WORK-LIFE BALANCE, JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION AMONGST INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY EMPLOYEES

by

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SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR R. M. OOSTHUIZEN

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SCOPE OF THE DISSERTATION

For this master's dissertation of limited scope (50% of the total master's degree) the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology prescribes an article format. This format involves four chapters – an introductory and literature chapter, followed by a research article (presented as chapter 3), and ending with a conclusion/limitations/recommendations chapter.

TECHNICAL AND REFERENCE STYLE

The publication guidelines of the *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology* (SAJIP) were chosen to structure the article presented in chapter 3. The APA 6th edition guidelines for referencing, tables and figures were used.

DECLARATION

I, Zanél Munro, student number 32911718, declare that this dissertation, entitled "Work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst information technology employees", is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted from have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that ethical clearance to conduct the research has been obtained from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at the University of South Africa, as well as from the participating organisation.

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ZANÉL MUNRO   DATE

32911718

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SUMMARY

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DEPARTMENT: Industrial and Organisational Psychology

DEGREE: Master of Commerce in Industrial and Organisational Psychology

The objectives of the study were to determine the relationship between the demographic variables, work-life balance (as measured by the Survey Work-Home Interaction - Nijmegen), job satisfaction (as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire) and turnover intention (as measured by the Turnover Intention Scale); to determine whether the demographic variables and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention; and to determine the differences between biographical groups. A quantitative cross-sectional survey research design was applied to a stratified random sample of 79 employees in a South African IT company. Descriptive statistics, correlations, independent t-tests and regressions were used to analyse the data. Analysis revealed that job satisfaction has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention. Furthermore, the work-home interface sub-dimensions of work-life balance have both a positive and negative relationship with job satisfaction and turnover intention. There are significant differences between the various biographical groups.

Key terms: knowledge workers, information technology employees, knowledge economy, work-life balance, job satisfaction, turnover intention, talent management, talent retention

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CHAPTER 1
SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

This study focused on the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst information technology (IT) employees. This chapter provides the background, motivation and problem statement of the research. The specific aims, paradigm perspectives, research design and research methods are set out. The chapter ends with the chapter layout for the rest of this study and a brief chapter summary.

1.1   BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

Organisations in the modern complex and turbulent business environment are under pressure to adapt to changes, challenges and opportunities in order to compete and survive in a dynamic business world (Louw & Martins, 2004; Manetje & Martins, 2009; Martins & Coetzee, 2011; Stander & Rothmann, 2010). This global competition and multi-cultural environment is characterised by a changing world of work, technological advancement, international competition, an increasingly diverse workforce and the emergence of a global knowledge economy (Manetje & Martins, 2009; Martins & Coetzee, 2011). These factors affect all organisations, regardless of their industry, structure or size (Castro & Martins, 2010). Organisations are constantly seeking to improve performance and competitiveness (Castro & Martins, 2010; Martins & Coetzee, 2011; Stander & Rothmann, 2010).

The effective resourcing, management and retention of human capital are strategic issues for organisation's survival, adaptation and competitive advantage (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Organisations increasingly state that their employees are their most important assets (Glen, 2006; Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane, & Ferreira, 2011). Organisations are forced to take an interest in more than mere profitability, including the attraction, development and retention of talent (Boninelli & Meyer, 2004; Mendes & Stander, 2011). The organisational climate plays a role in ensuring that those employees who add value to the bottom line want to stay with the organisation and continue working to the benefit of the organisation (Castro & Martins, 2010).

In the knowledge economy, the skills and knowledge of employees are often the main enablers for organisations to leverage competitive advantage (Botha, Bussin, & De Swardt,

2011). The knowledge economy has led to increased competition for those employees with scarce and desirable skills, knowledge and experience. This is described as the "talent war" (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Botha et al., 2011). Talent retention implies that the organisation intends to retain its most talented employees or those employees who are likely to leave (Roman, 2011) and describes initiatives to stop employees leaving the organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012). The war for talent is truly global, as skilled employees are in demand internationally, compelling organisations to compete to retain their talent or face high employee turnover rates (Muteswa & Ortlepp, 2011). This global demand for talent is one of the contributing factors to skills shortages experienced by organisations.

Knowledge workers are individuals who contribute to the intellectual capital of the organisation (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). Knowledge workers are individuals with significant amounts of theoretical knowledge and learning in a specialist field (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). In the knowledge economy, an organisation's present and future successes are influenced by its ability to attract and retain knowledge workers (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). Since knowledge is stored in the minds of knowledge workers, organisations need to balance business needs with the needs of knowledge workers in order to ensure that organisational knowledge becomes a strategic asset for competitive advantage and survival in the knowledge economy (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). The demand for knowledge is on the increase (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011).

An organisation's success depends on the mental ability of a relatively small number of highly skilled knowledge workers (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011). When knowledge workers leave, the organisation loses the knowledge they take with them and it cannot sustain its competitive advantage (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011). The challenge for organisations in the knowledge economy is to optimise, create, transfer, assemble, protect and exploit knowledge assets which underpin organisational competencies, and in turn support their products and services (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011). The more specific a knowledge worker's knowledge is, the greater the potential for the organisation to use that knowledge to gain a competitive advantage (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011).

The concept of work-life balance has been growing in interest amongst academics and practitioners and is at the core of issues central to human resource development (Sturges & Guest, 2004). Research by Schein (1996) found that a growing number of people endorse a

"lifestyle" career anchor, implying that their primary career objective is to balance and integrate their personal needs, family needs and career requirements (Sturges & Guest, 2004). Work-life balance is defined as the degree to which an individual is equally engaged in and satisfied with his or her role and family role, comprising the following three components of work-family balance: Time balance (equal time devoted to work and family); involvement balance (equal involvement in work and family); and satisfaction balance (equal satisfaction with work and family) (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013; Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003;). Work-family conflict may occur when the demands of work and family are incompatible (Sturges & Guest, 2004).

Work-life balance has relevance for all individuals (Sturges & Guest, 2004). Sturges and Guest (2004) suggest that work-life balance denotes not only a balance between work and family, but a balance between work and the rest of life's activities. Researchers found work-life balance to be positively related to both individual and organisational outcomes, for instance, improved financial performance, employee satisfaction and productivity, organisational commitment and attachment, and organisational behaviour (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010).

The satisfaction level of employees plays a critical role in their retention, particularly those regarded as core employees or knowledge workers (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Organisations are attempting to understand why people leave and what strategies might be implemented to retain knowledge and employees (Martins & Coetzee, 2007).

The optimal functioning of an organisation depends in part on the level of job satisfaction of employees, as their full potential is needed at all levels of the organisation (Rothman & Coetzer, 2002). Employees seek congruence with the organisation, which can be described in terms of the employee fulfilling the requirements of the organisation and the organisation fulfilling the requirements of the employee (Rothman & Coetzer, 2002). Employees will experience job satisfaction if they perceive that their capacities, experience and values can be utilised at work and that their work offers them opportunities and rewards (Rothman & Coetzer, 2002). Information on job satisfaction is valuable to an organisation, as satisfied employees experience physical and psychological well-being, while dissatisfied employees are more likely to be associated with absenteeism, psychological withdrawal and employee turnover (Rothman & Coetzer, 2002).

Job satisfaction has been frequently studied and is considered the most important attitude in the organisational behaviour field (Luthans, 2008). It is often a central variable in the study and research of organisational phenomena (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Job satisfaction is a generalised affective work attitude towards one's present job and employer (Martin & Roodt, 2008) resulting from cognitive processes, and is an embodiment of employees' perception of how well their job provides for their hierarchy of needs, values and expectations (Luthans, 2008; Martin & Roodt, 2008).

Turnover intention is defined as "the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). In other words, it is the extent to which an employee plans to leave or stay with the organisation (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Jacobs & Roodt, 2011). According to Tett and Meyer (1993), the intention to leave the organisation is the final step in a series of withdrawal cognitions leading to actual turnover. Job satisfaction and turnover intentions were found to be precursors in the withdrawal process that predict voluntary employee turnover (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010).

Employee turnover has significant costs and negative consequences for any organisation (Bothma, 2011). The loss of highly skilled employees may have disruptive implications, which might include impaired organisational functioning, service delivery and administration (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013). Additionally, the loss of highly skilled employees may carry increased costs of rehiring and retraining employees (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013). These consequences provide a sound rationale for the study of turnover intention.

Jacobs' (2005) turnover intention model proposes that positive or negative perceptions of organisational culture (predictors) are related to turnover intentions (the criterion). Variables such as job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment and knowledge sharing mediate this relationship (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). Research by Igbaria, Meredith, and Smith (1994) found that organisational commitment and job satisfaction are the most immediate predictors of intention to stay with the organisation.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Against the aforementioned background, it is evident that knowledge of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions and the nature of the relationships between these

variables need to be considered in order to inform strategies aimed at improving organisational climate and employee retention.

In the IT sector, talent retention is of particular concern, as the global labour market presents increased career opportunities for IT professionals (Lumley et al., 2011). Research has shown that IT professionals have strong tendencies to leave their organisations (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). IT employees are considered strategic resources in most organisations (Mohlala, Goldman, & Goosen, 2012). The rapid pace of technological advancement and change has widened the gap between the availability of and the demand for IT professionals (Mohlala et al., 2012). IT professionals have specialised skills that are hard to replace, which makes turnover costly (McKnight, Philips, & Hardgrave, 2009). The increasing demand for skilled IT professionals has forced organisations to start devising retention strategies aimed at retaining IT employees with critical skills and experience (Mohlala et al., 2012). The retention of IT employees is critical to an organisation, as they hold tacit knowledge about the interface between systems and key business processes (McKnight et al., 2009).

An Australian study by Fox and Fallon (2003) found that successful work-life balance resulted in increased levels of job satisfaction and decreased turnover intentions, concluding that employers could reduce levels of employee turnover by improving their employees' job satisfaction through more successful work-life balance. Empirical research by Noor (2011) reported that work-life balance, job satisfaction and intention to leave were significantly correlated to one another.

Additionally, empirical research has shown a positive relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction (Virick, Lily, & Casper, 2007). Research by Martin and Roodt (2008) has shown a correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention in a South African context.

Very few or no studies have been found on the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention in the multi-cultural South African context. There is therefore a need to investigate the relationship between these variables. In addition, there is a paucity of information available on how different biographical groups differ in their perceptions of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

This study should enhance the understanding of industrial psychologists and IT employers in conceptualising the factors moderating work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The aim of the study was to establish whether work-life balance is positively or negatively linked to job satisfaction and turnover intention. The relationships between these variables should provide insight that will guide retention practices and strategies for employees in the IT sector in South Africa and in other South African organisations. The study should inform future research into the role that these variables play in retaining employees from different biographical groups.

The findings of this study should enable industrial and organisational psychologists in this dynamic business environment, to provide valuable information and insight, diagnose and solve problems, plan and assess work-life balance and job satisfaction programmes aimed at enhancing quality of work and quality of life, satisfaction with work and satisfaction with life, and talent retention practices and strategies. Empirical research was conducted in order to add to the conceptual base underpinning the relationships between these constructs.

1.2.1   Research questions pertaining to the literature review

This research investigated the following questions:

- How are work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees conceptualised from a theoretical perspective?
- How is the theoretical relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees conceptualised in the literature?
- What role do the biographical variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependents, qualifications, tenure and business unit) play in work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees?
- What recommendations can be formulated for industrial psychology practices and future research?

1.2.2 Research questions pertaining to the empirical study

- What is the relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees?

- Do the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees?

- Does the interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) predict turnover intention amongst IT employees?

- Do IT employees from the various demographic groups differ significantly in their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention?

- What recommendations can be formulated for industrial psychology practices and future research, based on the literature and empirical findings of this research with regard to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees?

1.3 AIMS

On the basis of the above research problems, general and specific aims were formulated.

1.3.1 General aim

The general aim of the research was to explore the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

1.3.2 Specific aims

The following specific aims were identified for the study.

1.3.2.1 Literature review

The specific aims of the literature review were as follows:

- Conceptualise work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees from a theoretical perspective.
- Conceptualise the theoretical relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.
- Determine theoretically the role of the biographical variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) in respect of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.
- Determine the implications for industrial psychology practices and future research.

1.3.2.2 Empirical study

The specific empirical aims of the study were as follows:

- Determine the relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.
- Determine whether the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.
- Assess the interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) in predicting turnover intention amongst IT employees.
- Assess whether IT employees from the various demographic groups differ significantly in their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.
- Formulate recommendations based on the literature and empirical findings of this research for industrial psychology practices and future research with regard to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

1.4   THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

Paradigms, which are all-encompassing systems of interrelated practice and thinking, define for researchers the nature of their enquiry along the three dimensions of ontology, epistemology and methodology. Ontology defines the nature of the reality that is to be studied, and what can be known about that reality. Epistemology states the nature of the relationship between researcher (knower) and that which can be known. Methodology describes the method the researcher may follow to practically study whatever he or she believes can be known (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2010). The paradigm perspective guiding this research refers to the intellectual climate or variety of meta-theoretical values, beliefs and assumptions underlying the theories and models that form its definitive context (Mouton & Marais, 1994).

1.4.1   The relevant paradigms

The relevant paradigm and approach for this study are explained below.

1.4.1.1 Positive psychology paradigm

"Positive psychology is the scientific study of optimal human functioning. At the meta-psychological level, it aims to redress the imbalance in psychological research and practice by calling attention to the positive aspects of human functioning and experience. At the pragmatic level, it is about understanding the wellsprings, processes and mechanisms that lead to desirable outcomes" (Coetzee & Viviers, 2007). The aim of positive psychology is to understand and enhance those factors that allow individuals to flourish. Extensive research has been conducted on positive psychology in the South Africa context (Rothmann & Malan, 2003; Wissing & Van Eeden, 2002).

Positive psychology attempts to change the focus of psychology to building positive qualities, rather than focus on fixing what is broken or bad in life (Strümpfer, 2005). The aim of positive psychology is to use scientific methodology to discover and promote the factors that enable individuals, groups, organisations and communities to thrive (Luthans, 2008). At a subjective level, positive psychology involves the study of subjective experiences and positive emotions (Bergh & Theron, 2009). Subjective experiences and positive emotions

include perceptions of work-life balance and satisfaction. This makes positive psychology the perfect lens with which to study work-life balance and job satisfaction. At the group or organisational level, positive psychology involves the creation, development and maintenance of positive practices that encourage the development of positive experiences in individuals (Bergh & Theron, 2009).

1.4.1.2 Eco-systemic approach

The eco-systemic approach views an individual comprising various interrelated systems (Meyer, Moore, & Viljoen, 2005). The individual is viewed as a sub-system which functions as part of a hierarchy of larger systems, (Meyer et al., 2005). The eco-systemic approach considers the broader social context in which problems manifests (Saunderson & Oswald, 2009). The eco-systemic approach stresses the importance of examining the perceptions and behaviours of all parties involved (Saunderson & Oswald, 2009) and provides the framework for interpreting assessment information for work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. This provides the foundation for the research.

1.4.2   The market for intellectual resources

Based on Mouton's (1997) prescription that no scientific finding can be conclusively proven on the basis of empirical research data, various assumptions, underlying theories, models and paradigms are held, but not tested for.

1.4.2.1 Meta-theoretical statements

Meta-theoretical statements reflect the nature of the discipline and give the research questions within a framework (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). Meta-theoretical statements are presented for industrial and organisational psychology and positive organisational behaviour.

The meta-theoretical statements are explained below:

a)   Industrial and organisational psychology (IOP)

According to Bergh and Theron (2009), IOP utilises psychological knowledge to assess, utilise, develop, study and influence human behaviour in a workplace. The Health Professions Councils of South Africa (HPCSA) (form 224, n.d.) defines the scope of practice for the speciality of industrial and organisational psychology as "applying the principles of psychology to issues related to the work situation of relatively well-adjusted adults in order to optimise individual, group and organisational well-being and effectiveness". In other words, the primary function of IOP is the application of psychological principles and research to workplace phenomena (Rothmann & Cilliers, 2007). IOP is an applied speciality of psychology and is both an academic and applied field focused on the study of human behaviour related to work, organisations and productivity in almost any kind of organisation (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). In the academic field, different topics in the various IOP subfields are studied both theoretically and empirically in order to generate new knowledge and find solutions to address the critical challenges and burning issues arising from the socioeconomic contexts in which the organisation operates (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). In the applied field of IOP, psychological principles and the new knowledge and solutions created by research are used to solve problems in the workplace (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010).

The variables work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention are all work-related attitudes, concepts and behaviours relevant to the disciplinary context of IOP. This study will contribute to the body of knowledge and suggested future research directions.

b)   Positive organisational behaviour (POB)

POB stems from the positive psychology movement and is defined by Luthans (2008, p. 199) as "the study and application of positive orientated human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace". In addition to being strength based and having a positive psychological capacity, organisational behaviour constructs/variables must meet certain operational criteria for inclusion in POB: The constructs/variables must be based on theory and research, have reliable and valid measures, be unique, be open to development; and it must be possible to manage them for performance improvement (Luthans, 2008).

1.4.2.2 Theoretical models

In this study, the theoretical models were based on the theories of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. This provided a framework in which the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention could be explored.

a)   Work-life balance

The effort-recovery (E-R) theory of Meijman and Mulder (1998) and the work of Geurts, Taris, Kampier, Dikkers, Van Hooff, and Kinnunen (2005) were reviewed and added to the theoretical base of the study.

b)   Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction was discussed on the basis of the work of Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist's (1967) theory of job satisfaction.

c)   Turnover intention

The theory of Roodt (2004) and turnover intention model of Jacobs (2005) were reviewed and added to the theoretical base of the study.

1.4.2.3 Conceptual descriptions

The conceptual descriptions are discussed below.

a)   Work-life balance

Work-life balance is characterised by the extent to which individuals are engaged in and equally satisfied with their work role and family role (Greenhaus et al., 2003). The construct consists of three dimensions of work-family balance, namely time balance, involvement balance and satisfaction balance (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Time balance involves devoting equal time to work and family (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Involvement balance describes equal involvement in work and family (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Satisfaction balance involves equal

satisfaction with work and family (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013; Greenhaus et al., 2003). Recent research has recognised and used personal life synonymously with family life, conceptualising work-life balance as encompassing all domains of one's personal life including family, religion, social and leisure domains (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010).

b)   Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to the intrinsic-extrinsic definition of job satisfaction of Weiss et al. (1967). Intrinsic satisfaction is derived from performing work and consequently experiencing the feelings of accomplishment, self-actualisation and identity resulting from it (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Extrinsic satisfaction results from satisfaction with the work environment (Weiss et al., 1967) and is derived from the rewards individuals receive from their peers, managers or the organisation, which can take the form of advancement, compensation or recognition (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

c)   Turnover intention

Turnover intention is defined as "the conscience and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). It is the extent to which an employee plans to leave or stay with the organisation (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Jacobs & Roodt, 2011), and according to Tett and Meyer (1993), is the final step in a series of withdrawal cognitions leading to actual turnover.

1.4.2.4 Methodological convictions

a)   Ontological dimension

Ontology specifies the essence of reality to be studied and what can be known about it (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2010). The ontological dimension of research refers to the reality that is being investigated, and this reality becomes the research domain of the social sciences (Mouton & Marais, 1994). The research domain can be recognised as humankind in all its diversity, encompassing human activities, characteristics, institutions, behaviours and products (Mouton & Marais, 1994). This study measures human characteristics and behaviours in an IT organisation.

b)   Epistemological dimension

Epistemology defines the essence of the relationship between the researcher and what can be known (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2010). The epistemological dimension is driven by the search for truth or truthful knowledge and strives for validity, demonstrability and reliability of results (Mouton & Marais, 1994). This study seeks to establish the truth through application of research design, valid quantitative data and the application of ethical principles.

1.4.2.5 Central hypothesis

The central hypothesis was formulated as follows:

There is a statistically significant relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

1.4.2.6 Research hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were formulated and empirically tested in this study:

H1: There is a significant relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

H2: The demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

H3: The interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) significantly predicts turnover intention amongst IT employees.

H4: IT employees from the various demographic groups differ significantly in their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

1.5   RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is a strategic framework that acts as a bridge between the research questions and the execution of the research (Durrheim, 2010). The aspects of the research design will be discussed in relation to this research.

1.5.1   Research variables

The independent variable was work-life balance. The dependent variables were job satisfaction and turnover intention. The research attempted to determine whether a significant empirical relationship exists between these variables.

1.5.2   Type of research

A quantitative cross-sectional survey-based research design was used in this study. The study was descriptive in nature, as it endeavoured to describe the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. According to Durrheim (2010), descriptive studies aim to describe phenomena accurately either through narrative-type descriptions, classification or measuring relationships. The research investigated the empirical relationships between the variables by means of correlational statistical analysis.

1.5.3   Unit of analysis

According to Durrheim (2010), the objects of investigation are known as the unit of analysis. The unit of analysis describes the objects that are researched, in order to formulate generalisations and explain differences (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). The unit of analysis in this study was the individuals from an IT organisation. In terms of biographical variables, the unit of analysis was the sub-groups. Work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention were examined on an individual basis and in biographical groups.

1.5.4   Methods used to ensure reliability and validity

The researcher implemented the following measures to ensure a valid and reliable research process:

1.5.4.1 Validity

Validity is the degree to which the measuring instrument adequately reflects the real meaning of the concepts being investigated (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). It refers to the extent to which the research conclusions are sound (Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2010). This includes internal validity, external validity, measurement validity, interpretive validity and statistical validity (Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2010). Both internal and external validity are imperative for an effective research design.

The validity of this study was ensured through the following:

- effective planning and structure of the research design to ensure the validity of the research findings
- the use of models and theories relevant to research topic, aim and problem statement
- ensuring that the selected constructs were valid, appropriate and applicable
- selecting accurate, appropriate and applicable measuring instruments
- selecting a representative sample to ensure external validity
- data that was collected, stored and analysed electronically
- ensuring data authenticity by means of encryption and password protection
- conducting appropriate and accurate data analysis

1.5.4.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which the research findings are repeatable (Durrheim & Painter, 2010). According to Mouton and Marais (1994), reliability also refers to the application of a valid measuring instrument to different groups under different conditions, resulting in the same observation. Reliability is influenced by the researcher, the participants, the measuring instruments and the research context (Mouton & Marais, 1994).

In terms of the research process, the following control mechanisms were implemented to ensure reliability:

- The three measuring instruments used to collect data complied with stringent validity and reliability requirements.

- Only IT employees from the participating company were invited to participate in the study.
- All data collected was stored electronically by the administrator and access to this information was restricted to the researcher
- Reliability in analysis was ensured by the use of statistical packages (SPSS & SAS) to analyse the data.
- Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to establish internal consistency and resultant reliabilities of the instruments used to collect data.

1.5.5 Ethical research principles

This research was guided by the ethical guidelines and principles stipulated by HPCSA and the University of South Africa's (Unisa) Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. These guidelines formed the ethical basis of the study.

Participation in the study was voluntary, and with the informed consent of the participants. Participants were able to withdraw from the study at any time. Confidentiality was maintained at all times. Participants were not asked to identify themselves. All data was kept secure and only the researcher had access to it.

1.6   RESEARCH METHOD

As illustrated in Figure 1.1, the research method consisted of a literature review (to conceptualise variables) and an empirical study (to operationalise the variables).

1.6.1   Phase 1: Literature review

Step 1: Literature review of work-life balance

This involved the conceptualisation of the construct work-life balance among IT employees.

Step 2: Literature review of job satisfaction

This involved the conceptualisation of the construct job satisfaction among IT employees.

Step 3: Literature review of turnover intention

This involved the conceptualisation of the construct turnover intention among IT employees.

Step 4: Conceptualisation of theoretical relationships

The literature review focused on integrating the above literature to ascertain the theoretical relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention, as manifested among IT employees in a South African IT company, and whether biographical factors such as gender, race and age influence employees' intentions to voluntarily leave or stay with the organisation.

1.6.2   Phase 2: Empirical study

The empirical study was presented in the form of a research article in chapter 3. The research article outlines the core focus of the study, the background to the study, trends from the research literature, the study's potential value added, the research design (research approach and research method), the results, a discussion of the results, the conclusions, the limitations of the study and recommendations for practice and future research. Chapter 4 integrates the research study and discusses the conclusions, limitations and recommendations in more detail. The empirical study involved the following steps:

Step 1: Determination and description of the sample

The population for this empirical research comprised all the employees of an IT organisation in South Africa (n = $\pm$ 440). A stratified random sample (n = 260) was invited to participate voluntarily. A final sample of 79 respondents (n = 79) completed the surveys, yielding a response rate of 30.38%. This sampling technique draws random samples independently from each stratum of the population, rather than from the population as a whole (Durrheim & Painter, 2010). Stratified sampling establishes a greater degree of representativeness where populations consist of subgroups or strata, for example, different divisions in an organisation (Durrheim & Painter, 2010).

Step 2: Measuring instruments

The following questionnaires were used in the empirical study:

a)   Biographical questionnaire

A biographical questionnaire was compiled and used in order to gather information pertaining to participants' age, gender, race, marital status, dependants, qualifications, tenure (years of experience in job), number of subordinates and business unit. The questionnaire consisted of a set of multiple-choice options, where the respondents ticked the boxes pertaining to them. The biographical data provided valuable information for the analysis of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention among the various demographic groups in the sample.

b)   Survey Work-Home Interaction - Nijmegen (SWING)

The SWING instrument was used to measure work-life balance (Geurts et al., 2005). The SWING distinguishes between four types of home-work-interaction, namely negative home-work-interaction (NHWI); positive home-work-interaction (PHWI); negative work-home-interaction (NWHI); and positive work-home-interaction (PWHI) (Geurts et al., 2005; Marais, Mostert, Geurts, & Taris, 2009). The items are answered on a four-response format varying from 0 (never) to 3 (always). The following reliabilities have been found in South Africa: NWHI 0.85 – 0.90; PWHI 0.67 – 0.79; NHWI 0.78 – 0.79; PHWI 0.77 – 0.79 (Marais et al., 2009).

c)   Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ20)

The MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967) was used to measure job satisfaction (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). This questionnaire measures both the intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2010). The short form of the MSQ was used, namely the MSQ20. The MSQ20 consists of 20 items and uses a five-point Likert-type response format. Reliabilities in the South African context have been reported, with alphas ranging from 0.79 to 0.85 (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009).

d)   Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6)

Turnover intentions were measured with a six-item scale adapted from Roodt's (2004) fifteen-item scale (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). The response scale was scored on a five-item Likert scale varying between poles of intensity with 1 (never) to 5 (always) (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). A Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of 0.80 has been reported for the TIS-6 (Bothma & Roodt, 2013).

Step 3: Data collection

Each participant received in electronic format an information leaflet informing him or her of the nature of, reason for, confidentiality, ethical procedures and voluntary nature of the study, together with a letter from the managing director of the organisation informing them of the benefits and value of the study for the organisation and encouraging participation. The electronic leaflet provided each participant with a URL link which directed him or her to the survey. The secure electronic survey consisting of an informed consent document, a biographical questionnaire and the SWING, MSQ and TIS-6 instruments were provided, together with comprehensive instructions from the researcher on how to complete the survey. Owing to the possible sensitive nature of the study, participants were requested to complete the survey anonymously. The data was collected over a two-week period.

Step 4: Data analysis

The data collected from the questionnaires was captured electronically and transformed into a meaningful and usable format to conduct the statistical analysis. The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Version 23, 1989; 2015) and the SAS (Statistical Analysis System, Version 9.4, 2002; 2012) programs were used to analyse the data.

Descriptive statistics revealed the means, deviations and Cronbach alphas. A 95% confidence interval with *p*-value smaller or equal to 0.05 was used for statistical significance. Correlational statistics determined the direction and strength of the relationship between the constructs. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to indicate the relationships between the variables. Spearman correlation coefficients were calculated to indicate the correlations between the different biographical groups and between the variables.

Multiple regression was used to analyse the data. The value of the adjusted R^2 was used to interpret the results, as a number of independent variables had to be considered, with R^2 values larger than 0.13 (medium effect) regarded as practically significant (Cohen, 1992).

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were conducted to test for normality and determine whether the data were normally or non-normally distributed. Independent T-tests determined whether there were significant mean differences between the various biographical groups in relation to the respective variables. Levene's test for equality of variances was performed to determine variances between the biographical groups. Cohen's d was used to assess the practical effect size of significant mean differences as follows:

Small practical effect: $d = .20 - .49$
Moderate effect: $d = .50 - .79$
Large effect: $d \geq .80$

Step 5: Hypotheses

The research hypotheses were formulated and tested in order to achieve the objectives of the study.

Step 6: Results

Data analysis and findings were reported in the form of statistical tables and figures. Interpretations relevant to statistical analysis were utilised to make sense of the data.

Step 7: Integration of the research findings

The results of the empirical research were integrated into the findings of the literature review.

Step 8: Conclusions

Conclusions emerging from the empirical study were drawn, based on the questions that were presented.

Step 9: Limitations and recommendations

Limitations of the study were highlighted. Recommendations were formulated with reference to the literature and the empirical objectives of the research.

Phase 1– Literature review
- Step 1: Conceptualisation of work-life balance
- Step 2: Conceptualisation of job satisfaction
- Step 3: Conceptualisation of turnover intention
- Step 4: Conceptualisation of theoretical relationships between constructs

Phase 2 – Empirical study (Cross-sectional survey research design)

Step 1: Sampling
- 79 IT employees
- Stratified random sampling

Step 2: Measuring instruments
- Biographical Questionnaire
- Survey Work-Home Interaction-Nijmegen (SWING)
- Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ20)
- Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6)

Step 3: Data collection
- Survey design where participants are directed to questionnaire via URL link

Step 4: Data analysis

SPSS and SAS will be used to score data from the psychometric battery
- **Stage 1:** Descriptive statistics – Cronbach alpha coefficients, means and standard deviation
- **Stage 2:** Correlational statistics – Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients
- **Stage 3:** Multiple regression
- **Stage 4:** Independent T-tests

Step 5: Test research hypotheses

Step 6: Report and interpret the results

Step 7: Integrate research findings

Step 8: Formulate research conclusions

Step 9: Limitations and recommendations

Figure 1.1: Flow diagram of the research method (adapted from Babbie & Mouton, 2009).

1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The chapters of this dissertation are presented as set out below.

Chapter 1: Scientific orientation to the research

This chapter provides a scientific orientation to the research by discussing the background to and motivation for the research, the problem statement, the research aims and research questions, the paradigm perspectives guiding the research and the research methods.

Chapter 2: Literature review

The aim of this chapter is to present a theoretical background and conceptual analysis of the research variables, namely work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The constructs are examined from a historical perspective and clearly defined. An attempt is made to demonstrate how the constructs have developed over time and how they are currently applied. This chapter gives a theoretical integration of how the variables are related and discusses practical implications.

Chapter 3: Research article

This chapter describes the empirical study and the research methodology. An overview of the sample and population is presented. The measuring instruments are described with a motivation for the choice of each instrument. The data gathering and processing procedures are explained, and the statistical hypotheses also presented. The chapter concludes with a brief summary and integration of the research results.

Chapter 4: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

Conclusions are drawn in terms of the specific aims of the research and limitations are formulated in terms of the literature and empirical study. Finally recommendations are made for future research.

1.8 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the background to and motivation for the research, the problem statement, the research aims and the research questions. The chapter further explained the paradigm perspectives guiding the research. The research methods were then detailed. The chapter concluded by providing the layout for the chapters to follow.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: WORK-LIFE BALANCE, JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION

This chapter addresses the research aims of the literature review and presents a discussion of the constructs of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. Theoretical perspectives underpinning the constructs are explained, followed by a discussion of the variables influencing the constructs. In conclusion, an integration of the constructs highlighting similarities and differences will be presented.

2.1 CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION OF WORK-LIFE BALANCE

This section provides an overview of work-life balance, conceptualises the construct and discusses its theoretical foundations and models. The section concludes with a discussion of the factors influencing work-life balance, the organisational implications and the biographical variables that affect it.

2.1.1 Background

The concept work-life balance has been growing in interest among academics and practitioners and is at the core of issues central to human resource development (Potgieter & Barnard, 2010; Sturges & Guest, 2004). Research by Schein (1996) found that a growing number of people endorse a "lifestyle" career anchor, implying that their primary career objective is to balance and integrate their personal needs, family needs and career requirements (Sturges & Guest, 2004).

As the pace of work in organisations has rapidly increased (Donovan & Kleiner, 1994) owing to factors such as technological advancements, the need to be globally competitive, continually changing economies and changes in organisational structures, employees have to face a number of challenges, including greater work load, increased job insecurity and lack of role clarity (Johnson, Cooper, Cartwright, Donald, Taylor, & Millet, 2005). This results in increased individual stress (Donovan & Kleiner, 1994). Companies have been forced to rationalise and restructure because of competitive and customer pressures and consequently fewer people have to do more work (Poelmans, Kalliath, & Brough 2008).

According to Burke (2000), there has been a worldwide movement of companies towards understanding and supporting the importance of a balance between work and life for all levels of employees in recent years. Frone (2003) suggests that helping employees attain work-life balance in useful ways leads to a more motivated workforce, which results in increased productivity, improved recruitment and retention, reduced absenteeism and improved customer experiences as a result of a more motivated workforce.

Work-life balance is defined as the degree to which an individual is equally engaged in and satisfied with his or her work role and family role, comprising the following three components of work-family balance: time balance (equal time devoted to work and family), involvement balance (equal involvement in work and family), and satisfaction balance (equal satisfaction with work and family) (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013; Greenhaus et al., 2003). When the demands of work and family are incompatible, conflict may arise (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Sturges & Guest, 2004). This is conceptualised as work-family conflict (Sturges & Guest, 2004). The construct can also be described in terms of the work-home conflict experienced, and is often referred to in terms of an inter-role conflict in which the pressures from the work and home domains are mutually incompatible (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Work-life balance has relevance for all individuals (Sturges & Guest, 2004). Sturges and Guest (2004) suggest that work-life balance denotes not only a balance between work and family, but a balance between work and the rest of life activities. Researchers found work-life balance to be positively related to both individual and organisational outcomes – for instance, improved financial performance, employee satisfaction and productivity, organisational commitment and attachment, and organisational behaviour (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010).

There are two perspectives on work-life balance, one at the individual (employee) level and the other at the organisational level (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013; Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). Is work-life balance for the individual to achieve and maintain, or for the organisation? Is it the organisation's responsibility? (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). Despite the introduction of flexible working regimes, hours of work are increasing, unpaid overtime and working at home are common, as are evening and weekend shift-working for many employees (Hyman & Summers, 2004).

Demographic changes in the labour profile and increased workforce diversity facilitated by legislated employment equity and affirmative action drives (Potgieter & Barnard, 2010) have resulted in a renewed interest in work-life balance experiences over the past decade (Rost & Mostert, 2007).

Work and home (or family) are the two most significant domains in the life of an employed individual (De Klerk & Mostert, 2010; Greenhaus et al., 2003; Lewis & Cooper, 1995; Papalexandris & Kramar, 1997), and as such work-life balance has relevance for all individuals (Guest, 2002; Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). Guest (2002) delineates the domains of "work" and "the rest of life", resulting in the concept having a new relevance to all working individuals. The arrival of Generation X has given impetus to research on work-life balance as these workers give greater priority to seeking balance between work and the rest of life (Guest 2002; Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010).

Research in this domain emerged at a time when the number of women entering the labour market grew and resulted in a focus on working mothers and dual-earner families (Patel, Govender, Paruk, & Ramgoon, 2006; Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). Recently the study of work-life balance and integration has increased because of demographic and social changes in the workforce, such as increased numbers of working mothers (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010; Patel, et al., 2006), dual-earner and single-earner families (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010; Theunissen, Van Vuuren, & Visser, 2003), technological advancement and globalisation that are changing the way people work and play, and job insecurity arising from constant change, together with expectations of increased performance (Jones, Burke, & Westman, 2006; Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). These factors are blurring the boundaries between work and personal life, making the integration of work and personal life an important and challenging issue for many individuals (Duxbury, 2004; Jones et al., 2006; Oosthuizen & Mostert, 2010). Evidence suggests that the lack of work-home integration and balance have a negative effect on both individuals and organisations (Oosthuizen & Mostert, 2010).

The past decade reflects an increased interest in both research and literature on both work-life balance issues internationally (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Kalliath & Brough, 2008; Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010) and on work-home interaction/interface in South Africa (Lee & Steele, 2009; McLellan & Uys, 2009; Mostert & Oldfield, 2009; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008). One

of the reasons for this increased interest is international trends on employee and organisational wellness that emphasise work-life balance (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001; Lewis & Cooper, 1995). This has resulted in a significant shift in the workplace towards work-life balance and quality of life (Parkes & Langford, 2008; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009).

The complex process of finding a balance between work and non-work roles may challenge individuals and result in stress, conflict or overload (De Klerk & Mostert, 2010; Marks, Huston, Johnson, & MacDermid, 2001), and impact on their lives from a physical, behavioural and cognitive-affective perspective (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Greenhaus et al., 2003; Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Work-family conflict may result in negative outcomes, including elevated job stress (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992), lower job satisfaction (Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002; Burke & Greenglass, 1999), and lower levels of organisational commitment (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The organisational impacts of these effects include absenteeism, high turnover rates and lower performance (Mostert & Rathbone, 2001; Oosthuizen & Mostert, 2010). Work-life balance refers to the way in which all of us manage our lives and allocate our time (Veiga, 2009). According to Welch and Welch (2005), achieving work-life balance is an iterative process involving the continuous assessment of our priorities and values, which improves through experience and observation, which, after some time lapses, is just what we do.

According to Greenhaus et al. (2003), despite the different and evolving definitions of work-life balance and the presumed virtue thereof, the concept has not undergone extensive scrutiny, the definitions of balance are not entirely consistent with one another, the measurement of balance is problematic, and the impact of work-family balance on individual well-being has not been firmly established. Much debate and uncertainty have been noted with regard to conceptualising and measuring the construct (Potgieter & Barnard, 2010).

2.1.2   Definition of work-life balance

Deery (2008 in Noor, 2011) suggests that defining the concept of work-life balance is a complex task, as it can be viewed from the meaning of "work", "life" and "balance". "Work" and "life" have unclear definitions in the literature (Guest, 2002) where work involves paid employment and life involves everything outside of the environment of formal employment, but usually connotes the realm of family or home life (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010).

According to Guest (2001), paid "work" does not simply comprise contractual hours of employment, but is often surrounded by ancillary (unpaid) activities, and in the case of some occupations, there is no seamless divide between the domains of work and home. "Life" was originally narrowly viewed as "family or home life", but recently commentators have suggested a more inclusive perspective that includes free and leisure time, irrespective of non-work commitments (Guest, 2001).

Owing to the fact that the concept of "balance" needs to recognise both an objective and subjective meaning and measurement that will vary according to circumstances and across individuals, it can be highly problematic (Guest, 2001). Shankar and Bhatnagar (2010) posit that we need to understand what we imply with the word "balance" and question whether it is an equal distribution between work and the rest of life and whether it is possible to ensure that there is an equal distribution at all times. Perrons, Fagan, McDouwell, Ray, and Ward (2005), however, state that "balance" need not imply that time and energy are equally divided between paid work and care, but is more of a recognition that individuals have different expectations and preferences for the ways in which they organise their total workloads.

According to De Sousa (2009), another problem with the term "balance" is that it suggests that work is not part of an individual's life and implies that it is something separate. The literature reveals a variety of terminology to denote work-life balance, including work-home interaction (Mostert & Oldfield, 2009), work-life alignment (Parkes & Langford, 2008), work-family balance (Greenhaus et al., 2003) and work-family interface (Heraty, Morley, & Cleveland, 2008).

Sturges and Guest (2004) describe work-life balance as satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of inter-role conflict, and posit that, at times, it is characterised by the absence of unacceptable levels of conflict between work and non-work demands. It follows that when the demands of the work and non-work domains are mutually incompatible, conflict may occur, and it is for this reason, that a lack of balance between work and non-work is commonly conceptualised as work/family conflict or work/non-work conflict (Sturges & Guest, 2004).

According to Greenhaus et al. (2003), work-life balance can be defined as the extent to which an individual is engaged in and equally satisfied with his or her work role and family role

consisting of the following three components of work-family balance: time balance (equal time devoted to work and family), involvement balance (equal involvement in work and family) and satisfaction balance (equal satisfaction with work and family).

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985, p. 77) originally defined work-family conflict as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible" such that participation in one role makes it difficult to participate in the other. There should be a balance between an individual's work and life outside work and this balance should be healthy (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013; Kodz, Harper, & Dench, 2002).

Work-life balance involves effectively managing the juggling act between paid work and all other activities that are important to people, including family, community activities, voluntary work, personal development, leisure and recreation (Noor, 2011). Work-family balance is a vague concept where work and family life are integrated or harmonious in some way or where work-family balance is seen as a lack of conflict or interference in work and family roles (Jacobs, Mostert, & Pienaar, 2008).

Kalliath and Brough (2008) posit that work-life balance is the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual's current life priorities. According to Virick et al. (2007), employees who experience high work-life balance are those who exhibit similar investment of time and commitment, to work and non-work domains. Geurts et al. (2005) define the work-home interface as an interactive process in which a worker's functioning in one domain (e.g. home) is influenced by negative or positive load reactions that have built up in the other domain (e.g. work).

For the purpose of this study, work-life balance was defined as the extent to which an individual is engaged in and equally satisfied with his or her work role and family role consisting of the following three components of work-family balance: time balance (equal time devoted to work and family), involvement balance (equal involvement in work and family) and satisfaction balance (equal satisfaction with work and family) (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

2.1.3 Theoretical conceptualisation of work-life balance

The study of work-life balance stems from perspectives emphasising conflict between work and family roles (Potgieter & Barnard, 2010). These perspectives include work-family conflict, work-family integration, work-life interaction and work-life balance (Oosthuizen & Mostert, 2010). Overwork was initially identified as the primary reason for work-life balance problems (Roberts, 2007), which probably contributed to Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) earlier opinion that work-life conflict results when mutually incompatible pressures are experienced in work and family roles. Studies on work-family conflict started off with a fairly one-dimensional conceptualisation of the construct (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005) and focused in particular on married woman entering the job market, on dual-career couples and single-parent households (Potgieter & Barnard, 2010; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008).

The early perspectives on work-life balance dealt with the negative impact that work has on family (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Rost & Mostert, 2007) and generally focused more on the spillover effects from work to family than on family-to-work (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997; Fu & Shaffer, 2001). The focus thereafter shifted towards recognising the multidirectional interaction between the domains of work and family (Oosthuizen & Mostert, 2010). Recently, more complex relationships of work-family conflict are being studied (Oosthuizen & Mostert, 2010), with a current tendency towards using the term "work-home interaction" instead of "work-home balance", as "balance" suggests an even distribution between work and home, which may not always be desired (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010; Lewis, Rapoport, & Gambles, 2003).

The introduction of the positive psychology paradigm by Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) at the turn of the 20th century, brought about a changed focus of psychology to building positive qualities, rather than focusing on fixing what is broken or bad in life and on how to obtain psychological health and wellness instead of emphasising dysfunction and illness. The positive psychology paradigm had a fundamental influence on studies of work-life interaction and shifted the focus of these studies towards positive facilitation and enrichment (Oosthuizen & Mostert, 2010). Studies have since been conducted with a view to determining the relationships between home and work characteristics and positive interaction between work and home (Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Koekemoer &

Mostert, 2010) as well as recovery, engagement, leisure and well-being (Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclain, & Shafiro, 2005; Haworth & Lewis, 2005).

This study conceptualised work-life balance from Geurts et al.'s (2005) perspective of work-home interaction based on the effort-recovery (E-R) theory of Meijman and Mulder (1998).

2.1.3.1 Work-home interaction

Geurts et al. (2005) define work-home interaction as a process in which an individual's functioning and behaviour in one domain (e.g. home) is influenced (negatively or positively) by load reactions that have built up in the other domain (e.g. work). This definition is based on the effort-recovery model (Mostert & Oldfield, 2009; Van Tonder, 2005).

Initial research by Geurts, Demerouti, and Kompier (2004), on work-home interaction (WHI) focused almost exclusively on the negative impact of work on the home situation. Researchers have only recently empirically tested the assumption that "work" might influence functioning at home, both positively and negatively, as well as that "home" might influence functioning at work, both positively and negatively. Grzywacz and Marks (2000) provided evidence for the co-existence of four different but inter-related types of spillover between "work" and "home": Negative spillover from the work to the home situation; positive spillover from the work to the home situation; negative spillover from the home to the work situation; and positive spillover from the home to the work situation.

Geurts et al. (2004) characterise work-home interaction as a four-dimensional construct that distinguishes between the quality of influence (negative vs positive) and the direction of influence (work home vs home work). Based on this, the work-home interaction comprises four dimensions, namely: negative work-home interference (NWHI), which refers to a situation in which negative load reactions built up at work hamper a person's functioning at home; negative home-work interference (NHWI), referring to negative load reactions developed at home that fetter a person's functioning at work; positive work-home interference (PWHI), defined as positive load reactions built up at work that facilitate functioning at home; and positive home-work interference (PHWI), which occurs when positive load reactions developed at home facilitate functioning at work (Geurts et al., 2005).

According to Geurts and Demerouti (2003), the type of work-home conflict could be based on role characteristics that affect time involvement, strain or behaviour in one domain that are incompatible with fulfilling the role in the other domain (work vs home). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) identify three types of work-home conflicts, namely time-based conflict (i.e. when work and home roles compete for time); strain-based conflict (i.e. when strain in the one role affects performance in another role); and behaviour-based conflict (i.e. when role behaviour in the one domain may be in conflict with expectations of behaviour in the other domain). The experience of the different forms of interaction between work and home can be better understood from the theoretical framework of the effort-recovery model.

2.1.3.2 The effort-recovery model

The effort-recovery (E-R) model is frequently used to investigate and illustrate the fundamental operation of work-home interaction (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). This model describes how work and private life may possibly interact with each other, and which aspects of these domains may affect the well-being of an individual during the interaction process (Geurts et al., 2003; 2005; Mostert & Rathbone, 2001). The E-R model suggests that effort expenditure (e.g. task performance at work) is associated with specific load reactions that develop in the individual, which are further associated with short-term psycho-physiological reactions that may include psychological, behavioural and subjective responses, such as changes in hormone secretion, energy levels and mood (Mostert & Oldfield, 2009; Van Tonder, 2005). These load reactions are usually reversible if recovery occurs after the effort was invested and sufficient time was available for the psychobiological systems to become stable again (Mostert & Oldfield, 2009; Van Tonder, 2005). Geurts and Demerouti (2003) describe the E-R model as the quantity and quality of how recovery plays a crucial role in an individual's life. As such, the model provides perspective (theoretical framework) on the underlying mechanisms in the relationship of workload and non-workload with well-being, by assuming that recovery from effort expended on work and non-work tasks during the day plays a crucial role (Geurts et al., 2003).

According to Geurts et al. (2005), work-home interaction is a process in which an individual's functioning and behaviour in one domain, such as "home", is influenced positively or negatively by load reactions that have built up in the other domain, such as "work". The central concept of the E-R model is that that work demands that require too

much effort are associated with the building up of negative load effects that spill over to the non-work domain (home and family environment). It is thus more difficult to recover sufficiently at home from the effort one has expended in the work role. This lack of sufficient recovery increases the possibility that demands from work could potentially harm psychological health and create negative work-home interaction (NWHI) (Geurts et al., 2003). Research has associated NWHI with depression (Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996), reduced well-being (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001), and alcohol use or abuse (Frone et al., 1996). It is for this reason that both employers and employees demonstrate a desire to achieve a balance between workplace obligations and personal responsibilities to reduce work-home conflict through work-life balance (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Positive work-home interference (PWHI) describes the positive influences developed at work that facilitate good functioning at home, while positive home-work interference (PHWI) describes those positive influences developed at home that facilitate effective functioning at work (Geurts et al., 2005; Oosthuizen & Mostert, 2010). The E-R model suggests that work environments that offer employees enough resources, such as feedback, autonomy and personal development, may foster the willingness to dedicate an individual's abilities to the task and yield positive outcomes (Geurts et al., 2005). Under these conditions, resources in one domain may be energising, increasing the likelihood of positive spillover to the other domain and decreasing the need for recovery (Bakker & Geurts, 2004). Increased motivation and commitment may be the result of this positive mobilisation of energy (Bakker & Geurts, 2004).

According to Poelmans (2005), individuals experience two types of recovery, namely internal recovery (during workday) and external recovery (after work). Internal recovery may be negatively affected by the spillover of "home" demands to an individual's "work" environment, while external recovery may be negatively affected by the spillover of "work" demands to one's "home" environment.

Individuals who have not fully recovered from previous effort investments, must still in a sub-optimal state invest additional effort to perform adequately when confronted with new demands, resulting in an increased intensity of negative load reactions that appeal even more strongly to the recovery process (Geurts et al., 2003).

In the long run, continuously high demands (in one or both domains) and insufficient recovery may lead to an accumulation of persistent negative load reactions (Geurts et al., 2003). Geurts et al. (2003) assert that the role of recovery may enhance our understanding of positive WHI. Energy resources may be replenished rather than depleted, when individuals are able to keep their effort investments within acceptable limits by utilising opportunities for control and support (Geurts et al., 2003). The consumption of energy is a necessary condition for stabilising the production of energy, and people tend to find energy for things they like doing (Geurts et al., 2003). Settings that enable individuals to self-regulate their effort investments offer the opportunity to gain positive experiences that yield positive load reactions and, in turn, spill over to the other (non-work or work) domain (Geurts et al., 2003).

2.1.4   Factors affecting work-life balance

According to Koekemoer and Mostert (2010), various researchers in the work-family literature, have classified previously researched antecedents of work-life balance into the following three main categories: demographic and personal characteristics, family or non-work characteristics and work-related characteristics. Demographic and personal characteristics include gender, age, family status, negative affectivity and personality (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Family or non-work characteristics include social support, parental stressors, family role ambiguity and family stressors (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Work-related characteristics include work stressors, work demands, hours spent at work, job stress, job support and flexibility at work (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Geurts and Demerouti (2003) found that various antecedents exist for work-home interaction and classified them as personality characteristics, family characteristics, and job characteristics.

Hardiness, positive affectivity, extroversion, and internal locus of control are personality traits associated with less conflict between the work and home domains (Bernas & Major, 2000; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Conversely, neuroticism, negative affectivity, the Type A personality and a tendency to avoid problems at work are personality traits that lead to higher levels of conflict between the work and the home domains (Bemas & Major, 2000; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

Social support as well as parental load and spouse disagreement are family characteristics associated with work-home interaction (Koekmoer & Mostert, 2010; Parasuraman, Purohit,

Godshalk, & Beutell, 1996). Parental load, family criticism and spouse disagreement are demanding aspects of the family situation that are also constantly related to the negative influence that the home domain can have on the work domain (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Work overload, long working hours, work role conflict and work role ambiguity are demanding job characteristics associated with negative work to home conflict (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Higher levels of job control and social support at work are motivational job characteristics associated with lower levels of negative interaction between the work and home domains (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

2.1.5   Implications of work-life balance for IT employees

Various consequences relating to the interaction between work and family, including physical, psychological, behavioural, attitudinal and organisational consequences have been studied (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). Other research has classified the consequences as work-related consequences (e.g. job satisfaction and turnover intention), non-work-related consequences (e.g. life satisfaction and marital satisfaction) and stress or general health-related consequences (e.g. burnout, somatic or physical symptoms) (Allen et al., 2000; Frone, 2003).

The literature suggests many positive implications of work-life balance, including the following: WHI functions as a vital intervening pathway between potential stressors in the work and home domains, and psychological health (Geurts, Rutte, & Peeters, 1999); WHI mediates the impact of workload on IT employees' well-being (Geurts et al., 2003); work experiences and family experiences can have additive effects on well-being (Voydanoff, 2001); and participating in multiple roles can have beneficial effects on both physical and psychological well-being (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Demerouti & Geurts, 2004; Geurts et al., 1999; Geurts et al., 2003; Voydanoff; 2001). Furthermore, participating in multiple roles protects IT employees from the effects of negative experiences in any one role (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). In addition, work-family balance is considered to promote well-being (Greenhaus et al., 2003). However, the findings of Frone et al. (1997) suggest that both time and strain-based WHI may compromise opportunities to recover from work demands, which in turn increases the chances that the demands of work will erode affective well-being and subjective health.

Balanced individuals experience less role overload, greater role ease and less depression than their imbalanced counterparts (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). A balanced involvement in both domains might reduce chronic work-family conflict (Greenhaus et al., 2003), while a balanced engagement in work and family roles is associated with individual well-being because such balance reduces work-family conflict and stress (Frone et al., 1992). Furthermore, Rice, Frone, and McFarlin (1992) found that satisfaction with work and family had positive effects on IT employees' happiness, life satisfaction and perceived quality of life. Greenhaus et al. (2003) conclude that that an equally high investment of time and involvement in work and family will reduce work-family conflict and stress, thereby enhancing an IT employee's quality of life.

Chimote and Srivastava (2013) state that work-life conflict is associated with lack of engagement, absenteeism, turnover rates, low productivity and poor retention levels. Other benefits of work-life balance include IT employee satisfaction and well-being; reduced absenteeism and turnover; successful recruitment and retention; increased productivity; and customer satisfaction (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011). Organisations that invest heavily in work-life balance report lower employee turnover (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).

2.1.6 Biographical variables affecting work-life balance

2.1.6.1 Gender

Research on work-life balance issues predominantly focused on gender, from the perspective of workers with parental care responsibilities, owing to social expectations that women should accept homemaker and nurturer roles and give these roles precedence over work roles (Patel et al., 2006), while minimising the impact their jobs have on their family life (Butler & Skattebo, 2004).

A meta-analysis by Davis, Matthews, and Twamley (1999), found that women reported significantly higher levels of stress in the workplace than men. Although men increasingly express an interest in a more balanced commitment to their work role, women experience the highest levels of conflict between work and family roles because they are expected to manage the bulk of family and household tasks and responsibilities (Burke, 2001). Working mothers may be more prone to family-work conflict than working fathers (Butler & Skattebo, 2004;

Patel et al., 2006). However, according to Grzywacz, Almeida, and McDonald (2002), working mothers may attempt to minimise family to work conflict to ensure that their financial contribution to the family is not threatened.

Burke (1991; 2010) found that organisational values of managerial men were supportive of work-personal life and reported working fewer hours and overtime, less job stress, greater joy in work, lower intentions to resign, greater job career and life satisfaction, fewer psychosomatic symptoms and more positive emotional and physical well-being. Observations by Duxbury and Higgins (1991) found that work-family conflict has a stronger relationship to a lower quality of family life for men than for women.

The dynamics of work and family boundaries may operate similarly among men and women today (De Klerk & Mostert, 2010; Frone et al., 1992), with no clear pattern in terms of the relative importance of work or family domain predictors for men and women's work-family conflict (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). Structural features of the family, including parental and marital status, are likely to influence work and family dynamics (Grzywacz et al., 2002) – hence the need to consider both gender differences and gender role issues to fully understand the work-family interface (Eby et al., 2005).

2.1.6.2 Race

South African socio-economic, political and societal circumstances influence employees' experiences of work-life balance differently in comparison with other countries, as employment equity increases and previously disadvantaged individuals become part of the workforce and are influenced by Westernisation that could potentially transform traditional, culture-specific family roles (Brink & De la Rey, 2001). Little is known about how different resource characteristics such as race and culture shape the work-family experience (Potgieter & Barnard, 2010). Mostert and Oldfield (2009) found significant differences in the work-home interaction among different socio-demographic groups (including ethnicity) and recommended further research of work-life balance differences in different socio-demographic groups.

2.1.6.3 Age

An employee's age has an influence on his or her attitude to work, as job involvement becomes more stable with age, mainly because of job conditions that become more stable (Lorence & Mortimer, 1985). Sturges and Guest (2004) posit that the relationship between work and non-work is more important to young employees than it is to other groups of workers, as young employees wish to develop and manage their own careers on their own terms, with a significant focus being the achievement of balance between the work and non-work aspects of their lives.

2.2   CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION OF JOB SATISFACTION

This section provides an overview of job satisfaction, conceptualises job satisfaction and discusses the theoretical foundations and models of job satisfaction. The section concludes with a discussion of the factors influencing job satisfaction, the organisational implications and the biographical variables affecting this construct.

2.2.1   Background

Job satisfaction has been frequently studied and is deemed to be the most important attitude in the organisational behaviour field (Luthans, 2008). It is often a central variable in the study and research of organisational phenomena (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Job satisfaction is a generalised affective work attitude towards one's present job and employer (Martin & Roodt, 2008) resulting from cognitive processes and is an embodiment of employees' perception of how well their job provides for their hierarchy of needs, values and expectations (Luthans, 2008; Martin & Roodt, 2008).

Job satisfaction focuses on employees' attitudes towards their jobs, and according to Steyn and Van Wyk (1999) is the degree to which individuals feel positively and negatively about their jobs. Employees with high levels of job satisfaction have positive attitudes towards their jobs, while those with job dissatisfaction have negative attitudes towards their job (Mbundu, 2011).

According to Luthans (2008), there are three general dimensions to job satisfaction: First, it is an emotional response to a job situation; second, it is determined by the extent to which expectations are met; and third, job satisfaction represents several related attitudes. There are many facets of a job to which employees have affective responses, including the work itself; pay and promotion opportunities; leadership and co-workers (Lumley et al., 2011; Luthans, 2008).

The fulfilment of various needs of employees is vital because it will determine their behaviour in organisations (Martin & Roodt, 2008; Maslow, 1943; 1954). Both extrinsic and intrinsic needs need to be fulfilled (Luthans, 2008). Intrinsic satisfaction is derived from performing work and consequently experiencing the feelings of accomplishment, self-actualisation and identity with the work. Extrinsic satisfaction is derived from the rewards the individual receives from his or her peers, managers or the organisation. This can take the form of advancement compensation or recognition (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

The optimal functioning of an organisation depends in part on the level of job satisfaction of employees, as their full potential is needed at all levels of the organisation (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). The satisfaction level of employees plays a critical role in retaining them, particularly those regarded as core employees or knowledge workers (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Employees seek congruence with the organisation, which can be described in terms of the employee fulfilling the requirements of the organisation and the organisation fulfilling the requirements of the employee (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). Employees will experience job satisfaction if they perceive that their capacities, experience and values can be utilised at work and that their work offers them opportunities and rewards (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). Organisations are attempting to understand why people leave and what strategies might be implemented to retain those employees (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Job satisfaction is an effective predictor of intentions or decisions of employees to leave a job (Mbundu, 2011). Information on job satisfaction is valuable to an organisation because satisfied employees experience physical and psychological well-being, while dissatisfied employees are more likely to be associated with absenteeism, psychological withdrawal and employee turnover (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002).

According to the situational approach, economic conditions, organisational structures, job characteristics and general organisational factors have a stronger influence on job satisfaction

than dispositional factors, which include personal characteristics, needs, attitudes, preferences, motives, self-esteem, self-efficacy, low neuroticism and locus of control (Strümpfer, Danana, Gouws, & Viviers, 1998).

2.2.2 Definition of job satisfaction

Because job satisfaction is a widely researched and complex phenomenon, it follows that many scholars have defined the concept using different dimensions, and there are thus numerous definitions of the concept. Job satisfaction has been conceptualised as an appraisal of one's job, an affective reaction to one's job, or an attitude towards one's job (Alarcon & Lyons, 2011).

Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state that results from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. According to Robbins (1993), job satisfaction is an individual's general attitude towards his or her job, where a person with high job satisfaction appears to generally hold positive attitudes, and one who is dissatisfied holds negative attitudes towards the job. Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as individuals' global feeling about their job and the attitudes they have towards various aspects or facets of the job. Spector (2005) expands on this earlier definition and describes job satisfaction as an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs overall and in relation to certain aspects of it. Furthermore, according to Lu, While, and Barriball (2005), job satisfaction may be perceived as a global feeling about the job or as a related cluster of attitudes about various facets of the job (Mafini, Surujlal, & Dhurup, 2013).

According to Steyn and Van Wyk (1999), job satisfaction is the degree to which individuals feel positively and negatively about their jobs. Sempane, Rieger, and Roodt (2002) describe job satisfaction as the individual's perception and evaluation of the job. Similarly, Ivancevich and Matteson (2002) define job satisfaction as an attitude and perception that individuals have towards their jobs that influences the degree to which there is a good fit between the individual and organisation. Baron and Greenberg (2003) describe job satisfaction as an attitude towards a job and the cognitive, affective and evaluative reactions towards it.

According to Price (2001), job satisfaction is the effective orientation that an employee has towards his or her work, while Schultz, Bagrain, Potgieter, Viedge, and Werner (2003) define

it as a personal appraisal of the job and the psychological experience at work. McShane and Von Glinow (2005) suggest that job satisfaction is a multi-faceted concept consisting of past- and present-oriented pleasurable feelings that result when individuals evaluate their work roles. Rothmann (2001) furthermore describes job satisfaction as an affective reaction to a job, resulting from an employee's comparison of actual outcomes and required outcomes. According to Rothmann (2001), job satisfaction is usually described in terms of relational (i.e. a person's relational component to a desirable or desirable outcomes) and dispositional dimensions (i.e. inherent attributes of the individual).

Mullins (2002) explains job satisfaction as a complex and multi-dimensional notion that can mean different things to different people. Dawis and Lofquist (1984) define it as the degree to which a person's work fulfils individual needs. According to Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957), job satisfaction is a multi-dimensional attitude, and they identify the following three aspects of job satisfaction: (1) specific activities of the job or intrinsic satisfaction; (2) place and working conditions of the job; and (3) factors including economic rewards, security or social prestige. Similarly, Rothmann and Cooper (2008) argue that job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience, which is mainly influenced by organisational factors (pay, promotions, the work itself and working conditions), group factors (the role of the supervisor and of co-workers) and personal factors (needs and aspiration and how these are met, and how an individual views the instrumental benefits of the job). Kreitner and Kinicki (1995) regard job satisfaction as an affective or emotional response towards various aspects of one's job. Based on this definition, Van Zyl (2003) suggests that a person can be relatively satisfied with one aspect of his job, but dissatisfied with one or more other aspects.

Job satisfaction is a reaction to a job, stemming from the employee's comparison of actual outcomes with the expected outcomes (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). Bretz and Judge (1994) define job satisfaction as the individual employee's subjective evaluation of the degree to which his or her requirements are met by the environment. Similarly, Yousef (2002) describes job satisfaction as the extent to which an employee feels positively or negatively about his or her job. According to Hirschfeld (2000), job satisfaction relates to the extent to which people like their jobs.

Weiss et al. (1967) postulate that employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment. This "correspondence" with the environment can be described in terms of the individual fulfilling the requirements of the environment, and the environment fulfilling the requirements of the individual (Martin & Roodt, 2008). This suggests that employees will experience job satisfaction, if they feel that their individual capacities, experience and values can be utilised in their work environment and that the work environment offers them opportunities and rewards in return (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002).

Weiss et al. (1967) identified various extrinsic factors (e.g. supervision, compensation, and company policies and practices) and intrinsic factors (e.g. activity, variety and responsibility) as potential sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The intrinsic factors measure satisfaction with intrinsic reinforcement factors, while the extrinsic factors are external to the job (Weiss et al., 1967). Intrinsic satisfaction is derived from performing work and consequently experiencing the feelings of accomplishment, self-actualisation and identity with the work (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Extrinsic satisfaction results from satisfaction with the work environment (Weiss et al., 1967) and is derived from the rewards the individual receives from his or her peers, managers or the organisation, which can take the form of advancement compensation or recognition (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

Weiss (2002) furthermore concluded that job satisfaction is an attitude, and that researchers should clearly distinguish the objectives of cognitive evaluation which are affected by emotions, beliefs and behaviours. Weiss (2002) argues that previous measures of job satisfaction confound job cognitions with job satisfaction, the former being cognitive evaluations, and the latter being affective.

For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction was defined as the degree to which people achieve and maintain correspondence with the environment satisfying both extrinsic and intrinsic needs (Weiss et al., 1967).

2.2.3   Theoretical conceptualisation of job satisfaction

Several motivational theories have been applied to the construct of job satisfaction. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Vroom's expectancy theory, Alderfer's ERG theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, and the theory of work adjustment were the major theories found in the

literature. Table 2.1 presents a comparison of Maslow, Vroom, Alderfer and Herzberg's motivational theories. This study thereafter conceptualises job satisfaction from the perspective of the theory of work adjustment of Dawis, Lofquist, and Weiss (1968), from which Weiss et al. (1967) developed the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) as a measure of job satisfaction, one of the primary indicators of work adjustment.

Table 2.1

Comparisons of job satisfaction theories and models

Model	Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954)	Vroom's expectancy theory (1964)	Alderfer's ERG theory (1969)	Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959)
Description	Motivation viewed as a hierarchy of physical and psychological needs, whereby individuals are always striving to reach their full growth potential or self-actualisation.	A process of cognitive variables that reflect the individual differences in work motivation. Job satisfaction increases when a person's efforts result in a desired outcome.	Supports Maslow's (1954) needs hierarchy theory.	Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are caused by two sets of different factors.
Characteristics	Based on the assumption that individuals have a need to constantly grow, develop self-esteem and have fulfilling relationships, all of which are highly motivating. An individual cannot be motivated by higher-order needs until the lower-order needs in the hierarchy have been met.	The strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the employee. Employees will be motivated to exert a high level of effort when they believe that the effort will result in rewards.	Asserts that more than one need may be in operation at a given moment and a lower-level need does not have to be substantially gratified in order for a higher-level need to come into operation.	Distinguishes between general types of work motivations consisting of "motivator" factors, referred to as intrinsic factors, and "hygiene" factors, referred to as extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors can lead to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors do not motivate employees but must be present in order to prevent dissatisfaction.
Influencers/ Variables	Five levels of needs ranging from lower- to higher-order needs: Lowest order – physiological needs Second level – safety needs Third level – belongingness, social and love needs Fourth level – the need for self-esteem and esteem for others Highest level – self-actualisation	Three interrelated variables that individuals consider before choosing a course of action: Valence – a person's preference for a specific outcome Expectancy – a person's belief regarding whether his or her actions will lead to the outcome Instrumentality – a person's perception of the outcome, either positive or negative	An individual's needs can be divided into three groups: Existence needs – include nutritional and material requirements Relatedness needs – satisfied through meaningful social and interpersonal relationships Growth needs – reflect a desire for personal psychological developments	Intrinsic motivational factors include achievement, advancement, the work itself, growth, responsibility and recognition. Extrinsic factors include the work environment, supervision, salary and benefits, job security, status, attitudes and administration policies.
Advantages/ Limitations	Needs hierarchy has not been well supported in that it comes across as vague, making it difficult to design effective valid and reliable tests.	Vroom's model does not follow the simplistic approach and most evidence supports the theory.	Individuals can be motivated by needs at different levels simultaneously.	Considered invalid as the two-factor structure has not been supported sufficiently by research and does not specify how intrinsic and extrinsic factors can be measured.

2.2.3.1 The theory of work adjustment

Dawis et al. (1968) developed the theory of work adjustment while working on the work adjustment project at the University of Minnesota. The theory postulates work adjustment as a fit between the individual and the work environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) and assumes a "correspondence" or a reciprocal relationship between individuals and their work environment (Dawis et al., 1968). Dawis et al. (1968) defined work adjustment as the process whereby an individual fulfils the requirements of the work environment and the work environment fulfils the requirements of the individual. The theory of work adjustment assumes that all individuals seek to achieve and maintain congruence (correspondence) with their work environment as a basic motive of human behaviour.

According to the work adjustment theory, work is an interaction between the individual and the work environment (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009). The work environment has a requirement of the individual (work performance), while the individual has a requirement of the work environment (compensation) (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009). If the requirements of both are equally satisfied, correspondence is achieved (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009). If a correspondent relationship is found between an individual and the work environment, the individual will seek to maintain the relationship, indicating work adjustment (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009). The two criteria of work adjustment are the individual's satisfaction and the satisfactoriness of the environment with the individual (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009). Both satisfaction and satisfactoriness are requirements for the individual to remain with the organisation (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009). Tenure is a result of ongoing correspondence and is the main indicator of work adjustment (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009).

Using the intrinsic-extrinsic definition of job satisfaction, Weiss et al. (1967) developed the MSQ as a measure of one of the primary indicators of work adjustment. According to Martin and Roodt (2008), intrinsic satisfaction is derived from performing the work and thus experiencing feelings of accomplishment, self-actualisation and identity with the task. Extrinsic satisfaction is derived from the rewards bestowed upon an individual by peers, supervisors or the organisation, and can take the form of recognition, compensation and advancement (Martin & Roodt, 2008). This stems from the assumption that each person seeks to achieve and maintain correspondence with his or her environment (Martin & Roodt, 2008). The association with the environment at work can be described in terms of the work

environment fulfilling the requirements of the individual (satisfaction) and the individual fulfilling the requirements of this environment (satisfactoriness) (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009).

The MSQ measures workers' satisfaction with the various aspects of their work and work environment (Weiss et al., 1967). The questionnaire identifies individual differences in satisfaction with aspects of work and the work environment (Weiss et al., 1967). The MSQ reports on three satisfaction sub-scales, namely intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and general satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). Intrinsic job satisfaction refers to how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves, while extrinsic job satisfaction refers to how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself (Spector, 1997). Intrinsic satisfaction items include ability utilisation, achievement, activity, advancement, compensation, co-workers, creativity, independence, moral values, social service, social status and working conditions (Weiss et al., 1967). Extrinsic satisfaction items include authority, company policies and practices, recognition, responsibility, security, supervision-human relations, supervision-technical and variety (Weiss et al., 1967). The short form of the MSQ contains 20 items, while the long form includes 100 items (Weiss et al., 1967).

2.2.4   Factors affecting job satisfaction

There are a variety of factors that make people feel positive or negative about their jobs (Arnold & Feldman, 1996). According to Locke (1976), researchers need to understand job dimensions, which are complex and interrelated in nature, in order to understand job attitudes. Locke (1976, p. 1302) lists the common dimensions of job satisfaction as "work, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, company and management". Robbins (1993) describes job satisfaction as a complex summation of a number of elements or job dimensions, which are inter-related, based on common dimensions of job satisfaction being the work itself, supervision, pay, promotional opportunities and co-workers. Other research has identified the factors that cause workers to have positive or negative perceptions about their jobs as pay, the work itself, promotion, supervision and working conditions (Baron & Greenberg, 2003; Rothmann & Cooper, 2008).

According to Spector (1997), the facet approach to the study of job satisfaction suggests that different facets are used to assess which part of the job an individual likes or dislikes, for instance, appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of work itself, organisation itself, the organisation's policies and procedures, pay, personal growth, promotion opportunities, recognition, security and supervision. Aspects of the job and the organisational environment relate to job satisfaction, resulting in situations that produce positive job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Spector, 2008). Spector's (1997) multifaceted approach to job satisfaction provides a clearer picture of how satisfied individuals are with their jobs, according to differing levels of satisfaction in respect of the various facets, which include pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication (Spector, 1997).

2.2.4.1 Pay

Arnold and Feldman (1996) posit that pay can have a powerful effect in determining job satisfaction, as humans have multiple needs and money provides the means to satisfy these needs. Pay is a major factor in job satisfaction, as the money individuals earn affords them the opportunity to satisfy both their basic and higher-level needs (Mbundu, 2011). Locke (1976) argues that a desire for money stems from people's needs to satisfy their physical and security needs, while "go getters" view pay as a status and recognition symbol. Spector (2008) asserts that although money is important to individuals, research has found that individuals who make more money are not necessarily more satisfied in their jobs. Chung (1977) states that if salaries are not market related, dissatisfaction and discontent could arise.

2.2.4.2 Promotion

According to Locke (1976), the wish to be promoted stems from the desire for psychological growth, the desire for justice and the desire for social status. Robbins (1993) suggests that promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, increased responsibilities and increased social status. Promotion results in positive changes such as pay, autonomy and supervision, (Arnold & Feldman 1996). Individuals who perceive promotional opportunities to be fair, are likely to experience job satisfaction (Robbins, 1993; Spector, 1997).

2.2.4.3 Supervision

According to Robbins (1993), employee satisfaction is increased when the employee's immediate supervisor is understanding, friendly, offers praise for good performance, listens to employees' opinions and shows personal interest in them. Similarly, Baron and Greenberg (2003) state that the level of job satisfaction will be high if workers perceive their superiors to be fair, competent and sincere, while workers who perceive their employers to be unfair, incompetent and selfish, will experience lower job satisfaction. Hence an immediate supervisor's behaviour is also a determinant of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

2.2.4.4 Fringe benefits

Spector (1997) describes fringe benefits as monetary and non-monetary benefits. According to Lumley et al. (2011), increasing intrinsic and extrinsic fringe benefits that attract an employee's attention might consequently increase their performance and induce higher levels of organisational commitment.

2.2.4.5 Contingent rewards

Robbins (1993) argues that if employees perceive that their efforts are not recognised or their rewards are not equitable, tied to their performance and tailored to their needs, employee dissatisfaction may result. Contingent rewards refer to appreciation, recognition and rewards for good work (Spector, 1997).

2.2.4.6 Operating conditions

Employee motivation is affected by how an employee's needs and objectives are integrated into the needs and objectives of the organisation, work-life balance practices and the physical work environment (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Working conditions will influence job satisfaction because employees are concerned with a comfortable physical work environment (Robbins, 2001). Factors such as temperature, lighting, ventilation, hygiene, noise, working hours and resources all form part of working conditions that impact on job satisfaction (Arnold & Feldman, 1996).

2.2.4.7 Co-workers

Having friendly and supportive co-workers leads to increased job satisfaction (Robbins, 1993) and fulfils an individual's social factor needs (Lumley et al., 2011).

2.2.4.8 Nature of work

According to Spector (1997), nature of work satisfaction refers to the employees' satisfaction with the type of work done. People prefer a job that is interesting, challenging and that creates opportunities for self-actualisation and recognition (Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono, & Werner, 2004). Robbins (1993) suggests that employees prefer mentally challenging work that affords them opportunities to use their skills and abilities and offers a variety of tasks, freedom and feedback on how well they are doing. Employees should be entrusted with some autonomy in how they perform their tasks, which will lead to job satisfaction (Arnold & Feldman, 1996).

2.2.4.9 Communication

According to Robbins (1993), fewer distortions, ambiguities and incongruities in communication in organisations will lead to lower employee uncertainty and higher levels of satisfaction.

2.2.5   Implications of job satisfaction for IT employees

Job satisfaction involves IT employees' affective or emotional feelings and has major consequences in their lives (Sempane et al., 2002). Information on the job satisfaction of employees is valuable to organisations (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). In recent years, numerous research studies have been designed to assess the effects of job satisfaction on employee productivity, absenteeism and turnover (Robbins, 2001). Roznowski and Hulin (1992) found that job dissatisfaction is related to absenteeism, trade union activities and psychological withdrawal (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). If an organisation does not create conditions for minimal levels of job satisfaction, this may result in a deterioration in productivity, increased IT employee turnover and absenteeism and a decrease in morale (McKenna, 2000). Job satisfaction is related to the physical and psychological well-being of

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IT employees (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). Managers can understand the impact IT employee job satisfaction has on the well-being of the organisation in terms of job productivity, turnover, absenteeism and life satisfaction, by having insight into the facets and behaviours relating to job satisfaction (Spector, 2008).

2.2.5.1 Productivity

Arnold and Feldman (1996) argue that a satisfied worker is not a productive worker for the following reasons: Firstly, a relationship exists between job satisfaction and job performance; and secondly, evidence indicates that job performance results in job satisfaction. Research indicates a modest relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Spector, 2008). Spector (2008) argues that the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity can be justified in two ways: Firstly, satisfaction might lead to performance, in that individuals who enjoy their jobs work harder and are therefore more productive; and secondly, performance may lead to satisfaction, in that individuals who perform well will receive benefits that may enhance employee job satisfaction (Spector, 2008).

2.2.5.2 Turnover

The main cause of turnover is job satisfaction (McShane & Von Glinow, 2005). If the levels of job satisfaction are constantly low, employees are more likely to leave their jobs (McShane & Von Glinow, 2005). Numerous studies support the view that turnover is strongly related to job satisfaction (Robbins, 1993; Spector, 2008). Classic theories suggest that turnover is a result of employee job dissatisfaction, where individuals' attitudes towards their job are determined by their assessment of their employment (Robbins, 1993; Spector, 1997). In comparison with those who are satisfied, employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs have a higher propensity to leave (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009).

Turnover is of major concern to management as it can have a tremendous impact on normal operations (McShane & Von Glinow, 2005). However, there may be some positive outcome resulting from turnover in the form of internal promotions and new appointments that bring fresh ideas (Newstrom & Davis, 1997). According to Spector (1997), if job satisfaction is low, individuals will generally start developing behavioural intentions to leave their jobs and try to find alternative employment. Employee turnover can be minimised by gaining insight

into the various predictors of job satisfaction as turnover is viewed as a reaction by individuals to the work environment (Spector, 1997). Skills retention can be managed by balancing an employee's individual needs with engagement predictors such as organisational process, role challenges, values, work-life balance, information, management and reward and recognition (Glen, 2006).

2.2.5.3 Absenteeism

According to Robbins (2001), there is a negative relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism. A person who is dissatisfied with work experiences stress, which may cause illness (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). Steel and Rentsch (1995) found an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism, which implies that when job satisfaction is low, absenteeism tends to be high. Spector (1997) argues that job satisfaction plays a critical role in an employee's decision to be absent. Absenteeism may result from the employee having poor co-worker or supervisor relationships, or a strong dislike of the job itself (Baron & Greenberg, 2003). A high rate of absenteeism will result in a huge financial burden for management in terms of productivity and performance, and is similar to turnover in the sense that normal operations and activities are disrupted and costs may escalate (Arnold & Feldman, 1996). Spector (1997) concurs that absence can result in increased labour costs, thus reducing organisational effectiveness and efficiency.

2.2.5.4 Union activity

Arnold and Feldman (1996) state that when workers become aggrieved by poor pay, by arbitrary and capricious discipline, and by poor and unsafe working conditions, the best solution for their grievances may be perceived as collective action or unionisation. They (1996) conclude that workers will join a union mainly because of their dissatisfaction with working conditions and their perceived lack of influence to change those conditions.

2.2.5.5 Life satisfaction

Life satisfaction refers to a person's feelings about life in general and is therefore considered a measure of emotional well-being (Spector, 1997). Spector (1997) considers job satisfaction and life satisfaction to be related since work is a major element of a person's life. Job

attitudes may influence both physical and psychological health and accordingly individuals who dislike their jobs could experience negative health effects and consequently experience higher levels of job dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997; 2008). Conversely, individuals with high levels of job satisfaction tend to experience better mental and physical health (Spector, 2008).

2.2.6 Biographical variables affecting job satisfaction

Although concentrating on employee demographics shifts the burden away from the organisation to the employee, it is necessary to study how demographic variables have affected job satisfaction so that a complete understanding of the concept can be gained (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). Job satisfaction tends to be associated with a number of individual and organisational variables that include gender, age, education, hours of work and the size of establishment (Blyton & Jenkins, 2007). Research has shown that demographic factors such as gender, age, tenure and race are associated with job satisfaction (Ghazzawi, 2008; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Spector, 1997).

2.2.6.1 Gender

Research indicates that there has been inconsistency in results comparing gender groups (Ghazzawi, 2008; Spector, 1997). Some studies found no relationship between gender and job satisfaction (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). Other studies reported that gender did not feature significantly in terms of overall job satisfaction (Martin & Roodt, 2008), while others again have shown that women are more satisfied with their jobs than men (Blyton & Jenkins, 2007; Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). In contrast, some studies have found female workers to have lower levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts (Martin & Roodt, 2008). According to Spector (1997), some studies indicate that men and women may differ in expectations, which suggests that women expect less and are therefore satisfied with less. Blyton and Jenkins (2007) found that women generally tend to report higher levels of job satisfaction than men.

2.2.6.2 Race

Research indicates an inconsistency in results comparing racial groups (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Research suggests that white employees are generally more job satisfied than black

employees (Martin & Roodt, 2008; Spector, 2008). Studies have found that white participants reported higher levels of job satisfaction than black participants (Davis, 1985; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1973; Tuch & Martin, 1991). However, other studies have found that black employees reported higher levels of job satisfaction than white employees (Brenner & Femsten, 1996; Vallabh & Donald, 2001).

2.2.6.3 Age

Research has found a positive linear relationship between employee age and job satisfaction, which shows that employees become more satisfied with their jobs as their chronological age progresses (Martin & Roodt, 2008). According to Spector (1997), age and job satisfaction are related in that general job satisfaction increases with age. As individuals age they become more satisfied with their jobs, which may result from them having less interest in task variety, as opposed to younger workers who find such jobs unsatisfying (Spector, 2008). A U-shape relationship exists between age and job satisfaction, which is attributed to higher morale shown by younger employees, lower job satisfaction among middle-age employees and higher job satisfaction among older employees (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009).

2.2.6.4 Tenure

According to Bretz and Judge (1994), job tenure is the most basic indicator of person-environment fit. An employee will remain in an environment he or she prefers (satisfaction), while the environment too finds the person acceptable (satisfactoriness). Employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment (Weiss et al., 1967). Similar to the relationship between age and job satisfaction, the relationship with tenure in a current position, is considered to follow a U-shaped relationship with respect to tenure in current position (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Research has shown that overall job satisfaction increases as the years of experience increase (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

2.3   CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION OF TURNOVER INTENTION

This section provides an overview of turnover intention, conceptualises turnover intention, and discusses the theoretical foundations and models of turnover intention. The section

concludes with a discussion of the factors influencing turnover intention, and the organisational implications and the biographical variables affecting the construct.

2.3.1 Background

Employee turnover has significant costs and negative consequences for any organisation (Bothma, 2011; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; 2013; Takawira, Coetzee, & Schreuder, 2014). The loss of highly skilled employees may have disruptive implications, which might include impaired organisational functioning, service delivery and administration (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013). Additionally, the loss of highly skilled employees may carry increased costs of rehiring and retraining employees (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013). These consequences provide a sound rationale for the study of turnover intention.

Turnover intentions are considered a decision intervening between an individual's attitude towards a job and the decision to stay at or leave the organisation (Fox & Fallon, 2003; Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). Turnover intention is considered to be an immediate precursor to actual turnover (Fox & Fallon 2003; Jacobs & Roodt, 2008; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004). It is a type of withdrawal behaviour associated with under-identification with work (Janse Van Rensburg, 2004; Roodt, 1997). Previous studies have successfully shown that behavioural intention to leave is consistently correlated with turnover, and there is considerable support for the idea that intention to leave is probably the most important and immediate antecedent of turnover decisions (Fox & Fallon, 2003; Slate & Vogel, 1997). Employees primarily deal with issues in the employment relationship through withdrawal behaviour (Lo & Aryee, 2003). Behavioural intention is a reliable cause of actual behaviour, which implies that turnover intention can reliably be used as a substitute for actual turnover (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993; Muliawan, Green, & Robb, 2009).

Turnover is a persistent problem in organisations in the modern era of globalisation (Yin-Fah, Foon, Chee-Long, & Osman, 2010). Many organisations experience increased employee turnover immediately after major organisational change (Kochanski & Ledford, 2001). According to Pienaar, Sieberhagen, and Mostert (2007), turnover has a negative impact on organisational effectiveness. The costs of turnover to organisations are among the key drivers of the pursuit to understand the antecedents of turnover (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly,

2008). Employee turnover creates both tangible and intangible costs for the organisation (Morrell, Loan-Clarke, & Wilkinson, 2004), where tangible costs include recruitment, selection, training or temporary staff, and intangible costs involve the effects of turnover on organisational culture, employee morale, social capital and organisational memory (Kotze & Roodt, 2005; Morrell et al., 2004).

The effective resourcing, management and retention of human capital are strategic issues for the organisation's survival, adaptation and competitive advantage (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Organisations have increasingly stated that their employees are their most important assets (Glen, 2006; Lumley et al., 2011). Organisations are forced to take an interest in more than mere profitability including the attraction, development and retention of talent (Boninelli & Meyer, 2004; Mendes & Stander, 2011). The organisational climate plays a role in ensuring that those employees who add value to the bottom line wish to stay with the organisation and continue working to the benefit of the organisation (Castro & Martins, 2010).

In the knowledge economy, the skills and knowledge of employees are often the main enablers for organisations to leverage a competitive advantage (Botha et al., 2011). The knowledge economy has led to increased competition for those employees with scarce and desirable skills, knowledge and experience. This is described as the "talent war" (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Botha et al., 2011). Talent retention implies that the organisation intends to retain its most talented employees or those employees who are likely to leave (Roman, 2011) and describes initiatives to stop employees leaving the organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012). The war for talent is truly global, as skilled employees are in demand internationally, forcing organisations to compete to retain their talent or face high employee turnover rates (Muteswa & Ortlepp, 2011). This global demand for talent is one of the contributing factors to skills shortages experienced by organisations.

Knowledge workers are individuals who contribute to the intellectual capital of the organisation (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). Knowledge workers are individuals with significant amounts of theoretical knowledge and learning in a specialist field (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). In the knowledge economy, an organisation's present and future success is influenced by its ability to attract and retain knowledge workers (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). Since knowledge is stored in the minds of knowledge workers, organisations need to balance business needs with the needs of knowledge workers to ensure that organisational

knowledge becomes a strategic asset for gaining a competitive advantage and surviving in the knowledge economy (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). There is no doubt that the demand for knowledge is on the increase (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011).

An organisation's success depends on the mental ability of a relatively small number of highly skilled knowledge workers (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011). When knowledge workers leave, the organisation loses the knowledge they take with them and cannot sustain its competitive advantage (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011). The challenge for organisations in the knowledge economy is to optimise, create, transfer, assemble, protect and exploit knowledge assets which underpin organisational competencies, which in turn underscore their products and services (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011). The more specific a knowledge worker's knowledge is, the greater the potential for the organisation to use that knowledge to gain a competitive advantage (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011).

2.3.2   Definition of turnover intention

According to Wilson (2006), turnover intention literature uses various terms interchangeably to describe this construct, including propensity to leave, staying or leaving intentions, intent to leave and intention to quit. Turnover intention is defined as "the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). In other words, it is the extent to which an employee plans to leave or stay with the organisation (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Jacobs & Roodt, 2011). According to Tett and Meyer (1993), the intention to leave the organisation is the final step in a series of withdrawal cognitions leading to actual turnover. Job satisfaction and turnover intentions were found to be antecedents in the withdrawal process which predict voluntary employee turnover (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010).

Intention to leave is defined as "an individual's own estimated probability (subjective) that they are permanently leaving the organisation at some point in the near future" (Vandenberg & Nelson, 1999, p. 1315) and refers to an individual's reduced level of commitment, which results in an increased desire to leave the organisation (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2002, p. 1) define turnover intention as the manifestation of "the (subjective) probability that an individual will change his or her job within a certain time period".

Voluntary turnover is defined as the "individual movement across the membership boundary of an organisation" (Price, 2001, p. 600). In contrast to turnover, turnover intentions are not definite and while often associated with job search behaviour, this is not always the case (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2002). In this study, turnover intention was defined as "the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262).

2.3.3 Theoretical conceptualisation of turnover intention

The study of turnover has a rich theoretical and empirical history in which multiple models and theories have been advanced to explain the complexities of why employees voluntarily leave their organisations (Griffeth, Horn, & Gaertner, 2000; Holtom et al., 2008; Joseph, Ng, Koh, & Ang, 2007). Research into turnover started in 1958 with the ideas of March and Simon (1958) on the perceived ease and desirability of leaving one's job. Table 2.2 presents a comparison of theoretical models including the following: The theory of organisational equilibrium (March & Simon, 1958); The Met expectations model (Porter & Steers, 1973); The linkage model (Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978); and the unfolding model of turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill, 1999). According to Steel (2002), despite differences in the models and measures, the results tend to converge on the significance of dissatisfaction, perceived alternatives, intention to search and the intention to quit as the four core antecedents of voluntary turnover. The current study thus conceptualised turnover intention from the perspective of Jacobs' (2005) turnover intention model, which proposes that positive or negative perceptions of organisational culture variables (predictors) are related to turnover intentions (criterion).

Table 2.2

Comparisons of turnover intention theories and models

Model	*Organisational equilibrium theory (March & Simon, 1958)*	*Met expectations theory (Porter & Steers, 1973)*	*Linkage model (Mobley, 1977)*	*Steers and Mowday's model (Steers & Mowday, 1981)*	*The unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994)*
Description	Turnover occurs when an individual perceives that his or her contribution to the organisation exceeds the rewards he or she is receiving.	"Met" expectations are influential determinants in turnover decisions.	A multi-stage model detailing the linkages between job satisfaction and turnover, detailing the withdrawal process and the sequence of steps that individuals undergo before leaving the organisation.	A comprehensive 13-stage process model of voluntary employee turnover. Affective responses (including job satisfaction) influence the desire and intention to leave.	Turnover decisions are the result of expected or unexpected shocks to individuals' status quo, which leads them to assess their fit with their current job and to take various decision paths.
Characteristics	The inducement-contribution relationship is influenced by the "desirability of leaving one's job" and the "perceived ease of movement" that operate independently to influence an employee's motivation to leave an organisation.	When an employee's prior expectations are met on the job, he or she is less likely to leave, whereas when an organisation fails to meet the employee's expectations, dissatisfaction results and ultimately turnover.	One of the consequences of dissatisfaction is thoughts of leaving, leading to a series of withdrawal cognitions and job-search behaviours that link job dissatisfaction to actual turnover behaviour.	The interaction of turnover intention and alternate job opportunities, organisational characteristics and affective workplace experiences are the immediate precursors to an employee leaving an organisation.	Turnover is a complex process of market-pull and psychological-push approaches affecting the decisions and behaviours of people who leave an organisation voluntarily.
Influencers/Variables	The "desirability of leaving one's job" is generally determined by levels of job satisfaction. The "perceived ease of movement" is influenced by both macro and individual factors.	Factors that potentially relate to turnover intention, including organisation-wide factors (e.g. pay and promotional policies, and organisational size), job content factors (e.g. job autonomy and responsibility, and role clarity) and personal factors (e.g. age, tenure and personality characteristics).	Employee's values, job perceptions and labour market perceptions combine via the linkages to influence withdrawal intentions.	Job expectations and values, job performance, and organisational experiences are predictors of the individual's affective response to a job. A multitude of factors influence these relationships.	Shocks, scripts, image violations, job satisfaction and job search are the major components of the unfolding model. Each decision path involves distinctive foci, psychological processes and external events.
Advantages and limitations		Received empirical support. Did not consider structural and economic factors in employees' decisions to leave or remain with the organisation and was considered more psychological in nature.	Empirical studies of the model found that many of the "linkages" were not significant, had small effects or had signs that opposed the predicted relationship.	Empirical studies showed partial support for the model	Four distinctive psychological paths that individuals may follow prior to actual turnover.

2.3.2.1 Jacobs' turnover intention model

Jacobs' (2005) turnover intention model proposes that positive or negative perceptions of organisational culture (predictors) are related to turnover intentions (criterion). Variables such as job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment and knowledge sharing mediate this relationship (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). Research by Igbaria et al. (1994) found that organisational commitment and job satisfaction are the most immediate predictors of intention to stay with the organisation.

The turnover intention model was developed as a predictive model of turnover intentions (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). The model determines which variables independently and/or interactively predict turnover intentions, by entering the independent variable, the proposed mediating variables, as well as various demographic variables into an equation (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). The model was developed with organisational culture as the independent variable, while knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction are the mediating variables (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). Variables were selected on the grounds of their respective relationship with or impact on organisational culture and turnover intentions (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). Because the turnover intention model focuses primarily on internal components, it is possible to derive strategies to prevent employees from acting on their turnover intentions (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008).

Jacobs (2005) used the turnover intention scale in the development of his predictive model. His rationale for using the instrument was that the literature lacked formally validated instruments, and that most instruments in the literature only measured turnover intentions on a small number of items (Jacobs, 2005). He (2005) found that only a few instruments measured more than three items and were problematic in that they either did not provide a time frame or used an infinite time frame. According to Jacobs (2005), the shorter the time frame, the more accurate the prediction of behaviour linked to the intentions will be.

2.3.4 Factors affecting turnover intention

According to Kennedy (2006), although there is no single identifiable variable that can be determined as the primary cause of turnover intention, it has been positively correlated with age, years of employment, education, caseload complexity, self-esteem, organisational

culture and job satisfaction. Similarly, research by Quan and Cha (2010) concluded that past turnover behaviour is a strong predictor of future turnover intentions, and that age, education, work experience, salary, past turnover behaviour and work hours are functional in formulating turnover intentions.

Job satisfaction has played a major role in turnover research. According to Tett and Meyer (1993), job satisfaction and organisational commitment are distinguishable but moderately related constructs, each of which contributes uniquely to turnover intention. Ding and Lin (2006) indicate that career satisfaction and job satisfaction have the most significant effects on turnover intentions, with organisational commitment mediating the relationship. Research by Pienaar et al. (2007) found that job satisfaction is the most significant predictor of turnover intention and is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention. Tian-Foreman (2009) reported strong support for the hypothesised negative relationship between employee turnover intention and job satisfaction. Wheeler, Gallagher, Brouer, and Sablynski (2007), however, revealed statistical support that person-organisation misfit and job dissatisfaction do not necessarily lead to turnover intention.

Wilson (2006) highlights both internal factors (work-related, within the control of the organisation) and external factors (non-work related, beyond the control of the organisation), that impact on turnover intention. Internal factors include pay, performance and job satisfaction. External factors include economic conditions, union activity and perceptions of alternate employment opportunities (Wilson, 2006). Du Plooy and Roodt (2010) found that work engagement and organisational citizenship were significantly and negatively related to turnover intention, while burnout and work alienation were significantly and positively related to turnover intention.

According to Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010), intrinsic motivation has the strongest direct negative relationship with turnover intention, while Birt, Wallis, and Winternitz (2004) found that the five most important intrinsic variables that influenced decisions to either stay or leave an organisation were challenging and meaningful work, advancement opportunities, manager integrity and quality, empowerment and responsibility, and new opportunities/challenges.

A meta-analysis by McEvoy and Cascio (1987) found a significant, negative overall relationship between performance and turnover. Similarly, a meta-analysis by Zimmerman

and Darnold (2009) indicated that supervisor ratings of performance had the strongest relationship with turnover intention, followed by self-ratings and objective measures (the higher the performance, the lower the turnover intention).

Jones, Kantak, Futrell, and Johnston (1996) found empirical evidence that leadership behaviour directly and indirectly influences job satisfaction, which in turn influences turnover intentions and actual turnover. Similarly, Wells and Peachey (2011) revealed a direct negative relationship between leadership behaviours and voluntary organisational turnover intentions, and found that satisfaction with a leader mediated the negative relationship between leadership behaviours and voluntary turnover intentions. In addition, research has shown statistically significant relationships between leader empowering behaviour, role clarity, psychological empowerment, work engagement and intention to leave (Mendes & Stander, 2011).

According to Canipe (2006), trust in co-workers, trust in a supervisor, trust in the organisation, perceived organisational support and organisational commitment all had significant negative relationships with turnover intention. Other research has highlighted the significance of perceived organisational support on turnover intention, emphasising the importance of leaders in reducing turnover intention (Newman, Thanacoody, & Hui, 2012; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012).

2.3.5 Implications of turnover intention for IT employees

Turnover intention, a type of withdrawal behaviour associated with under-identification with work (Janse Van Rensburg, 2004; Kanungo, 1979; 1982; Roodt, 1991; 1997), is considered to be an immediate precursor to actual turnover (Fox & Fallon 2003; Jacobs & Roodt, 2008; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004). Studies have successfully shown that behavioural intention to leave is consistently correlated with turnover, and there is considerable support for the idea that intention to leave is probably the most important and immediate antecedent of turnover decisions (Fox & Fallon 2003; Slate & Vogel, 1997).

Identifying the key factors that may be related to turnover intention might enable organisations and researchers to proactively identify the key determinants of turnover, and develop and manage strategies to decrease voluntary turnover (Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee,

2001; Pienaar et al., 2007). Turnover of IT employees may have significant costs and negative consequences for the organisation (Bothma, 2011; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; 2013; Takawira et al., 2014), which may have disruptive implications, including impaired organisational functioning, service delivery and administration (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013), and increased costs of rehiring and retraining employees (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013). Identifying the key determinants of turnover might assist IT organisations to minimise replacement costs, and curtail them from spending time and money on factors that do not really resolve the problem (Cooper, 2010). Anything that can be done to reduce turnover intention (and by association, turnover) will lead to significant benefits for an IT organisation (Bigliardi, Petroni, & Dormio, 2005).

Turnover intention research can be used to manage the turnover process and help develop strategies or interventions aimed at reducing IT employee turnover and its associated costs (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012). Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011) propose that organisations pursue attraction factors like branding and targeted recruitment and selection, creating an environment that supports work-life balance, offering highly competitive remuneration packages, and providing career development and training and development in an attempt to retain IT employees. According to Holt, Rehg, Lin, and Miller (2007), offering training and development effectively minimises the influence of shocks by capitalising on IT employees' desires for continuous development and improved long-term employability, which in turn creates pre-existing scripts that encourage retention rather than turnover.

2.3.6 Biographical variables affecting turnover intention

Various biographical variables have been identified as possible antecedents for turnover intention. These variables will be discussed below.

2.3.6.1 Gender

Various research studies have reported no significant relationship between gender and turnover intention (Cooper, 2010; Joseph et al., 2007; Martin & Roodt, 2008). However, Jawahar and Hemmasi (2006) found that perceptions of organisational support for women's

advancement enhanced women's satisfaction with the organisation, which in turn, influenced their turnover intentions.

2.3.6.2 Race

According to Martin and Roodt (2008), race has been indicated as a poor and inconsistent variable when used as a predictor of turnover intention. A study by Vallabh and Donald (2001) found that far more black managers were seriously considering leaving their current positions than their white counterparts. According to Du Plooy and Roodt (2013), race moderates the prediction of turnover intention.

2.3.6.3 Age

Martin and Roodt's (2008) research indicated a significant relationship between the age of an employee and turnover intention, with turnover intentions decreasing as age increased. Martin and Roodt (2008) propose that older employees intend to stay longer at an organisation, as they have more of an investment in it. Similarly, Chawla and Sondhi's (2011) research findings indicated that older employees have lower turnover intentions than their younger counterparts, while Ferres, Travaglione, and Firns (2003) found that younger employees demonstrate stronger turnover intentions than older age group employees. In their study, Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) found that age moderates the prediction of turnover intention.

2.3.6.4 Tenure

A significant relationship exists between job tenure and turnover intention (Mkavga & Onyishi, 2012). Cooper (2010) indicated no significant relationship between turnover intention and years of experience.

2.3.6.5 Position

Non-managerial staff have higher intentions of leaving the organisation than managerial staff (Tian-Foreman, 2009). Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) could not establish that job level moderates the prediction of turnover intentions.

2.3.6.6 Education

Cooper (2010) indicated no significant relationship between turnover intention and levels of education. Similarly, in their research, Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) could not establish that education levels moderate the prediction of turnover intentions.

2.4 THEORETICAL INTEGRATION OF WORK-LIFE BALANCE, JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION

This section presents an integration of sections 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 respectively. In the above sections, it was established that there are differences between the constructs. This section discusses the theoretical relationships between the constructs work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

2.4.1 Theoretical definitions of constructs

The theoretical definitions of the constructs underpinning the study are summarised below.

2.4.1.1 Work-life balance

For the purpose of this study, work-life balance was defined as the extent to which an individual is engaged in and equally satisfied with his or her work role and family role consisting of the following three components of work-family balance: time balance (equal time devoted to work and family), involvement balance (equal involvement in work and family) and satisfaction balance (equal satisfaction with work and family) (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

2.4.1.2 Job satisfaction

For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction was defined as the degree to which people achieve and maintain correspondence with the environment, satisfying both extrinsic and intrinsic needs (Weiss et al., 1967).

2.4.1.3 Turnover intention

For the purpose of this study, turnover intention was defined as "the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262).

2.4.2 Theoretical relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees

It is possible to investigate the trend of work-life balance and its development which influence the well-being and job outcomes of employees at work (Guest, 2002). Numerous studies have been done on the relationship between work-life balance and attitudinal job outcomes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Doherty & Manfredi 2006; Virick et al., 2007; Zin, 2006). Malik, Gomez, Ahmad, and Saif, (2010) and Virick et al. (2007) found that work-life balance is positively related to job satisfaction. This implies that work-life balance may be positively related to job satisfaction amongst IT employees.

Literature on the subject of work-life balance assumes that improving an IT organisation's work-life balance leads not only to greater productivity, but also to greater company loyalty and low level of intent to leave the organisation (Moore, 2007). Noor and Maad (2008) found that work-life conflict has a significant positive relationship with turnover intentions. Work-life balance plays a significant role in alleviating high levels of intention to leave and decreases actual turnover rates (Noor, 2011). Work-life balance initiatives facilitate improved productivity, increased employee loyalty and job satisfaction and decreased employee turnover (Malik et al., 2010). In the IT sector, talent retention is of particular concern, and work-life balance initiatives could play a significant role in increasing productivity, employee loyalty and job satisfaction, while decreasing IT employees' turnover intentions.

Research has found that employees who were more sympathetic towards their organisation's efforts to support work-life balance exhibit a much lower intention to leave the organisation, have pride in their organisation and are willing to recommend the organisation as a place to work with high overall job satisfaction (Nierras, 2012). IT employees with higher job satisfaction tend to report significantly more positive affect at home (Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner, 2009). Research by Boles, Howard, and Donofrio (2001) reported lower levels of

job satisfaction among employees who were experiencing high levels of work-family conflict.

According to Rehman and Waheed (2011), job satisfaction is crucial as it affects individual well-being and important organisational outcomes, such as turnover intentions and organisational commitment. Job satisfaction is described as one of those experiences of work that make it less likely that an IT employee will think about leaving even if there are available opportunities (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Research has found that lower levels of job satisfaction are related to turnover intentions and low organisational commitment (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). IT employees who experience job satisfaction will therefore be less likely to leave their organisations than those who experience job dissatisfaction.

Job satisfaction can be related to various organisational constructs such as organisational commitment (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998; Yousef, 2002) and employee turnover (Yousef, 2002). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are considered to be the main determinants of turnover intentions (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are distinguishable but moderately related constructs each contributing uniquely to turnover intention (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Ding and Lin (2006) indicate that career satisfaction and job satisfaction have the most significant effects on turnover intentions, with organisational commitment mediating the relationship. Job satisfaction is therefore one of the two main determinants of employee turnover in the IT sector.

Research by Pienaar et al. (2007) indicated that job satisfaction is the most significant predictor of turnover intention and is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention. Tian-Foreman (2009) found strong support for the hypothesised negative relationship between employee turnover intention and job satisfaction. Wheeler et al. (2007) however, revealed statistical support that person-organisation misfit and job dissatisfaction do not necessarily lead to turnover intention.

Wilson (2006) highlights both internal factors (work-related, within the control of the organisation) and external factors (non-work related, beyond the control of the organisation), that impact on turnover intention. Internal factors include pay, performance and job

satisfaction (Wilson, 2006). Jones et al. (1996) found empirical evidence that leadership behaviour directly and indirectly influences job satisfaction, which in turn influences turnover intentions and actual turnover. This infers that IT employees' turnover intentions may be influenced by factors both within and outside the control of the organisation.

2.4.3 Variables influencing work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention

The literature review provided insight into how biographical groups might differ in respect of their levels of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. Gender, race and age have been found to influence the levels of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention of employees. Job satisfaction and turnover intention levels are similarly affected by tenure. Position and education were found to be biographical influencers of turnover intention.

2.4.4 Implications for industrial psychology and IT employers

Against the background of the modern, complex and turbulent business environment, with its skills shortage and so-called "talent war", the effective resourcing, management and retention of human capital are a strategic issue for organisation's survival, adaptation and competitive advantage (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Employee turnover has significant costs and negative consequences for any organisation (Bothma, 2011; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; 2013; Takawira et al., 2014) including impaired organisational functioning, service delivery and administration (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013).

In the IT sector, talent retention is of particular concern, as the global labour market presents increased career opportunities for IT professionals (Lumley et al., 2011). The success of most modern organisations depends on their ability to use IT efficiently (Mohlala et al., 2012). IT professionals have specialised skills that are difficult to replace (McKnight et al., 2009) and have strong tendencies to leave their organisations (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012).

IT employees are considered strategic resources in most organisations (Mohlala et al., 2012). The rapid pace of technological advancement and change has widened the gap between the availability of and the demand for IT professionals (Mohlala et al., 2012). As stated above, IT professionals have specialised skills that are hard to replace, which makes turnover costly

(McKnight et al., 2009). The increasing demand for skilled IT professionals has forced organisations to start devising retention strategies aimed at retaining IT employees with critical skills and experience (Mohlala et al., 2012). The retention of IT employees is critical to an organisation because they have tacit knowledge of the interface between systems and key business processes (McKnight et al., 2009).

The introduction of the positive psychology paradigm by Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000), at the turn of the 20th century, changed the focus of psychology to building positive qualities, rather than fixing what is broken or bad. Identifying the key factors that may be related to turnover intention might enable organisations and researchers to proactively identify the key determinants of turnover, and develop strategies that build positive qualities and decrease voluntary turnover. Turnover intention research can be used to manage the turnover process and help develop strategies or interventions aimed at reducing employee turnover and its associated costs (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012).

Fox and Fallon (2003) reported in their research that successful work-life balance resulted in increased levels of job satisfaction and decreased turnover intentions, concluding that employers could reduce levels of employee turnover by enabling their employees to be better satisfied with their jobs through more successful work-life balance. A growing number of people endorse a "lifestyle" career anchor, implying that their primary career objective is to balance and integrate their personal needs, family needs and career requirements (Sturges & Guest, 2004). Organisations that invest heavily in work-life balance report lower employee turnover (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).

The satisfaction level of employees plays a critical role in retaining employees, particularly those regarded as core employees or knowledge workers (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). The optimal functioning of an organisation depends in part on the level of job satisfaction of employees, as their full potential is needed at all levels of the organisation (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). If an organisation does not create conditions for minimal levels of job satisfaction, this may result in deterioration in productivity, increased employee turnover and absenteeism, and a decrease in morale (McKenna, 2000).

It is therefore evident that knowledge of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions and the nature of the relationships between these constructs must be considered in

order to inform strategies aimed at improving employee ("talent") retention. Turnover intention research can therefore be used to proactively develop strategies or interventions aimed at reducing employee turnover in the IT sector, where IT professionals are considered strategic resources (Mohlala e al., 2012), who research has shown to have strong tendencies to leave their organisations (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012).

This research should enhance the understanding of the factors moderating work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst industrial psychologists and IT employers in conceptualising these variables. The relationships between the variables provide insight that guides retention practices and strategies for employees in the IT sector in South Africa and informs future research into the role that these variables play in retaining employees from different biographical groups.

2.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The goal of this chapter was to address the research aims of the literature review and present a discussion of the constructs work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The theoretical underpinnings of the constructs work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention, were conceptualised and explained in this chapter. Studies conducted by other researchers and the theoretical relationships between and factors affecting these constructs were explored. The influence of biographical variables, such as gender, race and age, was discussed from a theoretical perspective. The chapter concluded with an integration of the three constructs, highlighting their similarities and differences.

The following research aims of the literature review were achieved:

- Conceptualise work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees from a theoretical perspective.
- Determine theoretically the role of the biographical variables (of age, gender, marital status, qualification, racial group and tenure) in respect of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.
- Conceptualise the theoretical relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.
- Determine the implications for industrial psychology practices and future research.

Chapter 3 presents the empirical research aims and discusses the empirical findings of the research. This discussion is in the form of a research article.

CHAPTER 3

*RESEARCH ARTICLE: WORK-LIFE BALANCE, JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION AMONGST INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY EMPLOYEES

ABSTRACT

Orientation: Talent retention is of particular concern in the IT sector owing to globalisation, the skills shortage and rapidly advancing technology. Employee turnover has significant costs and negative consequences for the organisation.

Research purpose: The objectives of the study were as follows: (1) to determine the relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependents, qualifications, tenure, and business unit), work-life balance (as measured by the Survey Work-Home Interaction - Nijmegen), job satisfaction (as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire) and turnover intention (as measured by the Turnover Intention Scale); (2) to determine whether the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention; (3) to assess the interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) in predicting turnover intention; (4) to assess whether the various demographic groups differ significantly regarding their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention; and (5) to formulate recommendations based on the literature and empirical findings of this research for industrial psychology practices and future research with regard to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Motivation for the study: In IT sector, talent retention is of particular concern, as the global labour market presents increased career opportunities for IT professionals. IT employees can be regarded as being key to an organisation's survival, adaptability and competitive advantage. The global demand for talent has increased the competition and demand for IT employees, increasing the importance of and need for talent retention strategies and practices. Research has shown that IT professionals have strong tendencies to leave their organisations. Employee turnover has significant costs for both the individual and the organisation.

Research design, approach and method: A quantitative cross-sectional survey-based research design was used in this study. Accordingly, the three measuring instruments were administered to a stratified random sample of 79 permanently employed salaried employees in a South African IT company. Descriptive statistics, correlations, independent t-tests and regressions were used for data analyses.

Main findings: Job satisfaction has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention. The work-home interface sub-dimensions of work-life balance have both a positive and negative relationship with job satisfaction and turnover intention. There are significant differences between the various biographical groups.

Practical/managerial implications: Talent retention strategies should consider the relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. Improved job satisfaction and work-home interface will positively influence turnover intentions and actual employee turnover.

Contribution/value-add: This study contributes to the expanding body of knowledge pertaining to talent management and talent retention. The findings add new and additional information to the existing research literature on the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The study contributes valuable insight and knowledge to the field of industrial and organisational psychology regarding the retention of employees in the IT sector.

Key words: Knowledge workers, IT employees, knowledge economy, work-life balance, job satisfaction, turnover intention, talent management, talent retention

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The section below aims to clarify the focus of and background to the study. General trends found in the literature will be highlighted, and the objectives and potential value added by the study will be outlined.

3.1.1   Key focus of the study

Against the background of globalisation, the skills shortage and the "talent war", it is evident that talent retention is a strategic issue for an organisation's survival, adaptation and competitive advantage (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). In the IT sector, talent retention is of particular concern, as the global labour market presents increased career opportunities for IT professionals (Lumley et al., 2011), who have specialised skills that are difficult to replace (McKnight et al., 2009) and have strong tendencies to leave their organisations (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012).

The increasing demand for skilled IT professionals has forced organisations to start devising retention strategies aimed at retaining IT employees with critical skills and experience (Mohlala et al., 2012). The retention of IT employees is critical to an organisation, as they hold tacit knowledge about the interface between systems and key business processes (McKnight et al., 2009).

It is therefore evident that knowledge of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions and the nature of the relationships between these constructs must be considered in order to inform strategies aimed at improving employee ("talent") retention in the IT sector. Turnover intention research can therefore be used to proactively develop strategies or interventions aimed at reducing employee turnover in the IT sector, where IT professionals are considered strategic resources (Mohlala et al., 2012), who research has shown to have strong tendencies to leave their organisations (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012).

This study explored the levels of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions amongst South African IT workers, with the aim of identifying trends that providing insight into why the South African IT sector experiences high turnover intentions and/or low levels of work-life balance and job satisfaction. The study could enhance the understanding of industrial psychologists and employers in the conceptualisation of the factors moderating work life balance, job satisfaction, turnover intention and actual employee turnover.

3.1.2 Background to the study

Organisations in the modern complex and turbulent business environment are under pressure to adapt to changes, challenges and opportunities in order to compete and survive in a dynamic business world (Louw & Martins, 2004; Manetje & Martins, 2009; Martins & Coetzee, 2011; Stander & Rothmann, 2010). This global competition and multi-cultural environment is characterised by a changing world of work, technological advancement, international competition, an increasingly diverse workforce and the emergence of a global knowledge economy (Manetje & Martins, 2009; Martins & Coetzee, 2011). These factors affect all organisations, regardless of their industry, structure or size (Castro & Martins, 2010). Organisations are constantly seeking to improve performance and competitiveness (Castro & Martins, 2010; Martins & Coetzee, 2011; Stander & Rothmann, 2010).

The effective resourcing, management and retention of human capital is a strategic issue for any organisation's survival, adaptation and competitive advantage (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Organisations have increasingly stated that their employees are their most important assets (Glen, 2006; Lumley et al., 2011). Organisations are forced to take an interest in more than mere profitability, including the attraction, development and retention of talent (Boninelli & Meyer, 2004; Mendes & Stander, 2011). The organisational climate plays a role in ensuring that those employees who add value to the bottom line wish to stay with the organisation and continue working to the benefit of the organisation (Castro & Martins, 2010).

In the knowledge economy, the skills and knowledge of employees are often the main enablers for organisations to leverage a competitive advantage (Botha et al., 2011). The knowledge economy has led to increased competition for those employees with scarce and desirable skills, knowledge and experience. This is described as the "talent war" (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Botha et al., 2011). Talent retention implies that the organisation intends to retain its most talented employees or those employees who are likely to leave (Roman, 2011) and describes initiatives to stop employees leaving the organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012). The talent war is truly international, as skilled employees are in demand globally forcing organisations to compete to retain their talent or face high employee turnover rates (Muteswa & Ortlepp, 2011). This global demand for talent is one of the contributing factors to the skills shortages experienced by organisations.

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Knowledge workers are individuals who contribute to the intellectual capital of the organisation (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). Knowledge workers are individuals with significant amounts of theoretical knowledge and learning in a specialist field (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). In the knowledge economy, an organisation's present and future success is influenced by its ability to attract and retain knowledge workers (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). Since knowledge is stored in the minds of knowledge workers, organisations need to balance business needs with the needs of knowledge workers in order to ensure that organisational knowledge becomes a strategic asset for gaining a competitive advantage and surviving in the knowledge economy (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011). The demand for knowledge is on the increase (Van Staden & Du Toit, 2011).

An organisation's success depends on the mental ability of a relatively small number of highly skilled knowledge workers (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011). When knowledge workers leave, the organisation loses the knowledge they take with them and cannot sustain its competitive advantage (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011). The challenge for organisations in the knowledge economy is to optimise, create, transfer, assemble, protect and exploit knowledge assets that underpin organisational competencies, which in turn underscore their products and services (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011). The more specific a knowledge worker's knowledge is, the greater the potential for the organisation to use that knowledge to gain a competitive advantage (Ramsey & Barkhuizen, 2011).

Against the background of the modern, complex and turbulent business environment, with its skills shortages and talent war, the effective resourcing, management and retention of human capital is a strategic issue for an organisation's survival, adaptation and competitive advantage (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Employee turnover has significant costs and negative consequences for any organisation (Bothma, 2011; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; 2013; Takawira et al., 2014) including impaired organisational functioning, service delivery and administration (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013).

The aim of the present study was to explore the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees. The purpose of the study was to provide new insight for industrial and organisational psychologists and contribute to talent retention strategies and practices.

3.1.3 Trends in the research literature

The next section provides a brief overview of the dominant trends in the research literature pertaining to work-life balance, job satisfaction, turnover intention and IT employees.

3.1.3.1 Work-life balance

The concept of work-life balance has been growing in interest amongst academics and practitioners and is at the core of issues central to human resource development (Sturges & Guest, 2004). Research by Schein (1996) found that a growing number of people endorse a "lifestyle" career anchor, implying that their primary career objective is to balance and integrate their personal needs, family needs and career requirements (Sturges & Guest, 2004). Work-life balance is defined as the degree to which an individual is engaged in and equally satisfied with his or her work role and family role consisting of the following three dimensions of work-family balance: time balance, involvement balance and satisfaction balance (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Time balance involves devoting equal time to work and family. Involvement balance entails equal involvement in work and family (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Satisfaction balance means equal satisfaction with work and family (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013; Greenhaus et al., 2003). Recent research has recognised and used personal life synonymously with family life, conceptualising work-life balance as encompassing all domains of one's personal life including family, religion, social and leisure domains (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Work-family conflict may occur when the demands of work and family are incompatible (Sturges & Guest, 2004).

Work-life balance has relevance for all individuals (Sturges & Guest, 2004). Sturges and Guest (2004) posit that work-life balance denotes not only a balance between work and family, but a balance between work and the rest of one's life activities. Researchers have found work-life balance to be positively related to both individual and organisational outcomes, for instance, improved financial performance, employee satisfaction and productivity organisational commitment and attachment, and organisational behaviour (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010).

According to Koekemoer and Mostert (2010), various researchers in the work-family literature have classified previously researched antecedents of work-life balance into the

following three main categories: demographic and personal characteristics, family or non-work characteristics and work- or job-related characteristics. Demographic and personal characteristics include gender, age, family status, negative affectivity and personality (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Family or non-work characteristics include social support, parental stressors, family role ambiguity and family stressors (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Work- or job-related characteristics include work stressors, work demands, hours spent at work, job stress, job support and flexibility at work (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Geurts and Demerouti (2003) found that various antecedents exist for work-home interaction and classified them as personality characteristics, family characteristics and job characteristics.

Various consequences relating to the interaction between work and family, including physical, psychological, behavioural, attitudinal and organisational consequences have been studied (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). Other research has classified the consequences as work-related consequences (e.g. job satisfaction, turnover intention), non-work-related consequences (e.g. life satisfaction, marital satisfaction) and stress or general health-related consequences (e.g. burnout, somatic or physical symptoms) (Allen et al., 2000; Frone, 2003).

The literature suggests many positive implications of work-life balance, including the following: Work-home interaction (WHI) functions as an important intervening pathway between potential stressors in the work and home domains, and psychological health (Geurts et al., 1999); WHI mediates the impact of workload on workers' well-being (Geurts et al., 2003); work experiences and family experiences can have additive effects on well-being (Voydanoff, 2001); and participating in multiple roles can have beneficial effects on both physical and psychological well-being (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Demerouti & Geurts, 2004; Geurts et al., 1999; Geurts et al., 2003; Voydanoff; 2001). Furthermore, participating in multiple roles protects individuals from the effects of negative experiences in any one role (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). In addition, work-family balance is considered to promote well-being (Greenhaus, et al. 2003). However, the findings of Frone et al. (1997) suggest that both time- and strain-based WHI may compromise opportunities to recover from work demands, which in turn increases the chances that the demands of work will erode affective well-being and subjective health.

According to Chimote and Srivastava (2013), work-life conflict is associated with lack of engagement, absenteeism, turnover rates, low productivity and poor retention levels. Benefits

of work-life balance include employee satisfaction and well-being; reduced absenteeism and turnover; successful recruitment and retention; increased productivity; and customer satisfaction (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011). Organisations that invest heavily in work-life balance report lower employee turnover (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).

A meta-analysis by Davis et al. (1999) found that women reported significantly higher levels of stress in the workplace than men. Although men increasingly express an interest in a more balanced commitment to their work role, women experience the highest levels of conflict between work and family roles because they are expected to manage the bulk of family and household tasks and responsibilities (Burke, 2001).

The South African socio-economic, political and societal circumstances influence employees' experiences of work-life balance differently in comparison with other countries. This is because of employment equity, where previously disadvantaged individuals become part of the workforce and are influenced by Westernisation that could potentially transform traditional, culture-specific family roles (Brink & De la Rey, 2001). Little is known about how different resource characteristics such as race and culture shape the work-family experience (Potgieter & Barnard, 2010). Mostert and Oldfield (2009) found significant differences in the work-home interaction among different socio-demographic groups (including ethnicity) and recommended further research of work-life balance differences in different socio-demographic groups.

An employee's age has an influence on his or her attitude to work, as job involvement becomes more stable with an employee's age, mainly because of job conditions becoming more stable (Lorence & Mortimer, 1985). Sturges and Guest (2004) suggest that the relationship between work and non-work is more important to young employees than it is to other groups of workers, as young employees wish to develop and manage their own careers on their own terms, with a key focus being the achievement of balance between the work and non-work aspects of their lives.

3.1.3.2 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to the intrinsic-extrinsic definition of job satisfaction of Weiss et al. (1967). Intrinsic satisfaction is derived from performing work and consequently experiencing

the feelings of accomplishment, self-actualisation and identity with the work (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Extrinsic satisfaction results from satisfaction with the work environment (Weiss et al., 1967) and is derived from the rewards the individual receives from peers, managers or the organisation, which can take the form of advancement compensation or recognition (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

The satisfaction level of employees plays a critical role in retaining employees, particularly those regarded as core employees or knowledge workers (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Organisations are attempting to understand why people leave and what strategies can be implemented to retain those employees (Martins & Coetzee, 2007).

The optimal functioning of an organisation depends in part on the level of job satisfaction of employees, as employees' full potential is needed at all levels of the organisation (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). Employees seek congruence with the organisation, which can be described in terms of the employee fulfilling the requirements of the organisation and the organisation fulfilling the requirements of the employee (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). Employees will experience job satisfaction if they perceive that their capacities, experience and values can be utilised at work and that their work offers them opportunities and rewards (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). Information on job satisfaction is valuable to an organisation, as satisfied employees experience physical and psychological well-being, while dissatisfied employees are more likely to be associated with absenteeism, psychological withdrawal and employee turnover (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002).

Job satisfaction has been frequently studied and is deemed the most important attitude in the organisational behaviour field (Luthans, 2008). It is often a central variable in the study of and research on organisational phenomena (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Job satisfaction is a generalised affective work attitude towards one's present job and employer (Martin & Roodt, 2008) resulting from cognitive processes and is an embodiment of employees' perception of how well their job provides for their hierarchy of needs, values and expectations (Luthans, 2008; Martin & Roodt, 2008).

There are a variety of factors that make people feel positive or negative about their jobs (Arnold & Feldman, 1996). According to Locke (1976), researchers need to understand job dimensions, which are complex and interrelated in nature, in order to comprehend job

attitudes. Locke (1976, p. 1302) lists the common dimensions of job satisfaction as "work, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, company and management". Robbins (1993) describes job satisfaction as a complex summation of a number of elements or job dimensions, which are inter-related, based on common dimensions of job satisfaction being the work itself, supervision, pay, promotional opportunities and co-workers. Other research has identified the factors that cause workers to have positive or negative perceptions about their jobs as pay, the work itself, promotion, supervision and working conditions (Baron & Greenberg, 2003; Rothmann & Cooper, 2008). Aspects of the job and the organisational environment relate to job satisfaction, resulting in situations that produce positive job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Spector, 2008).

Job satisfaction involves employees' affective or emotional feelings and has major consequences for their lives (Sempane et al., 2002). Information on the job satisfaction of employees is valuable to organisations (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). In recent years, numerous research studies have been designed to assess the effects of job satisfaction on employee productivity, absenteeism and turnover (Robbins, 2001). Roznowski and Hulin (1992) found that job dissatisfaction is related to absenteeism, trade union activities and psychological withdrawal. If an organisation does not create conditions for minimal levels of job satisfaction, this may result in a deterioration in productivity, increased employee turnover and absenteeism and a decrease in morale (McKenna, 2000). Job satisfaction is related to the physical and psychological well-being of employees (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). Managers can understand the impact employee job satisfaction has on the well-being of the organisation in terms of job productivity, turnover, absenteeism and life satisfaction, by having insight into the facets and behaviours relating to job satisfaction (Spector, 2008).

Although concentrating on employee demographics shifts the burden away from the organisation to the employee, it is necessary to study how demographic variables have affected job satisfaction so that a complete understanding of the concept can be gained (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). Job satisfaction tends to be associated with a number of individual and organisational variables that include gender, age, education, hours of work and the size of establishment (Blyton & Jenkins, 2007). Research has shown that demographic factors such as gender, age, tenure and race are associated with job satisfaction (Ghazzawi, 2008; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Spector, 1997).

Research indicates an inconsistency in results comparing gender (Ghazzawi, 2008; Spector, 1997) and racial groups (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Also, a positive linear relationship has been reported between employee age and job satisfaction, showing that employees became more satisfied with their job as their chronological age progresses (Martin & Roodt, 2008). According to Bretz and Judge (1994), job tenure is the most basic indicator of person-environment fit. An employee will remain in an environment he or she prefers (satisfaction), while the environment too finds the person acceptable (satisfactoriness). Employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment (Weiss et al., 1967).

3.1.3.3 Turnover intention

Turnover intention is defined as "the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). In other words, it is the extent to which an employee plans to leave or stay with the organisation (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Jacobs & Roodt, 2011). According to Tett and Meyer (1993), the intention to leave the organisation is the final step in a series of withdrawal cognitions leading to actual turnover. Job satisfaction and turnover intentions were found to be precursors in the withdrawal process which predict voluntary employee turnover (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010).

Employee turnover has significant costs and negative consequences for any organisation (Bothma, 2011). The loss of highly skilled employees may have disruptive implications, which might include impaired organisational functioning, service delivery and administration (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013). Additionally, the loss of highly skilled employees may carry increased costs of rehiring and retraining employees (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013). These consequences provide a sound rationale for the study of turnover intention.

Jacobs' (2005) turnover intention model proposes that positive or negative perceptions of organisational culture (predictors) are related to turnover intentions (criterion). Variables such as job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment and knowledge sharing mediate this relationship (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). Research by Igbaria et al. (1994) found that organisational commitment and job satisfaction are the most immediate predictors of intention to stay with the organisation.

According to Kennedy (2006), although there is no single identifiable variable that can be determined as the primary cause of turnover intention, it has been positively correlated with age, years of employment, education, caseload complexity, self-esteem, organisational culture and job satisfaction. Research by Quan and Cha (2010) concluded that past turnover behaviour is a strong predictor of future turnover intentions, and that age, education, work experience, salary, past turnover behaviour and work hours are functional in formulating turnover intentions.

According to Ding and Lin (2006), career satisfaction and job satisfaction have the most significant effects on turnover intentions, with organisational commitment mediating the relationship. Research by Pienaar et al. (2007) indicates that job satisfaction is the most significant predictor of turnover intention and is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention. Tian-Foreman (2009) found strong support for the hypothesised negative relationship between employee turnover intention and job satisfaction. Wheeler et al.'s (2007) research, however, revealed statistical support for the fact that person-organisation misfit and job dissatisfaction do not necessarily lead to turnover intention.

Wilson (2006) highlights both internal factors (work-related, within the control of the organisation) and external factors (non-work related, beyond the control of the organisation), that impact on turnover intention. Internal factors include pay, performance and job satisfaction (Wilson, 2006). External factors include economic conditions, union activity and perceptions of alternate employment opportunities (Wilson, 2006).

Identifying the key factors that may be related to turnover intention could enable organisations and researchers to proactively identify the key determinants of turnover and develop and manage strategies to reduce voluntary turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001; Pienaar et al., 2007). Employee turnover has significant costs and negative consequences for any organisation (Bothma, 2011; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010, 2013: Takawira et al., 2014), which may have disruptive implications, including impaired organisational functioning, service delivery and administration (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013), and increased costs of rehiring and retraining employees (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; 2013). Identifying the key determinants of turnover could help organisations to minimise replacement costs and curtail them from spending time and money on factors that do not really resolve the problem (Cooper, 2010).

Anything that can be done to reduce turnover intention (and by association, turnover) will lead to significant benefits for an organisation (Bigliardi et al., 2005).

Research on turnover intention can be used to manage the turnover process and help develop strategies or interventions aimed at reducing employee turnover and its associated costs (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012). Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011) propose that organisations pursue attraction factors like branding and targeted recruitment and selection, creating an environment that supports work-life balance, offering highly competitive remuneration packages and providing career development and training and development in an attempt to retain staff. Holt et al. (2007) indicate that offering training and development effectively minimises the influence of shocks by capitalising on members' desires for continuous development and improved long-term employability, which in turn creates pre-existing scripts that motivate retention rather than turnover.

Various research studies have found no significant relationship between gender and turnover intention (Joseph et al., 2007; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Cooper, 2010). Race is a poor and inconsistent variable when used as a predictor of turnover intention (Martin & Roodt, 2008). However, Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) found that race moderates the prediction of turnover intention. Research indicates a significant relationship between age of an employee and turnover intention, with turnover intentions decreasing as age increased (Chawla & Sondhi, 2011; Ferres et al., 2003; Martin & Roodt, 2008). Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) found that age moderates the prediction of turnover intention. A significant relationship exists between job tenure and turnover intention (Mkavga & Onyishi, 2012).

3.1.3.4 IT employees

In the IT sector, talent retention is of particular concern because the global labour market provides increased career opportunities for IT professionals (Lumley et al., 2011). The success of most modern organisations depends on their ability to use IT efficiently (Mohlala et al., 2012). IT professionals have specialised skills that are difficult to replace (McKnight et al., 2009) and strong tendencies to leave their organisations (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012).

IT employees are considered strategic resources in most organisations (Mohlala et al., 2012). The rapid pace of technological advancement and change has widened the gap between the

availability of and the demand for IT professionals (Mohlala et al., 2012). As stated above, IT professionals have specialised skills that are hard to replace, which makes turnover costly (McKnight et al., 2009). The increasing demand for skilled IT professionals has forced organisations to start devising retention strategies aimed at retaining IT employees with critical skills and experience (Mohlala et al., 2012). The retention of IT employees is critical to an organisation because they have tacit knowledge about the interface between systems and key business processes (McKnight et al., 2009).

The introduction of the positive psychology paradigm by Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) at the turn of the 20th century changed the focus of psychology to building positive qualities, rather than fixing what is broken or bad. Identifying the key factors that may be related to turnover intention could enable IT organisations and researchers to proactively identify the key determinants of turnover, and develop strategies that build positive qualities and decrease voluntary turnover. Turnover intention research can be used to manage the turnover process and help develop strategies or interventions aimed at reducing IT employee turnover and its associated costs (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012).

3.1.3.5 Theoretical integration: The relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees

Researchers have found that work-life balance is positively related to job satisfaction (Malik et al., 2010; Virick et al., 2007). Literature on the subject of work-life balance assumes that improving an organisation's work-life balance leads not only to greater productivity, but also to greater company loyalty and low level of intent to leave the organisation (Moore, 2007). Noor and Maad (2008) found that work-life conflict has a significant positive relationship with turnover intentions. Work-life balance plays a significant role in alleviating high levels of intention to leave and decreases actual turnover rates (Noor, 2011), while work-life balance initiatives facilitate improved productivity, increased employee loyalty and job satisfaction and decreased employee turnover (Malik et al., 2010). Research by Nierras (2012) found that employees who were more sympathetic towards their organisation's efforts to support work-life balance exhibit a much lower intention to leave the organisation, have pride in their organisation and are willing to recommend the organisation as a place to work with high overall job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is described as one of those experiences of work that make it less likely that an IT employee will think about leaving, even if there are available opportunities (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). IT employees with higher job satisfaction tend to report significantly more positive affect at home (Ilies et al., 2009). Research by Boles et al. (2001) reported lower levels of job satisfaction among employees who were experiencing high levels of work-family conflict. Job satisfaction is crucial as it affects individual well-being and important organisational outcomes, such as turnover intentions and organisational commitment (Rehman & Waheed, 2011). Wilson (2006) highlights both internal factors (work-related, within the control of the organisation, including pay, performance and job satisfaction) and external factors (non-work related, beyond the control of the organisation), that impact on turnover intention. Jones et al. (1996) found empirical evidence that leadership behaviour directly and indirectly influences job satisfaction, which in turn influences turnover intentions and actual turnover, inferring that IT employees' turnover intentions may be influenced by factors both within and outside the control of the organisation.

Job satisfaction can be related to various organisational constructs such as organisational commitment (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998; Yousef, 2002) and employee turnover (Yousef, 2002). Research has found that lower levels of job satisfaction are related to turnover intentions and low organisational commitment (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are considered to be the main determinants of turnover intentions (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004). Ding and Lin (2006) indicate that career satisfaction and job satisfaction have the most significant effects on turnover intentions, with organisational commitment mediating the relationship. Research by Pienaar et al. (2007) indicated that job satisfaction is the most significant predictor of turnover intention and is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention. Tian-Foreman (2009) found strong support for the hypothesised negative relationship between employee turnover intention and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is therefore considered one of the two main determinants of employee turnover in the IT sector, where IT employees who experience job satisfaction will be less likely to leave their organisations than those who experience job dissatisfaction.

Based on the preceding literature review, the following hypotheses will be empirically tested:

H1: There is a significant relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

H2: The demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

H3: The interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) significantly predicts turnover intention amongst IT employees.

H4: IT employees from the various demographic groups differ significantly in their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

3.1.4 Research objectives

The objectives of the study were as follows: (1) to determine the relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees; (2) to determine whether the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees; (3) to assess the interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) in predicting turnover intention amongst IT employees; (4) to assess whether IT employees from the various demographic groups differ significantly regarding their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention; and (5) to formulate recommendations based on the literature and empirical findings of this research for industrial psychology practices and future research with regard to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

3.1.5   The potential value-add of the study

This study should add to the body of research and enhance the understanding of industrial psychologists and IT employers in conceptualising the factors moderating work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The relationships between these variables provide insight that guides retention practices and strategies for employees in the IT sector in South Africa and informs future research into the role that these variables play in retaining employees from different biographical groups. Knowledge of the nature and relationships between these constructs will enable industrial and organisational psychologists to provide valuable information and insight, diagnose and solve problems, plan and assess work-life balance and job satisfaction programmes aimed at enhancing quality of work and quality of life, satisfaction with work and satisfaction with life, and talent retention practices and strategies.

3.2   RESEARCH DESIGN

This section presents and discusses the research design in terms of the research approach and the research method.

3.2.1   Research approach

A quantitative cross-sectional survey-based research design was applied in this study. The study was descriptive in nature, as it endeavoured to describe the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. According to Durrheim (2010), descriptive studies aim to describe phenomena accurately either through narrative-type descriptions, classification or the measurement of relationships. The research investigated the empirical relationships between the variables by means of correlational statistical analysis.

3.2.2   Research method

This section presents and discusses the research method in terms of the research participants, the measuring instruments, the research procedure, the ethical considerations and the statistical analyses.

3.2.2.1 Research participants

The population for this empirical research was all the employees of an IT organisation in South Africa with IT skills and experience (n = ± 440). A stratified random sample of 260 (n = 260) was invited to participate voluntarily. A final sample of 79 respondents (n = 79) completed the surveys, yielding a response rate of 30.38%. This sampling technique draws random samples independently from each stratum of the population, rather than from the population as a whole (Durrheim & Painter, 2010). Stratified sampling establishes a greater degree of representativeness where populations consist of sub-groups or strata, for example, different divisions in an organisation (Durrheim & Painter, 2010).

In terms of gender, the sample as shown in Figure 3.1, was skewed towards males at 53% with a female participation rate of 47 %.
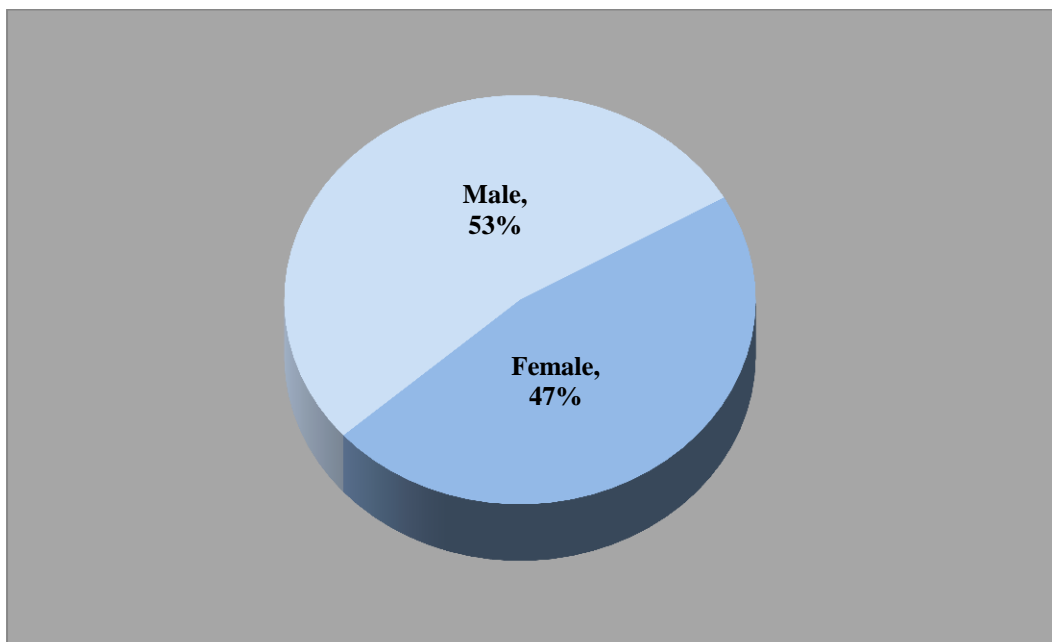
Figure 3.1: Sample distribution by gender (N = 79)

Figure 3.2 presents the age distribution of the participants, with 36 aged between 36 and 45 years (46%), 23 between 26 and 35 years (29%), 12 between 46 and 55 years (15%), six between 18 and 25 years (8%), and only one each aged between 56 and 65 years (1%), and 65 and older (1%).
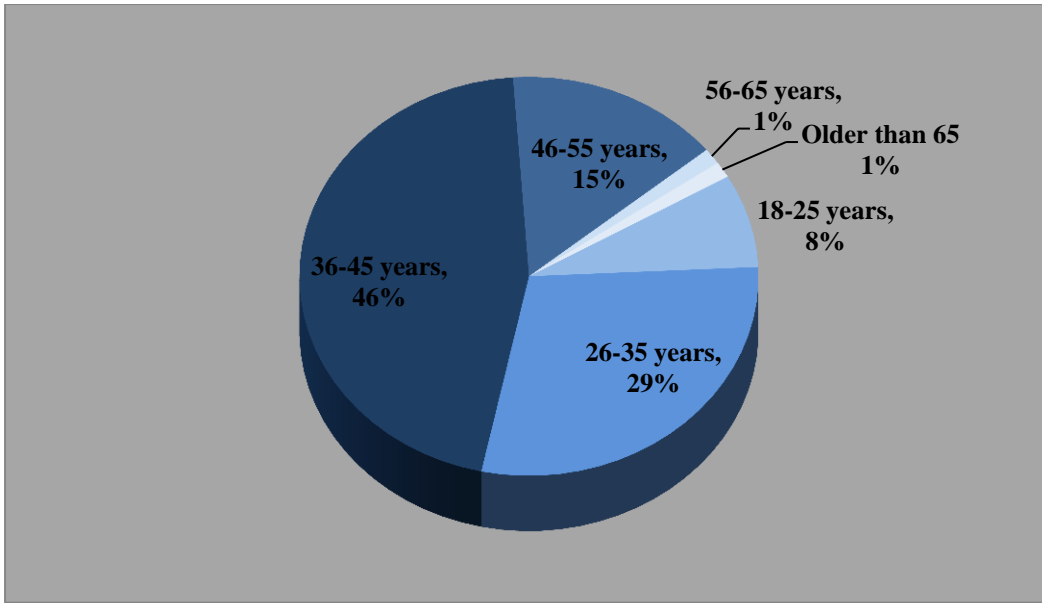
Figure 3.2: Sample distribution by age (N = 79)

In terms of ethnicity groups, whites represented 68% (54), blacks 17 % (13), coloureds 11% (9), Indians 3% (2) and others 1% (1) of the sample, as shown in Figure 3.3.
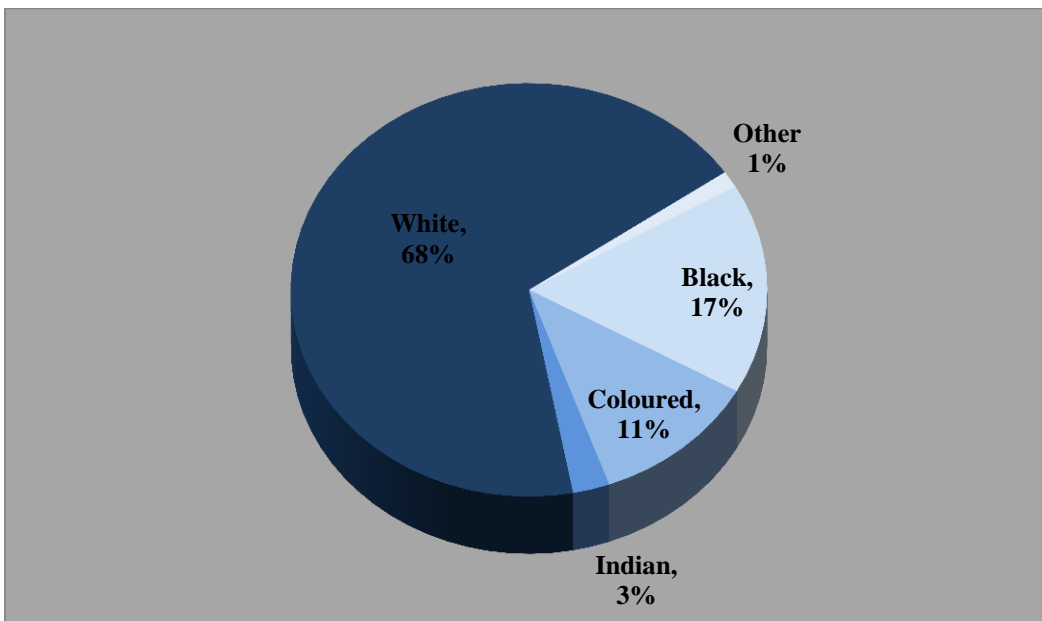
Figure 3.3: Sample distribution by ethnicity (N = 79)

As indicated in Figure 3.4, 62% of participants had more than ten years' experience (49), 20% had six to ten years' experience (16), 15% had between two and five years' experience (12%) and only 3% of participants had less than two years' experience (2).
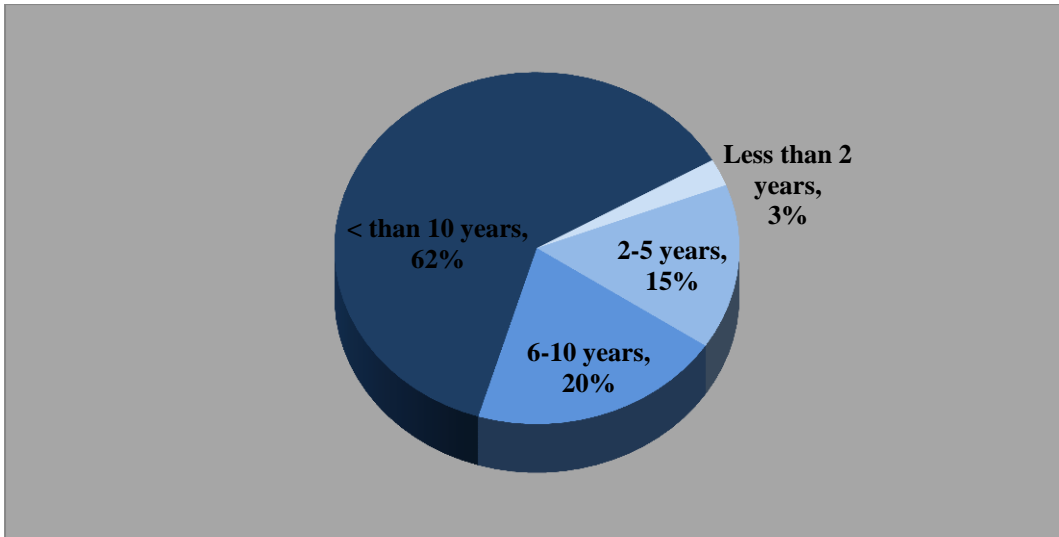
Figure 3.4: Sample distribution by tenure (N = 79)

Figure 3.5 shows that 33% of the participants were at the operations level (26), with 30% at the management level (24), 29% at the technical level (23) and the remaining 8% of participants at the sales level (6).
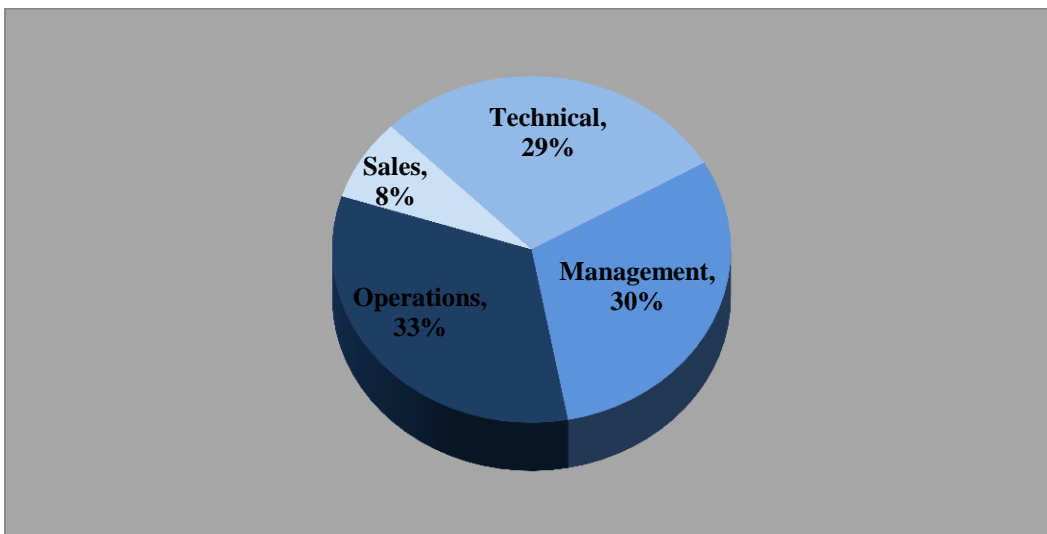
Figure 3.5: Sample distribution by business unit (N = 79)

The biographical data showed that 39% (31) of participants had one dependant, 38% (30) had two dependants, 18% (14) had three dependants, 3% (2) had four dependants, while only 1% of participants had five or more dependants, as shown in Figure 3.6.
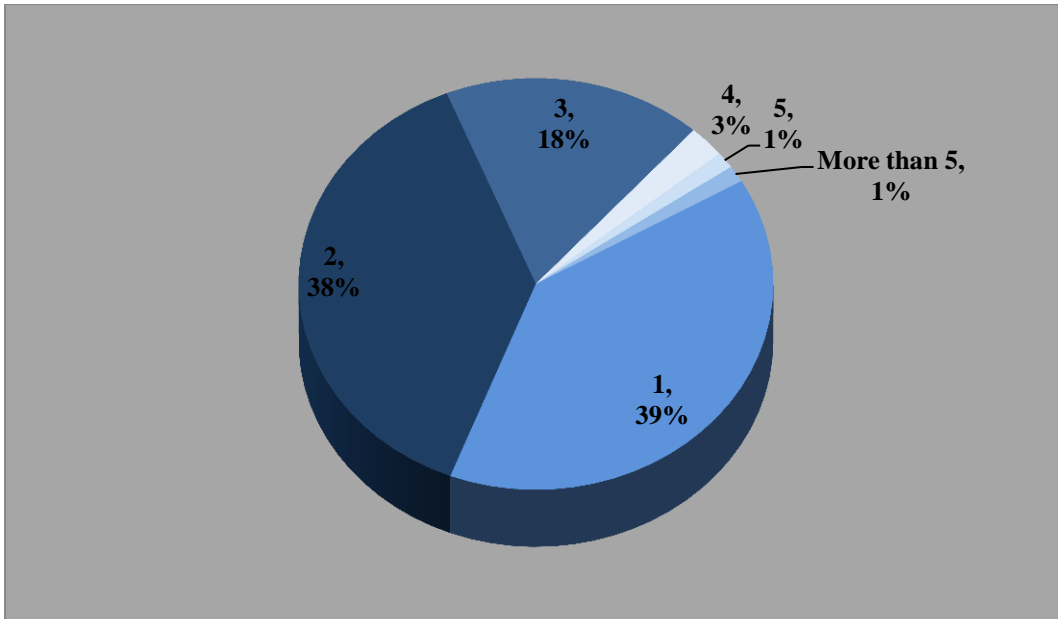
Figure 3.6: Sample distribution by number of dependants (N = 79)

As shown in Figure 3.7, 66% of participants were married (52), 24% unmarried (19) and 10% divorced (8).
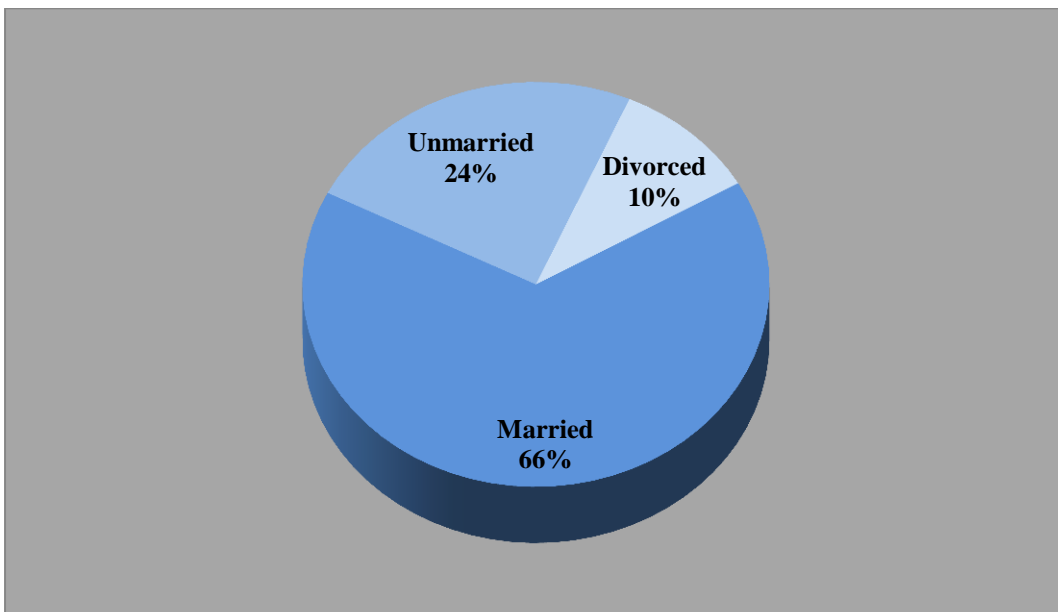
Figure 3.7: Sample distribution by marital status (N = 79)

Finally, as shown in Figure 3.8, 51% of participants had a diploma (40), 40% had a matric certificate (32), 5% had a degree (4) and only 4% a postgraduate degree (3).
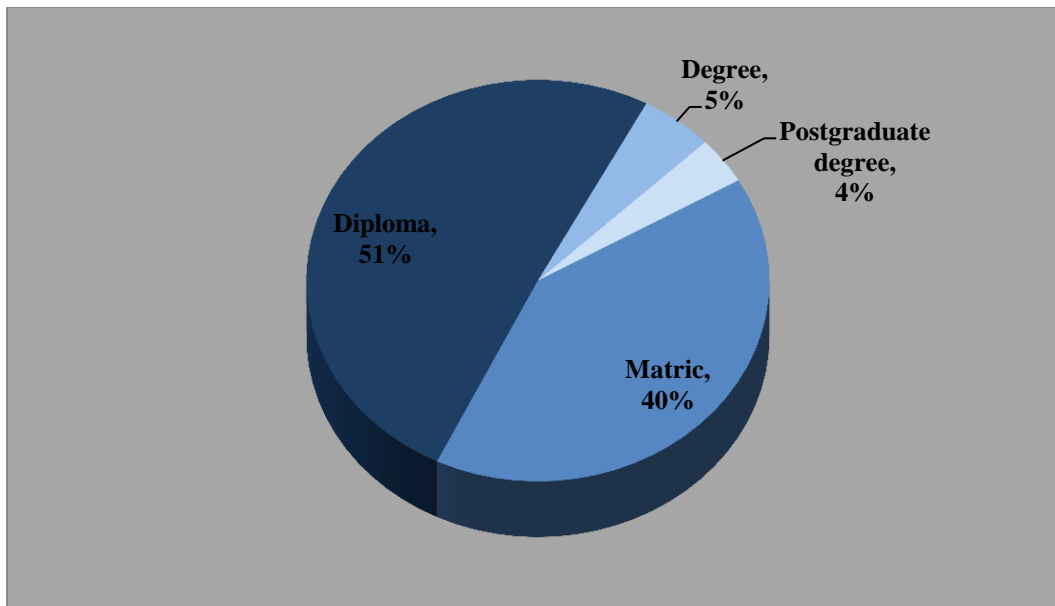
Figure 3.8: Sample distribution by education (N = 79)

In summary, the biographical profile obtained from the sample shows that the main sample characteristics were as follows: The majority of the sample were between the ages of 36 and 45 (46%); whites represented 68% of the sample; 53% were male; 66% of the participants were married; 62% had more than ten years' experience; 33% were on the operations level; and 39% of participants had one dependant.

3.2.2.2 Measuring instruments

a)   Biographical questionnaire

A biographical questionnaire was compiled and used in order to gather information pertaining to the participant's age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit. The questionnaire consisted of a set of multiple-choice options, where the respondents ticked the boxes pertaining to them. The biographical data provided valuable biographical information for the analysis of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst the various biographical groups.

b)   Survey Work-Home Interaction - Nijmegen (SWING)

The SWING instrument was used to measure work-life balance (Geurts et al., 2005). This instrument distinguishes between four types of home-work-interaction, namely negative home-work-interaction (NHWI); positive home-work-interaction (PHWI); negative work-home-interaction (NWHI); and positive work-home-interaction (PWHI) (Geurts et al., 2005; Marais et al., 2009).

The NWHI sub-scale measured eight strain-based items (e.g. "How often does it happen that you are irritable at home because your work is demanding?") and four time-based items (e.g. "How often does it happen that you have to cancel appointments with your spouse/family/friends due to work-related commitment?") (Geurts et al., 2005; Marais et al., 2009). The PWHI sub-scale measured five items (e.g. "How often does it happen that after spending a pleasant weekend with your spouse/family/friends, you have more fun in your job?") (Geurts et al., 2005; Marais et al., 2009).

The NHWI sub-scale measured four items (e.g. "How often does it happen that you have difficulty concentrating on your work because you are preoccupied with domestic matters?") (Geurts et al., 2005; Marais et al., 2009). The PHWI sub-scale measured five items probing the spillover of a positive mood developed at work to the home domain (e.g. "How often does it happen that you manage your time at home more efficiently as a result of things you have learned on your job?") (Geurts et al., 2005; Marais et al., 2009).

The items were answered on a four-response format varying from 0 (never) to 3 (always). The following reliabilities have been found in South Africa, NWHI 0.85 – 0.90; PWHI 0.67 – 0.79; NHWI 0.78 – 0.79; PHWI 0.77 – 0.79 (Marais et al., 2009). In the present study, Cronbach alpha coefficients for the SWING and its sub-dimensions were greater or equal to 0.74, as indicated in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Cronbach alpha coefficients for the SWING and its four sub-dimensions

Scale	N of items	Cronbach alpha	Reliability
SWING	22	0.80	Very high
NWHI	8	0.89	Very high
PWHI	5	0.74	High
NHWI	4	0.85	Very high
PHWI	5	0.74	High

c)   *Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ20)*

The MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967) was used to measure job satisfaction. The MSQ measures both intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2010). This study used the short form of the MSQ, namely the MSQ20. The MSQ20 consists of 20 items and uses a five-point Likert-type response format. Intrinsic job satisfaction items measure feelings about the nature of the job task (e.g. "The freedom to use my own judgement."). Extrinsic job satisfaction items measure feelings about situational job aspects, external to the job (e.g. "My pay, and the amount of work I do."). Reliabilities in the South African context have been reported with alphas ranging from 0.79 to 0.85 (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). For the present study, Cronbach alpha coefficients for the MSQ20 and its sub-dimensions were greater or equal to 0.89, as indicated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Cronbach alpha coefficients for the MSQ20 and its sub-dimensions

Scales	N of items	Cronbach alpha	Reliability
General satisfaction	20	0.94	Very high
Intrinsic satisfaction	12	0.92	Very high
Extrinsic satisfaction	6	0.89	Very high

d)   Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6)

Turnover intentions were measured with a six-item scale (TIS-6) adapted from Roodt's (2004) 15 item TIS (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). Examples of items contained in the TIS-6 include the following: "How often have you considered leaving your job" and "How often do you look forward to another day at work" (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). The response scale was scored on a five-item Likert scale varying between poles of intensity with 1 (never) to 5 (always) (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). A Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of 0.80 has been reported for the TIS-6 (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). For the present study, Cronbach alpha coefficients for the TIS-6 were 0.88, indicating internal reliability.

3.2.2.3 Research procedure and ethical considerations

Before commencing the research, ethical clearance and permission were obtained in writing from the directors of the organisation and the supervisory academic institution, the College of Economic and Management Sciences (CEMS) Research Ethics Review Committee (RERC) Unisa.

All the participants received in electronic format an information leaflet from the researcher informing them of the nature of, reason for, confidentiality, ethical procedures and voluntary nature of the study, together with a letter from the managing director of the organisation informing participants of the benefits and value of the study for the organisation, and encouraging participation. The electronic leaflet provided each participant with a URL link which directed him or her to the survey. The secure electronic survey for each participant, consisted of an informed consent document, a biographical questionnaire as well as the SWING, MSQ20 and TIS-6 instruments, together with comprehensive instructions from the researcher on how to complete the survey. Owing to the possible sensitive nature of the study, participants were requested to complete the survey anonymously. The data was collected over a two-week period. The electronic survey was constructed so as to ensure that only participants who consented to participate in the study were able to proceed to and complete the questionnaires.

To ensure the honesty and integrity of the results, each participant was asked to complete the survey at his or her own leisure. The researcher was available at all times to answer any

questions and address any concerns. The researcher maintained confidentiality, respected participants' privacy and kept the completed questionnaires secure. Feedback will be provided to the organisation and the participants once the results have been compiled and the findings finalised. No harm was done to the participants during the study.

The ethical guidelines and principles stipulated by the HPCSA and the Unisa's Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology formed the ethical basis of the study.

3.2.2.4 Statistical analysis

The data collected from the questionnaires were captured electronically and transformed into a meaningful and useable format to conduct the statistical analysis. The raw data were cleansed to establish whether or not there were any incomplete questionnaires. Only 79 of the 93 responses were complete and suitable for statistical analyses. The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Version 23, 1989; 2015) and the SAS (Statistical Analysis System, Version 9.4, 2002; 2012) programs were used to analyse the data. There were three stages in the statistical procedures, as explained below.

Stage 1: Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics summarised the means, deviations and Cronbach alphas.

Stage 2: Correlational statistics

Correlational statistics were used to determine the direction and strength of the relationships between the constructs. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to indicate the association and strength of the relationship between the variables. Spearman correlation coefficients were calculated to indicate the correlations between the different biographical groups and between the variables. It was decided to set the significance value at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0.05$), in order to counter the probability of a Type I error (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2009). For the purposes of this study, r values larger than 0.30 (medium effect) were regarded as practically significant (Cohen, 1992).

Stage 3: Inferential statistics

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether (1) the demographic variables (work-life balance, age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, dependants, tenure, qualification and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predicted job satisfaction and turnover intention, and (2) whether there was a significant interaction between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) in predicting turnover intention. The value of the adjusted R^2 was used to interpret the results, as a number of independent variables had to be considered, with R^2 values larger than 0.13 (medium effect) regarded as practically significant (Cohen, 1992). The significance value for interpreting the results was set at $Fp \leq 0.05$.

Independent T-tests determined whether there were significant mean differences between the various biographical groups in relation to the respective variables. Levene's test for equality of variances was performed to determine variances between the biographical groups. The significance value for interpreting the results was set at $p \leq 0.05$. Cohen's d was used to assess the practical effect size of significant mean differences as follows:

Small practical effect: $d = 0.20 - 0.49$
Moderate effect: $d = 0.50 - 0.79$
Large effect: $d \geq 0.80$

One-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were conducted to test for normality and determine whether the data was normally or non-normally distributed. The results revealed a normal distribution of the data. Harman's factor analysis was conducted in order to measure common bias variance and determine whether the majority of the variance could be explained by a single factor. Harman's factor analysis measures common bias variance, where the percentage of variance determined by the first factor determines whether common bias variance exists. Factors with a percentage greater than 50% indicate that common bias variance exists, while factors with a percentage lower than 50% indicate that no common bias variance exists. However, if all the items on a scale, as in the case of TIS6, measure one factor, we expect the percentage of the variance explained by the factor to be high. The Harman's factor analysis conducted in the study, reported factors of 24.24% for the SWING

Instrument, 49.04% for the MSQ20 and 62.27 for the TIS6. No evidence of common method bias was thus identified.

3.3   RESULTS

This section reviews the descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics of significant value for each scale applied.

3.3.1   Descriptive statistics

The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the three measuring instruments and their sub scales were used to assess the internal consistency reliability of the measuring instruments and are presented in the Tables 3.1 and 3.2 above. The SWING instrument and each of its sub-scales (NWHI, PHWI, NWHI, & PWHI) had high to very high internal consistency reliability, with scores ranging from 0.74 to 0.89. Internal consistency reliability was extremely high for all three MSQ20 scales (general satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction) with scores of 0.89. Cronbach alpha coefficients for the TIS-6 were 0.88, indicating extremely high internal consistency reliability. The descriptive statistics for the mean and standard deviations for the three constructs, namely work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3

Descriptive statistics: Means and standard deviations (N = 79)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. dev
SWING					
NWHI	79	1	3.88	2.12	0.61
PWHI	79	1	4	2.35	0.65
NHWI	79	1	3	1.58	0.49
PHWI	79	1.2	4	2.6	0.72
Total work-life balance	79	1.5	3.18	2.21	0.37
MSQ20					
Intrinsic satisfaction	79	1.82	5	3.83	0.72
Extrinsic satisfaction	79	1	4.83	3.23	0.95
Total job satisfaction	79	1.5	4.75	3.65	0.72
TIS-6					
Turnover intention	78	1	5	2.86	1.08

3.3.1.1 Descriptive statistics: Work-life balance (SWING)

In terms of means and standard deviations, table 3.3 shows that the total mean average score of the SWING was ($M = 2.21$; $SD = 0.37$), indicating a relatively low level of work-life balance. On the SWING sub-scales, the sample participants obtained the highest mean score on the PHWI sub-scale ($M = 2.60$; $SD = 0.72$), indicating above average levels of positive influence from home to work, while the lowest mean score was for NHWI ($M = 1.58$; $SD = .49$), indicating very low levels of negative influence from home to work.

3.3.1.2 Descriptive statistics: Job satisfaction (MSQ20)

In terms of means and standard deviations, Table 3.3 shows that the total mean average score of the MSQ20 was ($M = 3.65$; $SD = 0.72$), indicating a relatively high level of job satisfaction. The sample participants obtained the highest mean score on the intrinsic satisfaction sub-scale ($M = 3.83$; $SD = 0.72$) and the lowest mean score on the extrinsic satisfaction sub-scale ($M = 3.06$: $SD = 0.53$).

3.3.1.3 Descriptive statistics: Turnover intention (TIS-6)

In terms of means and standard deviations, Table 3.3 shows that the total mean average score of the TIS-6 was (M= 2.86; SD = 1.08), indicating moderate levels of turnover intentions.

3.3.2   Correlational statistics

Pearson product-moment correlations (r) allowed the researcher to identify the direction and strength of the relationship between each of the variables. A cut-off of $p \leq 0.05$ ($r \geq .30$, medium practical effect size) was used for interpreting the significance of the findings (Cohen, 1992).

3.3.2.1 Correlation analysis between work-life balance (SWING), job satisfaction (MSQ20)
      and turnover intentions (TIS-6)

Table 3.4 shows the significant Pearson's product-moment correlations between the constructs and sub-scales. The correlations varied from r = 0.28 (small practical effect size) to r = 0.94 (large practical effect size) at $p \leq 0.05$.

NWHI showed positive large correlations with work-life balance (r = 0.59; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size) and turnover intentions (r = 0.51; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size), as well as positive medium correlations with NHWI (r = 0.30; $p \leq 0.01$; medium practical effect size). In addition, NWHI showed negative medium correlations with job satisfaction (r = -0.40; $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size) and extrinsic satisfaction (r = -0.46; $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size), while intrinsic satisfaction showed a negative small correlation (r = -0.28; $p \leq 0.01$; small practical effect size).

PWHI showed positive large correlations with work-life balance (r = 0.58; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size) and PHWI (r = 0.62; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size). PWHI also showed positive medium correlations with job satisfaction (r = 0.46; $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size), intrinsic satisfaction (r = 0.44; $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size) and extrinsic satisfaction (r = 0.42; $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size). Furthermore, PWHI showed a negative medium correlation with turnover intentions (r = -0.43; $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size).

NHWI showed positive medium correlations with work-life balance ($r = 0.46$; $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size) and NWHI ($r = 0.30$; $p \leq 0.01$; medium practical effect size). PHWI showed positive large correlations with work-life balance ($r = 0.71$; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size) and PWHI ($r = 0.62$; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size).

In addition, intrinsic satisfaction showed positive large correlations with job satisfaction ($r = 0.94$; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size), while extrinsic satisfaction showed positive large correlations with job satisfaction ($r = 0.87$; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size) and intrinsic satisfaction ($r = 0.66$; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size). Turnover intention showed negative large correlations with job satisfaction ($r = -0.77$; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size), intrinsic satisfaction ($r = -0.64$; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size) and extrinsic satisfaction ($r = -0.80$; $p \leq 0.05$; large practical effect size).

3.3.2.2 Correlation analysis between biographical variables, work-life balance (SWING), job satisfaction (MSQ20) and turnover intentions (TIS-6)

Table 3.5 shows the significant Spearman correlation coefficients between the biographical variables, the constructs and their sub-scales. The correlations varied from $r = 0.28$ (small practical effect size) to $r = 0.94$ (large practical effect size) at $p \leq 0.05$.

As reflected in Table 3.5, NWHI showed a small negative correlation with age ($r = -0.25$: $p \leq 0.03$; small practical effect size) indicating that NWHI decreased with age. PWHI showed a positive medium correlation with age ($r = 0.31$: $p \leq 0.01$; medium practical effect size) and a small positive correlation with tenure ($r = 0.24$: $p \leq 0.03$; small practical effect size) indicating that PWHI increased with age and tenure. NHWI showed positive medium correlations with ethnicity ($r = 0.31$: $p \leq 0.01$; medium practical effect size), while PHWI showed small negative correlations with ethnicity ($r = -0.29$: $p \leq 0.01$; small practical effect size).

Job satisfaction showed positive medium correlations with age ($r = 0.40$: $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size) and tenure ($r = 0.41$: $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size), positive small correlations with ethnicity ($r = 0.23$: $p \leq 0.04$; small practical effect size), but negative medium correlations with business unit ($r = -0.30$: $p \leq 0.01$; medium practical effect size) and negative small correlations with marital status ($r = -0.22$: $p \leq 0.05$; small practical effect

size). Intrinsic satisfaction showed positive medium correlations with age ($r = 0.37$: $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size) ethnicity ($r = 0.30$: $p \leq 0.01$; medium practical effect size) and tenure ($r = 0.41$: $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size), as well as a small negative correlation with business unit ($r = -0.25$: $p \leq 0.03$; small practical effect size). Extrinsic satisfaction showed positive medium correlations with age ($r = 0.40$: $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size) and tenure ($r = 0.31$: $p \leq 0.01$; medium practical effect size), as well as a medium negative correlation with business unit ($r = -0.30$: $p \leq 0.01$; medium practical effect size). Turnover intention showed negative medium correlations with age ($r = -0.43$: $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size), indicating that an increase in age would lead to a decrease in turnover intention. Turnover intention also showed a small negative correlation with tenure ($r = -0.29$: $p \leq 0.01$; small practical effect size).

Table 3.4

Pearson product-moment correlations between the constructs and sub-scales

	SWING	NWHI	PWHI	NHWI	PHWI	MSQ	Intrinsic	Extrinsic	TIS
SWING	1.00 79								
NWHI	0.59+++ <.00*** 79	1.00 79							
PWHI	0.58+++ <.00*** 79	-0.21 0.06 79	1.00 79						
NHWI	0.46++ <.00*** 79	0.30++ 0.01** 79	0.13 0.24 79	1.00 79					
PHWI	0.71+++ <.00*** 79	0.03 0.78 79	0.62+++ <.00*** 79	0.00 0.97 79	1.00 79				
MSQ	0.00 0.99 79	-0.39068++ 0.00*** 79	0.48++ <.00*** 79	-0.08 0.46 79	0.15 0.19 79	1.00 79			
Intrinsic	0.09 0.45 79	-0.28274+ 0.01** 79	0.44++ <.00*** 79	-0.03 0.76 79	0.20 0.08 79	0.94+++ <.00*** 79	1.00 79		
Extrinsic	-0.10 0.39 79	-0.45509++ <.00*** 79	0.42++ <.00*** 79	-0.13 0.26 79	0.08 0.46 79	0.87+++ <.00*** 79	0.66+++ <.00*** 79	1.00 79	
TIS	0.10 0.40 78	0.51+++ <.00*** 78	-0.43216++ <.00*** 78	0.06 0.60 78	-0.11 0.35 78	-0.77037+++ <.00*** 78	-0.63700+++ <.00*** 78	-0.80002+++ <.00*** 78	1.00 78

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$ (two-tailed)

+ $r \leq .29$ (small practical effect size); ++ $r \geq .30 \leq .49$ (medium practical effect size); +++ $r \geq .50$ (large practical effect size)

Table 3.5

Spearman correlation coefficients between the biographical variables, the constructs and their sub-scales

	Age	Gender	Ethnicity	Marital status	Dependants	Tenure	Education	Business unit
SWING	0.11	-0.05	-0.12	-0.12	0.14	0.08	-0.02	0.03
	0.35	0.68	0.31	0.29	0.23	0.47	0.87	0.77
NWHI	-0.25	0.11	-0.05	-0.05	-0.02	-0.09	-0.05	0.09
	0.03*	0.34	0.66	0.66	0.88	0.44	0.69	0.46
PWHI	0.31	-0.06	0.04	-0.21	0.21	0.24	-0.08	-0.08
	0.01**	0.62	0.71	0.07	0.06	0.03*	0.51	0.48
NHWI	-0.03	-0.08	0.31	-0.09	0.01	-0.01	-0.17	-0.13
	0.83	0.48	0.01**	0.45	0.90	0.93	0.13	0.25
PHW1	0.18	-0.09	-0.28	0.01	0.07	-0.01	0.04	0.09
	0.12	0.42	0.01**	0.92	0.53	0.96	0.76	0.42
MSQ	0.40	0.10	0.23	-0.22	0.17	0.41	-0.03	-0.30
	0.00***	0.37	0.04*	0.05*	0.15	0.00***	0.77	0.01**
Intrinsic	0.37	0.11	0.30	-0.22	0.17	0.41	-0.05	-0.25
	0.001***	0.35	0.01**	0.05	0.14	0.0002***	0.65	0.03*
Extrinsic	0.40	0.03	0.15	-0.21	0.18	0.31	-0.01	-0.29
	0.00***	0.78	0.18	0.06	0.11	0.005**	0.90	0.01**
TIS	-0.43	-0.18	-0.11	0.16	-0.10	-0.28	0.11	0.11
	<.00***	0.13	0.34	0.15	0.40	0.01**	0.35	0.35

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$ (two-tailed)

+ $r \leq .29$ (small practical effect size); ++ $r \geq .30 \leq .49$ (medium practical effect size); +++ $r \geq .50$ (large practical effect size)

The results of the correlation analysis provided partial supportive evidence for research hypothesis **H1:** There is a significant relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

3.3.3 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics were used to explore the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (turnover intention) that is explained by the independent variables (work-life balance and job satisfaction).

3.3.3.1 Multiple regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis was conducted using the biographical variables, work-life balance variables, job satisfaction variables and turnover intention.

a)   *Regression analysis with job satisfaction as the dependent variable and SWING and demographics as the independent variables*

Table 3.6 below summarises the regression model between the biographical variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, tenure, qualification and business unit) and work-life balance sub-scales (NWHI, PWHI, NHWI, and PHWI) as the independent variables and job satisfaction as the dependent variable.

The regression of the SWING sub-scales and demographics variables on job satisfaction produced a statistically significant model ($F = 2.54$; $p = 0.00$), accounting for 50% ($R^2 = 0.50$; large practical size effect) of the variance in the job satisfaction variable.

Table 3.6

Multiple regression statistics summary: Job satisfaction as dependent variable and SWING and demographics as independent variables

Variable	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	p	F	Adjusted R square	R
	B	Std. error	Beta					
(constant)	3.77	0.55		6.86	0.00***	2.54	0.15++	0.50
Age	0.09	0.22	0.05	0.42	0.67			
Gender	-0.12	0.17	-0.08	-0.68	0.50			
Ethnicity	0.20	0.18	0.13	1.14	0.26			
Marital status	-0.23	0.18	-0.15	-1.31	0.19			
Dependants	-0.04	0.19	-0.02	-0.21	0.84			
Years of experience	0.32	0.19	0.22	1.71	0.09			
Education	-0.21	0.17	-0.14	-1.28	0.21			
Business unit	-0.32	0.18	-0.20	-1.74	0.09			
Work-home balance	0.01	0.21	0.00	0.03	0.98			

*** $p \le .001$; ** $p \le .01$; * $p \le .05$ (two-tailed)

$+R^2 \le .12$ (small practical size effect); $++R^2 \ge .13 \le .25$ (medium practical size effect; $+++ R^2 \ge .26$ (large practical size effect)

b)   *Regression analysis with job satisfaction as the dependent variable and SWING sub-scales and demographics as the independent variables*

Table 3.7 below summarises the regression model between the biographical variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, tenure, qualification and business unit) and work-life balance sub-scales (NWHI, PWHI, NHWI, and PHWI) as the independent variables and job satisfaction as the dependent variable.

The regression of the SWING sub-scales and demographics variables on job satisfaction produced a statistically significant model ($F = 5.61$; $p = 0.00$), accounting for 42% ($R^2 = 0.42$; large practical size effect) of the variance in the job satisfaction variable. Ethnicity ($\beta = 0.41$; $p = 0.02$) and PWHI ($\beta = 0.46$; $p = 0.00$) contributed significantly and positively, while

NWHI (β = -0.26; p = 0.04) contributed significantly and negatively to explaining the variance in job satisfaction.

Table 3.7

Multiple regression statistics summary: Job satisfaction as dependent variable and SWING sub-scales (NWHI, PWHI, NHWI, and PHWI) and demographics as independent variables

Variable	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	p	F	Adjusted R square	R
	B	Std. error	Beta					
(constant)	3.57	0.46	7.76		0.00***	5.61	0.42+++	0.71
Age	0.04	0.19	0.02	0.20	0.85			
Gender	-0.22	0.14	-0.15	-1.54	0.13			
Ethnicity	0.41	0.17	0.27	2.38	0.02*			
Marital status	-0.15	0.15	-0.10	-1.02	0.31			
Dependants	-0.10	0.16	-0.06	-0.63	0.53			
Tenure	0.11	0.16	0.08	0.72	0.48			
Education	-0.12	0.14	-0.08	-0.84	0.40			
Business unit	-0.28	0.15	-0.18	-1.88	0.07			
NWHI	-0.26	0.12	-0.21	-2.11	0.04*			
PWHI	0.46	0.15	0.41	3.12	0.00***			
NHWI	-0.25	0.15	-0.17	-1.60	0.11			
PHWI	0.01	0.13	0.01	0.10	0.92			

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

+$R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical size effect); ++$R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (medium practical size effect; +++ $R^2 \geq .26$ (large practical size effect)

c)   *Regression analysis with turnover intention as the dependent variable and work-life balance and demographics as independent variables*

Table 3.8 below summarises the regression model between work-life balance and the biographical variables (SWING, age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, tenure, qualification and business unit) as the independent variables and turnover intention as the dependent variable. This table has been interpreted and reported at $p < 0.10$.

The regression of the work-life balance and demographics variables on turnover intention produced a statistically significant model ($F = 1.66$; $p = 0.06$), accounting for 7% ($R^2 = 0.07$; small practical size effect) of the variance in the turnover intention variable. Education ($\beta = 0.56$; $p = 0.03$) contributed significantly and positively to explaining the variance in turnover intention.

Table 3.8

Multiple regression statistics summary: Turnover intention as dependent variable and SWING and demographics as independent variables

Variable	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	p	F	Adjusted R square	R
	B	Std. error	Beta					
(constant)	1.67	0.87		1.94	0.06	1.66	0.07+	0.43
Age	-0.44	0.34	-0.16	-1.30	0.20			
Gender	0.42	0.26	0.20	1.61	0.11			
Ethnicity	-0.04	0.28	-0.02	-0.16	0.88			
Marital status	0.32	0.28	0.14	1.14	0.26			
Dependants	0.04	0.13	0.03	0.27	0.79			
Tenure	-0.34	0.29	-0.15	-1.16	0.25			
Education	0.56	0.26	0.26	2.16	0.03*			
Business unit	0.09	0.29	0.04	0.32	0.75			
SWING	0.32	0.33	0.11	0.97	0.34			

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

+$R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical size effect); ++$R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (medium practical size effect; +++ $R^2 \geq .26$ (large practical size effect)

d)   *Regression analysis with turnover intention as dependent variable and SWING subscales and demographics as independent variables*

Table 3.9 below summarises the regression model between the biographical variables and work-life balance sub-scales (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, tenure, qualification and business unit, NWHI, PWHI, NHWI, and PHWI) as the independent variables and turnover intention as the dependent variable.

The regression of the SWING sub-scales and demographic variables on turnover intention produced a statistically significant model ($F = 5.34$; $p = 0.01$), accounting for 40% ($R^2 = 0.40$; large practical size effect) of the variance in the turnover intention variable. Gender ($\beta = 0.57$; $p = 0.01$), NWHI ($\beta = 0.76$; $p = 0.00$) contributed significantly and positively, while PWHI ($\beta =- 0.59$; $p = 0.01$) contributed significantly and negatively to explaining the variance in turnover intention.

Table 3.9

Multiple regression statistics summary: Turnover intention as dependent variable and SWING subscales (NWHI, PWHI, NHWI, and PHWI) and demographics as independent variables

Variable	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	*t*	*p*	*F*	Adjusted R square	*R*
	B	Std. error	Beta					
(constant)	2.00	0.69		2.90	0.01**	5.34	0.4+++	0.70
Age	-0.42	0.29	-0.15	-1.43	0.16			
Gender	0.57	0.21	0.26	2.64	0.01**			
Ethnicity	-0.18	0.26	-0.08	-0.67	0.50			
Marital status	0.20	0.23	0.09	0.91	0.37			
Dependants	0.01	0.24	0.01	0.06	0.96			
Tenure	-0.01	0.24	-0.01	-0.05	0.96			
Education	0.37	0.21	0.17	1.75	0.08			
Business unit	0.02	0.23	0.01	0.10	0.92			
NWHI	0.76	0.18	0.43	4.12	0.00***			
PWHI	-0.59	0.23	-0.36	-2.61	0.01**			
NHWI	0.00	0.23	0.00	-0.01	0.99			
PHWI	0.08	0.21	0.05	0.36	0.72			

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

$+R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical size effect); $++R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (medium practical size effect; $+++ R^2 \geq .26$ (large practical size effect)

The results of the multiple regression analysis provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis **H2:** The demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

e)   *Moderated regression analysis with turnover intention as dependent variable and work-life balance as moderating variable and job satisfaction as independent variable*

Table 3.10 summarises the moderated regression analysis between work-life balance (SWING) as the moderating variable and job satisfaction (MSQ20) as the independent variable and turnover intention (TIS-6) as the dependent variable.

The regression of the work-life balance and job satisfaction variables on turnover intention produced a statistically significant model ($F = 37.63$; $p = 0.00$), accounting for 59% ($R^2 = 0.59$; large practical size effect) of the variance in the turnover intention variable. Job satisfaction ($\beta = -1.17$; $p = 0.00$) contributed significantly and positively to explaining the variance in turnover intention. There was no significant interaction between work-life balance and job satisfaction in predicting turnover intention. Job satisfaction acted as a significant predictor of turnover intention, while work-life balance did not moderate the job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship. Work-life balance did not have a significant main effect on turnover intention.

Table 3.10

Summary of the moderated regression analysis results with work-life balance as the moderating variable, job satisfaction as independent variable and turnover intention as dependent variable

Variable	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	p	F	Adjusted R square	R
	B	Std. error	Beta					
(constant)	2.85	0.08		36.28	0.00***	37.63	0.59+++	0.78
MSQ	-1.17	0.11	-0.78	-10.46	0.00***			
SWING	0.28	0.21	0.10	1.32	0.19			
MSQ*SWING	0.17	0.28	0.05	0.63	0.53			

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

$+R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical size effect); $++R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (medium practical size effect; $+++ R^2 \geq .26$ (large practical size effect)

The results of the moderated regression analysis provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis **H3**: The interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) significantly predicts turnover intention amongst IT employees.

3.3.3.2 Test for significant mean differences

For the purposes of statistical analyses, the biographical groups were clustered as illustrated in Table 3.11 below. No significant mean differences were found between the biographical groups for age, gender, number of dependants, education and tenure regarding SWING, MSQ20 and TIS-6. Table 3.12 presents the significant mean differences found between the various biographical groups in relation to the constructs.

Table 3.11

Clustering of biographical groups

Biographical Variable	Group A	Group B
Gender:	Female	Male
Age:	18 -45	46 – 65 and older
Ethnicity:	White	Black people
Dependants:	0 – 2	3 – more than 5
Marital status:	Married	Other (Unmarried and Divorced)
Education:	Matric	Tertiary Education (Diploma, Degree & Postgraduate degree)
Tenure:	less than 10 years	more than 10 years
Business unit:	Management	Staff (Operations, Sales & Technical)

a)   Significant mean differences: Ethnicity

Significant differences were found in the SWING and MSQ20 between IT employees of different ethnicity. For statistical purposes, the sample participants were clustered into two groups, namely white and black employees. The black group comprised black, coloured, Indian and other employees. White employees reported lower mean scores ($M = 2.41$) than black employees ($M = 2.99$) in terms of PHWI ($p \leq 0.001$; $d = 0.52$; moderate practical effect). Black IT employees reported lower mean scores ($M = 1.37$) than whites ($M=1.68$) in terms of NHWI ($p \leq 0.01$; $d = 0.69$; moderate practical effect). White employees reported higher mean scores for job satisfaction ($M = 3.77$; $p \leq 0.05$; $d = 052$; moderate practical effect) and intrinsic satisfaction ($M = 3.96$; $p \leq 0.05$; $d = 053$; moderate practical effect) when compared to black employees' mean scores for job satisfaction ($M = 3.38$) and intrinsic satisfaction ($M = 3.56$).

b)   Significant mean differences: Marital status

Significant differences were evident in the MSQ20 and its sub-scales regarding IT employees' marital status. For statistical purposes, the sample participants were clustered into two groups, namely married and other. The "other" group comprised unmarried and divorced IT employees. Married employees reported higher mean scores in respect of job satisfaction ($M = 3.80$) than the other group ($M = 3.36$; $p \leq 0.01$; $d = 0.61$; moderate practical effect). The

mean scores for married employees' extrinsic satisfaction ($M = 3.46$) were higher than those of other employees ($M = 2.91$; $p \leq 0.01$; $d = 0.57$; moderate practical effect). In terms of intrinsic satisfaction, the mean score of other employees ($M = 3.57$) was lower than that of married employees ($M = 3.97$; $p \leq 0.05$; $d = 0.56$; moderate practical effect).

c)   *Significant mean differences: Business unit*

Significant mean differences were established in the MSQ20 and its sub-scales regarding the business unit that IT employees reported to. For statistical purposes, the sample participants were clustered into two groups, namely management and staff. The staff comprised employees from the operations, sales and technical divisions. The management group reported higher mean scores in terms of job satisfaction ($M = 4.03$; $p \leq 0.001$; $d = 0.85$; large practical effect), extrinsic satisfaction ($M = 3.73$; $p \leq 0.001$; $d \geq 0.80$; large practical effect) and intrinsic satisfaction ($M = 4.16$; $p \leq 0.01$; $d = 0.69$; moderate practical effect) than the staff's mean scores for job satisfaction ($M = 3.48$), extrinsic satisfaction ($M = 3.07$) and intrinsic satisfaction ($M = 3.69$).

d)   *Significant mean differences: Tenure*

Significant differences were evident in the MSQ20 and the TIS-6 regarding IT employees' tenure (number of years in their current jobs). For statistical purposes, the sample participants were clustered into two groups, namely employees who had been employed in their roles for more than ten years and those who had been employed in their roles for less than ten years. Employees who had been employed in their roles for more than ten years reported higher mean scores for job satisfaction ($M = 3.85$) than other employees who had been employed for less than ten years ($M = 3.32$; $p \leq 0.001$; $d = 0.78$; moderate practical effect). Similarly, employees who had been employed in their roles for more than ten years reported higher mean scores for extrinsic satisfaction ($M = 3.47$; $p \leq 0.01$; $d = 0.59$; moderate practical effect) and intrinsic satisfaction ($M = 4.04$; $p \leq 0.001$; $d = 0.82$; large practical effect) in comparison with employees who had been employed for less than ten years' mean scores for extrinsic satisfaction ($M = 2.93$) and intrinsic satisfaction ($M = 3.48$) However, employees who had been employed in their roles for less than ten years reported higher mean scores for turnover intention ($M = 3.18$) than employees who had been employed in their roles for more than ten years ($M = 2.66$; $p \leq 0.05$; $d = 0.50$; moderate practical effect).

Table 3.12

Significant mean differences

Variable	Biographical group		N	Mean	SD	Levene's test for equality of variance		T-test for equality of means			Cohen d
						F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
Job satisfaction	Business unit	Management	24	4.03	0.53	3.19	0.08	3.24	77	0.00***	0.85
		Staff (operations, sales, technical)	55	3.48	0.74						
Intrinsic	Business unit	Management	24	4.16	0.64	0.56	0.46	2.74	77	0.01**	0.69
		Staff (operations, sales, technical)	55	3.69	0.72						
Extrinsic	Business unit	Management	24	3.73	0.56	11.42	0.001***	3.01	77	0.00***	0.80
		Staff (operations, sales, technical)	55	3.07	1.01					0.00***	
Job satisfaction	Marital status	Married	52	3.80	0.64	1.01	0.32	2.65	77	0.01**	0.61
		Other (unmarried, divorced)	27	3.36	0.79						
Intrinsic	Marital status	Married	52	3.97	0.67	0.97	0.33	2.42	77	0.02*	0.56
		Other (unmarried, divorced)	27	3.57	0.76						
Extrinsic	Marital status	Married	52	3.46	0.85	2.61	0.11	2.52	77	0.01**	0.57
		Other (unmarried, divorced)	27	2.91	1.03						

Variable	Biographical group		N	Mean	SD	Levene's test for equality of variance		T-test for equality of means			Cohen d
						F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
NHWI	Ethnicity	White	54	1.68	0.49	1.87	0.18	-2.70	77	0.01**	0.69
		Black people (black, coloured, Indian, other)	25	1.37	0.40						
PHWI	Ethnicity	White	54	2.41	0.68	0.06	0.81	3.55	77	.001***	0.86
		Black people (black, coloured, Indian, other)	25	2.99	0.67						
Job satisfaction	Ethnicity	White	54	3.77	0.62	3.97	0.05*	-2.29	77	0.03*	0.52
		Black people (black, coloured, Indian, other)	25	3.38	0.86					0.049*	
Intrinsic	Ethnicity	White	54	3.96	0.61	6.81	0.01**	-2.33	77	0.02*	0.53
		Black people (black, coloured, Indian, other)	25	3.56	0.88					0.049*	
Job satisfaction	Tenure	< 10 years	30	3.32	0.68	0.01	0.92	-3.38	77	0.001***	0.78
		> 10 years	49	3.85	0.68						
Intrinsic	Tenure	< 10 years	30	3.48	0.70	1.23	0.27	-3.56	77	0.001***	0.82
		> 10 years	49	4.04	0.66						
Extrinsic	Tenure	< 10 years	30	2.93	0.94	0.12	0.73	-2.55	77	0.01**	0.59
		> 10 years	49	3.47	0.90						
Turnover intention	Tenure	< 10 years	30	3.18	0.95	2.35	0.13	2.15	76	0.04*	0.50
		> 10 years	48	2.66	1.11						

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

The results of the tests for significant mean differences provided partial supportive evidence for research hypothesis **H4**: IT employees from the various demographic groups differ significantly in their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

3.3.4 Decisions regarding the research hypotheses

Based on the above results and using the p ≤ .05 (5% level) as a criterion for accepting or rejecting the null hypotheses, the decisions regarding the research hypotheses are indicated in Table 3.13 below.

Table 3.13

Summary of decisions regarding the research proposition and research hypotheses

	Proposition	**Supportive Evidence**
	There is a statistically significant relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.	Partial evidence provided
	Hypothesis	
H1	There is a significant relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.	Partial evidence provided
H2	The demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.	Yes
H3	The interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) significantly predicts turnover intention amongst IT employees.	Yes
H4	IT employees from the various demographic groups differ significantly in their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.	Partial evidence provided

3.4 DISCUSSION

In the introduction, it was pointed out that the skills and knowledge of employees are often the main enablers for organisations to leverage competitive advantage in the knowledge economy (Botha et al., 2011). This, together with increased competition for those employees with scarce and desirable skills, knowledge and experience (Botha et al., 2011), makes the resourcing, management and retention of knowledge workers a strategic issue for an organisation's survival, adaptation and competitive advantage (Martins & Coetzee, 2007).

The objectives of the research were therefore to (1) determine the relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, marital status, qualification, racial group and tenure), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees; (2) determine whether the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees; (3) assess the interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) in predicting turnover intention amongst IT employees; (4) assess whether IT employees from the various demographic groups differ significantly regarding their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention; and (5) formulate recommendations based on the literature and empirical findings of this research for industrial psychology practices and future research with regard to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

3.4.1 Biographical profile of the sample

The sample participants mainly comprised IT employees between the ages of 26 and 45 years. The majority of participants were male (53%). White participants represented the largest ethnic group (68%). The majority of participants were married (66%), and all participants had dependants (100%). The majority of participants had either one or two dependants (77%). The majority had a diploma level education (51%), which is indicative of the IT sector's reliance on technical skills. The majority of the sample participants indicated tenure of more than ten years. The sample was fairly evenly split between the business units of operations (33%), management (30%) and technical (39%).

Overall, the sample showed below average levels of work-life balance, indicating that IT employees generally have difficulty balancing the demands of work and life. In respect of the sub-dimensions, the sample tended towards low levels of work-life balance. Despite this, the participants reported the highest levels of work-life balance on the PHWI dimension, followed by the PWHI dimension and the NWHI. The NHWI was the lowest of the sub-dimension indicating an extremely high negative influence of the home on work.

In terms of job satisfaction, the sample showed high levels of job satisfaction, indicating that IT employees are generally satisfied with their jobs. Both intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction was high amongst the sample, indicating that the various needs of IT employees are being fulfilled. Intrinsic satisfaction is derived from performing work and consequently experiencing the feelings of accomplishment, self-actualisation and identity with the work (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Extrinsic satisfaction results from satisfaction with the work environment (Weiss et al., 1967) and is derived from the rewards the individual receives from peers, managers or the organisation, which can take the form of advancement compensation or recognition (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

The sample of IT employees recorded moderate levels of turnover intention. Turnover intention is "the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262) and is considered to be an immediate precursor to actual turnover (Fox & Fallon 2003; Jacobs & Roodt, 2008; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004), which has significant costs and negative consequences for any organisation (Bothma, 2011; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; 2013; Takawira et al., 2014).

3.4.2 Research aim 1: The relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees

This study explored the relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees. Overall, the study succeeded in establishing a statistical relationship between the variables of job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst the IT employees who participated in the study. The results of the study suggest that the higher the level of IT employees' job satisfaction, the lower their level of turnover intention, and vice

versa. This supports research (Pienaar et al., 2007; Tian-Foreman, 2009) indicating a negatively correlated relationship between employee turnover intention and job satisfaction. In addition, the study found significant relationships between the extrinsic and intrinsic sub-dimensions of job satisfaction and turnover intention.

The study did not provide evidence to support the theorised relationships between work-life balance and job-satisfaction and between work-life balance and turnover intention. This is in contradiction with findings by Virick et al. (2007), who found that work-life balance is positively related to job satisfaction. However, the study did find evidence to suggest the existence of significant statistical relationships between the various sub-dimensions of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. NWHI had a negative relationship with job satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction, but a positive relationship with turnover intention. PWHI has a positive relationship with job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction, but a negative relationship with turnover intention.

In terms of the relationships between the demographic variables and work-life balance, the study provided supportive evidence of a small negative relationship between NWHI and a participant's age, indicating that NWHI decreases with age. The study further suggested a positive linear relationship between age and PWHI, indicating that the positive influence of work on home increases with age. The present study further found supportive evidence of a positive linear relationship between tenure and PWHI, indicating that the positive influence of home to work increased according to a participant's tenure. In terms of ethnicity, the study suggested a positive relationship between ethnicity and NHWI and a negative relationship with PHWI.

Correlational statistics provided evidence to support the existence of a positive linear relationship between age and job satisfaction, indicating that job satisfaction increases with age. This supports findings by Martin and Roodt (2008) and Spector (1997; 2008) that job satisfaction increases with age, but contradicts findings by Buitendach and Rothmann (2009) that a U-shaped relationship exists between age and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the findings of the study suggest that job satisfaction is positively related to tenure and ethnicity, but negatively related to a participant's business unit and marital status. The findings in relation to tenure support Martin and Roodt's (2008) findings that, overall, job satisfaction increases as the years of experience increase (Martin & Roodt, 2008). IT employees' intrinsic

and extrinsic satisfaction are positively related to age and tenure, but negatively related to their business unit. In addition, a positive relationship exists between intrinsic satisfaction and their ethnicity.

The findings of the study provided evidence to suggest the existence of a negative linear relationship between age and turnover intention, suggesting that participants' turnover intentions decrease as their age increases. This supports the findings of Chawla and Sondhi (2011), Du Plooy & Roodt (2013), Ferres et al. (2003) and Martin and Roodt (2008). The study found a negative linear relationship between age and NWHI, suggesting that the negative influence of work on home decreases with age. Similarly, the results of the study provided evidence of a negative relationship between tenure and turnover intention, indicating that as participants' tenure increases, their turnover intention decreases.

3.4.3 Research aim 2: Demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance as predictors of job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees

This study explored whether the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees. Overall, the findings suggest that work-life balance and the demographic variables contributed significantly to explaining variances in the job satisfaction and turnover intentions of participating IT employees.

The results indicated that employees, who experienced high work-life balance, and particularly high PWHI, had significantly higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intention. The findings provided evidence to suggest that the high levels of positive work-home interaction amongst the IT employees who participated in the study, contributed significantly to their high levels of job satisfaction and explain their low levels of turnover intention. Similarly, Fox and Fallon (2003) found that successful work-life balance resulted in increased levels of job satisfaction and decreased turnover intentions, concluding that employers could reduce levels of employee turnover by enabling their employees to be better satisfied with their jobs through more successful work-life balance. Conversely, participants

who experienced high NWHI experienced significantly lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intention. The findings provided supportive evidence to suggest that the high levels of negative work-home interaction, amongst IT employees who participated in the study, contributed significantly to their lower levels of job satisfaction and explained their higher turnover intentions.

According to Downes and Koekemoer (2011), organisations that invest heavily in work-life balance report lower employee turnover. Organisations that do not create conditions for minimal levels of job satisfaction, may suffer increased employee turnover (McKenna, 2000). Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011) recommend that organisations create an environment conducive to maintaining work-life balance in an attempt to retain staff.

Furthermore, the study found evidence to suggest that the ethnicity, education and gender contributed significantly to explaining the variance in the job satisfaction and turnover intentions of IT employees who participated in the study. Ethnicity significantly explains and predicts the variance in the job satisfaction of IT employees who participated in the study. Education and gender contributed positively to explaining the variance in the turnover intentions of participating IT employees.

3.4.4 Research aim 3: The interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) in predicting turnover intention amongst IT employees

This study investigated the interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) in predicting turnover intention amongst IT employees. The findings of the study provided supportive evidence to confirm that there is a statistically significant model for explaining the variances in the turnover intention variable.

There was no significant interaction between work-life balance and job satisfaction in predicting turnover intention. Job satisfaction acted as a significant predictor of turnover intention, indicating that participating IT employees who are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to have intentions to leave their organisations. According to Pienaar et al. (2007), job satisfaction is the most significant predictor of turnover intention. The evidence suggests that

work-life balance does not moderate the job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship and does not have a significant main effect on turnover intention.

3.4.5 Research aim 4: Significant differences between IT employees from the various demographic groups in terms of their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention

This study explored whether IT employees from the various demographic groups differ significantly regarding their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The demographic variables included age, gender, ethnicity, number of dependants, marital status, qualifications, tenure and business unit. The overall results indicated a number of significant differences between IT employees from the various biographical groups, who participated in the study, with regard to their levels of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

3.4.5.1 Age

No significant differences were found between the different age groups in relation to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. This was an unexpected result, given prior research findings that an employee's age has an influence on his or her attitude to work (Lorence & Mortimer, 1985), that a positive linear relationship between employee age and job satisfaction, which shows that employees become more satisfied with their jobs as their chronological age progresses (Martin & Roodt, 2008), and that a significant relationship exists between the age of an employee and turnover intention, with turnover intentions decreasing as age increased (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Chawla and Sondhi's (2011) research findings indicated that older employees have lower turnover intentions than their younger counterparts, while Ferres et al. (2003) found that younger employees demonstrate stronger turnover intentions than older age group employees.

3.4.5.2 Gender

No significant differences were evident between the different gender groups in relation to their levels of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. This result was consistent with the job satisfaction and turnover intention literature, but was surprising, given

that research on work-life balance issues predominantly focused on gender and that a meta-analysis by Davis et al. (1999) found that women reported significantly higher levels of stress in the workplace than men.

3.4.5.3 Ethnicity

Significant mean differences were evident between the ethnic groups in respect of their levels of work-life balance and job satisfaction. No significant differences were found between the different gender groups in relation to turnover intention. White IT employees who participated in the study reported higher levels of NHWI, job satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction, while the other ethnic groups reported higher levels of PHWI than their white counterparts. These findings on the role of gender groups on job satisfaction support previous studies that found that white participants reported higher levels of job satisfaction than black participants (Davis, 1985; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1973; Tuch & Martin, 1991).

3.4.5.4 Marital status

No significant differences were found between the different marital status groups in relation to their levels of work-life balance and turnover intention. However, significant differences were evident among married IT employees, who participated in the study, in relation to job satisfaction.

3.4.5.5 Number of dependants

No significant differences were found between the different groups in relation to their number of dependants and levels of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

3.4.5.6 Qualifications

No significant differences were evident between the different groups in relation to their level of education and their levels of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The turnover intention literature highlights that no significant relationship exists between turnover intention and levels of education (Cooper, 2010) and that education levels do not moderate the prediction of turnover intentions (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2013). The study's finding that no

significant differences were evident between the different groups, lends support to this previous research. Without a significant difference between the different groups in relation to their level of education and their levels of turnover intention, a moderating or predicting relationship cannot be established.

3.4.5.7 Tenure

Significant mean differences were found between the tenure groups in respect of their levels of job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Participating IT employees with more than ten years' tenure reported high levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of turnover intention. However, employees with less than ten years' tenure showed higher turnover intentions and were likely to leave the organisation. According to Bretz and Judge (1994), job tenure is the most basic indicator of person-environment fit. An employee will remain in an environment that he or she prefers (satisfaction), while the environment too finds the person acceptable (satisfactoriness). Employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment (Weiss et al., 1967).

3.4.5.8 Business unit

A significant difference was evident between the business unit groups in respect of their levels of job satisfaction, with the management group reporting the highest levels of job satisfaction. No significant differences were reported for work-life balance and turnover intention.

3.4.6 Conclusions: Implications for practice

Overall, it can be concluded that industrial psychologists and human resources practitioners should consider the ways in which work-life balance and job satisfaction affect the turnover intentions of IT employees, as part of their talent retention strategies. The study provided evidence to suggest that there is a significant and negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The results suggest that job satisfaction is positively related to positive work-home interaction and negatively related to negative work-home interaction. This implies that these variables (PWHI and NWHI) could both positively or

negatively influence job satisfaction which has a negative relationship with turnover intention.

Furthermore, the study provided supportive evidence suggesting that PWHI and NWHI predict the job satisfaction and turnover intentions of IT employees who participated in this study. In addition, ethnicity significantly explains and predicts the variance in the job satisfaction of sample participants (IT employees), while education and gender explain the variance in the turnover intentions of IT employees who participated in this study. The study provided supportive evidence to suggest that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of turnover intention, indicating that IT employees who participated in this study and who are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to have intentions to leave their organisations. However, the results suggest that work-life balance does not have a significant main effect on turnover intention and does not moderate the job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship.

Despite being generally satisfied with their jobs, IT employees who participated in the study have difficulty balancing the demands of work and home life. Industrial psychologists and human resources practitioners should consider work-life balance initiatives aimed at improving the work-home interaction and job satisfaction of IT employees, thus reducing their turnover intentions.

In addition, the findings indicated that IT employees from different biographical groups (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, tenure, qualifications and business unit) who participated in the study differ significantly with regard to their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. There was evidence of the existence of linear relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction, turnover intention and the different biographical variables. On the whole, white, married participants with tenure of over ten years, as well as those from the management group, tended to be more satisfied with their jobs than their colleagues. Participants who had been employed in their roles for shorter periods were more likely to have intentions to leave the organisation.

The findings of the study should add to the body of literature pertaining to the core variables and contribute valuable information and knowledge on the relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention, as well as the influence that various biographical variables have on these constructs in the context of the South African IT sector.

The conclusions and practical recommendations for talent retention of IT employees will be discussed in greater detail in chapter 4.

3.4.7 Limitations of the study

Chapter 4 will provide a comprehensive overview of all the limitations identified. Only the core limitations will be presented in this section. Considering the sample size (n = 79), the results may not truly reflect the demographics of South African IT organisations, and researchers should beware of generalising the findings as being representative of all IT employees. Future research with larger populations is recommended in order to generalise the findings of this study. Since the current study was restricted to participants employed in the IT sector, the findings cannot be generalised to other occupational contexts.

Furthermore, despite the use of a stratified sampling technique, the sample was not entirely representative of the demographics of the organisation, as well as that of the South African population, owing to the high response rate of white respondents compared to that of black and Indian respondents. This limits the ability to draw inferences from this study to the greater South African population as well as the IT sector.

Despite these limitations, the results of this empirical study indicated a linear relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. In addition, the study indicated relationships between various sub-dimensions of work-life balance and job satisfaction amongst IT employees that could be explored in future research. This study could be used as a basis for future research seeking to understand these relationships in order to inform the talent retention strategies in the IT sector.

3.4.8 Recommendations for future research

Chapter 4 provides a comprehensive overview of all recommendations. Only the core recommendations will be presented in this section. Owing to the fairly small sample size, it is recommended that future researchers replicate this study with the focus on obtaining a larger representative sample. This would serve to improve external validity and ensure that the findings can be applied to the greater IT sector and South African population as a whole. Future research on this topic could even be expanded to other industries and sectors.

The empirical findings of this study confirm the existence of a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, as well as between the sub-dimensions of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. In addition, the study confirms the existence of significant differences between the various biographical groups regarding work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. It is recommended that future research be conducted to examine the impact of talent retention strategies and practices on the work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions of IT employees over a period of time using a longitudinal study.

3.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the literature underpinning this study was discussed with the emphasis on the core aspects of the variables, work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The results were explained, conclusions were drawn, the limitations were highlighted and recommendations were made for areas of possible future research. Chapter 4 provides a more comprehensive discussion of the conclusions drawn and the limitations of the study. Recommendations will be made for the practical application of the findings.

CHAPTER 4
CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the conclusions drawn from this research study. In addition, the limitations of both the literature review and the empirical results of the study are highlighted. The chapter further formulates recommendations for the practical application of the findings and also for future research studies.

4.1   CONCLUSIONS

The following section discusses the conclusions that were drawn on the basis of the literature review and the empirical findings of this study.

4.1.1   Conclusions arising from the literature review

The general aim of this research was to explore the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees. To achieve this general aim, the literature review conceptualised and realised the following four specific aims: (1) to conceptualise work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees from a theoretical perspective; (2) to conceptualise the theoretical relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees; (3) to determine theoretically the role of the biographical variables (of age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) in respect of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention; and (4) to determine the implications for industrial psychology practices and future research.

4.1.1.1 Specific aim 1: Conceptualise work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees from a theoretical perspective

A literature review was conducted in chapter 2 in order to study the conceptual foundations of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The literature review indicated that the variables, work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention, are core issues in the organisational field and are central to human resource development.

For the purpose of this study, work-life balance was viewed as the extent to which an individual is engaged in and equally satisfied with his or her work role and family role consisting of three components of work-family balance, namely time balance (equal time devoted to work and family), involvement balance (equal involvement in work and family) and satisfaction balance (equal satisfaction with work and family) (Greenhaus et al., 2003). The work-home interaction perspective of Geurts et al. (2005) based on the effort-recovery (E-R) theory of Meijman and Mulder (1998) was used for this study. Geurts et al. (2004) characterise work-home interaction as a four-dimensional construct that distinguishes between the quality of influence (negative vs positive) and the direction of influence (work home vs home work).

In conceptualising job satisfaction for this study, Dawis et al.'s (1968) theory of work adjustment was used. Job satisfaction is defined as the degree to which people achieve and maintain correspondence with the environment satisfying both extrinsic and intrinsic needs (Weiss et al., 1967). The theory postulates work-adjustment as a fit between the individual and the work environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) and assumes a "correspondence" or a reciprocal relationship between individuals and their work environment (Dawis et al., 1968). The theory of work adjustment assumes that every individual seeks to achieve and maintain congruence (correspondence) with his or her work environment as a basic motive of human behaviour. The two criteria of work adjustment are the satisfaction of the individual and the satisfactoriness of the environment with the individual (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009). Both satisfaction and satisfactoriness are requirements for the individual to remain with the organisation (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009). Tenure is a result of ongoing correspondence and is the main indicator of work adjustment (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009).

For the purpose of this study, turnover intention was defined as "the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). This study then conceptualised turnover intention from the perspective of Jacobs' (2005) turnover intention model, which proposes that positive or negative perceptions of organisational culture variables (predictors) are related to turnover intentions (criterion). The turnover intention model was developed as a predictive model of turnover intentions (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). The model determines which variables independently and/or interactively predict turnover intentions, by entering the independent variable, the proposed mediating variables, as well as various demographic variables into an equation (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008).

4.1.1.2 Specific aim 2: Conceptualise the theoretical relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees

The literature review conducted in chapter 2 achieved this aim by conceptualising the theoretical relationships between the variables, work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The literature review concluded that work-life balance is positively related to job satisfaction (Virick et al., 2007). Work-life conflict has a significant positive relationship with turnover intentions and therefore work-life balance plays a key role in reducing IT employees' intentions to leave the organisation, thus decreasing actual employee turnover. The literature review suggests that improving an organisation's work-life balance will lead to positive organisational outcomes, including increased employee job satisfaction and decreased turnover intentions and actual employee turnover (Moore, 2007). Similarly, the research indicates that job satisfaction is a key determinant and the main predictor of turnover intentions. A negative relationship exists between employee turnover intention and job satisfaction, indicating that lower levels of job satisfaction are related to higher levels of turnover intentions. IT employees who experience job satisfaction are therefore less likely to leave their organisations than those who experience job dissatisfaction.

4.1.1.3 Specific aim 3: Determine theoretically the role of the biographical variables (of age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) in respect of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention

This aim was achieved in chapter 2. The literature review focused on the theoretical roles of the biographical variables (age, gender, marital status, qualification, racial group and tenure) in respect of the variables of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. Various findings were identified that will now be discussed.

The biographical variables gender, age and race were found to have a significant influence on work-life balance. Women reported significantly higher levels of stress in the workplace than men. An employee's age has an influence on his or her attitude to work, as job involvement becomes more stable with an employee's age. Younger employees are more concerned with managing their own careers on their own terms in respect of achieving balance between the work and non-work aspects of their lives. The literature highlights significant differences in the work-home interaction amongst different ethnic groups and recommended further

research into work-life balance differences between different ethnic groups, owing to the South African socio-economic, political and societal circumstances (Mostert & Oldfield, 2009).

The research indicated inconsistencies in comparing results between gender groups in relation to job satisfaction. Similarly, the research found inconsistencies when comparing ethnic groups' job satisfaction. A positive linear relationship exists between employee age and job satisfaction indicating that employees become more satisfied with their job as their chronological age progresses. Job satisfaction increases as an employees' experience on a job increase. Job tenure is the most basic indicator of person-environment fit, as employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment.

No significant relationships were found between gender and turnover intention, while ethnicity was indicated as a poor and inconsistent variable when used as a predictor of turnover intention. The research indicated a significant relationship between the age of an employee and turnover intention, with turnover intentions decreasing as age increased. Similarly, a significant relationship exists between job tenure and turnover intention. The research indicated that non-managerial employees have greater turnover intentions than managerial employees. The research found that no significant relationship exists between an employee's' level of education and turnover intentions.

4.1.1.4 Specific aim 4: Determine the implications for industrial psychology practices and future research

Based on the study of the literature, the conclusions were drawn regarding the implications for industrial psychology practices and future research:

The effective resourcing, management and retention of human capital is a strategic matter for any organisation's survival, adaptation and competitive advantage. Employee turnover has significant costs and negative consequences for an organisation. Understanding the key factors relating to turnover intention might enable organisations and researchers to proactively identify the key determinants of turnover, and develop strategies that build positive qualities and decrease voluntary turnover. Knowledge of the relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention can provide insight that guides

talent retention strategies and interventions aimed at reducing employee turnover and its associated costs in the IT sector in South Africa.

Work-life balance results in increased levels of job satisfaction and decreased turnover intentions. Employers can reduce levels of employee turnover by introducing work-life balance initiatives that improve job satisfaction and lead to lower levels of turnover intentions. Organisations that invest heavily in work-life balance report lower employee turnover. The satisfaction level of employees plays a critical role in retaining core employees or knowledge workers who ensure the optimal functioning of an organisation. Organisations that do not create conditions for job satisfaction may suffer from reduced morale and productivity, and increased absenteeism and turnover.

4.1.2 Conclusions arising from the empirical study

The empirical study focused on five specific aims relating to research, namely to (1) to determine the relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees; (2) to determine whether the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees; (3) to assess the interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) in predicting turnover intention amongst IT employees; (4) to assess whether IT employees from the various demographic groups differ significantly regarding their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention; and (5) to formulate recommendations based on the literature and empirical findings of this research for industrial psychology practices and future research with regard to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

4.1.2.1 Specific aim 1: To determine the relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit), work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees

This aim was achieved in chapter 3 through the reporting, interpretation and illustration of the results of the empirical study. Based on the supportive evidence, the following conclusions were drawn from the empirical study in relation to the IT employees who participated in the study:

(1)   A negatively correlated linear relationship exists between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The higher the level of IT employees' job satisfaction, the lower their level of turnover intention, and vice versa.

(2)   A negatively correlated linear relationship exists between the extrinsic and intrinsic sub-dimensions of job satisfaction and turnover intention.

(3)   There is no relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction.

(4)   There is no relationship between work-life balance and turnover intention.

(5)   Significant statistical relationships exist between the various sub-dimensions of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

(6)   NWHI has a negative relationship with job satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction.

(7)   NWHI has a positive relationship with turnover intention.

(8)   PWHI has a positive relationship with job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction.

(9)   PWHI has a negative relationship with turnover intention.

(10)   Negative linear relationships exist between age and turnover intention, as well as between age and NWHI. This indicates that as IT employees' age, the negative influence of work on home decreases and so do their turnover intentions.

(11)   A positive linear relationship exists between age and job satisfaction, indicating that job satisfaction increases with age.

(12)   A positive linear relationship exists between age and PWHI.

(13)   A positive linear relationship exists between tenure and PWHI, indicating that the positive influence of home to work increases according to an IT employee's tenure.

(14)   A positive relationship exists between ethnicity and NHWI

(15)   A negative relationship exists between ethnicity and PHWI.

(16)   Job satisfaction is positively related to tenure and ethnicity, but negatively related to an IT employee's business unit and marital status.

(17)   Job satisfaction is positively related to tenure, supporting Martin and Roodt's (2008) findings that overall job satisfaction increases as the years of experience increase.

(18)   Intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction is positively related to age and tenure.

(19)   Intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction is negatively related to an IT employee's business unit.

(20)   A positive relationship exists between intrinsic satisfaction and an IT employee's ethnicity.

(21)   A negative linear relationship was found for tenure and turnover intention, indicating that as IT employees' tenure increases, their turnover intention decreases.

4.1.2.2 *Specific aim 2: To determine whether the demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependants, qualifications, tenure and business unit) and work-life balance significantly predict job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees*

This aim was achieved in chapter 3 through the reporting, interpretation and illustration of the results of the empirical study. Based on the supportive evidence, the following conclusions were drawn from the empirical study in relation to the IT employees who participated in the study:

(1)   Work-life balance and the demographic variables contribute significantly to explaining the job satisfaction and turnover intentions of IT employees.

(2)   PWHI predicts higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intention.

(3)   NWHI predicts lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intention.

(4)   Ethnicity predicts the variance in job satisfaction.

(5)   Education predicts the variance in turnover intention.

(6)   Gender predicts the variance in turnover intention.

4.1.2.3 *Specific aim 3: To assess the interaction effect between job satisfaction (independent variable) and work-life balance (moderating variable) in predicting turnover intention amongst IT employees*

This aim was achieved in chapter 3 through the reporting, interpretation and illustration of the results of the empirical study. Based on the supportive evidence, the following conclusions were drawn from the empirical study in relation to the IT employees who participated in the study:

(1)   There is a statistically significant model for explaining the variances in the turnover intention variable.

(2)   There is no significant interaction between work-life balance and job satisfaction in predicting turnover intention.

(3)   Job satisfaction acts as a significant predictor of turnover intention, indicating that IT employees who are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to have intentions to leave their organisations.

(4)   Work-life balance does not moderate the job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship and does not have a significant main effect on turnover intention.

4.1.2.4 Specific aim 4: To assess whether the various demographic groups amongst IT employees differ significantly regarding their work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention

Based on the findings of the supportive evidence provided by the empirical study, this aim was achieved with the following conclusions drawn regarding the role of biographical variables in relation to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention levels amongst IT employees who participated in the study:

(1)   There are no significant differences found between the different age groups in relation to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

(2)   There are no significant differences between the different gender groups in relation to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

(3)   There are significant mean differences between the ethnic groups in relation to work-life balance and job satisfaction. There are no significant differences between the different gender groups in relation to turnover intention. White IT employees reported higher levels of NHWI, job satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction, while black people reported higher levels of PHWI.

(4)   There are no significant differences between the different marital status groups in relation to their levels of work-life balance and turnover intention. There are

significant differences between married and unmarried IT employees in relation to job satisfaction.

(5)   There are no significant differences between the groups clustered in terms of their number of dependants in relation to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

(6)   There are no significant differences between the groups clustered in terms of their level of education in relation to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

(7)   There are significant mean differences between the tenure groups in respect of job satisfaction and turnover intentions. IT employees with more than ten years tenure are generally more satisfied and have lower levels of turnover intention than their counterparts with shorter tenure. There are no significant differences between the tenure groups in relation to work-life balance.

(8)   There are significant differences between management and staff in relation to job satisfaction. There are no significant differences between management and staff for work-life balance and turnover intention.

4.1.2.5 Specific aim 5: To formulate recommendations based on the literature and empirical findings of this research for industrial psychology practices and future research with regard to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees

Based on the literature and empirical findings of the study, it can be concluded that industrial psychologists and human resources practitioners should consider the ways in which work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions affect IT employees as part of their talent retention strategies. Knowledge of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention and the relationships between these variables can inform work-life balance initiatives and talent retention strategies aimed at reducing employee turnover, as well as the associated costs and negative consequences, in the IT sector.

The sample of IT employees reported low levels of work-life balance, generally high levels of job satisfaction and moderate levels of turnover intention, indicating that a number of employees are having difficulty balancing the demands of work and life and are contemplating leaving their jobs. By understanding the relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention, industrial and organisational psychologists, human resources practitioners and IT employers would be able to manage talent retention effectively.

Talent retention strategies should consider the relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. A significant and negative relationship exists between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Job satisfaction is positively related to positive work-home interaction and negatively related to negative work-home interaction. PWHI and NWHI could both positively or negatively influence job satisfaction, which has a negative relationship with turnover intention. The satisfaction level of employees plays a critical role in retaining IT employees. Since job satisfaction is related to turnover intention and is deemed to be the main antecedent of turnover intentions, industrial and organisational psychologists and IT employers should consider work-life balance strategies aimed at improving job satisfaction, by addressing the influences of work life on employees' home life. Similarly, initiatives aimed at job satisfaction should consider the influences of PWHI and NWHI, as well the other factors affecting job satisfaction. Organisations that invest heavily in work-life balance report lower employee turnover. Employers can reduce employee turnover by introducing work-life balance initiatives that improve job satisfaction and lead to lower turnover intentions

Industrial psychologists and IT employers should take cognisance of the differences between IT employees from different biographical groups (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, the number of dependants, tenure, qualifications and business unit) and consider the influence of these biographical variables when addressing work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The study found that it is important to consider an employees' age, race, marital status, tenure and business unit when devising talent retention strategies and work-life balance initiatives.

The study should add to the body of literature pertaining to the core variables and contribute valuable information and knowledge on the relationships between work-life balance, job

satisfaction and turnover intention. Further, the findings of the study demonstrate the influence that various biographical variables have on these constructs in the context of the South African IT sector.

4.1.3 Conclusions relating to the central hypothesis

The results provided partial evidence in support of the research hypothesis. There was evidence of a statistically significant relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.The empirical study yielded statistically significant evidence to support the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The empirical findings provided statistically significant evidence to support the relationships between the various sub-dimensions of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

4.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This section identifies and discusses the limitations of the literature review and the empirical study.

4.2.1 Limitations of the literature review

The following limitations were identified in relation to the literature review:

- There is a lack of research in the South African context and abroad in terms of the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. There is a large body of research on each construct, but a paucity of research exploring the relationships between the three constructs in South Africa, and in the context of the IT sector. This limited the researcher's efforts to report on a wider variety of research findings.
- There is also a paucity of research on the role of the biographical variables in relation to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. As such, the literature review was unable to provide insight into the role that these variables play in relation to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees or South Africans.

- Only three variables (work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention) were used in the study, and therefore the literature review does not give a holistic indication of factors or variables that may potentially impact employee turnover and inform talent retention strategies.

4.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study

The following limitations were identified in relation to the empirical study:

- The main limitation of the empirical study was the small sample size. This means that caution has to be exercised before making generalisations about the findings. Considering the sample size (n = 79), the results may not truly reflect the demographics of South African IT organisations and researchers should beware of generalising the findings as being representative of IT employees.
- Owing to the fact that only three variables were researched, it was not possible to provide an all-encompassing view of the factors influencing retention. Hence, several additional factors should be considered in developing retention strategies.
- Despite the use of a stratified sampling technique, the sample was not balanced and entirely representative of the demographics of the organisation, as well as that of the South African population, owing to the high response rate of white respondents compared to that of black and Indian respondents. The biographical groups were consequently under-represented. This limits the ability to draw inferences from this study to the greater South African population as well as the IT sector.
- The empirical study utilised a cross-sectional research design, with the research conducted over a single time period. A longitudinal research design would overcome the possible influences of recent organisational change and restructuring in the participating organisation and add value to the findings in terms of bias analysis on the validity of the study.
- The study participants were all permanently employed in one IT company and could not avoid the influence of a single organisational climate, culture or other factors specific to the organisation.
- The self-report nature of the study could have contributed to false relationships between the variables as a result of method variance limitation. Future studies should test for common method variance.

- Despite these limitations the results of this empirical study indicated a linear relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. In addition, the study indicated relationships between various sub-dimensions of work-life balance and job satisfaction amongst IT employees that could be explored in future research. This study could be used as a basis for future research seeking to understand these relationships and in order to inform the talent retention strategies in the IT sector.

4.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, conclusions and limitations of this study, the following recommendations were formulated for both industrial psychology practices and further research.

4.3.1   Recommendations for industrial psychology practices

The empirical findings of this study confirmed the existence of a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, as well as between the sub-dimensions of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. In addition, the study confirmed the existence of significant differences between the various biographical groups regarding work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The relationships between these variables provided insight that could guide retention practices and strategies for employees in the IT sector in South Africa, and inform future research on the role these variables play in retaining employees from different biographical groups.

Knowledge of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions and the nature of the relationships between these constructs should be considered in order to inform strategies aimed at improving employee ("talent") retention in the IT sector, where IT professionals are considered strategic resources (Mohlala et al., 2012) and have strong tendencies to leave their organisations (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). The multicultural South African context necessitates the consideration of differences between biographical groups in designing talent retention strategies and initiatives aimed at work-life balance and job satisfaction. The findings of this study could be used to proactively develop strategies or interventions aimed at improving work-life balance and job satisfaction, while reducing actual employee turnover.

Identifying the key factors that may be related to turnover intention might enable organisations and researchers to proactively identify the key determinants of turnover, and develop strategies that build positive qualities, decrease voluntary turnover and manage the turnover process and its associated costs. Employers could reduce levels of employee turnover by enabling their employees to be better satisfied with their jobs through more successful work-life balance. Organisations that invest heavily in work-life balance report lower employee turnover (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).

There are many initiatives that industrial psychologists could consider in order to improve the work-life balance and job satisfaction of IT employees, while reducing their turnover intentions. Recent advances in technology, including connectivity, mobility and cloud computing, provide the modern employer with a variety of interesting options for allowing greater work force flexibility aimed at improving the work-life balance and job satisfaction of employees. Some options include working from home, virtual offices, interactive technologies and flexible working hours.

IT employees could benefit from the flexibility of being allowed to work from home or from virtual offices at any time, on condition that they complete their tasks successfully within the required timeframe. This would have the impact of reducing travel time and provide the employee with more family time. Advances in IT now allow IT support engineers to access their clients devices remotely from anywhere in the world and resolve the majority of requests. Similarly, the use of interactive technologies will allow IT employees to meet with their clients, employees and managers through the use of video conferencing technologies and webinars. This reduces travel time and traffic-related stressors. Flexible working hours empower IT employees by allowing them to customise and design their work around the demands of their personal lives.

Given the social inequities of post-apartheid South Africa, many employees from the black ethnic group were marginalised and forced to live far away from the central business districts. Many of these employees still identify with and choose to live in these areas. Reducing the impact of commuting to work, through virtual technologies, could have a profound impact on the work-life balance and job satisfaction of these previously disadvantaged employees.

4.3.2   Recommendations for future research

In light of the conclusions and limitations of this study, the following recommendations are made for future research:

There is a need for further research on the relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees. It is recommended that future studies address the limitations identified in this study.

Owing to the fairly small sample size, it is recommended that future research replicates this study with the focus on obtaining a larger representative sample. This would serve to improve external validity and ensure that the findings could be inferred on the greater IT sector and South African population as a whole. Future research on this topic could be expanded to include other industries and sectors. In replicating this study, future researchers are advised to include IT employees from different organisations, in order to eliminate the influence of a single organisational climate, culture or other factors specific to the organisation. This would provide deeper insight into and understanding of the findings.

The empirical findings of this study confirmed the existence of a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, as well as between the sub-dimensions of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. In addition, the study confirmed the existence of significant differences between the various biographical groups regarding work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. It is recommended that future research be conducted to examine the impact of talent retention strategies and practices on the work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions of IT employees over a period of time using a longitudinal study. Future research could examine work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention by using a mixed research method and combining quantitative data with qualitative research in order to draw richer data. This could be done through the use of open-ended questionnaires or interviews with individuals to encapsulate their true experience in the organisation.

4.4   INTEGRATION OF THE RESEARCH

This study explored and investigated the existence of a relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees, who are considered to be "knowledge workers" and are strategic assets to their organisations. The results suggest that a relationship exists between job satisfaction and turnover intention, as well as between the various sub-dimensions of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The relationship between these aforementioned variables may provide insight into talent retention practices.

The literature review suggests that work-life balance is positively related to job satisfaction, while work-life conflict has a significant positive relationship with turnover intentions. Improving an organisation's work-life balance will lead to positive organisational outcomes, including increased employee job satisfaction and decreased turnover intentions. The literature indicates that job satisfaction is a key determinant and the main predictor of turnover intentions, with a negative relationship existing between job satisfaction and turnover intention. IT employees who experience job satisfaction are therefore less likely to leave their organisations than those who experience job dissatisfaction. This is particularly important in the IT sector where talent retention is of particular concern because the global labour market presents increased career opportunities for IT professionals who have specialised skills that are hard to replace and have strong tendencies to leave their organisations.

The empirical study provided statistically significant partial support for the central hypothesis. The empirical study provided evidence to support the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, as well as between the various sub-dimensions of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention. In addition, significant differences were found between various biographical groups in relation to their levels of work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

In conclusion, the findings of the study revealed that insight into the nature of and relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention may have practical significance, in that knowledge of this relationship may inform talent retention practices. It is trusted that this study successfully provides insight into the nature of the

relationships between the variables and describes the role of the biographical variables in relation to work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions and the relationships between the variables. This is of particular importance given the multicultural context of the South African IT sector.

4.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the conclusions drawn from this study and its possible limitations by examining the results of both the literature review and the empirical study. Recommendations were made and practical suggestions offered for both industrial psychology practices and further research. The chapter concluded with an integration of the research, emphasising the positive findings relating to the relationships between work-life balance, job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst IT employees.

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