondly,* fitting the research to a preferred paradigm, *thirdly,* selecting and defining the context within which the research was carried out and *finally,* opting for the techniques employed to collect and analyse data.

Figure 26. Research design

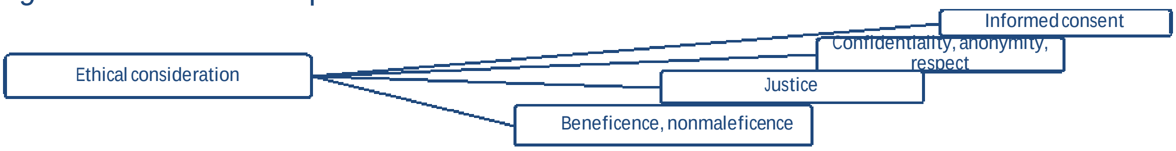


The consistent arrangement of these aspects, in partic the research purpose and techniques paved the way for a *coherent design* of this research in that they fit well with the context and specific paradigm (Durrheim, 2006). Most importantly, as Durrheim advises, caution was exercised in order to accomplish design validity by being on the look-out for probable plausible rival hypotheses to eliminate their impact in the event of their presence or to alternatively control their presence especially when unexplained variables were anticipated to influence the research findings.

5.5 Ethical considerations

For the purpose of protecting the welfare of participants, ethical consideration or the moral values and principles were reflected on. Mouton (2001, p. 238) refers to ethics as "what is wrong and what is right in the conduct of for which conformance to commonly accepted recognized and acknowledged norms and values ought to be observed and corresponded to. These principles, amongst others, comprised elements of informed consent, confidentiality; autonomy and respect for dignity, justice, nonmaleficence and beneficence (Wasenaar, 2006). **Figure 27** below presents a schematic representation of the ethical standards considered in this research.

Figure 27. Schematic representation of ethical considerations



Source: Wassenaar, 2006

5.5.1 Informed consent

Informed consent can be referred to as an officially permitted state of events whereby a person can be said to have given permission to another based upon a clear appreciation and understanding of the particulars, implications and imminent consequences of an action (Fisher, 2006). In order to give informed consent, a person concerned must have sufficient reasoning sense, good judgment and be in possession of all relevant facts at the time consent i given (Solomon, 2006). This means that consent ought to be given voluntarily, written or verbal, with full knowledge of the risk involved, probable consequences and the alternative (Berg, Appelbaum, Parker & Lidz, 2001).

For the purpose of this study, prior to this research, participants were provided with clear, detailed and factual information about the study, including its method, probable risks and benefits (Saunders et al., 2003). Simultaneously, participants were assured of voluntary participation, meaning that the participants had the right to withdraw from this research without penalties (Wassenaar , 2006). The informed consent was, preferably, in writing which the participants were requested to sign (Seidman, 2006).

5.5.2 Confidentiality, anonymity and respect for dignity of persons

Confidentiality signifies guaranteeing and ensuring th information about research participants remains accessible only to those authorised to have such information, meaning that utmost care ought to be exercised not to ivulge to or discuss with unauthorised parties the features and identity of the research participants (Johnson, 2000). Wassenaar (2006) suggests that the confidentiality of communities, individuals and institutions is important, therefore, their identity must be protected.

For the purpose of this study, regard for privacy of persons and protection of the identity of participants was assured by way of treating the information about them in this research with utmost care (Saunders et al., 2003). Participants were treated with respect, in fact, mutual respect was emphasized (Wassenaar, 2006). To enhance anonymity, participants were referred to by nom de plume or pseudonyms and hypothetical names were assumed for the participating organizations and their respective economic sectors (Caplan & Torpey, 2001). In addition, enhanced confidentiality included the reporting of the research results in aggregate form and removing all identifying information from the research report (Rawls, 1999). Hard copies of collected data were stored in lockable drawers and subsequently shredded after data extraction and usage (Cochrane & Morrison, 2008). Processed data was stored in password-protected electronic devices of the researcher (Becker, Liebertrau & Haberfellner, 1989).

5.5.3 Justice

Rawls (1999) informs that justice can be referred to as even-handedness and impartiality – moral rightness based on the absence of bias such that each person has an equal chance of inclusion from a pool or group of possible qualifiers. Wassenaar (2006) identifies four philosophical principles pertaining to justice in research: (1) participants must receive what is due to them, (2) participants mus be treated with fairness and equity, (3) care and support must be offered to the participants who will become aggrieved or agonised by a study and (4) those who are set to gain from the research should endure the burden of the research.

For the purpose of this study, all participants were accorded an equal chance of inclusion, in that the study was fair and equitable, as the selection was adopted through probability sampling whereby every second employee was chosen from the employee register which contained the names of all employees in the participating organizations (Trochim, 2006). Participants gained positive satisfaction in contributing information about issues in this research (Cochrane & Morrison, 2008). In the event participants were anticipated to become aggrieved, especially during the interviews, the research process was ready to be paused to talk about the problem and to clarify issues (Saunders et al., 2003). Any effective intervention arising from this research was anticipated to benefit the people in the environment where the research was undertaken in that they were anticipated to gain better knowledge about issues in their work domain (Wassenaar, 2006).

5.5.4 Beneficence and nonmaleficence

Beneficence and nonmaleficence in research respectively refers to the potential benefits and risks (Cochrane & Morrison, 2008). According to Wassenaar (2006, p. 67), potential risks can include harms that can “befall research participants as a direct or indirect consequence of the research”. Macklin (as cited in Wassenaar) advises that deception in research is in essence wrong and must be avoided as it possess the likelihood to potentially harm research participants. The potential benefit of any research is found in the maximum benefits a research can afford the research participants and may include aspects such as enhanced or improved education and greater access to administrative services such as legal advice etc. (Trochim, 2006).

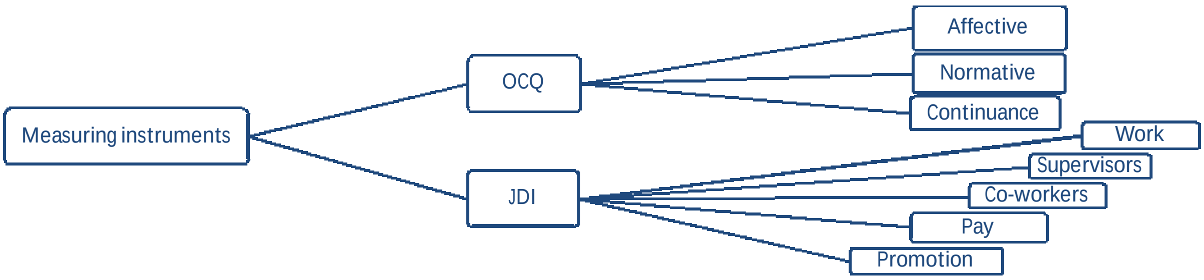
In this research, the researcher ensured that no harm befell any participant as their identity was concealed from the details of the study, thus no trace of their identity will surface in any way (Miller & Salkind, 2002). Moreover, the researcher took the necessary precaution by ensuring that research participants were not wronged in any way by not applying deception in this research (Wassernaar, 2006). The researcher anticipates that this research was of great help in enhancing people’s understanding about the impact of labour broking on employees’ job satisfaction and commitment (Trochim, 2006).

5.6 Measuring Instruments and procedure

Measuring instruments and procedure can be respectively seen as the tools and modus operandi in computing and assessing a construct (Saunders et al., 2003).

In this research, two measuring instruments were used, namely, Bagraim’s (2004) organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) and Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) job descriptive index (JDI). These instruments were used with their accompanying response options. **Figure 28** below depicts the said measuring instruments and their dimensions.

Figure 28. Measuring instruments and dimensions



Source: Bagraim, 2004; Noe et al., 2000

5.6.1 The organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ*)*

Pioneering of organizational commitment started with Mowday et al (1979) tapping three dimensions over a 15-item review. A further OCQ development is the one tapping dimensions over a 24-item review (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Subsequent progress by Allen and Meyer (1990) brought to light an equally represented three component OCQ review over 24 items, which was later revised by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). Afterwards, Meyer and Allen (1997) developed an OCQ version constituting 18 items equally distributed among three mensions of affective, continuance and normative commitment.

In this research, the researcher made use of a contemporary review namely, the Bagraim's (2004) organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) which is an adaptation of the Meyer and Allen (1997) version. This is a 12-item review tapping three dimensions of organizational commitment namely affective, continuance and normative commitment (Bagraim, 2004). These three dimensions and their corresponding items (12-item factors) are depicted in **table 13** below.

Table 13

OCQ dimensions and the corresponding 12-item factors

OCQ dimension	OCQ factor (#)
Affective	1, 4, 9, 10
Normative	7, 8, 11,12
Continuance	2, 3, 5, 6

Source: Bagraim, 2004

Each of these dimensions has four sub items and responses to these items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 = strongly disagree 4= strongly agree (Bagraim, 2004). **Table 14** below displays the intensity of response and scale for the OCQ.

Table 14

Intensity of response and scale of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Response (IOR)	Likert scale
Strongly disagree	0
Disagree	1
Neutral	2
Agree	3
Strongly agree	4

Source: Bagraim, 2004

5.6.1.1 Validity and reliability of Bagraim's OCQ

The *reliability* of a measuring instrument refers to the consistency of the measurement in research – the degree to which a measuring instrument assesses a construct the same way each time it is used under similar conditions for the same subjects (Heffner, 2004). In other words, the repeatability of a measuring instrument is expected to deliver similar estimates every time (Trochim, 2006). The reliability of a measuring instrument can be measured in numerous ways such as using the conservative test/retest method and Cronbach's alpha for internal consistency (Sekaran, 2000).

In this study, the *reliability* or internal consistency of the various scale items of Baigraim's (2004) OCQ, was estimated through the use of Cronbach's alpha. Three reliability levels and degrees of coefficient as displayed in **table 15** below were used (Sekaran, 2000). The choice of the Cronbach's alpha was motivated by the fact that its administration is less cumbersome, because it involves only one administration of the measuring instrument, compared to the test/retest method that involves more than one administration of the measuring instrument (Heffner, 2004). A recent study by Nyengane (2007) in the South African context reported a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of 0.90 for Bagraim's (2004) OCQ.

The *validity* of a measuring instrument refers to the representation of measurability of a construct by that instrument – measuring what it claims to measure (Trochim, 2006). For the purpose of this research, the researcher could only guarantee that Bagraim's (2004) OCQ would measure what it claims to measure – organizational commitment.

5.6.2 The job descriptive index (JDI)

The JDI is a job satisfaction measuring instrument developed by Smith et al. (as cited in Luthans, 1989). It measures employee job satisfaction through dynamics of pay, the work itself, supervisory relationships, co-workers' relationships and promotion (Noe et al., 2000). Other measures of job satisfaction include, amongst others, the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (MSQ), job satisfaction survey (JSS) and the faces scale (FS).

In this study, the JDI, as a measure of job satisfaction, was employed to measure job satisfaction of participants (Noe et al., 2000). The questionnaire which consists of the five job satisfaction dynamics which are sub divided into 72 sub elements; 18 for work, another 18 for supervisory and co-worker relationships each, and 9 for pay and promotion each; was administered to the sample of this research. All these measuring elements are presented in short descriptive expressions of which the response options to the measuring elements include Y for yes, N for no and ? for undecided (Luthans, 1989). **Table 15** below presents the JDI response options and their corresponding scoring points.

Table 15

JDI response options

Symbol	Description	Scoring points
Y	Yes	3
N	No	0
?	Undecided	1

Source: Luthans, 1989; Noe et al., 2000

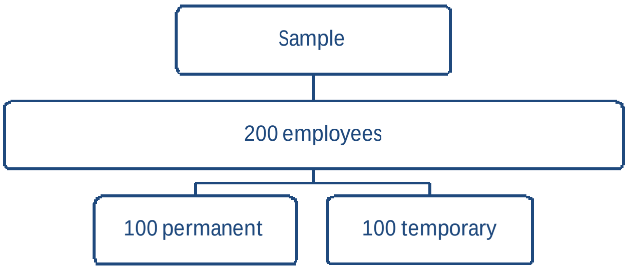
5.6.2.1 Validity and reliability of the JDI

The JDI gained international popularity and its application can be traced over 300 studies and more (Carrel et al., 1998). Jung, Dalessio and Johnson (1986) as well as Gillet and Schwab (1975) assured the research domain of the convergent and discriminant validity characterising the use of the JDI. The reliability of the JDI is enhanced by the short descriptive phrases which require less effort of understanding and are less complex in administer (Noe et al., 2000). For the purpose of this research, the researcher could only guarantee that the JDI would measure job satisfaction as it claims.

5.7 Sample

Howell (2004) and Sekaran (2000) define a sample as a of real observation – a subset of the population. In turn, a population, according to Trochim (2000), can be defined as a collected classification or category from which the researcher anticipates generalisation and sample participants of e research. **Figure 29** below indicates the sample for this research.

Figure 29. Sample of the research



For the purpose of this research, a sample of 200 employees participated in the study. Random probability sampling was exercised to ensure equal and independent chance of inclusion for all participants. Participants consisted of both permanent and temporary employees in five organizations that make use of labour hire services. **Table 16** below, shows the qualifying background of the sample for this research.

Table 16

Qualifying attributes of the target population

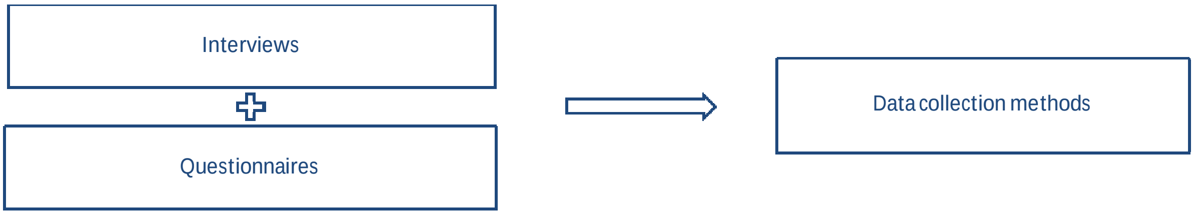
Attribute	Qualification
Age	18 years minimum, 65 years maximum
Gender	Male, female
Tenure	1-12 months and above
Job category	Clerical, administrative

The two participating groups, temporary and permanent employees, were anticipated at approximately 100 in each group and consisted of males and females, between the ages of 18 and 65 for administrative and clerical jobs. In addition, each participant had more or less 1-12 months of experience within their employing organisation.

5.8 Data collection

Data collection has reference to the actual acquisition of information to be explored so as to satisfy an inquiry (Sekaran, 2000). Specific techniques employed to collect data in the quantitative research include observations, interviews and surveys or questionnaires (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000; Struwig & Stead, 2001). According to Sekaran, the utilization of questionnaires gained worldwide popularity and is seen as valuable and proficient tool of data collection. **Figure 30** shows the data collection methods for this research.

Figure 30. Data collection methods



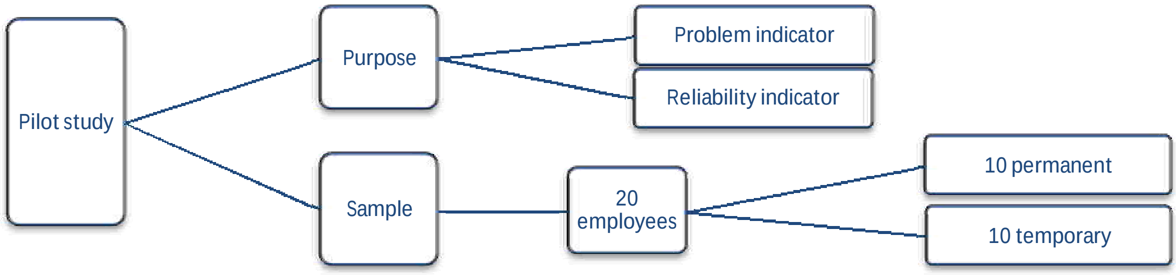
Source: Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000; Struwig and Stead, 2001

For the purpose of this research, data was collected by means of questionnaires, the OCQ and JDI, discussed in detail in the preceding sections. Prior to the administration of the questionnaires and the interviews, a pilot study was conducted.

5.8.1 The pilot study

The main purpose of the pilot study was to identify probable problems associated with the responses to the questionnaires with regard to the understanding and clarity of instructions (Saunders et al., 2003). This kept the researcher abreast of probable plausibility (Struwig & Stead, 2001). In addition, the pilot study served as an indicator of ascertaining and verifying the reliability of the coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) that were applied and used in this study. **Figure 31** below shows the purpose and sampling of the pilot study.

Figure 31. The pilot study



Source: Saunders et al., 2003; Struwig and Stead, 2001

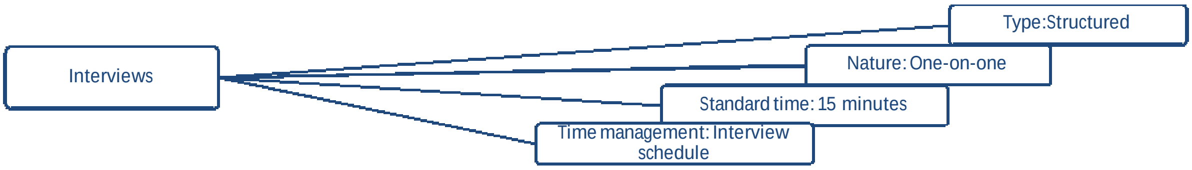
The questionnaires were exposed to 20 participants whose qualification and background was decided upon on the similar basis as members of the target population. The response time to the questionnaires was set at 20 minutes of which 15 minutes was expected to constitute the actual standard time. The remaining 5 minutes served as contingency time, specially designed for the slow responder. The researcher anticipated a 100% response rate. This was expected to materialise if the researcher was present when the participants were responding to the questionnaires.

5.8.2 The interviews

Miller and Salkind (2002) refer to interviews as the personal contact between the interviewer and the interviewee. This interaction can ke place at a preferred location, usually in the home or office, preferably, of the respondent (Seidman, 2006). According to Black (1999), the interview can vary from highly structured to informal talks. Structured interviews normally make use of a planned series of questions which are orally presented to the interviewees or respondents to explore certain predetermined areas (Patton, 1990).

For the purpose of this research, structured interviews were conducted with participants. This means that all interviewees were presented with exactly the same questions in the same order. The main features of the interviews that were conducted for this research are presented in **figure 32 below.**

Figure 32. Features of the interviews



Black, 1999; Frankfort-Nachmias, 2000

Questions were pre-set and orally presented to the respondents and the responses were recorded next to the questions (Patton, 1990). This helped the researcher to interpret questions clearly and clear up misunderstandings (Black, 1999). In addition, this assisted the researcher to aggregate responses in a reliable manner and to confidently compare responses between different interview periods or times – thus commonality of analysis and objective evaluation was applied (Saunders et al., 2003). For participants not fully literate in the designer's anguage, pre-set questions were expected to help focus on what was being asked (Lindloff & Taylor, 2002). Responses to the interviews were coded quantitatively and where necessary, interview quotations were interpreted and presented in the study (Struwig & Stead, 2001). An interview schedule was drawn up to assist with time management (Patton, 1990). The researcher anticipated a standard time of 15 minutes for each interview (Kvale, 1996). **Table 17** below specifies the interviews that were undertaken by participants and purpose.

Table 17

Interviews by participants and purpose

Participants	Purpose
Employees	To expand on and clarify various issues revealed in the questionnaires.
Hr managers	To determine their perception with regard to their responsibility in using labour broking as a staffing approach.
Labour hire managers	To determine their perception with regard to the labour broking process.

5.9 Data capturing

Data capturing is the extraction of raw information, in the form of numbers or otherwise, from the original sources of collection such as surveys onto a device, usually a computer, that will enable the researcher to analyse and interpret it , so as to provide meaning of the unprocessed data (Saunders et al., 2003).

To make sense and good judgement of the large base of raw data collected and links between the countless parts of information, the researcher followed a set of procedures to extract such information from the collection sources (Miller & Salkind, 2002). To that effect, a data entry format, editing, encoding, generating and setting up data categories, were developed and made use of (Struwig & Stead, 2001).

5.9.1 Data editing

Data editing is a fraction of data tabulation whereby w data are transformed into the list of necessary and essential information needed for examination and exploration of the construct being studied (Struwig & Stead, 2001). The rationale behind data editing is to discard or dispose of errors in the raw data and to situate the raw data in categories to aid and facilitate their tabulation and n (Finchilescu, 2002; Struwig & Stead, 2001). Errors that necessitate data editing include wrong yes or no choices, wrong use of response options, wrongly placed decimals, wrong numeric entry and wrongly used measurement units such as year, month, week and day etc. (Reason, 1990).

For the purpose of this study, the researcher examined the data and cleaned it for statistical use (Frese & Altmann, 1989). The probability of unanswered questions was anticipated and the researcher was ready to remove them from the data base to minimise their impact on the integrity of the results. (Zapf, Brodbeck, Frese, Peters & Pruemper, 1992). In the event responses with less significant impact on the data base were to occur, the researcher was ready to replace them with average responses – the missing response number with the average responses of the respondents (Finchilescu, 2002). Alternatively, variables that were expected to be difficult to explain were intended to be reported as outliers (Norman, 1993). In this way the researcher would confidently maintain the information needed for examining or exploring the proposed construct (Howell, 2004).

5.9.2 Encoding

In conjunction with data editing, encoding has referen to the use of language recognizable by the technology employed in the research study (Reason, 1990).

Encoding is performed by assigning data to appropriate categories (Struwig & Stead, 2001).

In this research, subsequent to the administration of the questionnaires to the sampled respondents, the responses to the questions were coded prior to storing them in the data file (Finchilescu, 2006). This coding was applied to the measurable variables, organizational commitment and job satisfaction as well as to the demographic information. **Table 18** below presents an example in spreadsheet format of the encoding applied on the data of this research.

Table 18

Applied encoding

Id	Gender	Age	Education	Job title	Tenure	Salary	Q1	Q2	Q3...ij
P1 TE	1	5	1	2	1	1	2	2	3
P2 PE	2	1	5	4	3	2	1	1	2

Source: Finchilescu, 2006

The code keys in **table 19** below, serve as a guide to the encoded information of **table 18** above. For example, the following explain the meaning of the odes. The first participant is a temporary male employee, between the age of 56-65, with a grade 8 education, a clerk, currently employed between 1and 2 months, earning between N$ 5000 and N$ 1000, who strongly agrees with stion 1, 2 and disagrees with question 3 of the organizational commit .

Table 19

Key to the encoded information

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
ID	PE	TE	-	-	-
Gender (S)	Male (M)	Female (F)	-	-	-
Age (A)	18-25 (a)	26-35 (b)	36-45 (c)	46-55 (d)	56-65 (e)
Education (E)	GR 8 (QA)	GR 10 (QB)	GR 12 (QC)	Diploma (QD)	Degree (QE)
Job title (JT)	Clerk (CLK)	Cashier (CA)	Recept (RES)	Packer (P)	Sales (SP)
Tenure (T)	1-12M	1-2YRS	3-4YRS	5-6YRS	7YRS>
Salary (N$)	100-500 (PA)	500-1000 (PB)	1000-3000 (PC)	3000-5000 (PD)	5000> (PE)
OCQ responses	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5...J
Job satisfaction responses	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5...J

Source: Finchilescu, 2002

Similarly, the second participant is a permanent female employee, between the ages of 18-25. She has a tertiary qualification and is employed as a packer. She has been with her employer for about 3-4 years and earns a monthly salary of between N$ 500 and N$ 1000. She agrees with both questions 1 and 2 of the organizational commitment questionnaire, but disagrees with question of the same measuring instrument.

5.9.3 Data entry format

Data entry format refers to slotting the encoded data s responded to by the participants into a computer file (Frese & Altmann, 1989). Data can be recorded onto the computer using spread sheet programs or processors (Zapf et al., 1992). Struwig and Stead (2001) identified *word processors* such as WORD PERFECT (a proprietary word processing application) and MS WORD (microsoft's word processing software), *spread sheet programs* such as LOTUS (a client server, collaborative, integrated desktop application) and EXCELL (also referred to as Microsoft office excel spread sheet application), *data base programs* such as DBASE (a relational data base management system), ACCESS (a data entry, communication and exiting application) for recording data on to the computer and *data analysis programs* such as the SPSS (statistical package for the social sciences), BMDP (a bio-medical data package application) and SAS (a multi product integrated statistical analysis software) .

In this study, the researcher employed EXCELL as a spread sheet to enter data onto the computer after which it was exported to a data analysis program for analysis (Struwig & Stead, 2001). This data analysis program is called STATISCA version 8.0 – a comprehensive, integrated data analysis, graphics, data management and custom application development system featuring a wide selection of basic and advanced analytic procedures for business, data mining, science, and engineerin applications (Hill & Lewicki, 2007). Analysed and processed data was subsequently forwarded to MS WORD for report writing. As Hill and Lewicki advise, the *choice* for STATISCA, as opposed to the other data analysis programs, was premeditated and purposeful in view of the fact that it is easily accessible with LOTUS and MS WORD and user friendly – cutting edge software used world-wide with a proven and unquestionable reliability of analysis to researchers. Its degree of accessibility is enhanced and complemented, amongst others, by a comprehensive accompanying electronic textbook advantageous to any researcher (Hill & Lewicki, 2007).

5.10 Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of decomposing, synthesizing and rationalizing the data information to communicate sense and acquire knowledge (Scanlan, 2001). As Scanlan informs, this is done after data capturing through reductive analysis whereby both individual and aggregated information, numbers and values, form the basis of analysis through statistical methods.

In this research, to give sense and meaning to, what otherwise would be a pool and collection of numbers and values, according to Scanlan (2001), the researcher identified the reliability of scale items, demographic data analysis, variable relationships (using correlation), differences of variables (using the t-tests), variable prediction (using regression analysis) and variable association (chi-square analysis) as a point of departure for data analysis.

5.10.1 Reliability of scale items

Reliability of coefficients in a study is necessary (Heffner, 2004). According to Sekaran (2000) coefficients can produce results that vary from poor to acceptable and good. In this research, the researcher made use of the Cronbach's alpha (a) as a reliability coefficient for all scale items and the level of reliability was determined by the result of the coefficient as suggested by Sekaran. **Table 20** below specifies the reliability level of scale items that were used in this study.

Table 20

Reliability coefficient and reliability levels for scale items

Coefficient (a)	Reliability level
< 0.6	Poor
> 0.6 < 0.8	Acceptable
>. 0.8	Good

Source: Sekaran, 2000

5.10.2 Demographic analysis

Demographic analysis is the examination of dimensions and dynamics of a research population – a statistical and mathematical study of the population features such as age, gender and qualification depending on the type and purpose of study (Siegal, 2002).

In this study, summary statistics were engaged to indicate the absolute value of each demographic variable and corresponding percentages (Howell, 2004). The resulting population figure denominates all sub variables of the demographic variables to indicate proportions. This means that the ratio of variables had a common denominator and the calculated percentages only accounted for variables within their respective categories (Patterson, 2000). **Table 21** below displays an example of the anticipated demographic analysis of the study population for this research.

Table 21

Anticipated demographic analysis display

Demographic variable	Category	Figure	Percentage
Staff by type	Temporary	100	50.0%
Gender	Female	50	25.0%
Age	26-35	10	5.0%
Education	Diploma	25	15.0%
Tenure	1-3 years	5	5.0%
Job title	Supervisor	6	8.0%
Income	N$ 3000	11	10.5%

5.10.3 Relationships between variables

Variables' relationship can be referred to as the direct and/or indirect link or connection between adjustable and measurable constructs (Aldrich, 1995). When the rise in one variable is responsible for the increa in the other variable, a direct or positive relationship between the two variables comes into existence (von Plato, 1994). However, when one variable increases as a result of a decrease in the other variable, the relationship between the two variables can be referred to as indirect or negative (Stigler, 1999). The statistical measure of the relationship between two or more variables, referred to as correlation, also determines the strength of that relationship (Cohen et al., 2003).

For the purpose of this research and prior to determining the impact of labour broking on employees' job satisfaction and commitment, the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees was determined (Aldrich, 1995). The two-tailed correlations analysis was used to examine the relationship between these variables (Lachenicht, 2002). According to Devore and Peck (1993), the relationship between variables can take on different strengths depending on the result of the coefficients in use. As a guideline, Devore and Peck suggest the assessment of the correlations result as indicated in **table 22** below, which the researcher employed to interpret the correlation coefficient values with the accompanying relationship strength between job satisfa n and organizational commitment.

Table 22

Devore and peck's guide for correlations assessment

Coefficient value	Strength of relationship
>0.8	Strong
< 0.5	Weak
> 0.5 but < 0.8	Moderate

Source: Devore and peck, 1993

The Pearson's product moment correlations coefficient or Spearman's r was employed to interpret the data (Lachenicht, 2002). As a coefficient, the r is useful to interpreting data in the sense that it can indicate both the strength and direction of the relationship between the measurable variables.(Bryman & Cramer,1990). For the purpose of this research the meaning of r, as described by Lachenicht together with Guilford's (2002) informal interpretation of the magnitude of r as illustrated in **table 23** below, was blended with the assessment guide by Devore and Pack (1993) for a thorough interpretation of the correlations results. According to Lachenicht the values of r falling within a range of -1 to +1 can be referred to as an ideal relationship between two measurable variables. However, in the event of the r = -1, the relationship can be said to be perfectly negative between the variables. This could imply that the variables are moving in the opposite directions (Bless & Kathuria, 1993). Lachenicht further informs that, in the event that the variables are moving in the same direction, the relationship can be referred to as a perfectly positive perfect one, meaning that r = +1, which implies that the values of the variables are rising and falling together.

Table 23

The meaning of r

Value of (r)	Interpretation	Type of relationship
<. 0.2	Slight correlation	Almost none to non-existent
0.2 - 0.4	Low correlation	Definite but small relationship
0.4 - 0.7	Reasonable correlation	Substantial relationship
0.7 - 0.9	High correlation	Dependable relationship
0.9 - 1.0	Very high correlation	Very dependable relationship
-1	Inverse correlation	Negative relationship

Source: Taken from Lachenicht, 2002, p. 184

5.10.4 Differences between variables

Howell (2004, 2007) advises that a t-test is the most frequently applied approach to assess differences in the means of two groups and to decide whether those groups differ. However, when a researcher is interested in the mean differences of more than two groups to detect the significant effect, a factorial analysis of variance is employed (Durrheim, 2002b).

For the purpose of this research, two groups of employees, permanent and temporary, independent of each other were considered. An independent t-test was used to compare the means of these two groups (Nunez, 2002). **Table 24** shows the t-test that was used to determine variable differences in this research, together with the accompanying type, assumption, assumption tester and alternate non parametric test in the event the assumptions became violated.

Table 24

Statistical test for variable differences

Test	Type	Assumption	Assumption test	Alternate	Statistical threshold
T-test	By group	1. Normality 2. Homogeneity Of variance	Shapiro-Wilks Levene	Mann Whitney-U	0.05

Source: Howell, 2004; Tredoux & Durrheim , 2002

Prior to comparing the means of the groups, a number of assumptions were satisfied, to examine whether all the samples were drawn from a normally distributed population and whether the variances were heterogeneous (Miller, 1991). The Shapiro-Wilks and Levene's tests are best fitted to verify these assumptions (Howell,1995). The threshold for statistically significant results was be kept at 0.05, that is $p = 0.05$ (Patterson, 2000). The non-parametric test, such as the Mann Whitney-U test was to be run, in the event the assumptions were violated (Black, 1999).

5.10.5 Regression analysis

Multiple regressions are best suited when predictions in existing samples need to be made (Howell, 1997). According to Fox (1991), multiple regressions are used when a researcher wants to predict a dependent from a number independent variables. Patterson (2000) informs that, how the change in one variable (usually the independent) affects the value of the other variable (usually the dependent variable) is best depicted by the regression coefficients. Quinn and Keough (2002) suggest that a regression model is made up of at least three elements: 1. a random factor (Y) or response variable, which can be normal, Poisson, ga ma, negative binomial and bionomial; 2. a predictor variable or (X) which can be categorical, inuous or both continuous and categorical; 3. A link function which links Y and X.

For the purpose of this study, to predict both job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the demographic variables were set as the predictor or independent variables, whilst overall organizational commitment and job satisfaction accounted for the criterion or dependent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). As suggested by Quinn and Keough (2002), the following regression equation was used: $Y = B_0 + B_1*X_1 + B_2*X_2 + B_3*X_3 + ... + B_j*X_{ij}$. Where: Y = job satisfaction or organizational commitment; B = the coefficients; X = income, tenure etc. for this study (Agresti, 2002). The hypotheses of the multiple regression tests are indicated and described in **Table 11** above.

5.10.6 The chi-square analysis

Greenwood and Nikulin (1996) suggest that data can be stically measured through the use of a goodness-of-fit measure. In other words, the chi-square assist researchers and statisticians to determine whether the "existing data fit a theoretical distribution such as a normal distribution" (Lachenicht, 2002, p. 366). Whereas the χ^2 is used to test for the association between two variables, Lachenicht cautions that the χ^2 value is not a good measure of a statistical effect size, and suggests that the mean square contingency coefficient (?^{2}) and Cramer's V (?$_c$) are appropriate indicators of effect size.

In this study, the Pearson chi-square (χ^2) was used to report the *association* of variables (Howell, 2007; Liebetrau, 1983). The principal *assumption* was that of association, implying that each subject accounted for data in a single cell such that the accumulated amount or the sum of all cell frequencies in the tables was similar to the number of subjects in the experiment (Agresti, 1996). The *hypothesis* for this assumption is denoted as follows: $H_{o:}$ variables are independent, $H_{A:}$ variables are dependent. To determine the statistical effect size of temporary employment (labour broking) on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the mean square contingency coefficient (?^{2}) was used (Agresti, 2002; Lachenicht, 2002; Pagano & Gauvreau, 2000). The interpretation guide for the levels of the means square contingency coefficient are shown in **table 25** below and the effect size hypotheses are indicated and described in **table 11** above.

Table 25

Means square coefficient effect size levels

Coefficient **(?^{2})**	Effect size level
< 0 - 0.05	Small
>0.05 < 0.1	Large
> 0.1	Super large

Source: idealised from Lachenicht, 2002

5.11 Conclusion

This chapter presented key conceptual and systemised procedures, rules and practices associated with the theoretical analysis and methodology employed in this research. The research goals and hypotheses set out and put forward were to identify and examine the impact of labour hire on employee job satisfaction and commitment as well as to coherently determine the relationship between the measurable variables and differences in the two camps of employees – the TEs' and PEs'. The epistemological, ontological consideration presented spelled out the relationship between the researcher and participants in the process of exploring what can be known. It also paved the way for the researcher to consider and take a stance of objectivity in the pursuit of the reality to be studied. Also, it facilitated the practicality of bringing into reality what the researcher believes can be known. Ethical considerations presented include issues of informed consent, justice and confidentiality, amongst others. The research design adopted was that of an architectural blue print along the lines of purpose, paradigm, context and techniques which rendered the research a coherent and valid design. The array of measuring instruments employed included the OCQ and JDI over an anticipated sample size of 200 employees as well as interviews over a sub sample of 20 employees. Data capturing was anticipated through transfer of raw data on to the computer which could be subsequently analysed using STATISTICA and interpreted with the help of appropriate statistical coefficients. The t-tests, chi-square, correlation and multiple regression techniques are the statistical tests which were employed for data analysis. The next chapter will present the findings and analyse the results of the research that was undertaken.

Chapter 6 Findings

This chapter is designed to present the findings and analyse the results of the research undertaken. It commences with the introduction after which the response rate to the research is given. Next, the findings of the pilot study, aimed at establishing reliability of responses to items of the questionnaires used in this research, are presented. After that, the demographic features of the study population are put forward. Subsequently, the results of the chi-square aimed at testing association between various sets of categories are furnished. Then, the correlations results, intended to analyse relationships between variables, are given. Tentative statements formulated in the preceding chapter are then tested. The results of the t-tests, exploring differences in the satisfaction and commitment scores of permanent and temporary employees, are offered. Furthermore, the findings of the multiple regressions aimed at predicting both satisfaction and commitment in the samples are presented. Finally, the results of the interviews conducted to expand on and clarify issues a well as to determine perceptions, are put forward. The meaning and scientific judgement of these findings are presented in the next chapter.

6.1 Introduction

Saunders et al.(2003, p. 422) refer to research findings and results as the what-I-found-out" of the research – the opportunity or opening for the researcher to report on, convey and inform about the facts discovered and revealed by his/her research.

To report and inform on the results of this research, the researcher transformed data into information by using statistics (Black, 1999). This assisted in transmitting the meaning of the findings and simultaneously promoted scientific judgement of the results. The meaning of these findings and judgement of the analysed results are discussed in the next chapter (Saunders et al, 2003).

6.2 Response rate

Data collection took place over a period of 3 weeks. A sample of 200 employees was targeted. A procedure for obtaining a random sample was developed by the researcher, however due to practical constraints – confidentiality of records – it was applied by organizations' managers. Out of 18 organizations contacted for this research, five organizations made this research possible by allowing their employees to take part in the study. Taken together, these organizations have more than two hundred employees and cover a wide range of economic sectors. In total, 200 questionnaires were supplied to these organizations of which 149 were returned. The returned questionnaires represent a 74.5% response rate. When disqualified questionnaires were deducted from the returned questionnaires, 108 questionnaires were retained for analysis in this research. **Table 26** below shows the response rate by economic sector.

Table 26

Response rate by economic sector (N = 108)

Sector	Retained	As % of returned	As % of retained
Sector a	31	20.8	29.0
Sector b	48	32.2	44.0
Sector c	29	19.5	27.0
Returned			149
Retained			108
Disqualified			41

Out of 108 questionnaires retained, 31 are from Sector A. This represents a 29.0% retain rate. The maximum and minimum retain rates are 44% and 27% respectively. The response rate by organization is shown in **table 27** below. A hypothetical name was assigned to each of the participating organizations to uphold anonymity.

Table 27

Response rate by organization (N = 108)

Organization	Respondents	Response rate (149) %	Retain rate (108) %
Paulandrew Pty (Ltd)	27	18.1	25.0
Otil Pty (Ltd)	31	21.0	29.0
Stanrod & Rayfen	21	14.0	19.0
Lesrick & Verso	15	10.0	14.0
Tamkayla & Munich	14	9.4	13.0

The absolute maximum response by organization is 31. This represents 21.0 and 29.0 response rate and retain rate respectively. Similarly, the absolute minimum response and retain rate of 9.4% and 13.0% respectively.

Table 28

Response rate by type of employee per organization (N = 108)

Organization	TE's	PE's	% Return rate (149)		% Retain rate (108)		% Staff type (51)	(57)
			TE's	PE's	TE's	PE's	TE's	PE's
Paulandrew Pty (Ltd)	21	6	14.0	4.0	19.0	6.0	41.0	10.5
Otil pty (Ltd)	12	19	8.0	13.0	11.0	18.0	23.0	33.0
Stanrod & Rayfen	8	13	5.0	9.0	7.0	12.0	16.0	23.8
Lesrick & Verso	5	10	3.0	7.0	5.0	9.0	10.0	17.0
Tamkayla & Munich	5	9	3.0	6.0	5.0	8.0	10.0	15.7

Table 28 above shows that temporary employees have a 21:149 response rate whereas that of permanent employees stands at 6:149. These, respectively, represent retain rates of 19.0% and 6.0%.

6.3 The pilot study and reliability of results

The purpose of the pilot study was to indicate reliability levels of questionnaires used in this study. These questionnaires were the job descriptive index (JDI) and organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ). In addition, the pilot study served to identify probable difficulties associated with the responses to these questionnaires. The participants that were exposed to the pilot study were 20. These participants were decided upon on the basis of similar qualifications and background as members of the target population. The simplicity of the questionnaires, especially the *JDI*, reportedly translated into short response time. This built up the participants' interest to complete the questionnaires in the shortest possible time.

The *organizational commitment questionnaire* produced an overall Cronbach's reliability coefficient of a = .890615 or a = .90. This result is similar to almost all individual elements of the organizational commitment questionnaire. Elements that scored slightly below or above the overall coefficient add no significant variation to the results of the organizational commitment questionnaire. **Table 29** below shows Cronbanch's alpha for each individual item of the organizational commitment questionnaire together with the corresponding standard deviations and sample mean scores.

Table 29

OCQ reliability scale

OCQ Dynamic	$\bar{X}$	STDV	a
Q1	15.7	8.0	0.89
Q2	16.1	7.8	0.87
Q3	16.1	7.8	0.87
Q4	15.8	7.8	0.87
Q5	15.7	8.1	0.88
Q6	15.7	8.1	0.88
Q7	16.0	8.5	0.91
Q8	15.5	8.0	0.88
Q9	15.7	8.1	0.88
Q10	16.2	8.4	0.89
Q11	16.2	8.0	0.88
Q12	15.9	7.9	0.88

Summary for scale: mean = 17.3500, STDV = 9.00453,valid N = 20, cronbach alpha: .890615,, standardized alpha: .896861, average inter-item corr.: .451847

6.4 Demographic analysis

The demographic data of the study sample was collected in 7 major dynamics: type of staff, sex, age, education, tenure, job title and income. The categories of these dynamics, together with their corresponding absolute figures and percentages, are exhibited in **table 30** below.

In terms of type of staff, **table 30** indicates that, 57 (53%) were permanent employees. By sex, the sample structure was dominated female respondents to the tune of 59% (64). All age categories were below 30%, except for 26 – 35 category which posted 53 (49%) respondents in total. Respondents who had a grade 12 level of education were 51 (47%), whereas only 5 (4.6% or 5%) possed a degree. With regard to tenure, 47% or 51 employees were with their organization for about a year. Packers, tellers and cashiers and merchandisers pectively accounted for

19%, 11% and 7% of the total respondents. With respect to income, 42.6% of the respondents earned between N$ 500 and N$ 1000.

Table 30

Demographics features of the study population (*N = 108*)

Demographic dynamic	Category	Figure	%
Type of staff	Temporary	51	47.0
	Permanent	57	53.0
Sex	Male	44	40.7
	Female	64	59.3
Age	18 – 25	31	28.7
	26 – 35	53	49.1
	36 – 45	23	21.3
	46 – 55	1	.93
	56 – 65	0	0
Education	Grade 8	7	6.5
	Grade 10	37	34.3
	Grade 12	51	47.2
	Diploma	8	7.4
	Degree	5	4.6
Tenure	1 – 12 months	51	47.2
	1 – 3 years	28	26.0
	4 – 5 years	18	16.7
	6 – 10 years	10	9.3
	>10 years	1	.93
Job title	Supervisors	5	4.6
	Cashiers/tellers	12	11.1
	Packers	21	19.4
	Merchandisers	8	7.4
	Order clerks	5	4.6
	Pricers	5	4.6
	Admin officers	5	4.6
	Processors	5	4.6
	[1]Other	42	38.8
Income (N$ per month)	N$ 500 - N$ 1000	46	42.6
	N$ 1000 - N$ 3000	30	27.9
	N$ 3000 - N$ 5000	11	10.1
	N$ 5000 - N$ 7000	9	8.3
	> N$ 7000	12	11.1

1 **Other is made up of job titles that posted a frequency below 5 (4.63%).**

6.5 Results of the chi-square

The chi-square was applied to test the association of variables and effect size. The hypotheses were stated as follows: $H_{o:}$ Variables are independent, $H_{A:}$ Variables are dependent. The results of the chi-square presented in **table 31** below.

Table 31

Chi-square results

Statistic	c^2	Df	P	Effect size
$c^2_{(JS)}$	9.82	4	0.11	
$c^2_{(OC)}$	10.17	3	0.20	
?$^2_{(JS)}$				0.096
?$^2_{(OC)}$				0.088

a = 0.05

6.5.1 Hypothesis one

The first proposition for the chi-square states that: $H_{o1:}$ the effect of temporary employment on employees' job satisfaction is large, $H_{A1:}$ the effect of temporary employment on employees' job satisfaction is small. The result for this proposition as reflected in **table 31** above shows that: χ^2 (4, n = 108) = 9.82, p = 0.11. ?^{2} = 0.096.

6.5.2 Hypothesis two

The second proposition for the chi-square states that: $H_{o2:}$ the effect of temporary employment on employees' organizational commitment is large, $H_{A2:}$ the effect of temporary employment on employees' organizational commitment is small. The result for this proposition as reflected in **table 31** above shows that: χ^2 (3, n = 108) = 10.1, p = 0.20. ?^{2} = 0.088.

6.6 Results of the correlation analysis

Correlations analysis was carried out to determine the relationship between variables. The Spearman's r (r* correlation coefficient) was used to indicate both the strength and direction of the relationship between variables. Generally, the relationship between variables above a product moment correlations above 0.8, is referred to as strong. Any relationship between variables below a 0.5 product moment correlations is interpreted as weak, whereas that between 0.5 and 0.8 is referred to as moderate.

6.6.1 Correlations results by hypothesis

The hypotheses proposed significant statistical relationships between job satisfaction (JS) and sub variables of organizational commitment (AC, NC and CC) for temporary employees (TE's). The results of these propositions are depicted in **table 32** below.

Table 32

Correlations by hypothesis

Item	(r*)	P	$H_{0:}$, $H_{A:}$	N
$TE_{(JS,TC)}$	-.05	.74	0	51
$TE_{(JS,AC)}$	-.23	.11	1	51
$TE_{(JS,NC)}$	-.02	.91	2	51
$TE_{(JS,CC)}$	.16	.26	3	51

p significant at p < 0.05

It is clear from **table 32** above that total the statistical relationship of overall job satisfaction and overall commitment of temporary employees stands at $r(TE_{JS,TC}) = -.05$, $p > .05$ or $p = .74$. Further results of statistical relationship of job satis ion with the sub elements of organizational commitment for temporary employees were: $r(TE_{JS,AC}) = -.23$, $p = 0.11$, $r(TE_{JS,NC}) = -.02$, $p = 0.91$, $r(TE_{JS,CC}) = .16$, $p = 0.26$.

6.7 Results of the multiple regression analysis

Multiple regressions were used to predict both job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the samples. For this purpose, the demographical variables (type of staff, sex, age, education, job title, and tenure) were expressed as control or predictor variables, whilst the work domain variables (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) were expressed as the response or criterion variables.

Regression summary for the multiple regression results reflected in **table 33** below are: $R = 0.37$, $R^2 = 0.13$, R^2 adj. $= 0.08$, $F (7, 100) = 2.10$, $p = 0.03$, Std. Error of estimate = 0.135 with job satisfaction; $R = 0.62$, $R^2 = .39$, R^2 adj. $= .35$, $F (7, 100) = 9.01$, $p = 0.00$, Std. Error of estimate = 0.851 with total organizational commitment.

Table 33

Multiple regression results (*N = 108*)

Variables	B	SE ß	B	SE ß	T (100)	P
CONTROL VARIABLES:						
Intercept			0.11	0.91	13.17	0.00
Type of staff	-0.18	0.10	-4.97	0.30	-1.63	0.10
Sex	-0.92	0.09	-2.64	0.26	-1.02	0.30
Age	-0.00	0.09	-0.01	1.74	-1.00	0.99
Education	0.08	0.10	1.29	0.17	0.76	0.44
Job title	0.06	0.09	0.07	0.12	0.63	0.52
Tenure	0.26	0.11	3.56	0.47	2.4	0.01*
Income N$	-0.26	0.12	-2.66	0.13	-2.11	0.03*
Intercept			0.32	0. 61	5.25	0.00
Type of staff	-0.50	0.09	-10.5	0.21	-5.02	0.00*
Gender	-0.02	0.08	-0.46	0.17	-0.26	0.79
Age	0.13	0.08	1.91	0.11	1.63	0.10
Education	-0.01	0.09	-0.13	0.11	-0.11	0.91
Job title	0.18	0.08	0.18	0.08	2.24	0.02*
Tenure	0.03	0.10	0.31	0.10	0.30	0.76
Income N$	-0.01	0.11	-0.14	0.89	-0.15	0.87

6.7.1 Hypothesis one

The first proposition of the multiple states that: $H_{o1:}$ tenure has no effect on job satisfaction of employees ($H_{o1:}$ ß $_{JS\text{-}T}$ = 0), $H_{A1:}$ tenure has an effect on job satisfaction of employees ($H_{o1:}$ ß $_{JS\text{-}T}$? 0). The multiple regression results for this proposition as reflected in **table 33** above indicates that ß $_{JS\text{-}T}$ = 0.26, p = 0.01. Having $Y = B_0 + B_1{*}X_1 + B_2{*}X_2 + B_3{*}X_3 + \ldots + B_{ij}{*}X_{ij}$**:** 1. ß $_{JS}{}^{JT}{}_{clk,}{}^{T}{}_{yrs4}$ = 0.11 + (0.06*1) + (0.26*4) = 1.21; 2. ß $_{JS}{}^{JT}{}_{clk,}{}^{T}{}_{yr1}$ = 0.11 + (0.06*1) + (0.26*1) = 0.43

6.7.2 Hypothesis two

The second proposition of the multiple regression states that: $H_{o2:}$ income (pay) has no effect on job satisfaction of employees ($H_{o1:}$ ß $_{JS\text{-}I}$ = 0), $H_{A2:}$ income (pay) has an effect on job satisfaction of employees ($H_{o1:}$ ß $_{JS\text{-}I}$? 0). The multiple regression results for this proposition as reflected in **table 33** above indicates that ß $_{JS\text{-}I}$ = -0.26, p = 0.03. Selected conditions show that: ? $_{JS}{}^{NE}{}_{TE,}{}^{N\$}{}_{PB}$ = 0.11 + (-0.92*2) + (-0.26*2)

= - 2.25

6.7.3 Hypothesis three

The third proposition of the multiple regression state that: $H_{o3:}$ job title has no effect on organizational commitment of employees ($H_{o3:}$ $ß_{OC\text{-}JT} = 0$), $H_{A3:}$ job title has an effect on organizational commitment of employees ($H_{o3:}$ $ß_{OC\text{-}JT}$? 0). The multiple regression results for this proposition as reflected in **table 33** above indicates that $ß_{OC\text{-}JT} = 0.18$, p = 0.02. Selected conditions show that: $ß\ OC^{JT}{}_{REC}{}^{A}{}_{a} = 0.32 + (0.18*3) + (0.13*1) = 0.99$.

6.7.4 Hypothesis four

The fourth proposition of the multiple regression states that: $H_{o4:}$ the nature of employment (type of staff) has no effect on organizational commitment of employees ($H_{o4:}$ $ß_{OC\text{-}NE} = 0$), $H_{A4:}$ the nature of employment (type of staff) has an effect n organizational commitment of employees ($H_{o4:}$ $ß_{OC\text{-}NE}$? 0). The multiple regression results for this proposition as reflected in **table 33** above indicates that $ß_{OC\text{-}NE} = -0.50$, p = 0.00. $ß\ OC^{NE}{}_{TE}{}^{S}{}_{F} = 0.32 + (-0.50*2) + (-0.02*2) = -0.72$.

6.8 Results of the t-tests analysis

The t-test was conducted to indicate whether the two groups, temporary and permanent employees, differ. Normal distribution of the samples and homogeneity of variances were hypothesised and met for the study population. t-test was reported on pooled variances. These results and the overall corresponding hypothesis references are shown in **table 34** below.

Table 34

T-test results (N = 108)

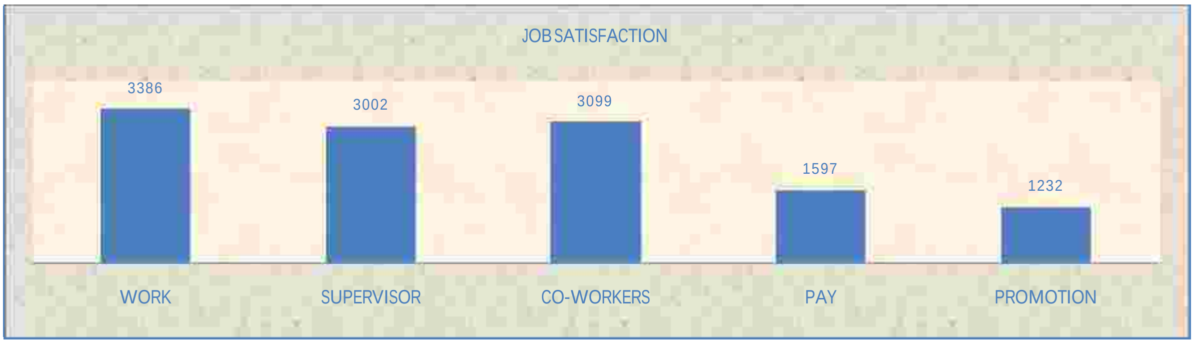
Group 1 vs Group 2	$H_{O:}, H_{A:}$	$\bar{X}$		T-Value		
		TE	PE	T	DF	P
TE_{JS} vs PE_{JS}	1	110.57	117.14	-2.48	106	0.01
TE_{TC} vs PE_{TC}	2	15.74	27.96	-7.47	106	0.00
TE_{AC} vs PE_{AC}	3	5.22	10.37	-7.43	106	0.00
TE_{NC} vs PE_{NC}	4	6.12	9.58	-4.94	106	0.00
TE_{CC} vs PE_{CC}	5	4.86	9.03	-6.57	106	0.00

6.8.1 Hypothesis one

The first proposition of the t-test states that: H_{o1}: there is no difference between job satisfaction of temporary employees and job satisfaction of permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{JS} = \bar{x}PE_{JS}$), H_{A2}: there is a difference between job satisfaction of temporary employees and job satisfaction of permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{JS}$? $\bar{x}PE_{JS}$).

The t-test results for this proposition as reflected in **table 34** above show that: t(106) = -2.5, p = 0.01. To provide clarity of these t-test results, the overall job satisfaction levels are provided in **figure 33** below, followed by the differences in job satisfaction levels of both permanent and temporary employees in **figures 34** and **35** respectively. The job satisfaction levels were computed by expressing the 3 point job satisfaction sub elements in one direction and by comparing the scores of all potential respondents to the anticipated scores should all questions in the questionnaires were exhausted. The dimensions of work, supervisor and co-worker each comprised 18 sub elements, whereas the dimensions of pay and promotion accounted for 9 sub elements each.

Figure 33. Overall job satisfaction levels



The job satisfaction level for work amounted to 3386. dimensions of supervisory and co-worker relationship scored 3002 and 3099 respectively. The lowest score of this job descriptive index was recorded in promotion (1232), whereas job satisfaction level in pay scored 1597. To indicate the differences in job satisfaction levels of permanent and temporary employees, **figures 34** and **35** below were graphed.

Figure 34. Job satisfaction of PE's

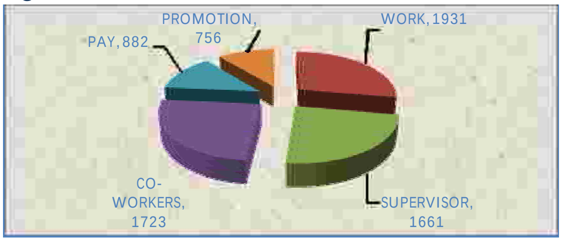
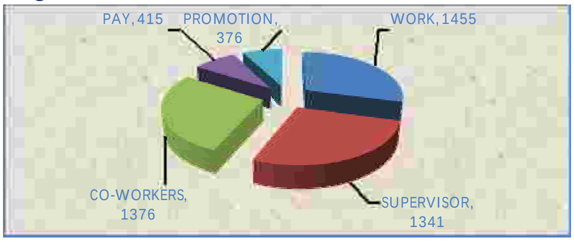


Figure 35. Job satisfaction of TE's



The dimension of work for permanent employees scored 1931 compared 1455 to that of temporary employees. The job satisfaction levels of permanent employees represent 26.6% of satisfaction with work above that of temporary employees. The supervisory and co-worker relationships for permanent employees scored 1661 and 1723 respectively compared to 1341 and 1376 of the temporary employees respectively. This represents 19.3% of temporary employee satisfaction level with supervisory relationship below that of permanent employees. With respect to the co-worker relationship, that of permanent employees is higher than that of temporary employees by 20.0%. The promotion dimension of permanent employees stands at 756 job satisfaction level compared to 376 of temporary employees. The pay dimension of permanent and temporary employees scored 882 and 415 respectively.

In the dimension of work, participants' responses to elements such as respect, creativity, challenge and satisfaction stood out in playing a significantly modest role in the job satisfaction levels of temporary employees. However, in the case of permanent employees, responses to these very same elements contributed immensely to their job satisfaction levels with work. These differences are depicted in **figures 36** and **37** below.

Figure 36. Responses to work by PE's

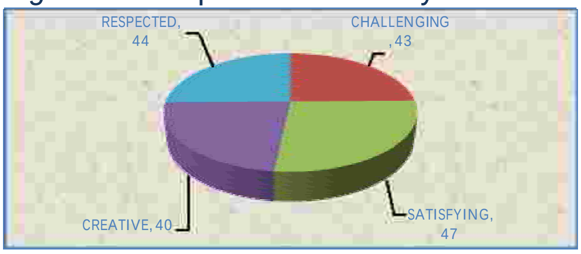
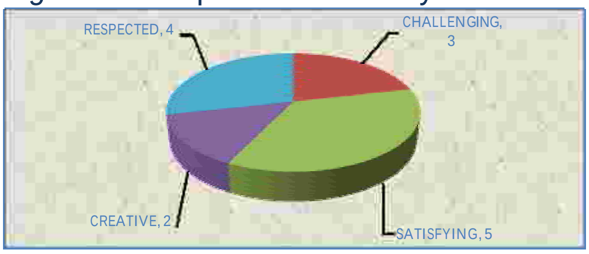


Figure 37. Responses to work by TE's



Out of a total of permanent employees who have participated in this research, 47 described their work as satisfying, compared to only five temporary employees. Permanent employees (57), 44 indicated that their work was respected, but only four of their temporary counterparts shared the same sentiment. Only three temporary employees said that their work was challenging, compared to 43 of their permanent counterparts. While 40 permanent employees indicated that their work was creative, a mere two of temporary employees shared the same sentiment. **Table 35** below depicts the differences in responses to elements of the work dimension that played a significant and modest role in the job satisfaction of permanent and temporary employees – challenge, creativity, respect and satisfaction – by demographic variables namely, sex, age, education, tenure, income and job title.

Table 35

Differences in selected JDI responses with work by demographic factors

Work element	Permanent employees		Temporary employees	
Sex	Male	Female	Male	Female
Challenging	18	25	1	2
Creative	17	23	0	2
Respected	19	25	1	3
Satisfying	20	27	2	3

Work element	Permanent employees					Temporary employees				
Age	18-26	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	18-26	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65
Challenging	8	23	11	1	0	2	1	0	0	0
Creative	9	19	12	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Respected	9	23	12	0	0	1	2	1	0	0
Satisfying	10	21	15	1	0	1	3	1	0	0
Education	Grade 8	Grade 10	Grade 12	Diploma	Degree	Grade 8	Grade 10	Grade 12	Diploma	Degree
Challenging	4	9	24	3	3	1	1	1	0	0
Creative	3	8	22	5	2	0	0	1	1	0
Respected	2	10	24	5	3	0	0	2	1	1
Satisfying	4	10	24	7	2	1	2	2	0	0
Tenure	1-12m	1-3yrs	4-5yrs	6-10yrs	10yrs >	1-12m	1-3yrs	4-5yrs	6-10yrs	10yrs >
Challenging	12	9	14	8	0	2	1	0	0	0
Creative	9	9	15	7	0	2	0	0	0	0
Respected	10	11	8	14	1	4	0	0	0	0
Satisfying	12	13	14	7	1	3	2	0	0	0
Income	500-1000	1000-3000	3000-5000	5000-7000	7000>	500-1000	1000-3000	3000-5000	5000-7000	7000>
Challenging	7	8	6	4	8	2	1	0	0	0
Creative	7	16	7	3	7	1	1	0	0	0
Respected	8	17	7	3	9	3	1	0	0	0
Satisfying	7	19	9	8	4	4	1	0	0	0
Job title	Super-visors	Tellers & packers	Clerks & admin	Mech. & pricers	Proc. & other	Super-visors	Tellers & packers	Clerks & admin	Mech. & pricers	Proc. & other
Challenging	3	7	21	1	11	0	1	0	2	0
Creative	3	3	28	2	4	0	1	1	0	0
Respected	1	5	30	2	6	0	1	2	1	0
Satisfying	5	9	21	4	8	0	3	1	1	0

The results of **table 35** above, was designed to be read in conjunction with the aggregate figures of **figures 36** and **37** for each element of the work dimension (challenge, creative, respected and satisfying). Female respondents, in both the permanent and temporary category, were the majority in the responses to work by sex. Permanent female employees (25, 23, 25 and 27) responded that their work was challenging, creative, respected and satisfying compared to temporary female employees (2, 2, 3, and 3) in that order. The 26-35 age category attracted the highest permanent employee responses compared to both 18-26 and 26-35 age category in the case of temporary employees. Most temporary employees (2; 1; 3; and 4) who earn between N$ 500-1000 indicated that their work was challenging, creative, respected and satisfying compared to permanent employees (8; 16; 17and 19) who earn between N$ 500-1000. Most permanent employees (21; 28; 30 and 21) who said that their work was challenging, creative and respected were employed as clerks and admin officers, compared to temporary employees (0; 1; 2 and 1) who were employed in similar jobs. Permanent employees (12; 9; 10 and 12) with a tenure of between 1-12 months indicated that their work was challenging, creative, respected and satisfying, compared to temporary employees (2; 2; 4; and 3) who shared the same sentiments.

As in the case of work, some responses that accounted or significant differences between job satisfaction levels of permanent and temporary employees with respect to the supervisory relationships were selected. These are: the availability of the supervisors when needed, the supervisors request for advice from supervisees, whether the supervisors praised good work and whether they were hard to please. **Figures 38** and **39** below depict these differences.

Figure 38. Responses to supervisor by PE's

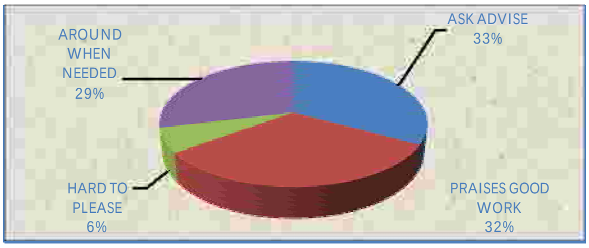
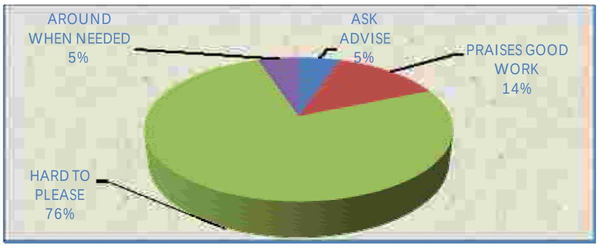


Figure 39. Responses to Supervisor by TE's



In terms of **figures 38** and **39** above, 76% of temporary employees indicated that their supervisors were hard to please, whereas only 6% of the permanent employees expressed the similar sentiment. Only 5% of the temporary employees indicated that their supervisors were around when needed and ask for their advice (5%), compared to 29% and 33% in the case of permanent employees respectively. Temporary employees (14%) were of the opinion that their supervisors praised good work and 32% of the permanent employees expressed the same sentiment.

Table 36

Differences in selected JDI responses to supervisory relationships by demographic factors

Supervisory element	Permanent employees					Temporary employees				
Sex										
	Male		Female			Male		Female		
Around when needed	26.3%		2.7%			0.0%		5.0%		
Ask my advice	28.0%		5.0%			1.9%		3.1%		
Hard to please	1.2%		4.8%			37.2%		38.8%		
Praises good work	31.5%		0.5%			3.5%		10.5%		
Age										
	18-26	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	18-26	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65
Around when needed	19.3%	6.1%	3.6%	0.0%	0.0%	1.9%	0.0%	3.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Ask my advice	12.2%	13.8%	6.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.8%	2.3%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%
Hard to please	1.7%	2.5%	1.8%	0.0%.	0.0%	33.0%	38.2%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Praises good work	14.0%	16.8%	1.2%	0.0%	0.0%	5.8%	6.2%	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Education										
	Grade 8	Grade 10	Grade 12	Diploma	Degree	Grade 8	Grade 10	Grade 12	Diploma	Degree
Around when needed	5.3%	18.8%	2.8%	1.0%	1.1%	0.0%	3.9%	1.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Ask my advice	0.9%	10.3%	10.5%	6.8%	4.5%	0.0%	1.5%	3.5%	0.0%	0.0%
Hard to please	0.0%	0.0%	3.9%	1.1%	1.0%	35.0%	31.7%	9.3%	0.0%	0.0%
Praises good work	1.0%	2.4%	6.5%	11.2%	10.9%	8.0%	1.9%	4.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Tenure										
	1-12m	1-3yrs	4-5yrs	6-10yrs	10yrs >	1-12m	1-3yrs	4-5yrs	6-10yrs	10yrs >
Around when needed	1.6%	23.9%	3.1%	0.4%	0.0%	2.3%	2.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Ask my advice	0.0%	21.8%	13.3%	0.0%	0.0%	1.9%	3.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Hard to please	1.4%	3.0%	1.6%	0.0%	0.0%	41.2%	36.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Praises good work	1.8%	26.1%	1.5%	2.6%	0.0%	11.9%	3.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Income										
	500-1000	1000-3000	3000-5000	5000-7000	7000>	500-1000	1000-3000	3000-5000	5000-7000	7000>
Around when needed	0.0%	15.8%	13.2%	0.0%	0.0%	3.6%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Ask my advice	0.0%	9.2%	20.6%	3.2%	0.0%	1.3%	3.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Hard to please	0.0%	4.1%	1.9%	0.0%	0.0%	49.8%	26.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Praises good work	0.0%	18.7%	11.3%	2.0%	0.0%	9.5%	4.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Job title										
	Super-visors	Tellers & packers	Clerks & admin	Mech. & pricers	Proc. & other	Super-visors	Tellers & packers	Clerks & admin	Mech. & pricers	Proc. & other
Around when needed	3.1%	2.8%	17.2%	1.7%	4.2%	0.0%	2.1%	1.1%	0.9%	1.0%
Ask my advice	3.1%	1.9%	21.4%	2.5%	4.1%	0.0%	1.3%	0.7%	1.4%	1.6%
Hard to please	0.9%	1.2%	1.8%	1.2%	0.9%	0.0%	33.8%	20.5%	14.9%	6.8%
Praises good work	1.0%	6.8%	19.1%	3.2%	1.9%	0.0%	4.5%	2.6%	3.8%	3.1%

Out of 76% temporary employees who indicated that their supervisors were hard to please 38.8% were female respondents. At an income of between N$ 1000-3000 permanent employees (18.7%) indicated that their supervisors praised good work compared to their temporary counterparts (4.5%). Out of 33% permanent employees who said that their supervisors asked their advice, 12.2% and 13.8% were between the ages of 18-25 and 26-35 respectively, compared to only 1.8% and 2.3% of temporary employees respectively in the similar age categories. Permanent employees who were employed as clerks and admin officers (17.2%) indicated that their supervisors were available when needed, compared to their temporary counterparts (1.1%) in the same job category.

Elements that demonstrated notable differences in job satisfaction levels of permanent and temporary employees with respect to co-worker relationships were identified as stimulating, intelligence, loyalty and easy to make enemies. These are depicted in **figures 40** and **41** below.

Figure 40. Responses to co-worker by PE's

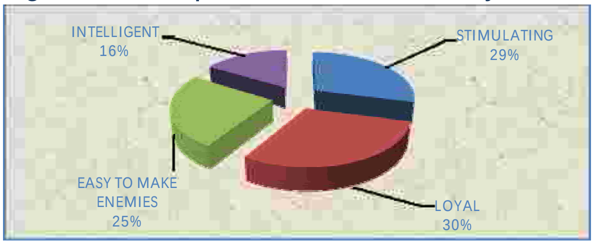
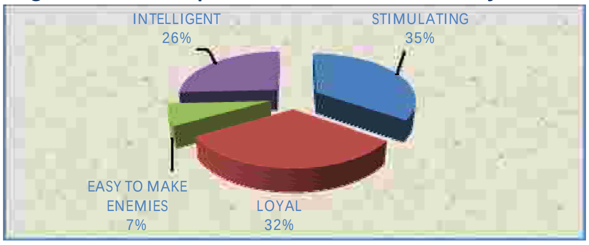


Figure 41. Responses to co-worker by TE's



As can be inferred from **figures 40** and **41** above 16% of permanent employees responded that their co-workers were intelligent compared to 26% of temporary employees. Temporary employees (35%) indicated that their co-workers were stimulating, whereas 29% of permanent employees shared the same sentiment. As far as loyalty is concerned, 32% expressions of loyalty came from temporary employees and 30% from permanent employees. Permanent employees (25%) felt that it was easy to make enemies with fellow workers, compared to only 7% of temporary employees.

As can be seen in **table 37** below, 18.1% of permanent male employees indicated that it was easy to make enemies with the co-workers, whereas only 4.7% of temporary male employees shared this sentiment. Permanent employees (15.7%) between the ages of 18-25 indicated that their co-workers were stimulating compared to temporary employees (13.1%) in the same age category. Permanent employees (11.0%) who felt that their co-workers were intelligent, were employed as clerks and admin officers, whereas most temporary employees (15.4%) who shared the same sentiment were employed as tellers and packers. Permanent employees (23.2%) who earned between N$ 1000-3000 indicated that their fellow workers were loyal, wheras the highest loyalty score toward fellow mployees came from temporary employees (18.3%) earning between N$ 500-1000.

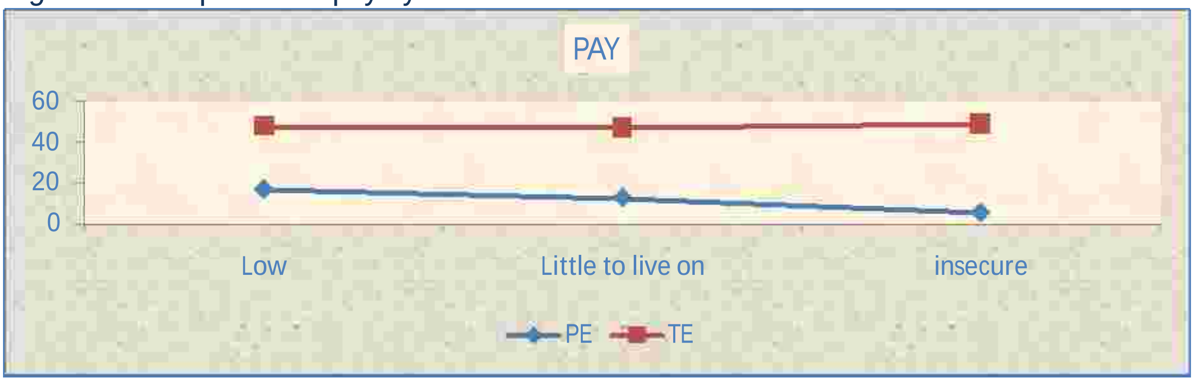
Table 37

Differences in selected JDI responses of co-worker relationships by demographic factors

	Permanent employees					Temporary employees				
Sex										
		Male		Female			Male		Female	
Loyal		16.0%		14.0%			17.8%		14.2%	
Intelligent		7.2%		8.8%			11.3%		14.7%	
Stimulating		24.9%		4.1%			29.8%		3.2%	
Easy to make enemies		18.1%		6.9%			4.7%		2.3%	
Age										
	18-26	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	18-26	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65
Loyal	5.3%	14.6%	10.1%	0.0%	0.0%	8.8%	23.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Intelligent	6.1%	8.0%	1.9%	0.0%	0.0%	19.0%	7.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Stimulating	15.7%	9.3%	4.0%	0.0%	0.0%	13.1%	21.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Easy to make enemies	18.4%	2.1%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.4%	2.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Education										
	Grade 8	Grade 10	Grade 12	Diploma	Degree	Grade 8	Grade 10	Grade 12	Diploma	Degree
Loyal	0.0%	0.0%	22.0%	4.8%	3.2%	16.0%	11.1%	4.9%	0.0%	0.0%
Intelligent	0.0%	0.0%	9.2%	4.8%	2.0%	14.9%	8.1%	3.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Stimulating	0.0%	0.0%	24.7%	2.3%	2.0%	22.2%	9.5%	3.3%	0.0%	0.0%
Easy to make enemies	0.0%	0.0%	21.9%	2.1%	1.0%	4.0%	2.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Tenure										
	1-12m	1-3yrs	4-5yrs	6-10yrs	10yrs >	1-12m	1-3yrs	4-5yrs	6-10yrs	10yrs >
Loyal	17.2%	6.0%	3.8%	3.0	0.0%	19.5%	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Intelligent	11.0%	3.0%	1.0%	1.0%	0.0%	21.7%	4.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Stimulating	21.2%	3.8	2.2%	1.8%	0.0%	28.0%	7.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Easy to make enemies	5.0%	13.8%	3.9	2.3%	0.0%	5.8%	1.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Income										
	500-1000	1000-3000	3000-5000	5000-7000	7000>	500-1000	1000-3000	3000-5000	5000-7000	7000>
Loyal	0.0%	23.2%	2.0%	2.9%	3.9%	18.3%	13.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Intelligent	0.0%	9.0%	4.0%	1.6%	1.4%	20.4%	5.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Stimulating	0.0%	18.2%	6.8%	1.9%	2.1%	19.3%	9.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Easy to make enemies	0.0%	19.0%	2.0%	1.9%	2.1%	4.7%	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Job title										
	Super-visors	Tellers & packers	Clerks & admin	Mech. & pricers	Proc. & other	Super-visors	Tellers & packers	Clerks & admin	Mech. & pricers	Proc. & other
Loyal	3.0%	4.3%	15.1%	2.6%	4.7%	0.0%	20.7%	5.1%	2.7%	3.5%
Intelligent	2.0%	1.4%	11.0%	0.0%	1.6%	0.0%	15.4%	2.0%	3.6%	5.0%
Stimulating	3.6%	2.5%	17.1%	2.3%	3.5	0.0%	18.0%	3.0%	8.0%	6.0%
Easy to make enemies	11.3%	6.0%	3.0%	2.0%	2.7%	0.0%	4.0%	1.0%	0.0%	2.0%

As can be inferred from **figure 42** below, differences in responses between permanent and temporary employees with respect to pay were depicted. Three pay dimensions namely low, little-to-live-on and insecure, played a significant role in the job satisfaction levels of both permanent and temporary employees.

Figure 42. Responses to pay by PE's and TE's



Permanent employees (17) indicated that their pay was low, compared to 48 temporary employees. Six permanent employees expressed that their pay was insecure, compared to 49 temporary employees. Only 13 permanent employees said that their pay was little to live on, compared to 47 temporary employees. The spread of these responses by demographics is shown in **table 38** below.

Table 38

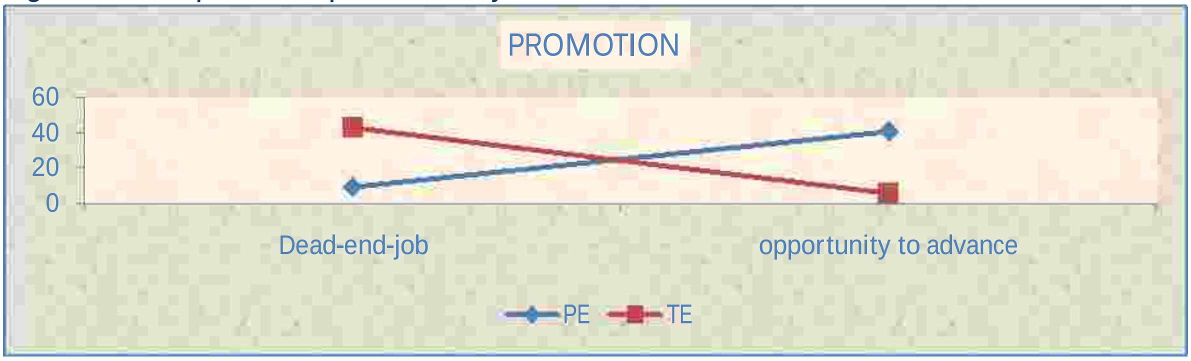
Differences in selected JDI responses w.r.t. pay by demographic factors

	Permanent employees					Temporary employees				
Sex										
	Male		Female			Male		Female		
Low	6		11			20		28		
Insecure	4		2			21		28		
Little to live on	8		5			21		26		
Age										
	18-26	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	18-26	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65
Low	3	8	5	1	0	24	18	6	0	0
Insecure	2	3	1	0	0	26	19	5	0	0
Little to live on	2	8	3	0	0	25	16	6	0	0
Education										
	Grade 8	Grade 10	Grade 12	Diploma	Degree	Grade 8	Grade 10	Grade 12	Diploma	Degree
Low	0	0	14	2	1	13	16	19	0	0
Insecure	0	0	4	1	1	5	26	18	0	0
Little to live on	0	0	8	3	2	9	20	18	0	0
Tenure										
	1-12m	1-3yrs	4-5yrs	6-10yrs	10yrs >	1-12m	1-3yrs	4-5yrs	6-10yrs	10yrs >
Low	6	7	4	0	0	34	14	0	0	0
Insecure	2	3	1	0	0	35	14	0	0	0
Little to live on	2	9	2	0	0	37	10	0	0	0
Income										
	500-1000	1000-3000	3000-5000	5000-7000	7000>	500-1000	1000-3000	3000-5000	5000-7000	7000>
Low	0	7	6	4	0	37	11	0	0	0
Insecure	0	4	1	1	0	38	10	0	0	0
Little to live on	0	8	6	3	0	37	11	0	0	0
Job title										
	Super-visors	Tellers & packers	Clerks & admin	Mech. & pricers	Proc. & other	Super-visors	Tellers & packers	Clerks & admin	Mech. & pricers	Proc. & other
Low	2	2	6	3	4	1	39	3	2	2
Insecure	2	1	1	0	2	1	37	2	6	3
Little to live on	2	2	2	2	5	1	33	2	6	5

Of the 48 temporary employees who indicated that their pay was low, 28 and 20 were female and male respectively. Permanent employees (17) who shared the same sentiment were 6 and 11, male and female respectively. Temporary employees who felt that their pay was insecure were highest in the age categories of between 18 and 26 (26), and 26 and 35 (19). Temporary employees who felt that their pay was little to live on were highest (37) in the tenure period of 1-12 months, income category N$ 500-1000 (37) and were mostly employed as tellers and packers (33).

Figure 43 below, shows the differences between the responses of temporary and permanent employees with respect to promotion. Two elements of t promotion dimension, namely dead-end-job and opportunity-to-advance, substantially impacted the job satisfaction levels of the two camps of employees and were therefore selected.

Figure 43. Responses to promotion by PE's and TE's



Permanent employees (10) indicated that they occupied dead-end jobs, compared to 42 temporary employees. Permanent employees (41) indicated that there were opportunities to advance in their jobs compared to only six temporary employees who shared the same sentiment. The spread of these differences is depicted in **table 39** below by demographic factors.

Table 39 below shows that the 42 temporary employees, who felt they occupied dead end jobs, were respectively made up of 26 and 16 male and female respondents. In the case of permanent employees, 10 participants, five for each sex category, accounted for the same sentiment. Most perma employees (27) who felt that there was an opportunity for advancement in their jobs had a grade 12 education, compared to most temporary employees (18) who had the same education, but felt that they were in dead end jobs.

Table 39

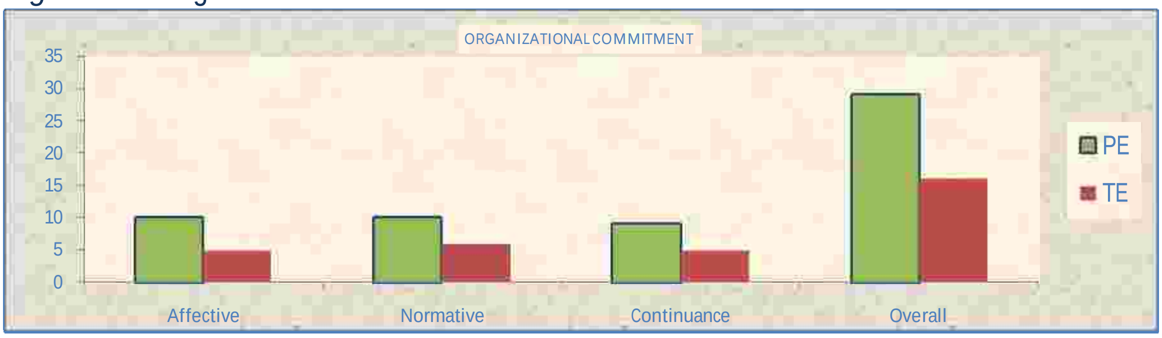
Differences in selected JDI responses w.r.t. promotion by demographic factors

	Permanent employees					Temporary employees				
Sex										
	MALE		FEMALE			MALE		FEMALE		
Dead-end-job	5		5			26		16		
Opportunity to advance	17		24			2		4		
Age										
	18-26	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	18-26	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65
Dead-end-job	2	6	2	0	0	25	13	4	0	0
Opportunity to advance	8	20	13	0	0	2	4	0	0	0
Education										
	GRADE 8	GRADE 10	GRADE 12	DIPLOMA	DEGREE	GRADE 8	GRADE 10	GRADE 12	DIPLOMA	DEGREE
Dead-end-job	1	1	5	1	2	15	9	18	0	0
Opportunity to advance	2	7	27	3	2	1	4	1	0	0
Tenure										
	1-12M	1-3YRS	4-5YRS	6-10YRS	10YRS >	1-12M	1-3YRS	4-5YRS	6-10YRS	10YRS >
Dead-end-job	4	1	3	1	1	28	14	0	0	0
Opportunity to advance	9	10	14	8	0	4	2	0	0	0
Income										
	500-1000	1000-3000	3000-5000	5000-7000	7000>	500-1000	1000-3000	3000-5000	5000-7000	7000>
Dead-end-job	0	4	3	2	1	38	4	0	0	0
Opportunity to advance	8	18	13	1	1	4	2	0	0	0
Job title										
	SUPER-VISORS	TELLERS & PACKERS	CLERKS & ADMIN	MECH. & PRICERS	PROC. & OTHER	SUPER-VISORS	TELLERS & PACKERS	CLERKS & ADMIN	MECH. & PRICERS	PROC. & OTHER
Dead-end-job	0	2	3	2	3	0	33	4	3	2
Opportunity to advance	2	8	24	3	4	0	1	1	2	2

6.8.2 Hypothesis two

The second proposition of the t-test states that: H_{o2}: There is no difference between overall commitment of temporary employees and overall commitment of permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{TC} = \bar{x}PE_{TC}$), H_{A2}: There is a difference between overall commitment of temporary employees and overall commitment of permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{TC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{TC}$). The *t-test results* for this proposition as reflected in **table 34** above indicate that t (106) = -7.5, p = 0.0. **Figure 44** below shows that the overall or total organizational commitment of permanent employees stands on average at 28% compared to that of temporary employees at 16%.

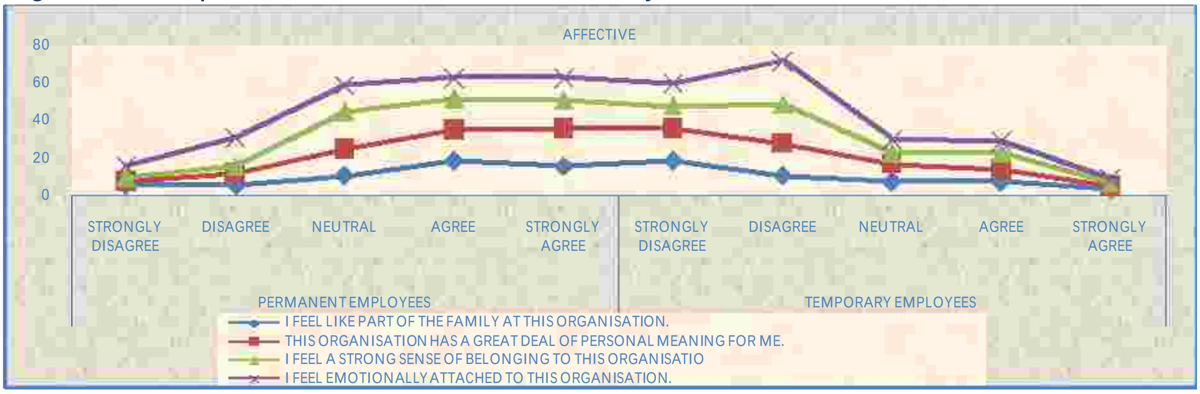
Figure 44. Organizational commitment of PE's and TE's



6.8.3 Hypothesis three

The third proposition of the t-test states that: H_{o3}: there is no difference between affective commitment of temporary employees and affective commitment of permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{AC} = \bar{x}PE_{AC}$), H_{A3}: there is a difference between affective commitment of temporary employees and affective commitment of permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{AC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{AC}$). The *t-test results* for this proposition as reflected in **table 34** above stand at t (106) = -7.4, p = 0.0. **Figure 45** below shows the differences in the responses of temporary and permanent employees to ctive commitment by intensity of response.

Figure 45. Responses to affective commitment by PE's and TE's



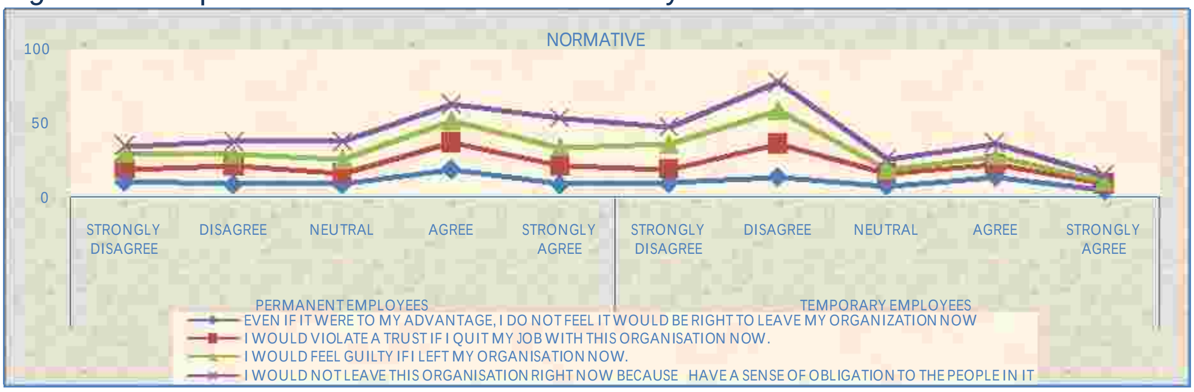
Most permanent employees agree or strongly agree with the expressions of affective commitment, whereas most temporary employees disagree strongly disagree with the same sentiments. Of the 51 temporary employees, 23 disagreed that they felt emotionally attached to the organization they worked for, compared to 15 permanent employees out of 57. Permanent employees (20) strongly agreed that the organization they worked for had a great deal of personal meaning to them, whereas only three temporary employees expressed the same intensity of response to this very same sentiment.

6.8.4 Hypothesis four

The fourth proposition of the t-test states that: H_{o4}: there is no difference between normative commitment of temporary employees and normative commitment of permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{NC} = \bar{x}PE_{NC}$), H_{A4}: there is a difference between normative commitment of temporary employees and normative commitment of permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{NC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{NC}$). The *t-test results* for this proposition as reflected in **table**

34 above show that t (106) = -4.9, p = 0.0. **Figure 46** below shows the differences in the responses of temporary and permanent employees to mative commitment by intensity of response.

Figure 46. Responses to normative commitment by PE's and TE's

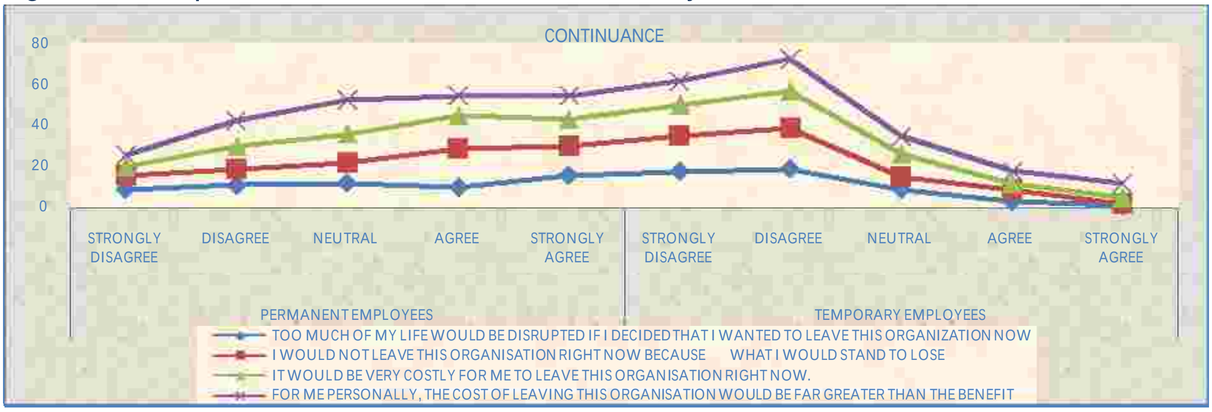


Permanent employees (20) strongly agreed that they would not leave their organization because of a sense of obligation to the people in it. The temporary employees who strongly agreed with this expression were only four. Those who agreed that they would violate trust if they quit their job were 18 (permanent employees) and 8 (temporary employees). Of the 51 temporary employees, only two, strongly agreed that they would feel guilty if they left their organization then, whilst the permanent employees who strongly felt the same were 13.

6.8.5 Hypothesis five

The fifth proposition of the t-test states that: H_{05}: there is no difference between continuance commitment of temporary employees and continuance commitment of permanent employees ($\bar{x}_{TE_{cc}} = \bar{x}_{PE_{cc}}$), H_{A5}: There is a difference between continuance commitment of temporary employees and continuance commitment of permanent employees ($\bar{x}_{TE_{cc}}$? $\bar{x}_{PE_{cc}}$). The *t-test results* for this proposition as reflected in **table 34** show that t (106) = -6.6, p = 0.0. **Figure 47** below shows the differences in the responses of temporary and permanent employees to continuance commitment by intensity of response.

Figure 47. Responses to continuance commitment by PE's and TE's



Temporary employees who strongly agreed that too much their life would be disrupted if they decided that they wanted to leave their organization then, were two compared to 16 permanent employees who strongly agreed with the same expression. Whereas only 1 of 51 temporary employees strongly agreed that he or she would not leave his or her current employment because of what he or she stood to lose, 14 permanent employees strongly agreed with this same expression. Compared to 13 permanent employees, only 3 of 51 temporary employees strongly felt that it would be very costly for them to leave the organization they worked for.

6.9 Interview analysis

Interviews were conducted at various levels namely, at employee level, managerial and labour hire ownership level.

6.9.1 Employee interviews

Interviews with employees, temporary and permanent, were conducted to expand on and clarify issues raised in the questionnaires they have completed.

Table 40

Employee interview results (N = 20)

Dynamic	Temporary employees		Permanent employees	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Trade unionism	9	1	8	2
Social security	10	0	10	0
Staff type by choice	1	9	N/a	N/a

Table 40 above, shows that, nine temporary employees responded positively with regard to trade unionism compared to eight permanent e ployees. Responses with regard to social security show a 100% positive response from both the temporary and permanent employees. Temporary employees indicated that their work was a bread-and-butter issue and that promotion was an unknown phenomenon to them. Even though they generally regarded their co-workers as pleasant, temporary employees felt that the attitudes of their supervisors towards them needed to change. In most cases, temporary employees indicated that the nature of their work was characterised by long hours and that they had a greater preference for leaving their current jobs which kept them there by responsibilities rather than choice. A majority of temporary employees expressed a common fear for layoffs in the event the proposed legislation gets implemented.

Interviews with permanent employees revealed that, even though they were well paid, they needed a raise from time to time. In addition, permanent employees indicated that the existence of advancement opportunities applied to everyone by policy only as, in most cases, not everybody got promoted. Permanent employees indicated that their work, in some cases, could be stimulating, but boredom sets in most cases. With respect to their supervisors, permanent employees said that their supervisors were good most of the time, however instances of rare praise and untimely credit for the jobs well done tended to emerge, and that supervisors could be pushovers at times. Furthermore, permanent employees felt that they could easily make enemies in the workplace, especially when they were obliged to train people whom they did not know where they came from, but who had the potential to take over their jobs. As far as commitment is concerned, some permanent employees felt that their current organizations were not ideal. Others indicated that an opportunity of greener pastures elsewhere would determine the exit at their current place of employment. On a more positive note, some permanent employees indicated that they spent considerable time with their current organizations and as they were used to working there, jumping from one organization to another was not something they treasured.

6.9.2 Managers' interviews

The purpose of the interviews with managers in participating organizations were conducted to determine their perception with regard to labour hiring in view of the fact that they are responsible for the decision to use labour hire as a staffing approach. For the purpose of these interviews the following factors were considered: legality to employ staff on a temporary basis, the involvement of temporary and permanent employees in similar jobs, the motivating factors to having temporary and permanent staff simultaneously and the differences in earnings of temporary and permanent employees.

Table 41

Results of organizational managers' interviews (n = 5)

Dynamic	Managers' response				
	1	2	3	4	5
Legality to employ staff on a temporary basis	I.t.o Act 2004	I.t.o of the law	By Act	By Act	Legal by Act
Involvement of TE's and PE's in similar jobs	Not all	Some	Some times	Definite	Not all
Motivator to having TE's and PE's at the same time	Nature of the business	Type of job	Help for a certain period	Seasonal demands	Temps came later
Difference in earnings of PE's and TE's	Wages Vs Salaries	Hourly Vs monthly	Definite	Definite	Definite

Legality to employ staff on a temporary basis – making use of labour hire services that offer temporary staff to organizations.

In terms of **table 41** above, the five managers responded differently, to issues of legality, involvement, motivation and variance in earnings of temporary and permanent employees. Whether it was legal to employ staff on a temporary basis all managers indicated that it was legal in terms of the Labour Act of 2004. Whether the temporary employees and permanent employees were involved in similar jobs, all managers responded in affirmation. With regard to what motivated the employment of temporary and permanent employees at the same time, one manager cited the nature of business his organization was in, another cited the type of jobs, two others (manager 3 and 4) the need of help at a certain period and seasonal demands and manager 5, indicated that the employment of temporary employees came later as a supplementary move. All managers affirmed that there was a difference in the earnings of temporary and permanent employees.

6.9.3 Labour Hire managers' interviews

With labour hire managers, the purpose of the interviews was to determine their perception of the labour hire process. These perceptions were tested along the dimensions of whether the labour hiring was a profitable venture, business venture, a worthy employment mode, the probable view of the newly proposed legislation and other factors.

Table 42

Results of labour hire managers' interviews (N =2)

Dynamic	LHM 1	LHM 2
Profitable venture	Reject	Reject
Business venture	Confirmatory	Reject
Worthy employment mode	Confirmatory	Confirmatory
New legislation	Job loss anticipation	Job loss anticipation
Other	Provide right people	Economic aide
	Job finder system	Job locator

LHM - labour hire manager

Table 42 summarises the perceptions of labour hire managers with regard to the labour broking process. Both labour managers show negative response to the labour hire process as a profitable venture. Perceptions on labour hire as a business venture shows one manager confirmatory and the other in denunciation. Job loss anticipation was the perception from both labour hire with regard to the newly proposed legislation. Other perceptions revealed in the interviews with labour hire managers as indicated in **table 42** above, revolve around, amongst others, job locator, right people finder and economic aide.

6.10 Conclusion

This chapter presented the findings and analysed the results of the research that was undertaken. The *response rate* to this research was 74.5% of which 54.0% and 20.5% was retained and disqualified respectively. The results of the pilot study posted reliability scales of a = .90. *Demographic* features of the study population showed that 53% and 47% of the respondents were permanent and temporary employees respectively. The *Correlation* results indicated an inverse relationship between overall organizational commitment and job satisfaction of employees. The *chi-square* showed effect sizes of $?^2_{JS} > 0$ and $?^2_{OC} > 0$ for job satisfaction and organizational commitment respectively. The *multiple regression* result modelled R and R^2 at $p < 0.05$ whilst $R^2 = 0.13$, $p < 0.05$ for job satisfaction and $R^2 = 0.39$, $p < 0.05$ for organizational commitment. The t-tests results indicated overall job satisfaction as $JS_{PE} > JS_{TE}$ and overall organizational commitment as $OC_{PE} > OC_{TE}$. Interviews showed confirmatory perceptions toward labour broking as a worthy employment mode and the employment of temporary employees was still indicated as legal at the time of this research. Even though belonging to the trade union and provided with a safety net in terms of social security, most temporary employees opinionated their nature of employment as a bread-and-butter-issue. The next chapter will present reflective thoughts to the research outcomes by offering scientific judgment and meaning to these findings.

Chapter 7 Discussions

In a quest to present reflective thought to the research outcomes, this chapter devotes its attention to furnishing each selected research finding with at least one conclusion. This signifies that meaning and scientific judgement w l be given to the findings and results provided in the preceding chapter. To that effect, more or less, the same structure of the preceding chapter will be followed. Essentially, meaning and judgement will be given to findings and results of the response rate, the reliability of responses and the demographic features of the study population. In addition, further judgement will be made on the results of the chi-square, t-tests, correlations, multiple regressions and interviews. Finally, concise and thorough organizational and topical implications will be put forward, the potential value and limitations of the study will be outlined and suggestions for future research, followed by recommendations, will be offered.

7.1 Introduction

Findings put forward and presented without reflective mplation or consideration, more often than not, run the risk of be labelled with a "so-what-question" by the readers – a demonstration that the research question has not been answered or responded to by the researcher (Saunders et al., 2003). To overcome this problem the researcher embraced Saunders' et al. advice to on and thicken the "what-I-found-out" of the previous chapter with the "what-does-it-mean". This will be done by concluding on and explaining the meaning of each selected statistical result, finding, and accompanying sentiment expressed in the preceding chapter. Additionally, being mindful of the research questions of the study, the researcher undertook and resorted to making judgements rather than reporting facts in the conclusions of the findings.

7.2 The pilot study

As a problem indicator, the pilot study revealed no problems that could adversely affect this research. This further means that no probable difficulties were ciated with the responses to the questionnaires as far as the understanding and clarity of instructions were concerned. The organizational commitment questionnaire produced excellent results of reliability when the average stood at a = .89 or a = .90.

This means that the results of this research, offered by the organizational commitment questionnaire as a measuring instrument, are good and reliable. This further suggests that the results and findings of organizational commitment, including the sub-elements of affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment are trustworthy and dependable. This result support the recent finding by Nyengane (2007) which posted a reliability coefficient of a = 0.901.

7.3 Discussion of the demographic analysis

As shown in **table 6.6** of the preceding chapter, the majority of the study population were permanent employees (53%). This suggests that employees with stable employment were the majority in this study. In terms of sex, the majority of respondents to this study were female employees (59.3%). This further means that, of the 108 respondents, 64 represented female employees. Regarding age, the majority of the study population fell between 26 and 35 years old (49.1%). This suggests that the majority of the respondents were reasonably young and at a productive age. With regard to the educational level, most of the respondents possess a secondary educational qualification (47.2%). This signifies an acceptable literacy level of the respondents. Tenure statistics show that most respondents (47.2%) had an uninterrupted working period of about a year with their employers. The majority of the study population indicated that they were packers (19.4%), tellers and cashiers (11.1%) and merchandisers (7.4%). Also, the majority of the study population (42.6%) indicated that their monthly income was between N$ 500 and N$ 1000. This means that most employees who participated in this research were in the lowest income earning category.

7.4 Discussion of the chi square results

The chi – square results standing at χ^2_{JS} (4, n = 108) = 9.82, p = 0.11, ?^{2} = 0.096 and χ^2_{OC} (3, n = 108) = 10.1, p = 0.20, ?^{2} = 0.088, signify independence of variables. This indicates that labour broking has an effect on job sat ction and organizational commitment of employees. Against this background, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected as the significance level of 0.05 and above produced no evidence that labour broking has no effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees.

7.4.1 Discussion of hypothesis one

The first chi-square proposition which states that the effect of labour broking on job satisfaction of employees is large ($H_{o1:}$ $?^2_{JS} > 0$) or that the effect of labour broking on employees' job satisfaction is small ($H_{A1:}$ $?^2_{JS} < 0$), revealed that $?^2_{JS} = 0.096$, $p = 0.11$ This means that the magnitude of the effect of labour on employees' job satisfaction is large. Therefore the null hypothesis ($H_{o1:}$ $?^2_{JS} > 0$) is failed to be rejected. By reasonable debate, when the effect is positive, the retention of labour broking will become necessary. However, in the event the large effect is negative on employees' job satisfaction, then labour broking as an employment method must be discouraged and discontinued.

7.4.2 Discussion of hypothesis two

The second chi-square proposition which states that the effect of labour broking on organizational commitment of employees is large ($H_{o2:}$ $?^2_{OC} > 0$) or that the effect of labour broking on employees' organizational commitment is small ($H_{A2:}$ $?^2_{OC} < 0$), revealed that $?^2_{OC} = 0.088$, $p = 0.20$. This means that the magnitude of the of labour broking on employees' organizational commitment is large. As a result, the null hypothesis ($H_{o2:}$ $?^2_{OC} > 0$) was failed to be rejected. As in the case of job satisfaction, it is reasonable to argue that, should this effect be positive or negative, then the retention or discontinuation of labour broking as an employment method must be considered.

7.5 Discussion of Correlation analysis

7.5.1 Discussion of hypothesis one

The first hypothesis which states that, there is no significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment of temporary employees ($H_{o1:}$) and that there is a significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment of temporary employees ($H_{A1:}$), delivered a result of ($r*_{TE(JS,AC)} = -.23$, $p > .05$.) which is in accord with the proposition $H_{o1:}$. This means that there is evidence that, at a 5% significance level ($p = .11$), the statistical relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment of temporary employees is not significant. As a result, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis ($H_{o1:}$).

However, it is necessary to note that such relationship is negative or there is an inverse correlation. This means that both job satisfaction and affective commitment reposition in opposite directions. This implies that higher levels of job satisfaction of temporary employees, insignificantly result in lower levels of affective commitment of the same employees. More specifically this means that, if temporary employees are slightly satisfied with their work, supervisors, co-workers, pay and promotion, it does not necessarily mean that they are emotionally attached and have a strong sense of belonging to the organizations they work for. The major drivers of this scenario are low pay, which most temporary employees indicated was insufficient for expenses, little to live on and insecure. In addition, most temporary employees felt that they were in dead-end jobs and rarely saw opportunities for advancement to the fact that advancement policies might not be applicable to them due to their temporary status. As a consequence temporary employees might not feel that the organizations the work for have great deal of personal meaning for them. It is worth mentioning that the situation of permanent employees demonstrated more desirable results at r* = .04, p = 0 .8, signifying that higher levels of job satisfaction s in increased affective commitment to the organization. This is, amongst others, attributable to regular opportunities to advance in their jobs and a comfortable income that provides for luxuries.

7.5.2 Discussion of hypothesis two

The testing of the second hypothesis which states that, there is no significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment of temporary employees ($H_{o2:}$) and that there is a significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment of temporary employees ($H_{A2:}$), resulted in $r^*_{TE(JS,CC)} = .16$, $p = .26$ which accords with ($H_{o2:}$). Consequently, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis ($H_{o2:}$). The results signify a definite, small and weak statistical relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment of temporary employees. This further implies that, at a 5% significance level, evidence emerged that the relationship between job satisfaction and continuous commitment of temporary employees is indeed (positively) insignificant.

Furthermore, the results of this hypothesis mean that job satisfaction and continuance commitment of temporary employees insignificantly move in the same direction – the low levels of job satisfaction of the participants of this research resulted in low levels of continuance commitment to the organization. As an underlying factor, temporary employees who were to some extent satisfied with their jobs, found it costly to voluntarily leave their employment due to scarcity of jobs and their inability to find other jobs, which caused them to be temporary employees initially. The other factor that may explain the positive relationship between job satisfaction and continuous commitment of temporary employees is the established friendship and comradeship between these employees. As most temporary employees indicated that their co-workers were stimulating, loyal, and intelligent, it suggests that they developed some psychological support and attachment with one another which may be lost on departure from the organization. For practical reasons, this is just a minimum option in the event a temporary employee has confirmed employment to move to, especially if it is of the same nature.

7.5.3 Discussion of hypothesis three

The testing of the third hypothesis which states that, there is no significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment of temporary employees ($H_{o3:}$) and that there is a significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment of temporary employees ($H_{A3:}$), produced a result that suggests a weak, but negative insignificant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment of temporary employees ($r^*_{TE(JS,NC)} = -.02$, $p > .05$). As the researcher found no evidence at the defined sig cance level of 5%, that the statistical relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment of temporary employees is significant, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis ($H_{o3:}$). The results to this hypothesis further imply that higher or lower levels of job satisfaction of temporary employees will have an insignificant influence on the decision that they ought to remain with or leave their organizations. This is attributable to the fact that organizations do not necessarily invest in temporary employees, such as assisting them financially to improve their qualifications. As a result, temporary employees will tend to express a moral sense of reward, in most cases, with those organizations that take an interest in their developmental needs rather than those that do not.

7.6 Discussion of the multiple regression results

The whole model is statistically significant as R and R^2 or the coefficients of determination are at $p < 0.05$. As the two model of regression are compared on the basis of R^2, the sample size and dependent variables were kept the same. The proportions of variation ($R^2_{JS} = 0.13$ and $R^2_{OC} = 0.39$) imply that the respective 13% and 39% of the variation in the job satisfaction and organizational commitment scores are respectively predicted by the combined variation in type of staff, nder, age, education, job title, tenure and income scores. Notably, all these afore mentioned variables accounted for the combined statistically significant proportions of variation in job satisfaction levels ($F (7,100) = 2.10$, $p = 0.03$) and organizational commitment levels ($F (7, 100) = 9.01$, $p = 0.00$) of employees. However, it is worth noting that the most important predictor of job satisfaction of employees was tenure (ß = 3.56), whereas age (ß = 1.91) emerged as the most important predictor of organizational commitment of employees.

7.6.1 Discussion of hypothesis one

The results of the first multiple regression hypothesis, which states that tenure has no effect on job satisfaction ($H_{o1:}$ $ß_{JS-T} = 0$) and that tenure has an effect on job satisfaction ($H_{A1:}$ $ß_{JS-T}$? 0), produced a definite, positive, small but, significant effect of tenure on job satisfaction ($ß_{JS-T} = 0.26$, p 0.01). This means that for every unit change in tenure, it is expected that job satisfaction will increase by 0.26 units. In other words, longer periods of employment tend to result in higher levels of job satisfaction. Since there is no evidence at a 5% significant level that tenure is equal to zero or has no effect on job satisfaction, the null hypothesis ($H_{o1:}$ $ß_{JS-T} = 0$) was rejected in support of the alternative hypothesis ($H_{A1:}$ $ß_{JS-T}$? 0). In specific terms, the predicted level of job satisfaction for a person who was employed as a clerk for four years ($ß_{JS}{}^{JT}{}_{clk,}{}^{T}{}_{yrs4}$) was 1.21, whereas that of a clerk who was employed for only one year ($ß_{JS}{}^{JT}{}_{clk,}{}^{T}{}_{yr1}$) amounted to 0.43.

7.6.2 Discussion of hypothesis two

The results of the second multiple regression hypothesis, which states that income has no effect on job satisfaction ($H_{o2:}$ $ß_{JS-I} = 0$) and that income has an effect on job satisfaction ($H_{A2:}$ $ß_{JS-I}$? 0), turned out as $ß_{JS-I} = -0.26$, p 0.03. This means that reduced income has a negative, but significant, effect on job satisfaction of employees – for every one Namibia dollar (N$ 1) fall in employee pay we can expect job satisfaction levels to decrease by 0.26 units. This finding supports the alternative hypothesis ($H_{A2:}$ $ß_{JS-I}$? 0). As a consequence, the null hypothesis ($H_{o2:}$ $ß_{JS-I}$ = 0) was rejected. For a temporary employee who earned between N$ 500 and N$ 1000 ($ß_{JS}{}^{NE}{}_{TE,}{}^{N\$}{}_{PB}$), the predicted job satisfaction level was -2.25 ($ß_{JS}{}^{NE}{}_{TE,}{}^{N\$}{}_{PB}$ = -2.25).

7.6.3 Discussion of hypothesis three

The results of the third multiple regression hypothesi which states that job titles (designation) have no effects on organizational commitment ($H_{o3:}$ $ß_{OC-JT}$ = 0) and that job titles have effects on organizational commitment ($H_{A3:}$ $ß_{OC-JT}$? 0), show that job titles have a slight positive effect ($ß_{OC-JT}$ = 0.18, 0.02) on organizational commitment and such effect is significant. As a result the null hypothesis ($H_{o3:}$ $ß_{OC-JT}$ = 0) was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis ($H_{A3:}$ $ß_{OC-JT}$? 0) as there is no evidence that, at a significant level of 5%, job titles have no effects on organizational commitment. This result further implies that desirable upbeat designations cause employees to be committed to their organizations with significant. By logical reasoning, undesirable designations have the potential to produce organizationally uncommitted employees. For a young receptionist between the age of 18 and 25 an organizational commitment level of ß = 0.99 ($ß\ _{OC}{}^{JT}{}_{REC}{}^{A}{}_{a}$ = 0.99) is predicted.

7.6.4 Discussion of hypothesis four

The results of the fourth multiple regression hypothesis, which states that nature of employment has no effect on organizational commitment ($H_{o4:}$ $ß_{OC-NE}$ = 0) and nature of employment has an effect on organizational commitment ($H_{A4:}$ $ß_{OC-NE}$? 0), suggest a small negative, but significant effect ($ß_{OC-NE}$ = -0.50, p = 0.00) of type of employment on organizational commitment of employees to their organizations. This means that less desired type of employment significantly lead to lowered organizational commitment of employees to their organizations. As a result, they null hypothesis ($H_{o4:}$ $ß_{OC-NE}$ = 0) is rejected in support of the alternative hypothesis ($H_{A4:}$ $ß_{OC-NE}$? 0). The expression $ß_{OC}{}^{NE}{}_{TE}{}^{S}{}_{F}$ = -0.72 indicates that organizational commitment levels of a temporary female employee was estimated at -0.72.

7.7 Discussion of T-tests analysis

7.7.1 Discussion of hypothesis one

The result t (106) = -2.5, p = 0.01 of the overall proposition for the t-test indicates that there is a difference between job satisfaction of temporary employees and permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{JS}$? $\bar{x}PE_{JS}$). As a result, the null hypothesis (H_{o1}: $\bar{x}TE_{JS} = \bar{x}PE_{JS}$) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H_{A1}: $\bar{x}TE_{JS}$? $\bar{x}PE_{JS}$) is accepted. This difference, lies in the means of the two groups where: $\bar{x}TE_{JS} = 110.6 < \bar{x}PE_{JS} = 117.1$, signifying higher levels of job satisfaction for permanent employees compared to their temporary counterparts. Clearly, this difference is significant as the p-level is below the standard significance level of $p = 0.05$ ($p < 0.05$).

Factors responsible for this significant difference are found in the various dynamics of job satisfaction such as work, supervisory and co-worker relationships, pay and promotion. With respect to *work*, that of permanent employees is, amongst others, highly defined by respect, challenge, creativity and satisfaction. This implies that the work of permanent employees carries high regard, allows for experimentation, has room for inventiveness and fulfilment. However the same cannot be said for the work of the temporary employees. Instead, their work's resu seem to suggest that their work deprives them from initiating and applying new skills, talents and capabilities, and if, at all, they can develop new skills in their jobs, they do not seem to derive fulfilment in what they do. Most of these temporary employees are women, in the most productive age (19-25) of their life and being employed for short periods (up to 12 months) and at the lowest income level, is the reason why they have low levels of job satisfaction.

With regard to *supervisory* relationships, a low level of supervisory visibility and availability, a limited intellectual interaction and consultation, insignificant credit for work done and stressful relationships seem to make up the relationships between temporary employees and their supervisors. This is a signal that temporary employees are treated as less important by their supervisors and that their contribution to the organization is perceived as being just of a relief nature rather than important. As a direct consequence, any temporary employee will hardly feel satisfied with his or her superior. Most importantly, the fact that supervisors appeared hard to please, has a direct bearing on job satisfaction levels of temporary employees.

The only job satisfaction dynamic that reduces the job satisfaction gap between the two groups is found in the *co-worker* element. Temporary employees responded to be more satisfied with their co-workers compared to permanent employees. They felt that their colleagues were stimulating, loyal and intelligent. This suggests that temporary employees manage co-worker relationships exceptionally well compared to permanent employees. The friendships of temporary workers could be the reason for the good co-worker relationships. Unsurprisingly, most permanent employees who said that it was easy to make enemies with their co-workers were employed as supervisors. This suggests that many supervisors do not relate to their temporary colleagues very well. One of the factors that can explain this scenario is the sentiment of permanent employees that the temporary employees have the potential to take over their (permanent employees) jobs.

With regard to *pay*, both groups were of the opinion that they could do with better pay, however, the need for better pay emerged highest in the responses of temporary employees. They substantially indicated that their pay was low, insecure and little to live on. This supports the research by LaRRI (2006), especially where temporary employees indicated that they are paid less than their permanent counterparts, even when both are employed in similar jobs. Paying people below the breadline is no job satisfaction booster. Also, the awareness of temporary employees that their permanent counterparts received more pay, can be attributable to the substantial differences in job satisfaction levels between the two groups.

As far as *promotion* is concerned, temporary employees seem to be worse off as the opportunity to advance is something unknown to them co ared to their permanent counterparts. This was suggested by the significantly low responses m the temporary employees with regard to promotion opportunities. This, together with the sentiments that they were in dead-end-jobs, suggests that the job satisfaction levels of temporary employees are significantly different fro that of the permanent counterparts.

7.7.2 Discussion of hypothesis two

The testing of this hypothesis ($H_{o2:}$), which states that there is no difference between overall commitment of temporary employees and overall mmitment of permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{TC}$ = $\bar{x}PE_{TC}$) and ($H_{A2:}$), that there is a difference between overall commitment of temporary employees and overall commitment of permanent employees ($\bar{x}TE_{TC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{TC}$), presented the following results: t (106) = -7.5, p = 0.0. This implies that there is a difference between overall com ment of temporary employees and that of permanent employees. It is against this background that the researcher rejects the null hypothesis ($H_{o2:}$ $\bar{x}TE_{TC}$ = $\bar{x}PE_{TC}$) in support of the alternative hypothesis ($H_{A2:}$ $\bar{x}TE_{TC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{TC}$). There is therefore lack of evidence that, at a significance level of 5%, total commitment of temporary employees is equal to that of permanent employees. This difference is substantiated by the mean values of the two groups standing at $\bar{x}TE_{TC}$ = 15.7 < $\bar{x}PE_{TC}$ = 27.9. This signifies that permanent employees are more committed to their organizations co to temporary employees. This is mainly attributable to high levels of affective commitment of permanent employees far, above that of temporary employees. The low level of overall commitment of temporary employees can be partly understood from the nature of their employment. The temporary nature of their work does not sufficiently grant them the opportunity and time to establish and maintain an emotional connectedness with the organization they work for, above that of their permanent counterparts.

7.7.3 Discussion of hypothesis three

The testing of this hypothesis, which proposes that there is no difference between affective commitment of temporary employees and affective commitment of permanent employees ($H_{o3:}$ $\bar{x}TE_{AC}$ = $\bar{x}PE_{AC}$) and that there is a difference between affective commitment of temporary employees and affective commitment of permanent employees ($H_{A3:}$ $\bar{x}TE_{AC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{AC}$), delivered results: t (106) = -7.4, p = 0.0, suggesting a significant difference between affective commitment temporary employees and that of their permanent counterparts. Since no evidence emerged that affective commitment of temporary and permanent e loyees is equal at a 5% significance level, the null hypothesis ($H_{o3:}$$\bar{x}TE_{AC}$ = $\bar{x}PE_{AC}$) was discarded. This difference is further substantiated by $\bar{x}TE_{AC}$ = 5.2 < $\bar{x}PE_{AC}$ = 10.3, suggesting that affective commitment is modest among temporary employees, far below that of permanent employees. This is mainly attributable to the fact that the temporary nature of employment rarely succeeded in assisting employees to strongly discover and identify themselves with the goals of their organizations. As a result, temporary employees might have experienced difficulty in emotionally associating themselves with the organizations they work for. This in turn could be attributable to the fact that job conditions for temporary employees may be less beneficial compared to those of permanent employees – that they may not have favourable experiences on the job and that their expectations on the job are not met in same way compared to those of their permanent counterparts.

7.7.4 Discussion of hypothesis four

The testing of this hypothesis, which proposes that there is no difference between normative commitment of temporary employees and normative commitment of permanent employees (H_{o4}: $\bar{x}TE_{NC} = \bar{x}PE_{NC}$) and that there is a difference between normative commitment of temporary employees and normative commitment of permanent employees (H_{A4}: $\bar{x}TE_{NC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{NC}$), resulted in $t(106) = -4.9$, $p = 0.0$, suggesting the existence of a significant difference between normative commitment of temporary and permanent employees. This justified the rejection of the null hypothesis (H_{o4}: $\bar{x}TE_{NC} = \bar{x}PE_{NC}$) in support of the alternative hypothesis (H_{A4}: $\bar{x}TE_{NC}$? $\bar{x}PE_{NC}$). There is therefore no evidence at a 5% significance level that normative commitment of temporary and permanent employees are equal. The mean values $\bar{x}TE_{NC} = 6.1 < \bar{x}PE_{NC} = 9.6$ suggest that normative commitment of temporary employees is lesser than that of permanent employees. This means that, despite the fact that, both temporary and permanent employees expressed some duty to remain with their organization, temporary employees showed reduced feelings that they ought to remain with their employers. Again this can be attributable to the nature of temporary employment – the short period of employment. Temporary employees may be employed for a very short period, so short, that not enough takes place for their organizations to invest in them. Consequently, a temporary employee may not have had enough time to develop that moral sense of re in return to his or her organization.

7.7.5 Discussion of hypothesis five

The testing of this hypothesis, which proposes that there is no difference between continuance commitment of temporary employees and continuance commitment of permanent employees (H_{05}: $\bar{x}_{TE_{cc}} = \bar{x}_{PE_{cc}}$) and that there is a difference between continuous commitment of temporary employees and continuous commitment of permanent employees (H_{A5}: $\bar{x}_{TE_{cc}}$? $\bar{x}_{PE_{cc}}$), produce results: t (106) = -6.6, p = 0.0, that suggest a significant difference in continuance commitment of the two groups – temporary and permanent employees. As a result, the null hypothesis (H_{05}: $\bar{x}_{TE_{cc}} = \bar{x}_{PE_{cc}}$) was rejected in support of the alternative hypothesis (H_{A5}: $\bar{x}_{TE_{cc}}$? $\bar{x}_{PE_{cc}}$). This further indicates that no evidence, at a 5% significance level, exists that continuance commitment of temporary employees equals that of permanent employees. Instead, at the threshold of 5%, evidence shows $\bar{x}_{TE_{cc}} = 4.9 < \bar{x}_{PE_{cc}} = 9.0$, signifying lower continuous commitment levels in temporary employees compared to their permanent counterparts. This is attributable to the fact that, temporary employees do not have elongated employment periods with their employers for accumulation of investments to influence their anticipated departure from current employment. Except for friendship ties and the probable inability to find other jobs in the job market, no other real factors could be found to justify low continuance commitment levels of temporary employees. Most temporary employees, if not all, do not have benefits such as pension accruals to make their anticipated departure from their current employment a costly undertaking.

7.8 Discussion of the interview results

7.8.1 Employee interviews

The interviews conducted with both temporary and permanent employees revealed that more than 80% of the employees belong to trade unions. This means that both temporary and permanent employees had access and belonged to organised associations of workers established for their protection and promotion of their interests. This further signifies that the relationship between the employees (temporary and permanent) and their employers was regulated within a given societal context and statutory framework. The interviews also revealed that all employees, temporary and permanent, were registered with the social security commission. This means that there is a safety net for all employees in terms of, amongst others, death benefits and extended sick leave. More than 90% of the staff interviewed indicated that the temporary nature of their employment was not by choice, but by circumstances. Some of these circumstan were referred to as economic. This suggests that most temporary employees had a greater preference for permanent employment over temporary employment. However, pressing economic conditions, such as the unavailability of permanent jobs to, at least, service their basic needs, obliged them to take up temporary employments. Despite the pleasant on-the-job relationships with their co-workers, temporary employees were of the opinion that they wanted to see a change in the attitude of their supervisors. The most feared development for temporary employees, was the proposed change in legislation, which, to their understanding, could mean job losses.

7.8.2 Managers' interviews

The five managers responded differently to issues of legality, involvement, motivation and variance in earnings of temporary and permanent employees. All managers interviewed were of the opinion that, until the newly proposed legislation becomes operational, one ought to understand that it was legal to make use of labour hire services to obtain staff on a temporary basis. However, most felt that, preparing for transition, from temporary employment to permanent employment might be wise amid the ongoing negotiations to, or not to, implement the newly proposed piece of legislation. Managers also indicated that both temporary and permanent employees were involved in similar jobs. This suggests that temporary employees are seen as competent as permanent employees for that particular organization. In the light of the not yet operational proposed legislation, there have been indications from some managers that the probability to transform their temporary staff into permanent staff exists as some organizations have done that. This is an indication that there are employers or organizations that contemplate the option of transforming their temporary employees into permanent ones over the decision of laying them off. This, if already disclosed to the temporary employees, ought to lead to a relief of fear of job losses. The fact that seasonal demands and an increased need for assistance at times motivated, in some cases, the employment of temporary employees, is indicative of the fact that the labour market can offer labour that is prepared to take up temporary employment. The that differences in pay exist between permanent and temporary employees, even when they are employed in similar jobs, suggests a possible bias or inequitable distribution practise with regard to the pay of employees, especially temporary employees.

7.8.3 Labour hire managers' interviews

The labour hire managers interviewed were of the opinion that the labour hire process was not purely a profitable venture; instead, it was a business venture and a very important method of ensuring employment for the unemployed. This can suggest that organizational profit making is prioritised above human needs. This further can also suggest a possible confusion between mployment creation and temporary organizational needs at seasonal occasions. To a great extent, some labour hire managers believed that they were instrumental in alleviating the plight of the unemployed through temporary employment and that such a gesture ought to be seen that, economically, they were doing something worthwhile through the labour hire process. Empathically, the departure point of the labour broker is not overlooked, however what the labour broker possibly failed to note was that, from an economic point of view, employment creation ought to reflect skills development, knowledge transfer, decent work and liveable remuneration.

7.9 Research conclusions

To conclude, let us revert to the *central issues* of this research. The focus of this research was to determine the impact of labour broking on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment and to establish the mediating factors in that regard. In other words, the original aim of this research was to uncover the effects that labour broking has on the extent to which the employee derive pleasure and contentment in doing their job, and on the extent to which employees feel a sense of oneness with their organization and as to what mediate such experiences.

To *determine* the said impact, employees in organizations that make use of labour hire services were recruited. Those employed through conventional methods of employment were referred to as permanent employees or PE's, whereas others employed through labour broking processes, were labelled as temporary employees or TE's. A number of issues were embarked upon. These were to: 1. determine the significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees. 2. Establish the differences between permanent and temporary employees in terms of job satisfaction and organizational commit ent, 3. Determine the association and effect size of labour broking with employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment, 4. Predict both job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the samples, and 5. Establish perceptions with regard to labour hire or labour broking.

This study *found* that: 1. under labour broking, employees' attitudes – organizational commitment and job satisfaction – were inversely related significantly low. 2. Employees under labour broking registered significantly lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment levels than those employed through conventional methods. 3. The association between labour broking and job satisfaction as well as with organizational commitment was strong, and the effect size of labour broking on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment at about 10% was large – large enough to discourage the practise of labour broking, 4. Predictions indicated that a single upward change in tenure and a single fall in income would respectively augment and shrink job satisfaction levels of employees by 26% with significant effects. Further estimates indicated that more desired job titles would lead to higher organizational commitment levels of employees (18%), whilst less desired types of employment caused lower levels of organizational commitment of employees, also with significant effects. 5. While labour broking was regarded as a legal and important means of employment, perceptions revealed a significant amount of fear of job losses in the event the proposed change in legislation to ban labour broking comes into effect.

Given the results of this research, the study *concludes* that the impact of labour broking on job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees can be classified in three broad categories: psychological, sociological and economic. The driving factors in the psychological dimension were identified as the need for fulfilment and respect in work, the fear of lay-offs due to change in legislation, the fear of job losses due to the availability of temporary staff. The major drivers of the sociological dimension are supervisor-supervisee relationships and co-worker relationships mainly defined by difficult supervisors, withholding of credit where and when it is due, and threatened occupational stability and continuity by the presence of impermanent staff. The economic dimension is mainly driven by insufficien income. Significantly short periods of employment, non-existing investment in human resources and unavailability of jobs in the job market can be held responsible for low organizational commitment. However, overall, income, tenure sex (gender) and education manifested as the mediating factors for job satisfaction of employees whereas organizational commitment was mainly mediated type of employment, age and job titles.

Numerous studies including Spector's (2000) examined the influence of income, tenure sex, and education on job satisfaction, however, none of these studies secured evidence how these mediating factors affect job satisfaction levels of employees under labour broking conditions. Similarly, a number of studies by Mathiew and Zajac (1990) may provide insight into the effects of age, type of employment and job titles on organizational commitment levels of employees, but they did not directly and scientifically compare the effects of those factors on organizational commitment levels of employees considering the presence of labour broking. Although it is understandable that the aforementioned studies tended to examine or measure job satisfaction and organizational commitment in their defined contexts, only this study was able to reveal the effects that broking has on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

7.10 Organizational and topical implications

The results of this study suggest that, those employees hired through labour broking, find their work as a means of survival only, devoid of creativity and challenge. It also emerged that supervisors can be impolite at times and peared to never be around when needed. In most cases, income received in exchange of services is referred to as insecure and little to live on. Opportunities for advancement appear to be either not targeted toward labour hired employees or these employees are unaware that such opportunities exist. Seemingly, this profile falls short to suggest that labour hired employees are satisfied with their jobs.

Implications of the above can be summarised by two schools of thought. Firstly, an organization that is concerned with both productivity the human factor, has the option to nurture and make long term investments in its human resources to ensure continuity and profitable production. Secondly, an organization that values profitability ahead of its employees, has the potential to reflect a workforce described by the results' suggestion of this research. In this case, the difficulty arises whether to support deliberate decisiveness through national labour legislation to protect business profit making at the expense of its employees.

Amid numerous studies of organizational commitment evidence supports the idea that each type of commitment arises from favourable experiences and expectations met while on the job. In particular, experiences which benefit an employee tend to result in an emotional sense toward the organization, s investments in human resources and a sense of obligation respectively result in continuance and normative commitment. Commitment of labour hired employees appeared to be disrupted by the fear of job losses expected in the near future. Implications for the organization could be putting up with a profile of employees who seem to have no intention of showing a sense of commitment. However, involuntary commitment due to the scarcity of jobs could be sensed among temporary employees.

A workable scenario would be that the organizations need to act within their mandate before expecting their employees to be committed to them. Employees, not only need a living wage, but desire to identify themselves ith the organization. To that effect, it is necessary for the employer to develop creative and challenging tasks for the employees, train them where necessary and reward accomplishment. Most importantly, trust ought to be built and nurtured. Every aspect of the work that will make employees feel worthy and respected in what they do, ought to be revisited and reinforced. In essence, employee development and information sharing, especially on policy issues, is necessary to build an organizationally committed workforce.

7.11 Recommendations

In addition to the recommendations that have been touched on in some sections of this study, specific recommendations on the work domai variables and their sub elements are necessary. With regard to *work*, especially in the case of temporary employees, organizational owners need to ensure that it is respected, creative and worth the time spent on the job. As LaRRI (2006, p.5) puts it that temporary employees “even if they worked for the same labour hire company the same client company for several years, they have no job security and are employed on the basis of no-work-no-pay,” but are also employed in similar jobs with their permanent counterparts, organization managers ought to give serious thought to employing them permanently and then place them in jobs that offer them the opportunities to grow, apply new skills and gain confidence to tackle difficult tasks, if any, competently. In addition, it is the responsibility of to see to it that they create jobs in which all employees feel esteemed rather than experiencing stigmatization based on what they do. Finally, it is of utmost importance that managers ensure that temporary employees spent only the basic time on the job, for example the prescribed 8 hours. Any additional time required, to boost the profitability of the organization or to keep up with an increased customer base, should be applied in agreement with the employees concerned. This will assist in relieving the negative psychological burden on the employees.

Supervisors as people who are entrusted with the honourable duty of guiding others, must strive to develop the ability of making people feel important and recognise their contribution without bias or predisposition. Supervisors must give credit for good work where such credit is due. Their interactions with their subordinates must be organizationally legitimate in that their supervision ould be consistent with the organizational corporate charter. They ought to observe the quality of treating people with respect irrespective of their employment status. relationship with employees must be devoid of bullying behaviours and untrustworthiness. They ought to make a point of getting along with all employees without friction. As temporary employees may possess the necessary suggestions and advice that are needed for work, supervisors must take the responsibility of making the of temporary employees heard without discriminating against them on the basis of their employment status.

With regard to *co-workers*, organizations ought to put in place a culture of mutual respect that governs the interactional behaviour between employees. This implies that, regardless of their employment status, employees ought to advance feelings of high regard toward one another. This has the potential to remain a powerful organizational value if it is observed through rituals within the organizations.

Perceptions of threats, such as feelings of insecurity toward jobs by permanent employees, need to be dealt with through the process of information sharing, clearly explaining the role of each employee in the organization. In so doing, dis-functional conflicts can be avoided.

This research further recommends that the *pay*, especially that of temporary employees, be aligned to the income that is consistent with the decent work principle. This means that employers must avoid paying temporary employees below the breadline. Instead, they must consider remunerating employees with wages that reflect security including fringe benefits – what people earn should reflect what they do. Also, employers must consider remunerating employees in similar jobs equally and fairly. This will assist employees, especially temporary ones, to service their expenses comfortably and cope with difficult economic variations.

Promotion or advancement opportunities must be considered for temporary employees, since the majority viewed themselves as being in dead-end-jobs. The advancement opportunities for temporary employees will only work well if companies transform their temporary employees into permanent emp As it is natural for any person to feel appreciated, promotion is one of the gestures that indicate that employees' contribution to the organization is not ignored, but noted. This will implant a sense of dignity, discipline and hard work in the lives and general conduct of employees.

With regard to *organizational commitment* this study recommends that employers invest in their human resources. The suitable example this kind of investment is to, for example, assist temporary employees to improve their education by giving them time to attend the necessary educational programmes at institutions of their choice or by helping them to improve on their language skills, especially if a language mastery is a necessity in a particular organization. Other tools that can assist with improving organizational commitment of employees is to treat them with dignity and respect, for example by changing their job titles from less dignified designations to more dignified ones. The job title *Utility officer* can be regarded as more dignified compared to the job title *Cleaner*.

7.12 Potential value of the study

While labour broking has a historic basis and practice around the globe, its value how people feel about their jobs and the organizations they work for has been rarely researched, imprecise, hard to define and inexpressible. This research has been fundamentally instrumental in unearthing the effects of labour broking and their underpinnings as it provided insight into an area that is unexplored. This study shows that cost effectiveness and efficiency are likely to manifest, if the human component is placed above profit making and organizati wealth creation. Regardless of its orientation, this research managed to add new perspectives to the body of knowledge with regard to perceived outcomes of labour hiring.

7.13 Limitations of the study

A number of organizations treated the call to participate in this research with a sense of suspicion ahead of negotiations to or not to implement the newly proposed clause that bans the operations of labour broking. Reportedly, some employees withheld their participation for fear of victimisation by their superiors. Regardless of these limitations, this study provided an understanding of the effects of labour broking on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

7.14 Reflection on the research process

In terms of reflexivity, in particular during the interviews, it appeared as if the researcher was mistaken for a problem solver with respect to the problems experienced on-the-job by some participants. However, reiterating the purpose of the research defused this expectation.

7.15 Suggestion for further research

Like any other academic study, this study cannot claim that it provided an all-inclusive, all-embracing and across-the-board account of the impact of labour broking on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Hopefully, this research has provided valuable and constructive openings for other studies of a similar nature. Therefore, generalizability of the findings of this research study ought to be applied with care in view of different conditions under which various organizations across boundaries apply labour broking.

Moreover, further research of a similar nature is suggested to be carried out within a larger and more varied population sample to compare and evaluate whether the results of this research can be supported and/or transferred to other geographic areas. Equally, it may be worthwhile to carry out a similar research in neighbouring South Africa – from where the largest labour broker operating in Namibia originated – to secure a comparative analysis of the findings in order to accurately measure the effects of labour broking on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment in support or contest of national policy to preserve or outlaw the labour broking practices.

7.16 Conclusion

In a quest to determining the impact of labour broking on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment in a number of Namibian organizations, this research found that such impact was tri-dimensional. Firstly, it assumed a psychological nature. Secondly, it involved economic issues. Thirdly, it featured sociological concerns.

With regard to the *psychological* nature, this research found that labour broking induced fear in employees, mainly driven by tenure, employment status and a recently introduced piece of legislation against labour hire. Both, tenure and the new law, generated fear of job losses, especially in temporary employees. In the case of tenure, labour hired employees feared job losses in the event that their working contracts would not be renewed. In the case of the newly introduced piece of legislation which advocates a ban on labour hiring, labour hired employees feared being laid off, if and when such legislation takes effect. All these factors have the potential to make work less pleasant and less satisfying, but more frustrating and boring. Consequently, job satisfaction of employees was negatively affected.

With regard to *economic* issues, income or employee remuneration featured prominently as insufficient for expenses and little to live on, in the case of labour hired employees. This indicated a very insecure compensation that threatened even the basic sustenance of employees. This, further, did not assist employees to feel satisfied with their jobs and made it difficult to develop a normal sense of allegiance toward the organizations they worked for. This research also found that no financial investments in terms of self development were available for labour hired employees.

Moreover, opportunities to advance did not seem to be available for labour hired employees as in the case of permanent employees. The bottom line is that labour hired employees were less satisfied with their jobs and less committed to their organization – not by choice, but by circumstances beyond their control.

With regard to the *sociological* concerns, this research found that, labour hired employees did not seem to have the necessary technical and behavioural support from their superiors. This was mainly driven by factors such as impoliteness of superiors who hardly praised good work, rarely asked for their advice and, in most cases, never present when needed. This suggests a recipe for estranged relationships hardly desired among corporate citizens who share a comm vision. In addition, the sentiments of permanent employees that it was easy to make enemies with co-workers, arose predominantly from the view that labour hired employees were a potential threat to their (permanent employees) jobs.

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APPENDIX A ORGANIZATIONS' CONSENT

ABC ORGANIZATION

1 February 2008

PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH EXPLORING ASPECTS OF WORKERS' ATTITUDES AND FEELINGS ABOUT THEIR JOBS AND THE ORGANI THEY WORK FOR.

Consent is hereby given for the employees of ABC organization to participate in the research of Mrs. S. Shivangulula exploring aspects of impact on employee commitment and job satisfaction. We understand that the responses from employees and the organization will remain confidential and that anonymity will be upheld. We also understand that the name of the organization will be a hypothetical one.

This research is regarded relevant and significant.

Yours sincerely

Signature

Designation

Date

APPENDIX B INFORMED CONSENT: EMPLOYEES

INFORMED CONSENT

I, S. Shivangulula, a Student Researcher am conducting research on workers' attitudes and feelings about their jobs and the organization they work for. I would be grateful if you could answer a few questions about your experience in this regard.

Note that your participation is voluntary and you are being forced to take part in this study. The questionnaires will, at the most, take 20 minutes to complete. If you agree to participate, you may stop at anytime without any penalties. Your name will not be recorded anywhere on the questionnaires and no will link you to the answers you provide. All individual information will remain confidential. A debriefing session will be held once the information has been collected.

CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in the research study. The purpose of the study has been explained to me and I understand what is expected of me. I understand that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so.

-- --------------------------

Signature of Participant Date

APPENDIX C DEMOGRAHIC SHEET FOR QUESTIONNAIRES

Thank you for taking part in this study

Please note that your name is not required on the questionnaire

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Please complete this section by placing '*X*' in the applicable box.

Type of staff:

Temporary staff	Permanent staff

Sex:

Female	Male

Age:

18-25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65

Education:

Grade 8	Grade 10	Grade 12	Diploma	Degree

Job title:

Duration of service:

1-12 months	1-3 years	4-5 years	6-10 years	>10 years

Present gross monthly salary:

N$500-N$1000	N$1000-N$3000	N$3000-N$5000	N$5000-N$7000	>N$7000

APPENDIX D OCQ

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Please describe your personal views of the following statements as objectively as you can, by entering in the block a number from the rating scale that best reflects your views. The information requested from you is being collected for research purposes. This questionnaire is not a test and all information collected will be anonymous, so please respond honestly. When you have completed all questions, please send the questionnaire back to me.

Use the following rating scale:	**0** Strongly disagree	**1** Disagree	**2** Neutral	**3** Agree	**4** Strongly agree

1. I feel like part of the family at this organisation.
2. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided that I wanted to leave this organisation now.
3. I would not leave this organisation right now because of what I would stand to Lose.
4. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
5. It would be very costly for me to leave this organisation right now.
6. For me personally, the cost of leaving this organis on would be far greater than the benefit.
7. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now.
8. I would violate a trust if I quit my job with this organisation now.
9. I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation.
10. I feel emotionally attached to this organisation.
11. I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.
12. I would not leave this organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

Thank you for your co-operation

APPENDIX E JDI

JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

Please complete this section by placing* 'Y' *next to the item/s which describe your jobs, place an* 'N' *next to the item/s which do not describe your job and place a* '?' *if you cannot decide.

Work is:

	Fascinating
	Routine
	Satisfying
	Boring
	Good
	Creative
	Respected
	Worthy
	Pleasant
	Tiresome
	Healthful
	Challenging
	Standing (on your feet)
	Frustrating
	Simple
	Endless
	Accomplishable
	Useful

My Supervisor:

	Asks my advice
	Is hard to please
	Is impolite
	Praises good work
	Is tactful
	Is influential
	Is up to date
	Gives little supervision
	Is quick-tempered
	Tells me where I stand
	Is annoying
	Is stubborn
	Knows job well
	Is bad
	Is intelligent
	Leaves me on my own
	Is around when needed
	Is lazy

My co-workers are

	Stimulating
	Boring
	Slow
	Ambitious
	Stupid
	Responsible
	Fast
	Intelligent
	Easy to make enemies
	Talk too much
	Smart
	Lazy
	Unpleasant
	No privacy
	Active
	Narrow interest
	Loyal
	Hard to meet

The pay is:

	Satisfactory profit share
	Not enough for expenses
	Little to live on
	Bad
	Provides luxury
	Insecure
	Less than I deserve
	High
	Low

Promotion is an/a:

	Opportunity to advance
	Limited opportunity
	On ability
	Not there - dead end job
	Good
	Based on unfair policy
	Infrequent
	Regular
	Fairly good

APPENDIX F INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

DAILY INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

A.M.

TIME	FREQUENCY				
	DAY1	DAY2	DAY3	DAY4	DAY5
1. 8H00 – 9H00	P1	P6	P11	P16	LHM1
2. 9H00 – 10H00	P2	P7	P12	P17	
3. 10H00 – 11H00	P3	P8	P13	P18	LHM2
4. 11H00 – 12H00	P4	P9	P14	P19	
5. 12H00 – 13H00	P5	P10	P15	P20	

L U N C H

P.M.

6. 14H00 – 15H00	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5

P = PARTICIPANT

M = MANAGER

LHM = LABOUR HIRE MANAGER

APPENDIX G **INTERVIEW SHEET: EMPLOYEES**

EMPLOYEE INTERVIEW

The purpose of this interview is to expand on and clarify various issues raised in the questionnaires you have completed.

Y = yes =3 N = no = 0 D = do not know = 1

ID:

TEMPORARY STAFF	PERMANENT STAFF

GENERAL

1. Do you belong to a trade union?
2. Are you registered with the Social Security Commission?
3. With reference to your earlier responses, expand on your experience with regard to what you do, how you are supervised, your co-workers, earnings and advancement in what you do.
4. For the purpose of clarification relate to your earlier responses and tell more about your commitment to the organization you work for.
5. Are you a temporary staff member because:

You chose to

You had no choice

APPENDIX H **INTERVIEW SHEET: MANAGERS**

INTERVIEW: MANAGERS IN PARTICIPATING ORGANIZATIONS

The purpose of this interview is aimed at determining perception with regard to labour hiring in view of the fact that you are responsible for the decision to use labour hire as a staffing approach.

Y = yes =3 N = no = 0 D = do not know = 1

1. Do you have a corporate charter?
2. Does the corporate charter comprise a vision?
3. Does the corporate charter comprise a mission?
4. Does the corporate charter comprise values?
5. Is it legal to employ temporary staff?
6. Is there a trade union for the temporary staff?
7. Is the trade union effective? How?
8. Are both temporary and permanent staffs involved in si ilar jobs?
9. Is there social security for all your staff?

10. Why are some employees temporary and others permanent?

11. Is there a difference in their earnings, fringe benefits, pension & medical aid?

12. Do you have a management philosophy?

APPENDIX I INTERVIEW SHEET: LABOUR HIRE MANAGERS

LH – MANAGEMENT INTERVIEW

The purpose of this interview is to determine your perception of the labour broking process.

Y = yes =3 N = no = 0 D = do not know = 1

1. How do you perceive the labour broking process?
   - A profitable venture
   - A business venture
   - An worthy employment mode

2. If yes, how is it a profitable venture, business venture, employment mode?

3. What is your perception of the new legislation currently set aside?

4. Any other comments, perceptions?

APPENDIX J OCQ SUMMARY RELIABILITY SCALE

Variable	Summary for scale: Mean=17.3500 Std.Dv.=9.00453 Valid N:20 Cronbach alpha: .890615 Standardized alpha: .896861 Average inter-item corr.: .451847				
	Mean if deleted	Var. If deleted	StDv. If deleted	Itm-Totl	Alpha if deleted
Q1	15.70000	65.00999	8.062878	0.485497	0.889932
Q2	16.15000	60.92750	7.805607	0.776118	0.871027
Q3	16.10000	61.49000	7.841556	0.839659	0.868247
Q4	15.80000	62.06000	7.877817	0.818834	0.869667
Q5	15.75000	66.08750	8.129422	0.677785	0.878585
Q6	15.75000	65.68749	8.104782	0.532937	0.885610
Q7	16.00000	73.40000	8.567380	0.116502	0.907950
Q8	15.50000	64.75000	8.046739	0.564276	0.883992
Q9	15.70000	66.50999	8.155366	0.653080	0.879785
Q10	16.25000	70.78749	8.413530	0.556692	0.886293
Q11	16.20000	64.95999	8.059776	0.639155	0.879610
Q12	15.95000	62.74750	7.921332	0.705592	0.875565

APPENDIX K JDI SUMMARY RELIABILITY SCALE

Variable	Summary for scale: Mean=213.700 Std.Dv.=24.8810 Valid N:20 Cronbach alpha: .756930 Standardized alpha: .758755 Average inter-item corr.: .416238				
	Mean if	Var. If deleted	StDv. if	Itm-Totl	Alpha if deleted
TOTAL JOB SATISFACTION	106.8500	147.0275	12.12549	1.000000	0.653874
WORK	183.6500	416.6275	20.41146	0.820740	0.659552
SUPERVISOR	188.1500	541.9276	23.27934	0.307718	0.766085
CO-WORKERS	188.2500	397.9875	19.94962	0.855686	0.642577
PAY	198.2500	500.8875	22.38052	0.506107	0.736168
PROMOTION	203.3500	565.1276	23.77241	0.120045	0.786128

APPENDIX L SUMMARY CORRELATIONS

Correlations
Marked correlations are significant at p < .05000
N=51 (Casewise deletion of missing data)

Variable	TEcomm	PEcomm	TEac	PEac	TEnc	PEnc	TEcc	PEcc	TEjs	PEjs
TEcomm	1.0000	-.0176	.4768	-.0256	.6407	.0595	.2795	-.2436	-.0477	.2794
	p= ---	p=.902	p=.000	p=.859	p=.000	p=.678	p=.047	p=.085	p=.739	p=.047
PEcomm	-.0176	1.0000	-.1654	.6676	-.1129	.7014	-.0291	.8762	-.0277	.2447
	p=.902	p= ---	p=.246	p=.000	p=.430	p=.000	p=.839	p=.000	p=.847	p=.084
Teac	.4768	-.1654	1.0000	-.1629	.5468	-.0667	.1777	-.1691	-.2257	.1209
	p=.000	p=.246	p= ---	p=.253	p=.000	p=.642	p=.212	p=.235	p=.111	p=.398
PEac	-.0256	.6676	-.1629	1.0000	-.1353	.5653	-.1181	.5130	-.0098	.0429
	p=.859	p=.000	p=.253	p= ---	p=.344	p=.000	p=.409	p=.000	p=.945	p=.765
TEnc	.6407	-.1129	.5468	-.1353	1.0000	-.1215	.3130	-.2853	-.0161	.2930
	p=.000	p=.430	p=.000	p=.344	p= ---	p=.396	p=.025	p=.042	p=.911	p=.037
PEnc	.0595	.7014	-.0667	.5653	-.1215	1.0000	.0301	.5540	-.1030	.2231
	p=.678	p=.000	p=.642	p=.000	p=.396	p= ---	p=.834	p=.000	p=.472	p=.116
TEcc	.2795	-.0291	.1777	-.1181	.3130	.0301	1.0000	-.1937	.1596	.3149
	p=.047	p=.839	p=.212	p=.409	p=.025	p=.834	p= ---	p=.173	p=.263	p=.024
PEcc	-.2436	.8762	-.1691	.5130	-.2853	.5540	-.1937	1.0000	-.0545	.1762
	p=.085	p=.000	p=.235	p=.000	p=.042	p=.000	p=.173	p= ---	p=.704	p=.216
TEjs	-.0477	-.0277	-.2257	-.0098	-.0161	-.1030	.1596	-.0545	1.0000	-.0797
	p=.739	p=.847	p=.111	p=.945	p=.911	p=.472	p=.263	p=.704	p= ---	p=.578
PEjs	.2794	.2447	.1209	.0429	.2930	.2231	.3149	.1762	-.0797	1.0000
	p=.047	p=.084	p=.398	p=.765	p=.037	p=.116	p=.024	p=.216	p=.578	p= ---
TEw	-.0032	-.2469	-.0130	-.3004	-.0789	-.1208	.1016	-.2216	.3739	-.1312
	p=.982	p=.081	p=.928	p=.032	p=.582	p=.398	p=.478	p=.118	p=.007	p=.359
Pew	-.2917	.2857	-.4777	.2361	-.1710	.1018	-.1828	.3014	.1518	.0258
	p=.038	p=.042	p=.000	p=.095	p=.230	p=.477	p=.199	p=.032	p=.288	p=.857
TEs	-.1577	.1594	-.2032	.2201	-.1559	-.0117	.0554	.1855	.6535	.1776
	p=.269	p=.264	p=.153	p=.121	p=.275	p=.935	p=.699	p=.193	p=.000	p=.213
PEs	.3341	.0756	.2742	-.0755	.3292	.1164	.2187	-.0541	-.1088	.7065
	p=.017	p=.598	p=.052	p=.599	p=.018	p=.416	p=.123	p=.706	p=.447	p=.000
TEcw	-.1362	.0868	-.3468	.1316	-.0453	-.0957	.1042	.0601	.6331	-.1874
	p=.341	p=.545	p=.013	p=.357	p=.752	p=.504	p=.467	p=.675	p=.000	p=.188
PEcw	.0381	.2000	-.0541	.0986	.1495	.2469	.0223	.2457	-.2192	.5995
	p=.790	p=.159	p=.706	p=.491	p=.295	p=.081	p=.877	p=.082	p=.122	p=.000
TEp	.2620	-.0489	.2411	.0015	.2803	-.0076	-.0735	-.0615	.1515	.0880
	p=.063	p=.733	p=.088	p=.991	p=.046	p=.958	p=.608	p=.668	p=.288	p=.539
Pep	.3915	-.0796	.4205	-.1677	.2412	.0634	.3642	-.1466	-.1121	.3629
	p=.004	p=.579	p=.002	p=.240	p=.088	p=.659	p=.009	p=.305	p=.434	p=.009
TEpr	.1715	.0608	.0141	.0028	.2273	.0900	.1002	-.0274	.5354	-.0145
	p=.229	p=.672	p=.922	p=.984	p=.109	p=.530	p=.484	p=.849	p=.000	p=.919
PEpr	.1092	.0664	.0646	.0225	.0329	-.2089	.1827	.0582	.2091	.3529
	p=.446	p=.643	p=.652	p=.876	p=.819	p=.141	p=.199	p=.685	p=.141	p=.011

APPENDIX M SUMMARY T-TEST RESULTS

T-test for Independent Samples Note: Variables were treated as independent samples

Group 1 vs. Group 2	Mean	Mean	t-value	Df	P	t separ.	Df
TEcomm vs. PEcomm	15.7451	27.9649	-7.4795	106	0.0000	-7.6482	97.57571
	P	Valid N	Valid N	Std.Dev.	Std.Dev.	F-ratio	P
	0.00000	51	57	6.50490	9.91024	2.321068	0.93100
	Levene	df					P
	9.07384	106					0.063243

Group 1 vs. Group 2	Mean	Mean	t-value	Df	P	t separ.	Df	P
TEac vs. PEac	5.2156	10.3684	-7.4363	106	0.00000	-7.4978	105.865	0.000000
	Valid N	Valid N	Std.Dev.	Std.Dev.	F-ratio	P	Levene	
	51	57	3.30644	3.83420	1.344712	0.288594	0.648823	
	Df							P
	106							0.422337

Group 1 vs. Group 2	Mean	Mean	t-value	Df	P	t separ.	Df	P
TEnc vs. PEnc	6.11764	9.57894	-4.9462	106	0.00000	-5.0211	103.380	0.000002
	Valid N	Valid N	Std.Dev.	Std.Dev.	F-ratio	P	Levene	
	51	57	3.083161	4.057389	1.731813	0.050109	8.550188	
	Df							P
	106							0.064225

Group 1 vs. Group 2	Mean	Mean	t-value	Df	P	t separ.	Df	P
TEcc vs. PEcc	4.86274	9.03508	-6.5777	106	0.00000	-6.7475	94.2478	0.000000
	Valid N	Valid N	Std.Dev.	Std.Dev.	F-ratio	P	Levene	
	51	57	2.40016	3.91865	2.665590	0.573000	16.00955	
	Df							P
	106							0.111700

Group 1 vs. Group 2	Mean	Mean	t-value	Df	P	t separ.	Df	P
TEjs vs. PEjs	110.568	117.140	-2.4814	106	0.01465	-2.5754	79.6664	0.011860
	Valid N	Valid N	Std.Dev.	Std.Dev.	F-ratio	P	Levene	
	51	57	7.83136	17.3950	4.933738	0.111000	37.16433	
	df							P
	106							0.118000