

JOB SATISFACTION AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

by

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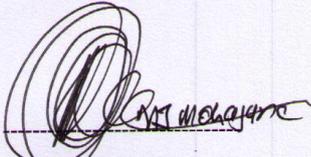
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February 2017

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis titled JOB SATISFACTION AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE, as submitted to the Department of Public Administration and Management of the University of South Africa, is my own original work and has not been submitted to any other higher education institution for the purpose of obtaining a degree. I further declare that all the sources that I have consulted or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of a complete list of references.


Signature

2017/01/05
Date

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my late sister Hildah Mohajane who was a constant source support and strength before her sudden death and my father David Sanyane Sekgothe for inspiring me to achieve my academic qualification. May their souls rest in peace.

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ABSTRACT

Research that focuses on the relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention is of interest to researchers in different disciplines and the intensification of these interests has rendered the two concepts heterogeneous. Research of this nature is necessary in the discipline Public administration, and in particular public human resource management as niche area of specialisation. Job satisfaction, as an independent variable is complex, in that it is an outcome of interdependent and sometimes contradicting personal and institutional factors, attributes, characteristics or correlates. The ability of public institutions to retain employees in key positions is dependent on the effectiveness of managers in implementing employee retention practices. Legislation in the South African public service entrusts managers with the authority and resources to institute employee retention practices.

Using a quantitative research method in which a specially designed research questionnaire was used to gather data from a selected sample of respondents in the SAPS, this study creates awareness about employees' degree of satisfaction with SAPS' key institutional factors. The findings reveal, despite the SAPS having instituted practices that are key to retaining employees, key institutional factors that the respondents are satisfied and dissatisfied with. In addition to proposing the development and implementation of the employee retention policy and strategy, this study highlights significant roles that managers should perform to retain employees in the SAPS and in the South African public sector in general.

Keywords:

Job satisfaction, employee retention, South African Police Service, motivation, morale, police services

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

Research about the relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention is of interest to researchers from a wide variety of disciplines. Despite most studies that have been conducted on the two concepts originating from psychology (Cornelißen, 2006:2) and industrial psychology, researchers from other disciplines find them topical and consider them to be subjects into which further research is required. The intensification of research interest on both concepts has rendered them of multidisciplinary value. In public administration theory and practice, job satisfaction and employee retention have become critical success factors without which government, represented by public institutions, cannot deliver services effectively. The importance of conducting research into job satisfaction, according to Abdulla, Djebarni and Mellahi (2011:127) as well as Ercikti, Vito, Walsh and Higgins (2011:97), derives from its relationship with service delivery improvements, employee commitment to work, reduction of absenteeism and turnover, employee morale and generally, the efficiency and effectiveness with which public institutions are managed.

In order to be able to deliver goods and services, public institutions rely on employees to perform their work to the best of their abilities. In return, employees in the South African public sector also expect employers to satisfy their needs in order to be loyal and to perform to the best of their abilities. Because of enormous budgets that public institutions invest in training and developing employees, employees have become the most important assets that must be taken care of. Managers therefore have to keep abreast with

changes and developments in the needs of employees, attempt to satisfy those needs and to proactively introduce interventions through which they can retain them. This study focuses on public human resource management as an area of specialisation in the discipline of Public administration. It determines the relationship between job satisfaction and retention in the South African Police Service (hereafter referred to as 'SAPS').

This chapter lays out the problem statement, research questions and research objectives, unit of analysis and units of observation, hypothetical statement and contribution of the study that guide this study. Furthermore, this chapter explains the research design and methodology, defines the key words that are frequently used and briefly outlines the discussions that are dealt with in each chapter.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The result of a literature survey reports that there is a growing interest in using SAPS as the study area to conduct research activities. Most of these studies are from disciplines such as criminology and security (cf. Mostert & Rothman, 2006; Faull, 2007; Minnaar & Ngoveni, 2004; Mofomme, 2001; Jorgensen & Rothman, 2008; Morrison & Conradie, 2006), industrial psychology (cf. Bellingan, 2004; Rothman, 2008; Rothman, 2006; Pienaar, Rothman and Vijver, 2007; Storm and Rothman, 2003) and medical and health sciences (cf. Seedat, Van Niekerk, 2009; Jewkes, Suffla and Ratele, 2009).

Despite emanating from diverse disciplines, this research is often limited to population samples that are not representative of the diversity of the employees of SAPS in that samples are only drawn from middle managers (cf. Bellingan, 2004), female police officers (cf. Morrison & Conradie, 2006) or employees of a specific police station (cf. Rajin, 2012 & Bekker, 2002), but provide valuable

insight nevertheless. Even though some of the studies utilise job satisfaction as a unit of analysis, others extend to multiple units of analyses such as occupational stress; burnout and work engagement (cf. Rothman, 2008) and have tended to be research articles rather than comprehensive master dissertation or doctoral thesis. Those whose unit of analyses is job satisfaction, often determine its relationship with occupational commitment (Wang, Tao, Ellenbecker and Liu, 2011:540), employee motivation (Roos, 2005) and wellness (Abdulla and Lee, 2012), not employee retention. 'Employee satisfaction' is generic in that employees may derive satisfaction from factors other than the actual job that they perform. 'Job satisfaction' therefore turns out to be more appropriate because it is an outcome of personal values and diverse institutional factors.

Of the dissertations and theses surveyed, there is only one mini-dissertation whose unit of analysis is about *employee* satisfaction that has been conducted on SAPS (cf. Mathevani, 2012). Despite confusingly using '*employee satisfaction*' and '*job satisfaction*' synonymously, this study is written for an audience in the business management environment, and therefore, doesn't fall under the disciplinary umbrella of Public Administration as a discipline and in particular, public human resource management. Employee satisfaction in this study is also 'investigated' in a vacuum in that the concluding remarks and recommendations are not linked to a single dependent variable. As it is linked to multiple dependent variables, this study therefore fails to inform any structured institutional development intervention or public policy debate.

Employee turnover is one of the common characteristics of public institutions in the South African public sector (Birt, Wallis and Winternitz, 2004:25) and in particular SAPS. Because managers in the South African public sector and SAPS are not exposed to any formally designed training that focuses on job

satisfaction and that exposes them to ways through which they can retain employees, employee turnover tends to be a major problem that characterises public institutions. Although employee turnover may be a result of personal value factors over which managers of public institutions do not have control, public institutions are a source of some of its determinants. As a result of the lack of awareness regarding the roles that they can play to retain employees, managers in public institutions may find it difficult to develop interventions through which they can minimise its severe negative consequences. As a result of their inability to retain employees, public institutions will continually incur direct and indirect¹ costs (Netswera, Rankhumise and Mavundla, 2005: 37; Sherman, Alper and Wolfson, 2006:22) and disinvestments of enormous resources that they devote to the recruitment, selection, placement and training and development of employees.

As the largest and diverse professional institution that devotes much of its resources to massive intakes of police trainees, selection, placement, training and development, research that focuses on the interdependence between job satisfaction and employee retention is necessary for SAPS. It is necessary in that the bulk of SAPS' employees are employed in scarce skills occupational categories. The reason that further justifies the need for this research is that SAPS competes for employees in scarce skills categories with private security companies, non-government organisations and other public institutions in the South African public sector. Therefore the results of this research are necessary to support managers in their performance of roles that legislation requires of them.

¹ As opposed to direct costs, indirect costs that are incurred as a result of employee turnover cannot be quantified, for example, poor performance or lower productivity, loss of institutional memory, increase of customer complaints and poor employee morale. Indirect costs, according to Sherman, Alper & Wolfson, (2006:22), can be more destructive than direct costs.

As reported in the SAPS Annual Report (2012/13), the rate of employee turnover was particularly high in occupational categories that require highly skilled and skilled employees, - levels 6 – 8, 3 – 5 and 9 – 12 respectively. The underlying reason for this level of employee turnover in these occupational categories when compared to other types of terminations, i.e. death, expiry of contract, discharge due to ill-health, dismissal due to misconduct and retirement, was resignation. Approximately 37% of employees had resigned from SAPS during the 2012/13 financial years.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions that emanate from the context described in the previous section are:

- 1) What is job satisfaction in general and what are the factors that determine job satisfaction?
- 2) What is employee retention and which roles can managers perform to retain employees?
- 3) What is the significance of selecting SAPS as the study area in the South African public sector?
- 4) Which research design and methodology can be considered appropriate for conducting research on job satisfaction and employee retention?
- 5) What is the degree of job satisfaction of employees in SAPS and what are the risks that SAPS may experience in as far as employee retention is concerned?
- 6) Which interventions can managers in the SAPS institute to retain employees?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

From the research questions that are listed in the foregoing subsection, a number of research objectives can be formulated. These research objectives are the basis of the discussions of each chapter in this study and are to:

- 1) discuss the literature review of job satisfaction and the factors that determine job satisfaction;
- 2) discuss the literature review of employee retention and the roles of managers in retaining employees;
- 3) discuss and justify the SAPS as an appropriate study area in the South African public sector;
- 4) discuss the research design and methodology that were considered appropriate for this study;
- 5) present the findings that are insightful of employees' degree of job satisfaction and the risks that the SAPS is faced with in as far as employee retention is concerned; and
- 6) conclude and recommend ways through which managers in SAPS can retain employees.

1.5 UNIT OF ANALYSIS AND UNITS OF OBSERVATION

The unit of analysis in this study is the relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention. The institutional factors that determine job satisfaction are dependent variables, whilst employee retention is an independent variable. The units of observation are respondents' attitudes towards their jobs, experiences about the probabilities for promotion and recognition, experiences of training and career planning and perceptions of leadership style and institutional support.

1.6 HYPOTHETICAL STATEMENT

A basic hypothetical statement that underlies this study is that the degree to which employees are satisfied with their jobs propels them to either endure or quit (resign). Therefore, SAPS employees that are dissatisfied about their jobs are more likely to seek other employment opportunities than those that are satisfied with theirs. Job satisfaction is an essential aspect of a retention policy or strategy.

1.7 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study contributes to the development of the theory of public human resource management, the understanding of the roles of managers in as far as job satisfaction and employee retention are concerned, it inspires further research on the relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention in the public sectors and proposes ways through which job satisfaction can be engendered as an essential aspect of retention policies and strategies.

1.7.1 Development of theory

This study contributes to the development of the theory of public human resource management as an area of specialisation in the discipline Public Administration. It derives from the notion that despite job satisfaction having been a subject of study since the 1930s internationally (Locke, 1969:309), it is a poorly researched area of interest in the South African public sector and in the discipline Public Administration. The findings of the research on the relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention may be customised into teaching material that targets managers in the public sector to bridge the existing skills gap.

1.7.2 The roles of managers in the public sector

This study contributes to an understanding and practice of the roles of managers in as far as job satisfaction and employee retention are concerned. Job satisfaction is an important area of functioning of managers for which they may not be formally trained. Training and experience on the roles of managers in enhancing job satisfaction and in retaining employees are not formal job requirements. As a result, managers in the public sector and SAPS in particular may not necessarily possess the skills, competencies and experiences on how to enhance job satisfaction. They are areas of functioning that they may not be aware of. This study aims to contribute to the building of managerial capacity within the South African public sector and SAPS in general on the improvement of morale, enhancement of motivation, improvement of service delivery and the efficiency and effectiveness with which public institutions are managed.

1.7.3 Inspire further research

The study also intends to inspire further public human resource management and Public Administration research on the relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention. The findings, concluding remarks and recommendations that are presented in this study reveal areas on which further research is required.

1.7.4 Review and development of retention policies and strategies

At the policy and strategy level, the findings of this study may be used by managers in the South African public sector and SAPS in particular to review existing employee retention policies and strategies. The underlying contribution that is put forth is that employee retention policies and strategies need to engender job satisfaction to be successful.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The detailed discussions of both the research design and methodology are dealt with in Chapter 5. The purpose in this chapter is to introduce the basic research design and methodological aspects that are used in this study. Both the literature review and empirical research were used and are briefly explained in subsequent subsections.

1.8.1 Literature review

A scholarly literature review that focuses on job satisfaction, determinants of job satisfaction, employee retention, the relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention and the roles of managers in as far as job satisfaction and employee retention are concerned, form an integral part of the discussion in this study. The sources of literature review that are consulted include published scholarly books, academic journal articles, research reports and information retrieved from internet sources, especially google scholar.

1.8.1.1 Legislation, SAPS plans and reports

Despite consulting literature sources that focus on various topics that are dealt with in this study, official document sources such as South African legislation, SAPS's national instructions, annual performance plans and reports that shed insight about the various topics and the extent of problems of employee retention are used. The government reports that are used include annual reports and periodic reports that are published by SAPS and other related institutions.

1.8.2 Empirical research

A quantitative research method was used for the purpose of collecting data from a group of respondents. A pilot study that involved employees of SAPS was

used to test validity and reliability of the research questionnaire before it was finally distributed to the respondents.

1.8.2.1 Research questionnaire

A research questionnaire was specially designed and used to collect data from a group of employees selected from the National Head office of SAPS in Pretoria. Due to the size and diversity of this study area, the respondents had different workplace backgrounds and experiences. The research questionnaire (see Annexure C) consisted of closed-questions that the respondents could answer by selecting from predetermined alternatives. The validity and reliability of the sections and research items that were contained in the research questionnaire were tested using Cronbach's alpha.

1.9 DEFINITION OF KEYWORDS

The keywords that are defined in this section are frequently used in this study and are explained in some detail in the discussions of the literature reviews in Chapters 2 and 3.

Job satisfaction

This study embraces the definition of job satisfaction as provided for by Haorei (2012:50), Khan, Hunjra, Rehman and Azam (2011), Gupta and Sharma (2009), Lavania, Sharma and Gupta (2011), Mudor and Tooksoon (2011) as well as Gibson, Donnelly and Ivancevich (2000:352). These authors define job satisfaction as the feelings or constellation of attitudes that employees have about their jobs and aspects of their jobs. Job satisfaction, according to them, refers to the degree to which employees like (i.e. satisfaction) or dislike (i.e. dissatisfaction) their jobs. Job satisfaction is a function of the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that are offered by a job (Vansteenkiste, 2005:22 and Bateman

and Snell, 1999:458). In this study, job satisfaction is considered a dependent variable and is discussed in detail in Chapter 2.

Employee retention

Despite being distinct, job satisfaction and employee retention are expressly related concepts. Most employers initiate job satisfaction interventions to mitigate employee turnover and to retain best performing, skilled and experienced employees. Employee retention refers to efforts (Allen, 2008), strategies (Sattigeri, 2016:77) by which employers attempt to retain employees in their workforce. The competitive environments that are sometimes characterised by poaching, which entails public and private sector companies competing for labour, have propelled initiations of employee retention interventions. Commonly used employee retention interventions include training, market-related salaries and increased fringe benefits (Gering & Conner, 2002:40). With employee retention interventions, employers attempt to reduce the costs of employee turnover. Employee retention in this study is considered as an independent variable and is discussed in some detail in Chapter 3.

South African Police Service

SAPS is the largest and diverse public institution that is established in terms of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). Its core mandate is to create a safe and secure environment in the Republic. Its services are decentralised to police stations that are spread throughout the nine provinces of the Republic. In terms of the South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995), SAPS is entrusted with powers to administer this mandate at the levels of communities. SAPS has a long history that dates back to 1913 (Anesty & Stainley, 1997:1) after the creation of the Union of South Africa and has since then undergone a rigorous transformation process that was managed through

phases (i.e. rationalisation, amalgamation and change of restructuring) (Van Kessel, 2001:5). As the largest public institution in the Republic, it employs the highest number of employees that come from different racial and ethnic groups. Its Head office, at which the research activities were undertaken, is situated in Pretoria and has provincial head offices in all the nine provinces.

Employees

Employees in the SAPS are classified into two types, namely police officials and civilians. Police officials are employed in terms of the South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995) whilst civilians are appointed in terms of the Public Service Act (103 of 1994). Police officials perform policing duties and civilians perform support services, sometimes referred to as administrative duties. Police officials are organised by means of a ranking structure that consists of senior managers, commissioned officers and non-commissioned officers. Senior managers' ranks are General, Lieutenant General, Major General and Brigadier. Commissioned officers include Colonel, Lieutenant Colonel, Major, Captain and Lieutenant. Non-commissioned officers fall into three ranks, namely warrant officers, sergeants and constables.

Police services

Police services are performed by police officials and are listed in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) and the South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995). These services are part of the SAPS mandate and include preventing, combating and investigating crime, maintaining public order, protecting and securing the inhabitants of the Republic and their property as well as upholding and enforcing the law. Police services in South Africa are,

in terms of Section 213 of the Labour Relations Act (66 of 1995), an essential² service.

Motivation

Motivation is defined as types of behaviour, as they relate to basic biological needs or intrinsic motivations that are related to survival and procreation (e.g. hunger, thirst and sex) and extrinsic rewards or punishments (Ghazi & Khan, 2013:87; Bekele, 2010; Brophy, 1998:3, 2010, 2011; Kaiser, 2014 & Mwamwenda (2004:231). Motivation explains the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of goal-directed behaviour. It is a result of an interaction between an employee and the work environment (Robbins, Oh, Le and Button, 2009, Tapola, 2013) and refers to the needs, goals and desires that propel employees to act in a particular ways (Gouws, Kruger and Burger, 2000:59; Perry, Hondeghem and Wise, 2010; Georgellis, Lossa and Tabvuma, 2011 & Georgellis and Tabvuma, 2010). It explains why employees engage in a particular action at a particular time.

Morale

The interpretation of morale in this study is consistent with the definitions that are provided by Gittel, Weinberg, Pfefferle and Bishop (2008), Gupta, (2009), Hamermesh (2011), Mudor and Tooksoon (2011) as well as Saari and Judge (2004). According to these authors, morale relates to innate or intrinsic motivation, work performance, job satisfaction, work meaningfulness and pride. McKnight, Ahmad and Schroeder (2001:467) define morale as the degree to which employees feel good about their work and work environment. Morale is

² Service the interruption of which endangers the life, personal safety of the whole or part of the population

therefore related to job satisfaction in that employees whose morale is high tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than those whose morale is low.

1.10 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

This study is divided into seven successive chapters and each of them is linked to a research question and objective that were described earlier in this chapter. Overviews of the discussions that are dealt with in each chapter are briefly described below.

Chapter 1

The discussion in this chapter is generally introductory and the most significant ones that are the background and introduction, problem statement, research questions, research objectives, research design and methodology, unit of analysis and units of observation, hypothetical statement and the definition of keywords.

Chapter 2

The discussion in Chapter 2 focuses on the literature review of job satisfaction and the determinants of job satisfaction. The determinants of job satisfaction, which are classified into personal and institutional factors, are considered to play a significant role in determining the degree to which employees may be satisfied with their jobs.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3 focuses on the literature review of employee retention and the roles of managers in retaining employees.

Chapter 4

Chapter 4 introduces and justifies SAPS and its head office as the study area at which the research activities were undertaken. The reasons that justify the SAPS as a significant public institution of the South African public sector are explained in this chapter.

Chapter 5

Chapter 5 outlines the research design and methodology. Further to these, this chapter also explains in detail the limitations of the study and the ethical requirements that were observed when the data was collected and interpreted.

Chapter 6

This chapter presents the findings of the study. In terms of logic and structure, the presentation of these findings flows from those of the research methodology in Chapter 5.

Chapter 7

This is the last chapter of the study and it presents the concluding remarks and recommendations. The recommendations that are proposed in this chapter derive from the findings that were presented in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 2

JOB SATISFACTION AND THE DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the discussions in Chapter 1 was to provide a general orientation to the study. Most importantly, the chapter explained the problem statement and research questions from which a set of research objectives were formulated. Although the costs of employee turnover is high in the South African public sector and in particular SAPS, it is a global problem that is experienced in private sector companies, non-government organisations and across different economic sectors. Research that focuses on job satisfaction and employee retention may assist managers of especially public institutions to obtain the value for money from limited financial resources that they manage.

As part of an extensive literature review, this chapter defines and describes job satisfaction and discusses the distinct determinants that are associated with job satisfaction. The discussion of the determinants of job satisfaction is classified into two groups, namely, personal and institutional factors. The personal factors that are discussed in this chapter include personality, gender differences, age differences, educational achievement, years of experience and designation. The discussion of the institutional factors focus on rewards, job content and workplace environment, working conditions, recognition, promotion and career advancement, supervision and institutional support and relationship with others. Both the definition of job satisfaction and the factors that determine it are interrelated in that job satisfaction cannot be defined without making

reference to the factors that determine it and vice versa. The definition of job satisfaction follows in the subsequent section.

2.2 JOB SATISFACTION

It is necessary, in the social, behavioral and management sciences and in particular the discipline Public Administration, to define the concept 'job satisfaction'. This is because the concept is of interest to researchers from multiple disciplines and as a result, there may be no universal definition on which authors from different academic disciplines agree. The purpose is to operationalise the concept of 'job satisfaction' in order to distinguish it from other related concepts and to specify the meaning of the concept that will be used in this study.

Job satisfaction was defined as part of the keywords in Chapter 1. Because it is multidisciplinary and heterogeneous (Millán, Hessels, Thurik & Aguado, 2011:4; Zainuddin & Mat Din, 2009:14), job satisfaction has simplistic and complex definitions. The evidence from the literature review reveals that there is consensus in the definition of job satisfaction (Weiss, 2002:174). Locke's (1976) definition appears to be widely accepted by authors from the different disciplines that were acknowledged in the introductory remarks of Chapter 1. Job satisfaction is defined by Locke (1976:316) as an emotional state that results from how employees appraise their job or job experiences.

It refers to feelings or constellation of attitudes that employees have about their overall jobs or aspects of their jobs. It refers to the degree to which employees like or dislike their jobs (Jathanna, Melisha, Mary & Latha, 2011:1; Abdulla, Djebarni & Mellahi, 2011:127) and includes multidimensional responses to an employee's job. Job satisfaction is an important part of overall life satisfaction and wellbeing (Clark, 1997:343; Bardolet, Velazco & Torrent-Sellen, 2013:3)

and is appraised at both the overall and facet level. At the overall level, job satisfaction refers to whether or not an employee is satisfied with the job, whilst at the facet level it refers to whether or not an employee is satisfied with the distinct aspects of the job (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is a function of the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards that are offered by a job (Vansteenkiste, 2005:22; Bateman & Snell, 1999:458).

2.3 DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

The definition reveals that job satisfaction is complex -- it consists of interdependent (Cantarelli, Belardinelli & Belle, 2015: 4; Abdulla, Djebarni & Mellahi, 2011:128; Skibba, 2002:3) personal and institutional factors, attributes, characteristics or correlates. The magnitude of the relationship between job satisfaction and its determinants, as argued by Cantarelli *et al*, (2015: 5) is mixed and sometimes contradictory. The personal factors that determine job satisfaction are discussed in the following sub-section.

2.3.1 PERSONAL FACTORS

Personal (Vinokur-Kaplan, Jayaratne & Chess, 1994:95), intrinsic (Locke, 1969:309) or demographic factors (Abdulla, Djebarni and Mellahi, 2011:128) are based on an assumption that employees are not demographically homogeneous. That is, their causes of their job satisfaction differ across subgroups. In terms of the theory of the personal factors, job satisfaction is considered a cause or result of behaviour (Javed, Balouch & Hassan, 2014:121). The personal factors that are considered for discussion in this chapter include personality, gender and age differences, educational achievement and of years of experience (Abdulla, Djebarni & Mellahi, 2011:128).

2.3.1.1 Personality

Kazdin (2000) defines personality as individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving. The study of personality focuses on two broad areas; understanding individual differences in particular personality characteristics and understanding how various parts of a person come together as a whole. These individual differences are, according to Mischel, Shoda and Smith (2004), affected by the socio-cultural development of an individual, for example, the values, attitudes, personal memories, social relationships, habits and skills. Job satisfaction as a proxy for subjective wellbeing is dependent on employee personal attributes (Bardolet *et al*, 2013:3). It is interconnected with how employees think and feel about, as well as perceive their jobs (Javed, Balouch & Hassan, 2014:122). In their personal being, employees possess unique personality traits that help to distinguish them from others. They differ in the way they understand and approach their jobs, even when the tasks are similar. These distinct personality traits, as argued by Furnham, Eracleous and Chomarro-Premuzic (2009:766), influence the attitudes that employees have about their jobs. Numerous studies (cf. Cornelißen, 2006:5; Tesdimir, Asghar & Saeed, 2012:20; Skibba, 2002:3) reveal that personality traits motivates, influences or predicts the degree to which employees are (dis)satisfied with their jobs.

As explained in Skibba (2002:4), the two most important personality traits that have a significant relationship with job satisfaction are locus of control and negative affectivity. Locus of control is a personality trait that refers to employees' beliefs about how much control they have over their jobs and lives in general. Despite the external influences that they may not have direct control over, employees with heightened locus of control tend to endure, adapt and manage their working environments in such a way that they are able to achieve

their goals. As such they tend to derive more job satisfaction than those that are generally negative. Negative affectivity is about employees' tendency to have negative emotions, regardless of the situation. Negative affectivity is therefore related to job dissatisfaction because if employees are negative overall, they will be negative about their jobs as well.

2.3.1.2 Gender differences

Similar to personality traits, gender differences are considered to have a significant relationship with job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 2003:1214; Clark, 1997:343; Abdulla, Djebarni & Mellahi, 2011:128; Jathanna, Melisha, Mary & Latha, 2011:1; Badolet *et al*, 2013:3). The extent of the relationship between gender differences and job satisfaction is amongst other factors dependent on, for example, personality traits, designation or status (Bellingan, 2004: 29) and working conditions (Jaschik, 2010) and varies between public and private sectors and non-government institutions (Vinokur-Kaplan, Jayaratne & Chess, 1994:93; Danish & Usman, 2010:159).

Female employees, depending on factors referred to earlier, tend to be considerably satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts, males (Clark, 1997:341). Their satisfaction, as explained by Clark (1997:341), is consistently higher even if their jobs are comparatively worse, when they perform similar tasks and when their expectations are similar to those of their male counterparts. Gender differences influence the attitudes that employees hold towards their jobs. Badolet and Velazo (2013) reveal that even though female employees earn less income than males, they tend to be equally or highly satisfied with their jobs. This is because they attach lower value to income and a higher value of trust in management.

2.3.1.3 Age differences

Age differences are also considered a significant determinant of job satisfaction (Jathanna *et al*, 2011:1; Badolet *et al*, 2013:4 & Lee and Wilbur, 1985: 781). Employers are faced with a problem of an ageing population, which manifests itself in changes to workforce compositions (Oshagbemi, 2003:1211). Three observations that are the basis of this relationship (cf. Wilbur, 1985: 781), are that first, job satisfaction increases with age, secondly, job satisfaction increases consistently as chronological age increases and thirdly, the relationship between age and job satisfaction is positive and linear until a terminal period in which there is a significant decline in job satisfaction. Two research findings that validate the relationship between age differences and job satisfaction are those conducted by Jathanna *et al* (2011) and Kalleberg and Loscocco (1993).

Younger employees tend to be comparatively satisfied with their jobs than older employees because they have higher energy levels (Kalleberg and Loscocco, 1993). An assumption on which this finding is based is that as employees grow older, their levels of aspirations increase and if they are unable to achieve their aspirations, they become dissatisfied. Kalleberg and Loscocco (1993) found that older employees tend to be considerably satisfied with their jobs than younger employees. This finding is ascribed to work experience that older employees may have acquired, better jobs and higher incomes that they earn (Kalleberg & Loscocco, 1993:79). In South Africa, where workforce profiles of both the public institutions and private companies have changed drastically as a result of government having devoted resources towards creating jobs for the youth, research that is conducted in this area may conclude contrarily.

2.3.1.4 Educational achievement

Although some empirical findings (cf. Bardolet *et al*, 2013:4; Burris, 1983), reveal a negative relationship between educational achievement and job satisfaction, most of them (cf. Clark, 1997:345; Millán *et al*, 2011:5; Zainuddin & Mat Din, 2009:3) report contrarily. Educational achievement is considered an institutional characteristic in that it provides employees with the opportunity to develop their personalities, enhance their knowledge and understanding and the way they assess situations. Mat Din and Zainuddin (2009:3) reveal that employees that are educated are persistent, rational and have thinking power. They also experience more prospects for promotion and career advancement than those that are not educated.

Educational achievement is a key variable in the relationship between job expectations and job satisfaction (Martin & Shehan, 1989:185) and as a result it may either effect job satisfaction negatively or positively. As explained by Ganzach (2003:97), educational achievement has positive indirect effect on job satisfaction in that employees that are highly educated are able to find more rewarding jobs, which to them may be a source of job satisfaction. Their educational achievements put them at a competitive advantage in competition for highly rewarding jobs. Contrarily, educational achievement may have a negative direct effect on job satisfaction in that expectations about job rewards tend to increase with educational achievement. For example, they may be over-qualified to perform particular jobs, which may be something that managers are not prepared to consider. The relationship between experience and job satisfaction is discussed in the next subsection.

2.3.1.5 Years of experience

Experience demonstrates the total number of years that an employee has spent in the job. Work experience may not necessarily have been acquired in the same institution, but at multiple institutions where an employee has worked. Unlike the personal factors that have been explained in the foregoing discussion, the relationship between work experience and job satisfaction is poorly researched (Oshagbemi, 2003:1217; Kardam & Rangnekar, 2012:18) and as a result, there is limited available literature on them. Although work experience is acknowledged as a personal factor, such acknowledgement is done in passing; it is not identified as a unit of analysis. The reason that qualifies work experience as a personal determinant of job satisfaction is that it is acquired personally.

Employees that are sufficiently experienced in a particular job tend to be highly satisfied with their jobs than newly appointed ones. This is because they are familiar with work demands, characteristics of the job, the workplace environment and general working conditions. Their work experience, which they may use to move to new jobs, may be a source of job satisfaction to them. Contrarily, newly appointed employees, due to insufficient work experience, may find new jobs frustrating. Responding to a first crime incident by a newly appointed police official may be frustrating and cluttered with uncertainty. Equally frustrating may be a first encounter by a newly appointed receptionist with a demanding client. An extensively experienced police official or receptionist, due to previous encounters, may handle the situations appropriately, which may be a source of job fulfilment and satisfaction to them.

2.3.1.6 Designation

The relationship between designation and job satisfaction is poorly researched. Designation or rank refers to job status, level of seniority in a particular occupational classification and in the hierarchy of a public institution (Oshagbemi, 2003:1216). Designations are assigned special status and different meanings. In public institutions, designations are used as descriptors to distinguish between levels at which employees interact. Authority is the main characteristic that distinguishes employees that are appointed to different designations and signals the amount of power that is entrusted to incumbents. Managers in this type of relationship wield more power and status than junior employees. In this study, the ranking structure into which SAPS is organised outlines an example of how designations determine job satisfaction.

Senior managers, for example Lieutenant-Generals, command more authority than non-commissioned officials. Unlike non-commissioned officers, senior managers enjoy privileges and benefits that include private work spaces or offices, higher employment benefits, advanced office equipment, autonomy, higher salaries and flexible working hours, all which enhances their job satisfaction (Ercikti, Vito, Walsh, & Higgins, 2011:106). Contrarily, non-commissioned officers perform their rigid tasks in unsafe and risky environments, under stress and sometimes poor working conditions and under pressure, which may negatively affect their degree of satisfaction with their jobs.

2.3.2 INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS

Job satisfaction, in terms of the theory of institutional factors, is composed of various features of the job and the workplace. Job satisfaction in this approach is valued as the sum of satisfaction of different characteristics of the work and the workplace. An understanding of the relationship between institutional

factors and job satisfaction provides a holistic understanding of job satisfaction (Javed, Balouch & Hassan, 2014:121). The institutional factors that have been identified for discussion in this chapter are rewards, job content and workplace environment, working conditions, designation, recognition, opportunities for promotion and career advancement, supervision and institutional support and relationship with co-workers (Abdulla, Djebarni and Mellahi, 2011:128). The relationship between these institutional factors and job satisfaction is discussed in the following subsections.

2.3.2.1 Rewards

Despite being considered a motive in employment seeking and job-hopping behaviour (Netswera *et al*, 2005:39), most studies (cf. Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009:441; Danish & Usman, 2010:160; Vinokur-Kaplan, Jayaratne & Chess, 1994:98; Abdulla *et al*, 2011:127) reveal a solid relationship between rewards and job satisfaction. The basis of this argument is that, in the context of an employment contract, employees expect adequate rewards that satisfy their financial needs. Rewards define a system that is used by employers to compensate employees and include financial and non-financial rewards, salary, bonuses, benefits, promotions and incentives (Danish & Usman, 2010:160; Chiboiwa, Samuel & Chipunza, 2010: 2104). Two factors that prospective employees consider in assessing whether rewards are structured competitively are the amounts and value of rewards.

Competitive, market-related and equitable rewards that are determined through fair procedures enhance job satisfaction. Contrarily, when the procedures are perceived as biased or discriminatory they enhance job dissatisfaction. As explained by Danish and Usman (2010:160), incentives and promotions are key parameters that bind the success factor with employees' performance as they create the opportunity for personal growth, increased level of responsibility and

status. Rewards do not only enhance job satisfaction, but the levels of productivity and work performance and employee commitment.

2.3.2.2 Job content and workplace environment

Similar to rewards, both the job content and workplace environment are significantly related to job satisfaction (Millán *et al*, 2011:6; Chiboiwa *et al*, 2010: 2104; Abdulla *et al*, 2010:127). Job content is about what the job entails; the tasks or activities that are contained in job descriptions and work plans. Workplace environment refers to the general environments in which police officials perform their jobs (Javed, Balouch & Hassan, 2014:124). Within SAPS, the content of the job of non-commissioned police officials (Constables, Sergeants and Warrant officers) includes police services that were defined in the definition of keywords in Chapter 1, for example routine patrol duties, attending to crime scenes and recording crime-related data, all which are performed under strict supervision and pressure and during shifts. Policing duties are not flexible and are defined in SAPS' regulations and national instructions. The environments in which non-commissioned police officials perform their jobs is characterised as risky and dangerous, but differs by level of seniority.

The working environment in which non-commissioned police officials perform their work differs to that of commissioned officers (Lieutenant, Captain, Lieutenant Colonel and Colonel) and senior managers (Brigadier, Major General, Lieutenant General and General). Commissioned police officials perform their work in offices, which do not necessarily expose them to the same amount of risk and danger. Because they are entrusted with authority, their work entails issuing instructions, monitoring and reporting crime statistics and managing physical, human and financial resources. As and when only necessary, they visit crime scenes, which comparatively exposes them to

minimal risks. The job content and workplace environment therefore, have influence on the degree to which police officials are satisfied with their jobs.

2.3.2.3 Working conditions

The conditions under which employees perform their work form part of the institutional environment over which managers have direct control. In South Africa, the basic conditions of employment for the public sector are entrenched in the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (75 of 1997) which provides for benefits to which employees are entitled, namely minimum leave provisions, paid public holidays, unemployment insurance benefits and compensation for injuries or diseases contracted in the workplace. Depending on the sectors into which public institutions are classified, working conditions are negotiated by parties to bargaining councils. The Public Service Co-ordinating Bargaining Council (PSCBC) regulates and coordinates collective bargaining in the South African public service (Ferreira, 2016:268) and in SAPS, as it resides in the safety and security sector, the working conditions are regulated by the Safety and Security Sectoral Bargaining Council (SSSBC).

Collective agreements that are published by the SSSBC are considered binding in that they are officiated by the Public Service Regulations (2001) to regulate matters of mutual interest to employees and the state as employer (Malefane, 2016:149). Working conditions significantly influence job satisfaction (Vinokur-Kaplan, Jayaratne & Chess, 1994:99; Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006:12).

2.3.2.4 Recognition

Recognition in this study is interpreted as acts by managers, through which they recognise, acknowledge or appreciate outstanding work that is performed by employees. Employees take recognition to be their feelings of value and appreciation. Recognition enhances job satisfaction (Danish & Usman,

2010:160) in that when their work is appreciated, employees feel a sense of accomplishment. Ways through which managers can recognise outstanding performance may include simple gestures such as handing over appreciative letters at a specially organised event to acknowledge outstanding performance. Measures that are widely used in the private sector include the institution of schemes such as "sales person of the month" or "employee of the year" certificates.

Employee recognition fulfills the psychological needs and desires of employees. Appreciative feedback, which managers can give during performance appraisals, is a way through which performance can be recognised. Encouraging employees to attend seminars, exhibitions and workshops and afterwards awarding them with certificates of participation is exemplary of ways through which managers can give recognition. When given to performing employees, recognition enhances job satisfaction and validates that their performance is valued. Like rewards, employee recognition is a key parameter that is used by managers in most public institutions to enhance job satisfaction.

2.3.2.5 Promotion and career advancement

In the South African public sector, there have been major developments in human resource management legislation to keep abreast with international best practices (Akinnusi, 2008:25). The institution of performance management systems (PMS) is exemplary to these human resource management developments. Managers make use of information generated from implementing PMS to make promotion and career advancement decisions. Similar to the institutional factors that have been discussed in the previous sections, there is extensive research that supports the relationship between opportunities for promotion and career advancement with job satisfaction.

There is extensive research evidence that support the relationship between prospects for promotion and career advancement and job satisfaction (Abdulla *et al*, 2010:139). Prospects for promotion and career advancement are employees' most desired goals. They create the opportunity for personal growth, increased level of responsibility and social standing (Danish *et al*, 2010:162). In most public institutions and in the South African public sector, promotions and recognition are entrenched in performance management systems and are, in terms of policy provisions, based on performance. Promotion and career advancement are associated with increased salary, job responsibilities, and authority and job status. Contrary to employees that do not foresee good prospects promotion and career advancement, those that foresee the chances of being promoted in the future are more likely to endure unsatisfactory working conditions.

2.3.2.6 Supervision and institutional support

Supervisors as leaders contribute immensely to the success and failure of public institutions (Lok & Crawford, 2004:324). In an institutional setting, they interact at different levels (senior, middle or junior) of management and use different leadership styles (cf. Jermier & Berkes, 1979; Jermier, Slocum, Fry & Gaines, 1991; Garcia & Cox, 2010:84; Dobby, Anscombe & Tuffin, 2004; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008:145; Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006:13; Yocum, 2007; Abbas and Asghar, 2010:8), examples of which include instrumental, participative and supportive, directive, transformational and shared leadership styles. Leadership styles are shaped by the workplace environment in which they are practiced and are one of the characteristics that are used to describe a public institution (Vinokur-Kaplan, Jayaratne & Chess, 1994:96).

Like educational achievement, supervision and institutional support may either have negative or positive effect on job satisfaction. This is because supervisors play a critical role in the quality of work life of subordinates (Abudulla *et al*, 2011:139). Support oriented leadership styles (such as participative and supportive, transformational and shared) are considered to be more effective in enhancing job satisfaction than autocratic (instrumental and directive) leadership styles. As a result, supervision and institutional support may be the 'push or pull' factors. .

2.3.2.7 Relationship with co-workers

As with information on the relationship between work experience and job satisfaction, there is limited literature on the relationship between co-workers and job satisfaction. Most authors acknowledge the correlation between the two in passing (cf. Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006:12) and as such, recorded research about the extent to which they relate is close to non-existent. The relationship between employees is part of the workplace environment and entails how well do employees relate with their co-workers (Danish *et al*, 2010:162). Efforts to increase research in this area are necessary because employees spend most of their time interacting with co-workers than family members, which makes getting to know co-workers an important part of the job itself (Torres, 2005). These relationships explain the extent to which employees communicate and co-operate to achieve goals and whether they are able to function effectively as a team. Although acknowledged in passing, literature reveals that the relationships between employees in the workplace are key to job satisfaction.

In the event that which managers and co-workers are supportive (share information, resources, workload), a conducive work environment that is performance-driven is created. Employees in this type of environment are able

to communicate, co-operate and function as teams. As referred to in the discussion of the role of managers in retaining employees, a good working environment is critical for enhancing job satisfaction. In cases where the relationships between employees and their co-workers are characterised by the absence of or ineffective communication, conflict or jealousy and gossip for which no efforts are carried out to resolve them, the entire working environment is spoilt and as such it may lead to situations in which employees assess their jobs and work environments negatively. In instances of this nature, job satisfaction may be affected drastically.

2.4 CONCLUSION

The purpose of the discussion in this chapter was to define job satisfaction and to discuss the factors that determine it. From both the discussions, it is evident that job satisfaction is a complex, multifaceted or heterogeneous phenomenon. In order to understand job satisfaction, it is necessary to know the factors that determine it and their inter-relationships. A lesson that derives from the definition of job satisfaction is that, although it attracts the interest of researchers from a variety of disciplines, there is consensus on how it is defined. All the definitions that define job satisfaction are based on a relatively old, but yet authoritative, source authored by Locke in 1976.

The factors that determine job satisfaction could be classified into two main groups, namely, personal and institutional factors. Although the personal factors, examples of which include personality traits, gender and age differences, educational achievement and experience, limit the understanding of job satisfaction, the discussion of the institutional factors broadens its meaning and what it entails. The eight types of institutional factors that were identified for discussion in this chapter are rewards, job content and workplace environment, working conditions, designations, recognition, promotion and

career advancement, supervision and institutional support and relationships between employees and their co-workers. The literature review of the institutional factors that determine job satisfaction was used as a basis for constructing the research questionnaire (see Annexure C) and was used as a guideline in the presentation of the findings in Chapter 6. The discussion in Chapter 3 focuses on the literature review of employee retention, the relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention and the role of managers in retaining employees.

CHAPTER 3

EMPLOYEE RETENTION AND THE ROLES OF MANAGERS IN RETAINING EMPLOYEES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 focused on the literature review of the definition and description of job satisfaction and the discussion of the determinants of job satisfaction. It became evident from the discussions that job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon that cannot be defined without making reference to its determinants, namely, personal and institutional factors. The literature review in Chapter 2 reveals that personal and institutional factors have significant influence over the degree to which employees may be satisfied with their jobs. One of the conclusions that can be drawn from these discussions is that the intensity with which employees value or assess each determinant may vary between employees and as a result, they may either be motivated to endure or pressurised to quit. Most importantly, how employees assess the value of each determinant may propel them to make significant career movements.

Chapter 3 presents a literature review which is aiming to respond to the second research question and research objective described in Chapter 1 and focuses on two most important theoretical deliberations, namely, literature reviews of the definition of employee retention and the roles of managers in retaining employees. This chapter therefore considers managers as playing a critical role in retaining employees. The main concerns that are dealt with in the first part are about the legislative framework for employee retention in the South African public service and the definition of employee retention. The second part of this chapter focuses on the roles of managers in retaining employees. The issues

that are dealt with in this part include managers' roles in designing competitive and market-related rewards, creating a supportive institutional culture, investing in employee training and development and creating and maintaining work-life balance as critical to retaining employees.

3.2 EMPLOYEE RETENTION

Employee retention, as explained in Chapter 1, is considered an independent variable in this study. It is expressly interrelated to job satisfaction in that the initiatives that are instituted to reduce employee turnover are the same as those that determine or define job satisfaction. Initiatives and practices to retain employees are, in the South African public sector, comparatively new. They have been instituted as part of the process of transformation from apartheid to a democratic and accountable government that has a mandate to deliver services to the general society.

These initiatives were initiated post-1994 as part of the review of legislation and the conditions of work in both the public and private sectors and to introduce just and fair human resource management (HRM) practices. They were instituted to enable the South African government to deliver services to satisfy the needs of society. Employees, in the context of the changing HRM practices, are acknowledged by legislation as important role-players without which the South African government cannot deliver services to the society. In order to support managers to effectively implement these practices, legislation entrusts them with the authority that their counterparts in the private sector do not enjoy.

3.2.1 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR EMPLOYEE RETENTION

The legislative framework that makes provision for the institution of employee retention practices in the South African public sector is an important aspect of the theory of employee retention. The legislative framework is a confirmation

that employee practices are lawful and binding, especially to managers who are entrusted with the authority to implement them. Even though legislation is not prescriptive, it lists functions that managers and employees must perform to achieve anticipated goals. Although the list of legislation that is discussed in this chapter is not exhaustive, the discussions in subsequent sections describe the legislative framework that governs employee retention in the South African public service.

3.2.1.1 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996)

As the supreme law of the Republic, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), gives effect to the promulgation, enactment amendment of legislation that governs the implementation of HRM. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) does not single-out employee retention, but considers it as part of HRM practices that should be instituted to realise the goals of a democratic and accountable government.

Further to the promulgation and enactment of legislation, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) empowers managers in the South African public sector with the authority to implement the Public Service Act (103 of 1994), Labour Relations Act (66 of 1995), Employment Equity Act (55 of 1998), the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (1997) and the Public Service Regulations (2001). This legislation is, as and when circumstances so require, amended to keep abreast with the changing needs of the public service and the South African society in general.

3.2.1.2 Public Service Act (103 of 1994)

Parts of the provisions of the Public Service Act (104 of 1994) (hereafter referred to using the acronym 'PSA') were reflected upon in Chapter 1 in the definition of the keyword 'employees'. The PSA was enacted to uphold the

requirements of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). It provides for employee retention in that it guides the organisation and administration of the public service with respect to the conditions of employment. As explained in Chapter 2, the conditions of employment are negotiated by parties with the bargaining councils and include salary increases, performance bonuses, pay progressions, service benefits, compensation, workplace practices and financial allowances. As they were broadly referred to in Chapter 2, these working conditions and rewards significantly influence job satisfaction and may be used by managers to retain satisfactorily performing employees.

Chapter 3 of the PSA describes the designation and status of heads of departments (HoDs) relative to that of other groups of managers and employees in public institutions. It describes the nature and amount of authority that is entrusted to HoDs and identifies them as accounting officers whose overall responsibility is to ensure that public institutions operate effectively and efficiently. Amongst other roles that the PSA assigns to HoDs, are the responsibilities to organise and administer human, financial and physical resources and to develop systems that enable public institutions to deliver on their constitutional mandates.

Chapter 4 of the PSA guides the HoDs on how to develop, institute and monitor the implementation of promotion and career advancement initiatives. Section 12(4)(b) of the PSA requires HoDs to institute performance management, whilst Section 7(3)(b) obliges them to efficiently manage and administer their departments, including to utilise, train and develop employees. By virtue of their leadership positions, HoDs (refer to Section B.2.1 of the Public Service Regulations, 2001) must delegate public service activities vertically to middle and junior managers to create a chain of accountability.

3.2.1.3 Labour Relations Act (66 of 1995)

The Labour Relations Act (66 of 1995) as amended and hereafter referred to using the acronym 'LRA' was passed into legislation in 1995, a year after the PSA. It was passed into legislation to give effect to Section 195 (1) (h) – (i) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). Similar to the PSA, it puts into place workplace practices that support the cultivation of good human resource management and career development practices in order to maximise human potential and requires that public institutions utilise personnel management practices that are based on ability, objectivity and fairness.

Unlike the White Paper on Human Management in the Public Service (1997) and the Public Service Regulations (2001) that give guidance to managers on how they should institute employee retention practices, the LRA creates an environment in which there are effective labour relations. It therefore gives recognition to employee retention as an incidental matter. The LRA promotes participation by employees in decision-making processes, protects employees' rights to freedom of association and provides for collective bargaining and the establishment of bargaining councils to negotiate issues that are of interest to employees and the State as the employer.

The LRA makes indirect provision for employee retention in that it regulates matters that are related to job satisfaction. For example, when unions are active, employment practices tend to be fair and objective. Effective relations between the unions and managers enhance the image of public institutions and if employees perceive public institutions to which they are employed as reputable, it enhances their job satisfaction. Equally important, participation by employees in the decision making processes enhances job satisfaction. In this way, it is justifiable that the LRA empowers managers to institute employee

retention practices in the South African public sector. The descriptions of the provisions that are contained in the Employment Equity Act (55 of 1998) are discussed in the subsequent subsection.

3.2.1.4 Employment Equity Act (55 of 1998)

The implementation of Employment Equity Act (55 of 1998) is seen in the context of transforming human resource management practices and the composition of workforce profiles of both the public and private sectors in South Africa. The Act was introduced as law to dismantle discriminatory practices in employment, occupation and income in the South African labour market. Employee retention is provided for in the Employment Equity Act as an incidental matter in that the Act promotes measures of equality, fairness and transparency in decisions about promotions and career advancement, broad representation training and development initiatives and the distribution of rewards, all which significantly influence job satisfaction (see Chapter 2). Chapter 3 of the Employment Equity Act provides for the implementation of affirmative action measures, consultation between managers and employees, disclosure of information, all of which were acknowledged as significantly contributing to job satisfaction in Chapter 2.

Furthermore, Chapter 3 of the Employment Equity Act (55 of 1998) provides for employment equity planning – which is an important part of the human resource plan of public institutions, reporting and the publication of information that relates to the workforces of public institutions and the duty to inform employees about critical human resource decisions that affect their conditions of employment. All these provisions are significant to employee retention in that when the employer communicates regularly and gives opportunities for employees to participate in decisions that affect the employment relationship, employees' level of engagement increases. They therefore are able to support

employment decisions easily without any conflict arising. In actual fact, they become the owners of the decisions, which may significantly enhance their job satisfaction.

Similarly, when employees perceive the procedures that are adopted to decide on promotions and career advancement as fair and when they evaluate the prospects for promotions and personal growth as reasonably fair, it also enhances their job satisfaction. The reporting and publication of information, as well as the duty by the employer to inform are important elements of facilitating communication that empowers employees and that keeps them informed of changes and developments in their working environment. By communication, a sense of caring is established and an environment which is supportive is created. In the absence of these practices, employees may feel that they are not valued, which some may assess as requiring them to search for new job opportunities. The provisions for employee retention, as contained in the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service, are discussed in the next subsection.

3.2.1.5 White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (1997)

The White Paper on Human Management in the Public Service (1997) was enacted as part of the legislation whose aim is to achieve a transformed public service, in particular to foster a management shift from centrally controlled and process-driven public service to that which, amongst other factors, treats public servants as a valuable resource. The White Paper on Human Management in the Public Service fosters a shift from personnel administration to human resource management and part of its vision is to achieve a competent, capable and well-managed workforce.

Chapter 4 of the White Paper on Human Management in the Public Service provides a framework within which critical elements of employee retention such as human resource planning, succession planning and working conditions should be managed, whilst Chapter 5 gives guidance on how promotions and career management practices should be managed. Most importantly, Chapter 5 of the White Paper on Human Management in the Public Service also identifies performance management as an integral part of effective HRM and development, and therefore requires that training and development and rewards be linked to performance management.

3.2.1.6 Public Service Regulations (2001)

The Public Service Regulations (2001), hereafter referred to using the acronym 'PSR', came into effect in 2001 and were statutorily authorised in terms of Section 41 of the Labour Relations Act (66 of 1995). An element that distinguishes the PSA from the types of legislations that were discussed in the previous subsections is that it directly makes provision for employee retention measures that must be instituted. These Regulations apply to all public servants and public institutions in the South African public sector. Part III, Section D1(c) of the PSR requires managers to plan for the retention and development of human resources within the available budgeted funds. It requires that planning processes in public institutions be guided by the unique requirements of each context.

The PSR also guides managers on how to institute human resource planning (Part III, Section D), design compensation systems (Part V), manage working conditions (Part VI), administer procedures for promotions (Part VII), institute performance management and development (Part VIII) and develop training and development initiatives (Part IX), all which are important elements of retaining employees. Furthermore, the PSR gives effect to the establishment of

bargaining councils at which the state as the employer, in consultation with organised labour, can deliberate on matters that are of interest to public servants.

3.2.2 DEFINITION OF EMPLOYEE RETENTION

Although employee retention is defined differently, existing literature reveals that there is consensus about the key elements that should be included in its definition. The three common elements that are highlighted in the definitions are (1) practices or roles that are instituted, (2) by managers to retain, (3) targeted employees (4) to achieve intended goals (cf. Mohlala, Goldman & Goosen, 2012:2; Chiboiwa *et al*, 2010: 2104; Sigler, 1999:1; Netswera *et al*, 2005: 37). Employee retention is, in terms of this literature, defined as initiatives, efforts or practices through which managers of public institutions seek to maintain stable workforces. It is a complex process that involves identifying employees, developing and implementing suitable practices that may help to retain them.

In that it is not a once-off activity, but a process through which a variety of interrelated interventions are instituted, the requirement to monitor - through which managers evaluate progress, identify barriers and institute corrective measures, becomes consistently critical. In terms of this definition (cf. Netswera *et al*, 2005: 37; Mohlala *et al*, 2012:2; Bateman & Snell, 1999; Pillay, 2011:13), retention practices are targeted at high performing or talented employees that are appointed to key positions. These key positions are critical to the success of public institutions and are a source of competitive advantage.

The practices are instituted by managers, who are by virtue of their positions entrusted with the authority to develop the vision, mission and strategy of a public institution. The common goal for which employee retention practices are

instituted is to achieve a stable workforce. The purpose of instituting employee retention practices is to build stable workforces, and thereby reduce the costs that are associated with employee turnover (Sigler, 1999:1; Netswera, *et al*, 2005: 37). Some of the reasons that are cited for instituting employee retention practices include retaining institutional memory, strengthening the competitive edge of public institutions and to achieve stable employee relationships.

3.3 THE ROLES OF MANAGERS IN RETAINING EMPLOYEES

The legislative framework of employee retention assigns specific roles to managers by highlighting the nature of the practices they have to institute and gives them legislative authority to do so. From the discussion of the legislative framework and the definition of employee retention, there is clarity that managers play a significant role in retaining employees. Legislation gives them the powers to plan, organise, co-ordinate, control and lead (Grey & Jenkins, 1995). Although the list is not exhaustive, the literature review of the roles that managers perform to retain employees is discussed in the following subsections.

3.3.1 Designing competitive and market-related rewards

The relationship between rewards and job satisfaction was discussed as part of the literature review in Chapter 2. As referred to in that discussion, rewards (salary, bonuses, benefits, promotions and incentives) may be the source of employment seeking and job-hopping behaviour. Employees consider rewards as both the sources of recognition and job security (Abdulla *et al*, 2011:126) and as such their decisions to endure or quit may be significantly influenced by whether or not the rewards are competitively structured. The use of rewards is necessary in the SAPS to retain employees in specialised units such as crime intelligence and in which there is an acknowledgement that police officials are underpaid. In as far as the rewards are concerned, managers play a significant

role in for example assessing the context, developing, implementing and reviewing the rewards policies. In addition to implementing the policies, they monitor whether the policies helps to retain targeted employees.

The process of identifying the need for a rewards policy is complex and requires managers to be context specific as to determining the extent of turnover and employees that may be susceptible to quitting and the reasons that may propel them to. An initiative that is used to gather information of this nature is by conducting 'stay' interviews through which managers gather information about matters that employees are unhappy with. Managers can also benchmarks against competitors or conduct regular labour market research (Gering & Conner, 2002:40; Chelechele, 2009; Mofolo, 2012; McCord & Borat, 2003:116; Van Aardt, 2009:144; Borat, 2004; Rasool & Botha, 2011; Kraak, 2010) to keep abreast with the rewards trends and developments. The benchmarks should be comprehensively conducted to include salaries, bonuses, benefits, promotions and incentives.

In as far as the South African public sector is concerned, employees that are targeted by employee retention programmes are those that are appointed to scarce skills occupations (Van Der Berg & Van Broekhuizen, 2012; Department of Labour, 2006/7; Rasool & Botha, 2011; Van Der Berg & Van Broekhuizen, 2012) and receive incentives that are reviewed periodically. Another initiative that is widely accepted in the South African public sector is loyalty-based, that is employees are incentivised for the years of service they have spent in a public institution (Sigler, 1999:2). A number of non-government organisations also use surplus profit-sharing as a way of rewarding employees. The use of rewards as practices to retain employees requires managers to know that it is not only the amount and value of rewards that are of essence to employees, but also how employees assess the procedures that are used to determine and distribute

rewards. Transparency, openness and continuous communication are necessary, hence they are provided for in the legislation that governs employee retention in the South African public sector.

3.3.2 Creating a supporting institutional culture

Sometimes interpreted as organisational or corporate culture, institutional culture refers to the knowledge, experiences, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religion, roles, and relations, concepts of the universe, and material objects and possessions that are acquired by employees in the course of generations (Rashid, Sambasivan & Johari, 2003:710; Gqada, 2004:3; Koble, Rubin & Osland, 1995:354). It refers to strongly held and shared values and practices that have evolved over generations and is an outcome of learnt behavioural characteristics (Sinclair, 1993:63; Parker & Bradley 2000: 127; Martins & Terblanche, 2003:64). It also includes the language, dress, patterns of behaviour, feelings, interactions and norms.

Institutional culture refers to basic assumptions that employees have invented, developed in learning to cope with their problems of external adaptation and internal integration – that have worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore to be taught to new employees as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems. Institutional culture forms an integral part of the general functioning of a public institution (Lok & Crawford, 2004:323; Martins & Terblanche, 2003:64), a unifying force that provides meaning and direction (Rashid *et al*, 2003:711) and that influences how employees set personal and professional goals, perform their tasks and how they use resources (Lok & Crawford, 2004:323).

Although managers are considered part of an institution's culture, legislation empowers them with the authority to mould existing institutional culture, in particular to create an institutional culture that sources employee commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2003:321; Rashid *et al*, 2003:708), that is performance-driven (Martins & Terblanche, 2003:64; Rashid, Sambasivan & Johari, 2003:710; Kane-Urrabazo, 2006) and that is ethically inclined (Sinclair, 1993:63). Institutional culture is a source of job satisfaction. In as far as the institutional culture is concerned; managers have a responsibility to create a unitary institutional culture. Evidence from literature reveals that managers can use the components of culture, namely trust and trustworthiness, empowerment and delegation, consistency and mentorship, as positive cultural traits.

These components are the building blocks of successful public institutions. Their role in shaping the culture involves creating support systems that gives employees the opportunity to empower themselves, succeed and increase their own effectiveness and that of public institutions. Managers can also create values, principles and practices that affirm and support the core values. Critical roles that they can perform to manage and introduce cultural change include sourcing commitment from all the types of managers, instilling the culture of performance, ensuring that the public institutions' values are integrated into standards and practices, clarifying the roles of employees in the management of culture and ensuring that employees are held accountable. It is also important to ensure that the resources are made available for managers to implement programmes that support the culture of public institutions.

3.3.3 Invest in employee training and development

Emphasis on training and development as both the source of job satisfaction and a practice that may be used to retain employees was strongly made in the discussion of the legislative framework for employee retention. Training refers

to a systematic approach to learning and development to improve employees' and institution's effectiveness (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009:451), whilst development is about activities through which employees acquire new knowledge or skills. Training and development are a source of job satisfaction and employee retention (Netswera *et al*, 2005:39). They create an opportunity for employees to experience personal growth, learn new skills (Freifeld, 2013) and to develop a sense of self-worth as they become valuable to a public institution. They create prospects for promotion and career advancement. Public institutions in the South African public sector invest immensely in training and development and therefore the importance of training and development and the roles of managers in training and development are captured in the legislation.

One such legislation that highlights the significant roles of managers is the Skills Development Act (97 of 1998), in terms of which managers are required to develop the skills of the South African workforce in order to improve the quality of life of employees, their chances of securing employment, productivity in the workplaces and to ensure that employees are competitive. The Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) encourages managers to utilise workplaces as alternative learning institutions and to promote reskilling. Despite assigning to managers the responsibility to train and develop employees, it also emphasises self-development through which employees themselves should take the initiative to learn and acquire skills and by making such a provision, it encourages employees to take advantage of bursaries that are made available to them by public institutions.

Examples of training and development initiatives that have been instituted since the enactment of the Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) in the South African public sector include formal training which is accredited by the South African

Qualifications Framework (SAQA). The National School of Government (NSG) plays a significant role by conducting management development training, workshops, seminars and institutional career management initiatives such as career planning, coaching, mentorship, development of career paths and succession planning. In this regard and especially for large public institutions, managers are responsible for training and development, for example by developing a career management policy, ensuring that the policy is effectively implemented and monitoring whether it helps to achieve the intended goals. Areas in which public institutions have collaborated with accredited private services providers such as training and development consultants are also notable.

3.3.5 Managing work-life balance

The working conditions, supervisory support and job content, discussed as part of the literature review of the determinants of job satisfaction in Chapter 2, contribute to achieving a work-life balance (WLB). Conflict between work and family demands impacts on and is moderated by the levels of the support employees receive, their personal attributes, institutional norms and the way all these are managed in the workplace (Deery, 2008:796). Managing WLB is an integral part managing diversity (Smithson & Stokoe, 2005:149) and human resource management (De Cieri, Holmes, Abbott & Pettit, 2005:90). Similar to institutional culture, managing WLB is of strategic importance to public institutions and of significance to employees (De Cieri *et al*, 2005:90).

Work-life balance refers to satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict (Clark, 2000:751). From an employee perspective, it refers to the maintenance of a balance between work and home responsibilities. It is characterised by the absence of unacceptable levels of conflict between work and non-work demands (Greenblatt, 2002:179).

Therefore, when work and non-work demands are mutually incompatible, conflict occurs. Such conflict occurs both when work roles interfere with non-work roles and vice versa. Evidence shows that when the balance between work and non-work demands is effectively managed, it increases job satisfaction. Contrarily when the balance is poorly managed, workload may lead to underperformance and turnover. This is because employees whose workload is a burden do not find their jobs interesting and would always be eager for a change.

Similar to developing and maintaining a supportive institutional culture, the roles of managers in managing WLB is a neglected area. There is evidence that highlights the need to review the conditions under which employees in certain sectors work. The review of work conditions is especially necessary in the safety and security sector in which employees work for long shifts and standby duties. In the South African public sector there are limited examples of how WLB is managed. Common examples are drawn from the nursing and police service fraternities in working conditions which entitle employees to take seven-days leave after having worked a seven-day night shift.

These conditions may be strenuous for police officials whose workplaces are not strictly confined to a single building or location. Similarly, they may be worse for women who, as opposed to men, work double shifts (Segal, 2003:9). Other initiatives that are exemplary of the management of WLB in the South African public sector include the establishment of employee assistance programmes (cf. Rajin, 2012), making provision for family responsibility leave and in higher education institutions, allowing flexible working arrangements. In order to balance work and non-work responsibilities, managers need to consider gender as a critical element and in the overall they have the responsibility to distribute the work equally amongst employees.

3.5 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to review the literature on employee retention and the roles of managers in retaining employees. After having discussed these, it can be concluded that there is solid legislative support for the institution of employee retention practices in the South African public sector. Legislation identifies numerous employee retention practices, for example rewards, training and development, promotions and career advancement opportunities, performance management, career management that must be initiated to maintain stable workforces. By necessitating the institution of these practices, an analysis of the legislation becomes an integral part of the literature review of employee retention.

As reflected upon in the definition of employee retention, despite being helpful in maintaining stable workforces, employee retention practices help with the retention of institutional memory, strengthening of the competitive edge of public institutions and maintenance of employee relationships. From these discussions, it can also be concluded that legislation entrusts managers with the authority to institute employee retention practices. Significant roles that managers may perform to retain employees include designing competitive and market-related rewards, investing in training and development, creating institutional cultures that are supportive and helping employees to maintain a work-life balance. By performing these roles, they create workplace environments that are a source of job satisfaction and employee retention. Chapter 4 focuses closely on the study area in which these job retention strategies have to be implemented.

CHAPTER 4

THE STUDY AREA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 reviewed the literature on employee retention and the role of managers in retaining employees. As reflected in the definition of employee retention, the institution of employee retention practices helps the State as the employer to be cost-effective, retain institutional memory, strengthen the competitiveness of the public institutions and to maintain stable working relationships between employees. The discussion in Chapter 3 also elaborated on the legislative framework from which managers in the South African public sector derive the authority to implement employee retention practices. Evidence from the discussion of the legislative framework reveals that managers enjoy immense support from the legislation in that it orientates them to the functions that they have to perform and the outcomes that they have to achieve. Therefore, managers play an important role in retaining employees. Using the authority that is entrusted to them, managers become a great source of support and job satisfaction to employees.

The discussions in this chapter are linked to the third research question and research objective put forth in Chapter 1. This chapter discusses the study area and explains some of the unique features through which it can be distinguished from other public institutions in the South African public sector. This chapter details the developments in SAPS and the context within which SAPS relates to other public institutions. Furthermore, this chapter discusses the legislative framework that governs SAPS, its services with specific reference to the programmes that are instituted to achieve its mandate, institutional culture,

ranking structure, performance management system which are considered unique features that distinguish SAPS from other public institutions. This chapter also discusses measures that are instituted to enhance job satisfaction and to retain employees in SAPS.

4.2 DEVELOPMENTS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

As briefly explained in Chapter 1, SAPS is the study area at which the research activities were conducted. Similar to other public institutions, SAPS is a constitutional institution that has been established in accordance with Section 199 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) (hereafter referred to as the Constitution). It derives its mandate from Section 197 of the Constitution (Boshoff, 2011:22). SAPS was established in 1913 as the South African Police (SAP). Some of the duties that it enforced then included protecting civilians against attack and to maintain law and order (Newham, Masuku & Gomomo, 2002), investigate crimes, protect life and property and to perform other ad hoc responsibilities that were assigned to it. In order to be effective in carrying out these duties, police officials were expected to have acquired knowledge of the South African legal system and undergone extensive police training.

As an apartheid institution, SAP implemented racially biased human resource management policies (Pule, Mwesigye, Kanyangabo & Mbago, 2014:15) and as a result, its workforce was not diverse, but dominated by white male police officials (Newham, Masuku & Dlamini, 2006:7). Female police officials were for the first time enlisted into SAP in 1972 and were predominantly deployed to branches to conduct duties such as investigators or radio operators. During that period, SAP was a relatively small racist institution (Newham *et al*, 2006:7) that was organised into command structures that were designed along military lines (Gqada, 2004:57). The duties that the police officials performed were military in

nature and as such they bore military ranks. The conduct of police officials, their responsibilities and duties were determined by rules, regulations and hierarchies rather than initiative, discretion and consultation (Gqada, 2004:59). Its leadership style was militaristic, bureaucratic and authoritarian in nature (Krause, 2004:49 & Young, 2004:18) and constituted rigid control procedures (rules-based), chain of command and top-down communication channels in which subordinates' initiatives were restricted (Bellingan, 2004:30).

Police officials were either threatened or coerced to perform their duties and failure to do so led to the institution of disciplinary sanctions and procedures (Gqada, 2004:58). Decisions were made by superiors and were usually not based on the knowledge of actual situations. As a result, police officials that interacted at lower levels were demoralised (Gqada, 2004:59). The police enforced apartheid laws that were repressive to blacks and as such the relationship between the SAP and communities was characterised by tension and conflict. Policing was reactive or incident-driven, inefficient and ineffective Young, 2004:18. As an institution, SAP lacked credibility and created excessive workload for both the judicial and correctional services (Pule, Mwesigye, Kanyangabo & Mbago, 2014:15).

SAP was re-structured during 1991 as part of the transformation process to a democratic South Africa. This transformation evolved as a result of the changing political environment and the unbanning of liberation movements in 1990. During the transition period, legislation that governed the then SAP, notably the Police Indemnity Act (51 of 1977) and that granted police officials unlimited powers, was amended. In addition to the name change from a police force to a service, the SAPS was then strategically placed to institute proactive policing strategies, partner with communities in reducing crime, depoliticise its service, enhance accountability to communities and institute visible policing

strategies. Internally, managers in the SAPS were, through policy requirements, given the mandate to institute effective management practices, reform the training system and to integrate racially-based institutions. The legislation empowered managers with the authority to restructure SAP from being a force into a police service (SAPS) that caters for the broader needs of all citizens. SAPS has over periods of time implemented numerous intensive restructuring initiatives that were intended to deal with its historical legacy.

As a result of enacting the South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995) into law, new legislation was promulgated and put into effect. This legislation culminated into initiatives that were intended to resolve problems that derived from fragmented bureaucratic structures and policy weaknesses that rendered the police ineffective in reducing crime. Some of the policy initiatives that emerged from the transformation process were the publication of the Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines that fostered collaboration and partnerships between police officials and communities, the formulation and adoption of the National Crime Prevention Strategy – a comprehensive multi-institution approach to crime prevention.

Post-1994, the period in which SAPS' mandate was reconfigured, it has emerged into the largest, diverse, robust and professional public institution in the South African public sector (Faull, 2009). As captured in the SAPS Annual Strategic Plan (2014/15), SAPS, as at the end of the 2012/13 financial year, consisted of one thousand one hundred and thirty two (1 132) police stations that served as fixed police-community contact points and two hundred and forty (240) non-fixed service points that were established to increase access by communities to policing services.

4.3 SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE AND THE PUBLIC SECTOR

The previous discussion focused on the developments in the SAPS. From this discussion, it is evident that SAPS has a rich history. Comparably, it is one of the oldest public institutions in the South African public sector. This section discusses the features that distinguish SAPS from other public institutions. Four significant features that are considered essential in distinguishing SAPS from other public institutions, namely, legislation that governs SAPS, its services and programmes, ranking structure and institutional culture, are discussed in the following sections

4.3.1 Legislation that governs the South African Police Service

The Police Indemnity Act was reflected upon as part of the legislation that governed the SAP in the discussion of the developments in the SAPS. As stated, old legislation such as the Police Indemnity Act were repealed and replaced with new ones that were intended to reinforce SAPS as part of a transforming public sector and democratic society.

This legislation is specific to the sector in which SAPS performs its functions and regulates the manner through which police officials carry out the duties that were listed in the definitions of key words in chapter 1. The Constitution as the supreme law of the country, gives effect to the South African Police Service Act (85 of 1995) as amended, which lists the functions that the SAPS must perform.

In terms of the SAPS Annual Performance Plan 2016/17, the types of legislation that evolve from the implementation of the SAPS Act and that regulate its programmes; include the Animal Movement and Control Bill, which is the product of a review of the Stock Theft Act (57 of 1959), Critical Infrastructure Protection Bill, which replaced the National Key Points Act (102 of 1980),

Firearms Control Amendment Bill (2014), which amended both the Firearms Control Amendment Act (28 of 2006) and the Firearms Control Act (60 of 2000). Other types of legislation that were promulgated to further the goals of the SAPS Act include the South African Police Service Amendment Bill (2014) Protection of Constitutional Democracy against Terrorist and related Activities Amendment Bill (2014) whose purpose is to update the Protection of Constitutional Democracy against Terrorist and Related Activities Act (33 of 2004). Because South Africa is party to international policing institutions, its public institutions including SAPS conform to international treaties. In order to keep abreast with the changing needs of South Africa's democracy, this legislation is, as circumstances warrant, reviewed and as such, require that SAPS' national instructions be reviewed as well.

Despite having referred to the legislation that governs SAPS' programmes, the SAPS as a public institution that exists to administer a public service to the South African society and that is funded by government, is required to comply with legislation that governs other public institutions as well. Even though this legislation is not central to the nature of the services that SAPS performs, it regulates the manner in which SAPS carries out its functions. Examples of this legislation include the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Services (1995) that sets out the transformation objectives that managers in SAPS should strive to achieve, the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (Batho-Pele) (1997) that sets out the principles within which SAPS should perform its functions, the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (1997) that provides for diversity and equality and the Public Finance Management Act (1999) that governs the efficiency and effectiveness with which public resources should be managed. The discussion of the services and programmes that are undertaken to achieve SAPS' constitutional mandate are discussed in the following section.

4.3.2 Services and programmes of the South African Police Service

Some of the services that are delivered by SAPS are highlighted in the legislative framework that has been discussed in the foregoing subsection. These services are performed solely by SAPS and no other institution, whether in the public or private sectors, has a concurrent mandate to perform them. As such they are basic features that distinguish SAPS from other public institutions. Policing services are part of those regarded as 'essential'. Despite some policing activities being performed by private security companies and individuals, none of them enjoy the legislative support that SAPS has.

The core services that are performed by employees of SAPS are to prevent, combat and investigate crime, maintain public order, protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property and to uphold and enforce the law. SAPS's Annual Performance Plans for the reporting periods 2016/17, 2015/16, 2014/15, 2013/14, 2012/13, 2011/12, 2010/11, 2009/10 and 2007/8 and SAPS are significant in that they are public documents which provide vital information about the programmes of SAPS. These programmes are briefly discussed in subsequent subsections.

4.3.2.1 Administration

The administration programme is an administrative support base of the SAPS and its purpose is to provide strategic leadership, management and support services; and to provide for the functions of the Civilian Secretariat for Police. The strategic objective of the administration programme is to regulate the overall management and to provide centralised support services. The overall responsibility of the administration programme is to sustain corporate support functions such as human resources, supply chain management and computer services to support the execution of line-function operational activities. A

significant amount of SAPS' budget is spent on this programme due to SAPS's renewed focus on developing human resources, skills development, replacing boarded vehicles, creating new employee health and wellness centres, and purchasing uniforms, weapons and ammunition, training and development and inventory management.

4.3.2.2 Visible policing

The purpose of the visible policing programme is to enable police stations that are distributed throughout the country to institute and preserve safety and security and to provide for specialised interventions and the policing of South Africa's borders. The strategic objective of this programme is to minimise all forms of crimes by providing a proactive and responsive policing service that helps to reduce the levels of priority crimes. As referred to in the SAPS Strategic plan for 2014 – 2015, sub-programmes that form part of the visible policing programme include crime prevention, border security, specialised interventions and facilities management. A significant amount of the budget of this programme is devoted to providing basic policing services to reduce serious crimes and improve services to victims of crime, particularly rural safety and crimes that affect vulnerable groups. The visible policing programme also has a mandate to facilitate the construction of police stations to provide victim friendly services to victims of rape, sexual offences and abuse.

4.3.2.3 Detective services

The purpose of the detective services programme is to enable investigations and to provide support to investigators in terms of forensic evidence and the Criminal Record Centre. The strategic objective of the detective services programme is to contribute to the successful prosecution of offenders by investigating, gathering and analysing evidence. The programme consists of four main sub-programmes, namely, Crime Investigations, Criminal Record

Centre, Forensic Science Laboratory and Specialised Investigations, which contribute immensely to the successful prosecution of criminal offences by maintaining and providing accurate criminal records and funding for the forensic laboratories which provide specialised technical analysis and support during criminal investigations.

4.3.2.4 Crime intelligence

The purpose of the crime intelligence programme is to manage crime intelligence, analyse crime information and to provide technical support for investigations and crime prevention operations. The strategic objective of the crime intelligence programme is to gather crime intelligence in support of the prevention, the combating and investigation of crime; to collate, evaluate, analyse, coordinate and disseminate intelligence for the purpose of tactical, operational and strategic utilisation; to supply intelligence products that relate to national strategic intelligence to the National Intelligence Coordinating Committee (NICOC) and to institute counter-intelligence measures within SAPS. Similar to visible policing, the crime intelligence programme is a labour intensive programme and as a result a significant amount of SAPS' budget is spent on compensation of employees, mainly in the Intelligence and Information Management sub-programme.

4.3.2.5 Protection and security services

Similar to visible policing and crime intelligence programmes, the protection and security programme of the SAPS is labour intensive and as such a significant amount of its budget is spent on compensating employees that are deployed to perform static, mobile and VIP protection services. The purpose of this programme is to provide protection and security services to all identified dignitaries and government interests. The strategic objective of the protection

and security services programme is to minimise security violations by protecting foreign and local prominent people and securing strategic interests.

4.4 CULTURE OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

The institutional culture of SAPS is the dominant feature that distinguishes it from other public institutions. SAPS has a unique institutional culture that has been passed on from the former SAP. With reference to the discussion of the literature review of the institutional culture in Chapter 3, SAPS' culture has significant influence on how employees, both civilians and police officials, perform their functions. The studies (Gqada, 2004:55 & Mofomme, 2001) that examined the institutional culture of the SAPS describe it as constituting a 'cop-culture' that is characterised by mistrust and insecurity, getting the job done, police solidarity, bureaucracy and corruption.

Mistrust and insecurity

Mistrust and insecurity in SAPS are features of police occupational culture that breeds a lack of trust, which then leads to suspicion and unhealthy cynicism. It is a necessary weapon in the police armoury to properly protect the community from criminals. Not only does mistrust occur between police officials and suspects, but between police officials and their managers. Mistrust is evident in the hierarchy, processes and protocols that need to be observed before initiatives are approved. Because the SAPS structure' is developed along paramilitary lines, the ranks and insignia are typically enforced to remind police officials of the command structure.

Getting the job done

As explained in Chapter 1, policing services are performed under difficult and stressful conditions and as a result, most of the police officials interpret policing duties as a 'mission' and as being more than a job (Shanahan, nd). This

interpretation is an indication of their commitment to police culture and if translated in the negative sense, it means 'the job done at the expense of justice and the rule of law'. Interpreted differently, it confirms police officials as being the law unto themselves and transgressing the provisions of the law. Some of the typical transgressions into which police officials engage whilst performing their duties are highlighted under corruption as a feature of SAPS' institutional culture.

Police solidarity

Solidarity or a sense of unity is an important feature of SAPS' institutional culture. It is essentially about police officials being loyal to their colleagues rather than to SAPS, communities they serve or to ethical principles. It refers to the unique sense of identity, belonging and cohesion that police officials develop as part of a group of colleagues who share in common social roles, interests or problems. It is both a consequence of other basic features of police subculture, such as a sense of social isolation and a cause of other basic features such as secrecy. Police officials normally work in hostile and unpredictable environments and therefore police culture offers them reassurance that other police officials will defend, back up and assist them when they are confronted with external threats, and they will maintain secrecy in the face of external investigators (Shanaham, nd).

Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy in SAPS has a long history and is a dominant feature of its institutional culture. As explained in the discussion of the developments in SAPS, it is characterised by a hierarchical chain of command (Bellingan, 2004:30), impersonal relations, specialised functions and a clear division of labour. As a result, the rigidity of bureaucracy that has been inherited from SAP impacts negatively on police officials. The negative effects of bureaucracy are

noticeable at the levels of police stations where there is the possibility of finding departments which render competing functional activities. If there is a crisis, police officials in competing departments that offer the same service to the community are not willing to accept responsibility, but simply blame another department for not having performed its role. For example, police officials may justify their failure to react promptly to a crime scene because all the vehicles are out on patrol service (Gqada, 2004:60).

Corruption

Corruption and fraud by police officials in SAPS are problems which have been inherited from previous generations (Newham, 2002:1). These problems are pervasive and persistent (Faull, 2007:1) because managers in SAPS downplay their existence. Some of the types of corrupt activities that are committed by police officials include the corruption of authority, kickbacks, opportunistic theft, protection of illegal activities and direct criminal activities (Faull, 2007:4).

SAPS has, as part of the transformation from the SAP, begun initiatives through which it improves its image. Some of the initiatives that were undertaken to give effect to the requirements of both Section 195 of the Constitution and the PSA were the development and implementation of the SAPS Code of Conduct and Code of Ethics, which are by their nature intended to revive the institutional culture that has been inherited from the SAP. As a way of inculcating an ethical culture, the SAPS Code of Conduct is based on values of integrity, efficient and effective service delivery, equal opportunities for development, protection of fundamental rights, impartiality, courtesy, honesty, respect, transparency, accountability and justice. In addition to the values that are promoted by the SAPS Code of Conduct, its Code of Ethics further puts forth the values of obedience of the law and public approval. In order to give effect to the codes of Conduct and Ethics, managers have been entrusted with the authority to

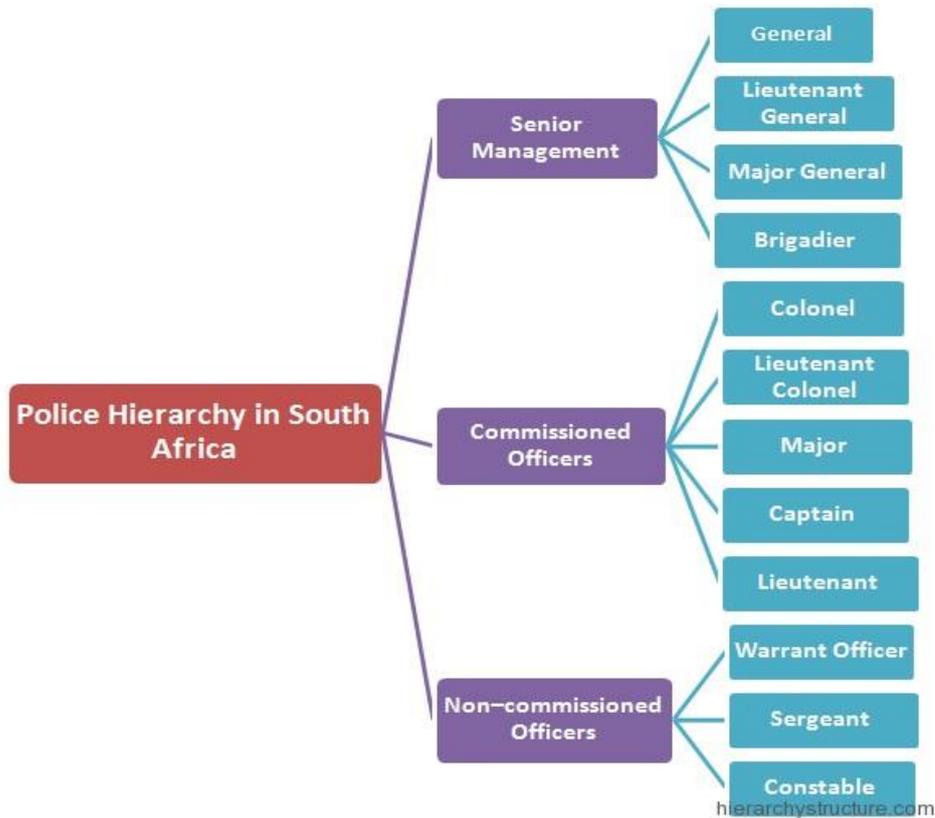
institute disciplinary sanctions to prohibit transgressions. The ranking structure of SAPS is essentially a critical component of its culture and is discussed below.

4.4.1 Ranking structure of the South African Police Service

The ranking structure of the SAPS basically denotes the designations at which employees interact. Two broad classifications of SAPS employees include civilians and police officials. With reference to the definition of keywords in Chapter 1, civilians are employees that perform administrative support services and are given professional ranks that distinguish them from employees that perform police services. Civilians in SAPS are appointed in terms of the provisions of the Public Service Act (103 of 1994). Human resources practitioners, personnel officers, typists, administration clerks, secretaries, cleaners and messengers are common examples of ranks to which civilians are attached.

In the case of employees that perform police services, a military ranking structure that is illustrative of seniority is used. Unlike civilians, police officials are appointed in terms of the provisions of the SAPS Act (68 of 1995), as amended. The diagram below shows the hierarchical order into which police officials are ranked in the SAPS.

Hierarchical order in SAPS



Source: [http://www.hierarchystructure.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/12/Police- Hierarchy-in-South-Africa.jpg](http://www.hierarchystructure.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/12/Police-Hierarchy-in-South-Africa.jpg)

As illustrated in the diagram, the three broad ranking structures into which police officials are organised are senior managers, commissioned officers and non-commissioned officers. Senior managers' ranks are General, Lieutenant General, Major General and Brigadier. Commissioned officers' ranks include Colonel, Lieutenant colonel, Major, Captain and Lieutenant. Non-commissioned officers fall into three ranks, namely warrant officers, sergeants and constables. Collectively, civilians and police officials are SAPS employees.

4.5 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

The discussion of the legislative framework for employee retention in Chapter 3 reflects on the significance of performance management as an employee retention practice. Despite legislation, there is extensive literature that reveals a solid relationship between performance management and employee retention. In the South African public service, performance management systems (PMS) were instituted post the 1994 democratic elections by the African National Congress-led government to counteract the legacy of poor performing public institutions (Malefane, 2010:1).

Performance management systems are implemented as ongoing processes of evaluating and managing the behaviour and outcomes (Krause, 2004:12) and coincide with the financial years of public institutions. Performance management systems are acknowledged by the Public Service Commission (PSC, 2008) as bringing about a strategic approach to management that equips and harnesses the activities of supervisors, employees and stakeholders towards the achievement of strategic goals. They present a set of tools and techniques for regular planning, monitoring, measurement and review of performance in terms of indicators and targets for efficiency and impact.

Performance management systems are instituted as part of the HRM and are integral parts of support services. They are implemented and are integrated with other support services such as human resource planning, training and development, employment equity, compensation management and labour relations. They are implemented to transform HRM practices and to resolve challenges that emanate from having implemented discriminatory practices (cf. Akinnusi, 2008:25), some of which are: poorly performing public institutions, inequality of opportunity (Gijana, 2011:18), lack of appropriate skills, brain

drain, impact of HIV/Aids on human resource planning and challenges that characterise the institutional cultures.

In SAPS, performance management is a sub-programme of the Administration programme and is referred to as the Performance Enhancement Process (PEP) (Krause, 2004:59). Similar to other public institutions, the institutionalisation of the PEP in SAPS was compliance-driven, in particular Part VIII of the Public Service Regulations (2001) and Section 12(4)(b) of the Public Service Act (103 of 1994) (PSC, 2007:2). The PEP in SAPS is considered as an integrated process that defines, assesses, reinforces and promotes job-related behaviours, outcomes and deliverables. It is used as part of a strategy to align the performance of all employees to the strategic goals of SAPS, to ensure that employees work smarter to achieve results and to ensure that employees have clearly defined roles and access to resources.

The PEP as a developmental tool requires supervisors to appraise performance fairly and honestly and in the case where poor performance is identified, employees be encouraged through coaching, mentorship or any other form of support, to improve their performance (Krause, 2004:60). The PEP was instituted to inculcate a performance-driven culture, build trust-based relationships between supervisors and subordinates, appraise performance, and give performance feedback regularly and objectively. Other reasons for establishing the PEP include the need to transform the institutional culture of SAPS from being rules-bound to results-driven, provide performance information that can be used during decision making, to sustain best HRM practices and to improve the delivery of services.

As an integrated process, the PEP is informed by SAPS' annual performance plans from which job descriptions and performance plans are developed. The information that is generated from implementing PEP is used to inform decisions about career paths and development, training and development, recognition of outstanding performance, promotions, rewards and incentives, making resources available (Malefane, 2010:3). The performance information is also used as a source for counselling through the Employee Assistance Programme (Rajin, 2012) and to manage poor performance. Similar to other public institutions, SAPS implements the legislation that governs employee retention, as discussed earlier in this chapter. Although SAPS does not have an employee retention policy or strategy, it consist of well-established personnel service, career management and training and development divisions whose functions are critical to enhancing job satisfaction and retaining employees. The activities of these divisions are provided for in the SAPS' Annual Strategies document, cascaded to provinces and police stations. Managers in their roles as supervisors and especially in the implementation of the PEP, play important roles that are also critical to enhancing job satisfaction and retaining employees.

4.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter introduced and outlined the rationale for selecting SAPS as the research subject. From these discussions, it is evident that the SAPS has an extensive and varied history, maintaining what the apartheid government regarded as law an order, and again, through the ANC government's transformation of policing services. Although it has evolved as a relatively small institution that catered for the needs of a small fraction of the society, since 1991 the period during which major transformation initiatives were instituted, it has emerged as the largest, diverse and professional institution that is

representative of the South African society. Despite being a Constitutional institution, SAPS possesses unique features that distinguishes it from other public institutions, namely the services it renders, the programmes that are administered to achieve its mandate, its culture and ranking structure.

Although SAPS has not adopted either a retention strategy or policy through which it retains employees in scarce occupational categories, it implements the legislation that governs employee retention. It has well established and resourced divisions whose roles are critical to enhancing job satisfaction and that implement key employee retention practices. Although it still retains an institutional culture that impacts negatively on its image, there is evidence that attests to commitment by senior managers to create a supportive, ethical and performance driven culture that unifies all SAPS employees. PEP, through which employee retention practices such as rewards, promotions and career advancement, communication, training and development, employee assistance programme are distributed, appears to be critical in assisting managers in their roles of retaining employees. Chapter 5 discusses research design and methodology.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 introduced SAPS as the research subject, as well as the focus areas of the study. From those discussions, it is evident that the choice of SAPS as the study area that represents the South African public sector is justifiable. It is justifiable in that SAPS is diverse and consist of the largest numbers of employees as compared to other public institutions. SAPS's diversity is further strengthened because the employees are from different racial groups with different cultural and ethnical experiences. Because the employees are of different genders, age groups and working environments, deployed to diverse programmes and designations, they have varied experiences which will be useful in developing interventions through which the general working environments in the South African public sector can be improved.

This chapter will discuss the research design and methodology used in the study. It also explains the ethical requirements that were adhered to during the data gathering and analysis stages. The research design section discusses the targeted research population, sampling procedure, composition and size of the research sample and the factors that were considered to ensure that the research sample was representative of the employees of the SAPS Head Office. The research methodology section details the steps that were followed in carrying out the inquiry. The validity and reliability of the questionnaires is also discussed.

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This section explains the research design dimensions of the study. The literature reviewed is mostly within the social and behavioural studies discipline, by scholars such as Babbie (2010; 2013a; 2013b), Babbie and Mouton (2010), Denscombe (2010), Monette, Sullivan and DeJong (2011), Royse (2011), Maxfield and Babbie (2012:15), Rubin and Babbie (2010, 2011), Thyer (2010), Bryman (2004:453), Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010), as well as Creswell and Plano Clark (2013). As explained in Chapter 1, this study used a quantitative research method where questionnaires were constructed. A detailed explanation of the component parts of the research questionnaire is dealt with in the discussion on research methodology in this chapter.

5.2.1 Targeted research population

The targeted research population of this study was the entire one hundred and ninety seven thousand and nine hundred and forty six (197 946) employees of SAPS that were stationed at the Head Office in Pretoria during the financial years 2012/13. As explained in Chapter 4, the SAPS Head Office is divided into four major programmes that consist of (1) administration, (2) visible policing, (3) detective services and (4) crime intelligence. In terms of their functional structures, these programmes are further divided into hierarchical structures that depict the lines of command and the levels of interaction to which employees have been attached. All the employees that function as senior, middle, and junior managers or non-commissioned officials that perform operational or administrative duties had a fair chance of being selected as respondents in this study.

5.2.2 Sampling procedure

The procedures that were used to select the respondents from the SAPS Head Office workforce were purposive non-probability and convenience sampling procedures. The use of both these sampling procedures was advantageous in that they enabled the researcher to make use of the experience acquired in the SAPS as an employee and the knowledge of the physical addresses of the workstations to which the employees had been deployed.

5.2.3 Composition and size of the research sample

The target population comprised senior, middle, junior managers and non-commissioned officials that performed both operational and administrative duties. In total, one thousand and fifty (1050) employees were selected as respondents to the questionnaire. As shown in Table 5.1, this sample consisted of one hundred and fifty (n=150) senior managers, four hundred and fifty (n=450) middle managers and another group of respondents consisting of four hundred and fifty (n=450) junior managers and non-commissioned officials. Despite having distributed one thousand and fifty (1050) research questionnaires, only four hundred and forty two (442) of them were returned back for analysis.

As shown in Table 5.1, out of one hundred and fifty (n=150) senior managers that were targeted as respondents, only 47 research questionnaires were completed and received back. Table 5.1 shows the size of the research sample and the number of employees that were targeted as respondents per salary level and the total number of research questionnaires that were received back.

Table 5.1: Size of the research sample

Description and salary levels	Total SAPS Head office workforce as at April 2012	Targeted sample per salary level and designation (n)	Response rate per salary level and designation (n)
Non-commissioned officials: Lower skilled (salary levels 1- 2)	5321	200	103
Junior managers: Skilled (salary levels 3 - 5)	104395	250	88
Middle managers: Highly skilled (Production) (salary levels 6 - 8)	79788	250	126
Middle managers: Highly skilled (Supervision) (salary levels 9 - 12)	8460	200	78
Senior Managers: (salary levels 13 -16)	810	150	47

5.2.4 Diversity of the research sample

In order to ensure that the research sample was representative of all the employees of the SAPS Head Office, six dimensions were taken into consideration. The selected research sample consisted of employees from different occupational categories, designations, genders, age groups, who had different educational backgrounds and number of years of experience in SAPS. The rationale for the inclusion of each of these dimensions are explained in the following subsections.

5.2.4.1 Occupational categories

A representative research sample of the respondents was drawn from all the five occupational categories or programmes that were described in chapter 4, namely: (1) administration, (2) visible policing, (3) detective services, (4) crime intelligence, and (5) protection and security services. Employees that are deployed to these programmes have diverse occupational backgrounds and knowledge. They perform different tasks (that were listed in the descriptions of the programmes in chapter 4 and are constituted in terms of the different legislations, namely, South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995) and South African Public Service Act (103 of 1994)-. The experiences of employees from these five programmes or occupational categories were considered as an important dimension of ensuring that the research sample was representative and that the findings are not informed or dominated by the input of employees of a single programme or occupational category.

5.2.4.2 Designations

The designations of employees were also considered as an important dimension of a broadly representative research sample. Like employees from different occupational categories, those that interact in varying levels of

interaction (i.e., senior, middle and junior management) possess different experiences and encounter challenges that are specific to their work environments. Interventions that may be introduced to resolve a particular problem may affect them differently and therefore, intensive consultation that involves employees from different designations is necessary to absorb their inputs into the decision making process that relate to working conditions. Consultation is also necessary to ensure that the work-related decisions are widely accepted by all SAPS employees.

5.2.4.3 Gender representation

Measures were undertaken to ensure that the research sample was representative of both male and female respondents. It became necessary to target both male and female respondents to ensure that the findings of this study are not gender-biased. As revealed by the literature review (cf. Malefane, 2005:19; Rajin, 2012:36, Mabunda, 2016), the experiences of male and female employees are different in the workplaces and in the society. Male and female employees are exposed to different challenges, have different priorities and expectations in the workplaces. Ensuring that the research sample is representative of male and female respondents is critical in the SAPS, a public institution whose employment policies have historically been gender-biased. Incorporating female respondents' experiences is consistent with the requirements of the Employment Equity legislation in South Africa (cf. Mabunda, 2016) and ensures that they have an input into interventions that may have diverse effects on their wellbeing in the SAPS and the South African public sector in general.

5.2.4.4 Age groups

The experiences of employees of different age groups in the workplace differ. This becomes even more complex when their workstations, designations and genders are different. For example, an introduction of new technological device such as the use of cell phones to support crime prevention may be an impediment to older employees than for the younger generation of employees. Depending on different circumstances, younger employees are eager to learn new and innovative ways of doing work than their older counterparts. This is even more important in the South African public sector in which employment opportunities that target young people (e.g. internships) are created to diversify the workforce profiles of public institutions. As reflected upon in the research methodology in this chapter and the findings of the biographical information of respondents in Chapter 6, the research sample consisted of respondents that were drawn from four different age groups.

5.2.4.5 Highest educational qualifications

Literacy and the highest educational qualifications of respondents were also considered as important dimensions of a diverse research sample. In South Africa, literacy is one of the predictors of the level of interaction of employees in workplaces. Employees that possess lower levels education constitute the majority of vulnerable groups in workplaces and therefore, interventions that are planned for must cater for their needs as well. The types and intensity of supervision that illiterate employees require are different to those that are required by literate employees.

Consultative measures that are undertaken to introduce interventions must therefore be informed by the needs of employees that are both illiterate and literate. As explained in the discussion of the research methodology in this

chapter and the presentation of the findings of the biographical information of respondents in Chapter 6, the respondents were drawn from employee groups with five different educational profiles that range from employees whose highest educational achievements were a school leaving certificate to those that had achieved doctoral degrees.

5.2.4.6 Number of years of experience

Lastly, the number of years of experience of the respondents was considered as an important dimension of a representative research sample. The intensity of the knowledge of and experience in the SAPS varies between employees with different numbers of years of experience. Those that have acquired extensive experience due to the length of service may respond with confidence and accurately, whilst newly appointed employees may often have no idea of how to respond to different questionnaire items as they do not possess sufficient knowledge of SAPS work methods and procedures.

5.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

As was briefly explained in Chapter 1, this study used a quantitative research method through which a research questionnaire was constructed and used to gather data from the target population that was explained in the discussion of the research design. This research questionnaire (see Annexure C) was structured into five sections (A - E), which are explained in the following sections.

5.3.1 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Section A of the research questionnaire gathered data on seven (7) biographical items, namely, the respondents' designations, occupational categories, marital status, age group, gender, highest educational achievements and number of years of experience in SAPS. These personal

profiles, as Jathanna, Melisha, Mary and Latha (2011:1) refer to them, or demographic attributes (Abdulla, Djebarni and Mellahi, 2011:126) influence the degree to which employees may be satisfied with their jobs.

5.3.1.1 Designations

Whilst responding to the research item that enquired about their designation, the respondents could select from four (4) predetermined alternatives, namely, whether they interacted at senior, middle, junior management levels or whether they were operational or administrative employees. As explained in the definition of keywords in Chapter 1, non-commissioned officials perform police services that do not contain managerial functions.

5.3.1.2 Occupational category

The respondents could select from five predetermined programmes to identify the occupational categories of SAPS into which they were deployed, namely: Programme 1: Administration, Programme 2: Visible policing, Programme 3: Detective services and Programme 4: Crime intelligence.

5.3.1.3 Marital status

In responding to the questionnaire item that enquired on their marital status, the respondents could select from three alternatives, i.e., whether they were single, married, divorced or widowers.

5.3.1.4 Age category

Four predetermined alternatives that respondents could select from to identify their age groups included whether they were below 30, between 30 and 40, 41 and 50 or above 50 years of age.

5.3.1.5 Gender

The gender profile of respondents was considered important because male and female employees often encounter different experiences and are exposed to different challenges in the workplace (Rajin, 2012:36). Respondents could identify themselves as either male or female.

5.3.1.6 Highest educational achievements

In responding to a questionnaire item that enquired about their highest educational achievements, the respondents were to select from five alternatives, namely, whether they had achieved a matric/ grade 12 (school leaving certificate), diploma certificate/ undergraduate qualification or postgraduate degrees such as honours/ Bachelor Technologiae, master or doctoral degrees.

5.3.1.7 Number of years of experience

In responding to the questionnaire item that enquired about their number of years of experience in the SAPS, the respondents had to select from five predetermined alternatives, namely, whether they had been employed in SAPS for (1) below five (5) years (10); between six (6) and ten (10) years; between eleven (11) and fifteen (15) years; between sixteen (16) and twenty (20); or twenty one (21) and above.

5.3.2 RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THEIR JOBS

Section B of the research questionnaire enquired about the attitudes that the respondents had towards their jobs. Similar to Section A, this section consisted of closed-questions in which respondents could select from predetermined alternatives. In responding to the questionnaire items in this section, the respondents could select from five alternatives, namely, whether they (1) agree,

(2) strongly agree, (3) neither agree or disagree, (4) disagree or (5) strongly disagree. The questionnaire items that were contained in this section enquired about the:

- degree of satisfaction with their current jobs;
- appreciation by managers of the work that is performed by employees;
- degree of satisfaction with the nature of the work;
- nature of working relationships with co-workers;
- influence and pressure from of external factors ;
- helpfulness of administrative policies and procedures in maintaining discipline;
- experiences about human and budgetary resources constraints;
- thoughts of resigning from the SAPS; and
- adequacy of salaries to cover for normal expenses.

5.3.3 PROBABILITIES FOR PROMOTION AND RECOGNITION

This section enquired from respondents how they experienced the probabilities of being promoted and recognised for their achievements in their current jobs. The seven (7) research items on which this section enquired were about whether:

- there was fairly good probabilities for promotion;
- promotion was based on rules and competency;
- there were good opportunities for career advancement in their current work;
- there was recognition of efforts that the respondents put in their current jobs;
- there was unfair promotion practices in their work;
- some of their colleagues have more privileges than others; and
- the usefulness of the current promotion system.

5.3.4 TRAINING AND CAREER PLANNING

This section determined the respondents' level of agreement to six predetermined questionnaire items and enquired specifically on whether the respondents:

- were satisfied with the training that is provided for their current jobs;
- experienced the training that is provided as useless (not matching the training needs) to their current jobs;
- experienced their current jobs as requiring special types of training than the one which is offered;
- felt there were opportunities to use and develop skills in their current jobs;
- felt there were very few opportunities for career development in their current job; and
- were satisfied with their current career prospects.

5.3.5 PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLE AND INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT

This section enquired about the types of leadership that the respondents are exposed to and the amount of support that they get from their managers. It gathered data on eleven (11) research items that enquired about whether the respondents (dis)agreed on whether:

- their supervisors put focus on the task, encouraging them to achieve the set goals in time;
- their supervisors puts focus on working relations, striving to support them in their efforts to achieve the goals;
- their supervisors put focus on development, encouraging them to see new opportunities and to act upon them;
- their supervisors puts focus on creating a good working environment;

- they have good working relationships with their supervisors;
- they have support from their supervisors to balance family and work demands;
- senior managers try (take time) to understand the problems that are experienced by employees in their work environments;
- whether supervisors stimulate them to think about their current and future prospects to help achieve SAPS goals;
- senior managers take their ideas and interest into consideration;
- employees are able to criticise work regulations and such criticism is considered during the reviewing of policies;
- supervisors and senior managers appreciate it when employees have new ways of resolving problems; and
- senior managers make an effort to get to know employees individually.

5.4 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Measures to ensure that the research items that were contained in the research questionnaire were valid and reliable were undertaken through a pilot study that involved sixty eight (68) employees of the Personnel division of the SAPS Head office. The reason behind conducting the pilot study was to ensure that the research items that were contained in the questionnaire could simply be understood by respondents and that they measured exactly what was intended and produced reliable results. The Cronbach's alpha of the results of the pilot study was calculated using the Statistical Package for Social Science version 18.0 software and the results shows that the items of the questionnaire were valid and reliable (alpha= 0.77). An alpha value of between 0.65 and 0.95 indicates that the research items that are contained in the questionnaire are valid and reliable. Table 5.2 shows the Cronbach's alpha value of the sections of the questionnaire.

Table 5.2: Cronbach's alpha reliability and validity value

	Validity
Attitudes towards the job	0.74
Probabilities for promotion and recognition	0.71
Training and career planning	0.72
Leadership style and organisational support	0.81
Total	0.77

The method of enumeration that was used whilst collecting the data is explained in the following subsection.

5.5 METHOD OF ENUMERATION

Prior to distributing the research questionnaire and after obtaining permission to conduct the study, an internal memorandum was sent out. The purpose of this internal memorandum was to encourage employees to participate, inform them of the purpose of the study and alert them of the date at which the completed research questionnaires would be collected. Only after then, the copies of the research questionnaire were distributed to all the workstations that are explained in the study area in Chapter 4. Because the completion of the research questionnaire was not timed, the respondents could complete the questionnaire within a period that was convenient to them.

The research questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter that explained the purpose of the study and that gave instructions on how to complete the research questionnaire. A copy of the consent form that the respondents were instructed to read before they completed the research questionnaire was also sent out with the research questionnaire. The respondents were encouraged to complete the research questionnaire, place it in a sealed envelope that was attached and deposit it in a box set aside for

completed research questionnaires at the reception area of the component.

5.6 ADHERENCE TO ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS

A literature review of the ethical requirements that must be adhered to was conducted and some that deserve special mention were authored by Gray and Webb (2010:32), De Vos, Delport, Fouche and Strydom (2011), Leedy and Ormrod (2010), Blaikie (2010), Maxfield and Babbie (2012) and Orme and Shemmings (2010:186). Finally, the components of the ethical requirements that were considered relevant for this study are discussed in the following sections.

5.6.1 Permission from SAPS to conduct the study

Before commencing with the study, permission was requested by means of a letter to which a research proposal that contained the problem statement, research objectives and research methodology was attached. These documents were submitted to the Divisional Commissioner for Career Management at the SAPS Head Office. Permission to conduct the study was ultimately granted in writing during November 2011 (see Annexure A). This permission was sought in order to comply with the national legislation that guides research conducted in the South African public sector and in the SAPS in particular.

5.6.2 Voluntary participation and consent form

Even though the targeted respondents were encouraged to participate in the study, they were informed that their participation is voluntary and that they could withdraw at any stage. A consent form that introduced the researcher, explained the purpose of the study and on which the respondents could sign in case they were willing to participate was given to each respondent (see Annexure B). Through this consent form, the respondents were encouraged to

ask clarity-seeking questions and were informed that they could refuse to answer any of the research questions with which they felt uncomfortable. The respondents were not coerced or incentivised to participate in this study.

5.6.3 Confidentiality and anonymity

The respondents were informed and guaranteed that their names or identities would not be disclosed to any third party. Additionally, the copies of completed research questionnaires which they were required to deposit in the boxes at the reception areas of their workstations, were not coded or marked in any way to disclose the respondents' identities. Their participation was anonymous in that they were not required to disclose their names or any personal information on the research questionnaire.

5.6.4 Analysis and reporting

The findings of this study are valid and reliable. They have not been manipulated to misinform or incite conflict between employees and senior managers of SAPS. These findings are also not imposed, but could be deliberated upon when the need to do so arises. The data that was collected from the respondents has been interpreted accurately without any bias. Copies of the findings may be given electronically to all respondents upon request.

5.6.5 Safety and security

In conducting this study, the respondents were not exposed to any form of risk, harm or wrongdoing. The discussions of the limitations of the study are reflected upon in the following subsection.

5.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although reference is often made to SAPS as a diverse and the largest public institution in the South African public sector, this study is limited to the SAPS Head Office from which a sample of respondents was selected. The SAPS head Office, as explained in Chapter 4 and in the discussion of the targeted research population earlier in this chapter, is situated in Pretoria. This Head Office comprises workstations that are distributed in different areas of Pretoria and in other provinces of South Africa. Therefore, the conclusions that are made in this study may not sufficiently have been informed by the experiences of employees that are stationed at the provinces and police station.

Furthermore this study is limited to a particular timeframe at which employee turnover was experienced, that is, between the 2012 and 2013 financial years during which SAPS had not adopted any employee retention policy or strategy. This is also the period during which initiatives to create awareness about the roles of managers in retaining employees were non-existent. As such, managers in SAPS and in the South African public sector were equally (and still are) unaware of the amount of support that they enjoy from the legislation that makes provision for employee retention.

5.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the discussion of the research design and methodology. The discussions on the research design included the target population from which a target sample was selected, the procedure that was used to select the target sample and the composition of the research sample. As explained in the research design, measures were undertaken to ensure that the research sample was broadly representative of all the SAPS' employees. The demographic factors that were considered in this regard were the

occupational categories to which the respondents were deployed, their designations, gender and age, educational achievements and numbers of years of experience in the SAPS. Further to these, measures were also undertaken to ensure that the respondents represented different work stations in the SAPS.

In addition to the research design, this chapter also discussed the research methodology. In order to give a detailed account of the research methodology, all the sections of the research questionnaire and the research items that are linked to each section were explained (see Annexure C). Although the first section of this questionnaire gathered data on the demographic factors that were discussed as part of the literature review on job satisfaction in Chapter 2, the demographic data was solely used for statistical purposes and not for integration into the concluding remarks and recommendations. Before the questionnaire was used, it was pretested for validity and reliability. Even though the ethical clearance was not obtained from the University of South Africa, mainly due to the timeframe at which the data was gathered, all the ethical requirements that were adhered to in this study have been explained in this chapter. The limitations of the study were also explained in this chapter. The discussions in Chapter 6 are about the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 6

THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 discussed the research design and methodology used in the study, it detailed the research population, sampling procedure, composition and diversity of the sample. The South African Police Service performs an essential service whose outcomes are integral in maintaining public order and insuring the safety of the public. The previous chapter also explained the manner in which data was gathered.

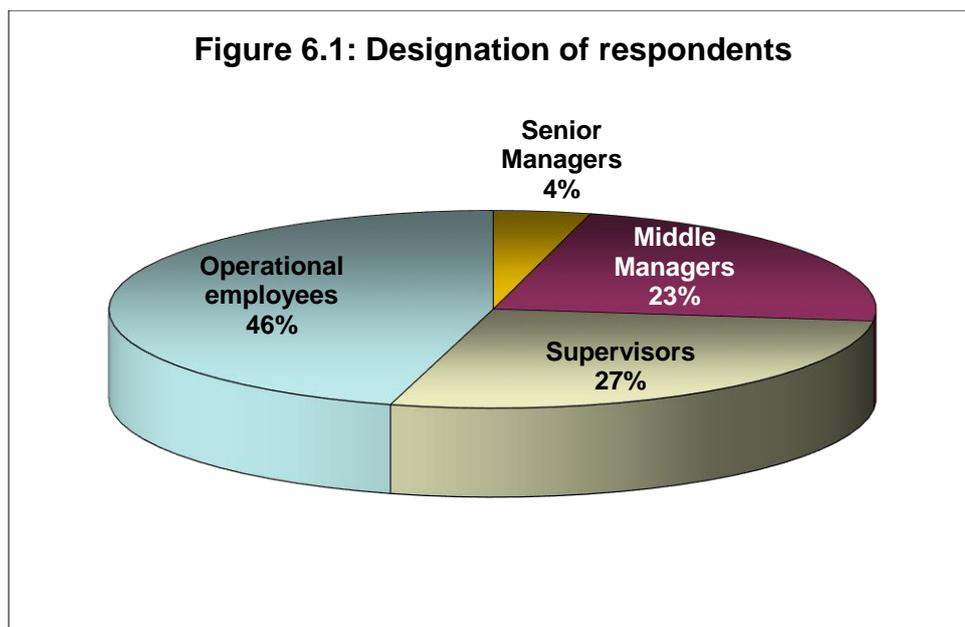
The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of the study. It presents the respondents' biographical information, attitudes towards the job, estimation and experiences of probabilities for promotion and recognition, experiences of training and career planning, and perceptions and experiences of the leadership styles and institutional support in SAPS

6.2 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

With reference to the research questionnaire (see Annexure C) and the discussion of the research methodology, the respondents' biographical data focused on six items, namely, designations that described the type of work they performed, marital status, age groups, gender, highest educational achievements and the number of years of experience in SAPS. The findings on each of these research items are presented in the following discussions.

6.2.1 Designation of respondents

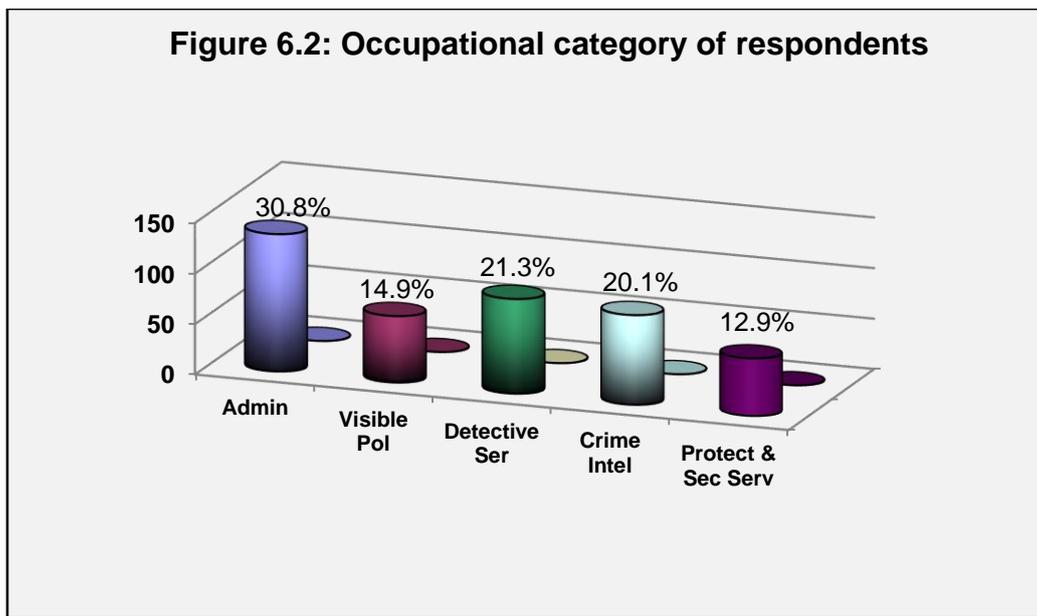
As illustrated in Figure 6.1 below, the majority of the respondents, 202 in number, were operational employees, comprising 46% of the research population, and the second highest majority consisted of 121 supervisors, (27%). The third highest respondents were 101 middle managers (22.9%) and only 18 (4.1%) of the respondents were senior managers.



Although the number of senior managers that participated in this study was comparatively low, this response rate was considered satisfactory because senior managers in the SAPS, like in many public institutions, are outnumbered by employees that interact at junior levels.

6.2.2 Occupational category of respondents

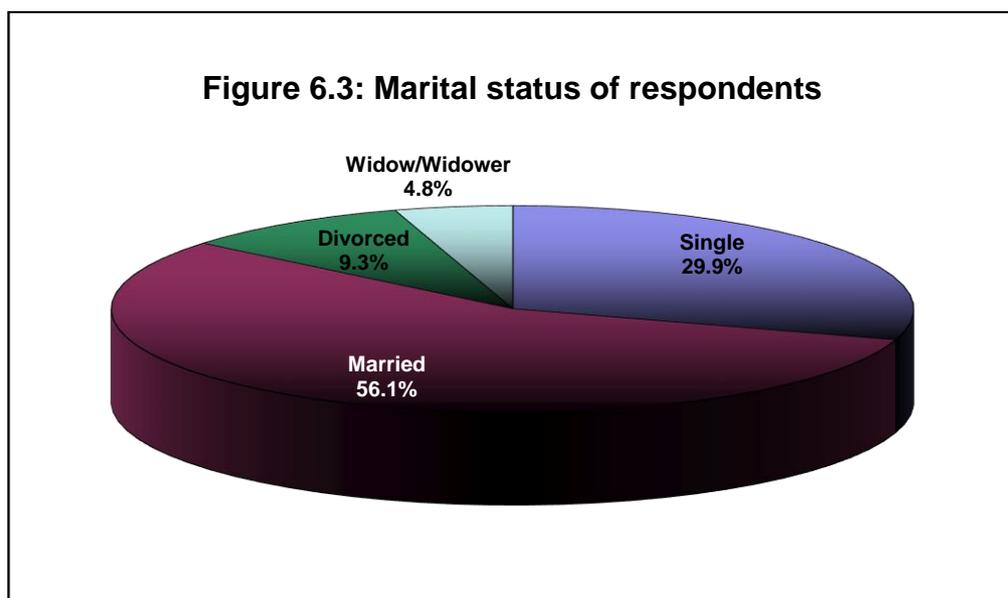
In responding to this research item, the respondents could select from five predetermined occupational categories, or programmes. The term 'programme' is used for the purpose of the interpretation of the findings in this chapter because it is widely used by employees of SAPS. As illustrated in Figure 6.2, the majority of the respondents, 136 (30.8%), were from Programme 1 – Administration, whilst the second largest group of respondents, 94 (21.3%), were from Programme 3 - Detective Service. The third largest group of respondents, 89 (20.1%), were from Programme 4 – Crime Intelligence and the fourth largest group of respondents, 66 (14.9%), were from Programme 2 - Visible Policing.



As illustrated in Figure 6.2, a small proportion of respondents 57 (14.9%) were from Programme 5 – Protection and Security Services.

6.2.3 Marital status of respondents

The basis of including the marital status of respondents as a part of their profile is that family roles and changes in those roles may affect employees' work performance and the degree of satisfaction with work (cf. Jathanna, Melisha, Mary & Latha, 2011:1). As illustrated in Figure 6.3, the majority of the respondents, 248 (56.1%), were married, whilst the second largest majority, 132 (29.9%), were unmarried or single.

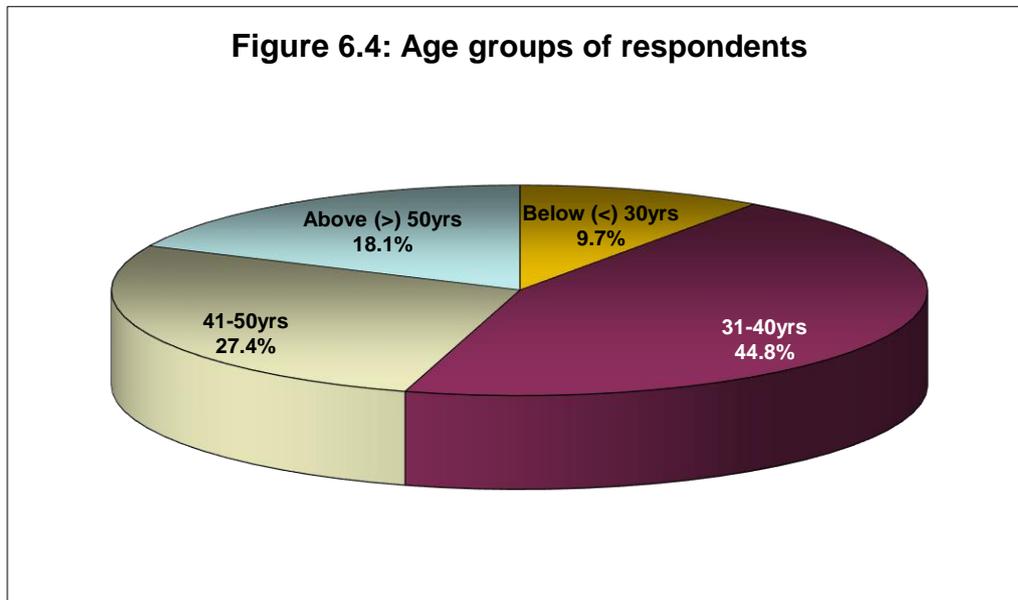


The third largest number was of the divorced, 41 (9.3%), and the smallest number, 21 (4.8%), were widows/widowers.

6.2.4 Age groups of respondents

In selecting the age groups into which they fall, the respondents could select from four predetermined age groups, namely, below 30, between 31 and 40, between 41 and 50 and above 50 years of age. As illustrated in Figure 6.4, the

majority of the respondents (n=198 comprising 44.8%) were in the age category 31 – 40 years. This was followed by 121 (27.4%) of the respondents in the age category 41 – 50 years.

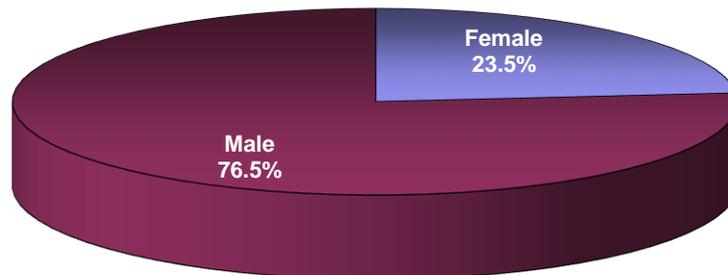


The older age group of 50 and above constituted 18.1% (n=80) respondents and the minority of the respondents (n=43 or 9.7%) were 30 years old or younger than that.

4.2.5 Gender profile of respondents

The reason underlying gathering information about the respondents' gender profile is that male and female employees' experiences in the workplace may be different. As employees that can be classified into two different types of gender, they may also be exposed to different challenges. As illustrated in Figure 6.5 below, the majority of respondents, 76.5% (n=338), were male, whilst females comprised 23.5% (n=104) of the target population.

Figure 6.5: Gender profile of respondents

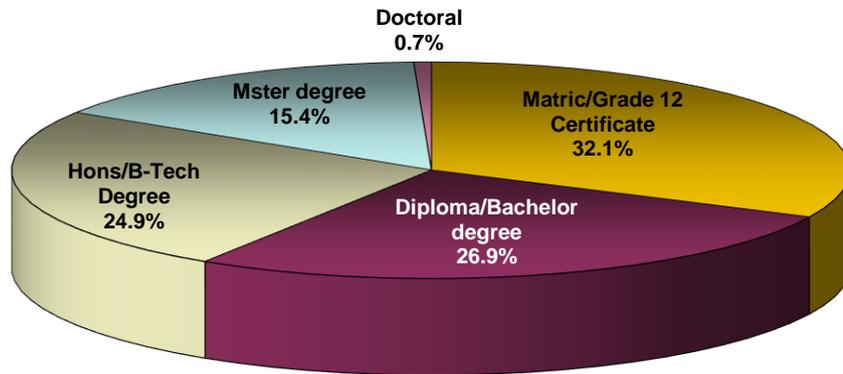


This finding as illustrated in Figure 6.5 is consistent with the representation of women in SAPS, where due to historical gender stereotypes; women could not be employed to perform police duties. At the time of conducting this study, women comprised the marginal population (67 552) of SAPS' workforce as compared to their counterpart, men (130 394).

6.2.6 Respondents' highest educational achievements

As illustrated in Figure 6.6, the majority of the respondents, 32.1% (n=142), had complete Grade 12, whilst 26.9% (n=119) had acquired Diploma/ Bachelor (undergraduate) degrees. One hundred and ten (n=110, 24.9%) respondents had attained Honours/ Baccalaureus Technologiae (B-Tech) degrees, whilst 15.4% (n=68) of the respondents were in possession of Masters degrees. A small proportion (0.7%) of the respondents had completed doctoral degrees in unspecified disciplines. Figure 6.6 below illustrates the respondents' highest educational achievements.

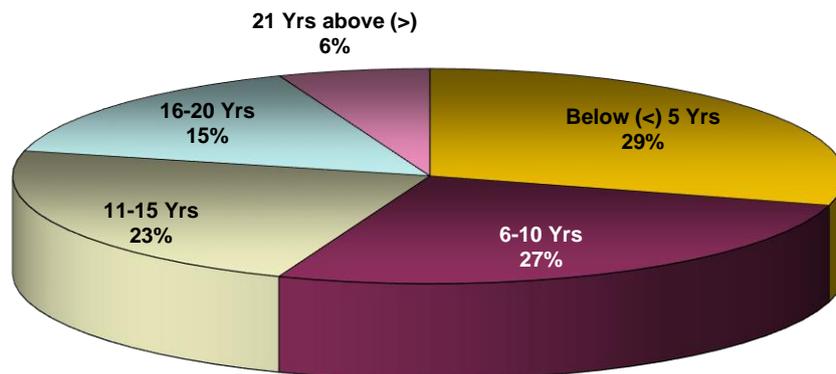
Figure 6.6: Respondents' highest educational achievements



6.2.7 Number of years of experience

The number of years of experience of respondents was also considered as an important aspect of the biographical information. In responding to this research item, the respondents could select from five predetermined classifications of years of service in the SAPS, namely, whether they had been employed in SAPS for under 5 years, between 6 and 10, 11 and 15 years, 16 and 20 or for a period of 21 years and more. As illustrated in Figure 6.7, most of the respondents (29%, 130, n=442) had worked for SAPS for less than five years, whilst the second largest majority 117 (27%) consisted of those who worked for the SAPS for between 6 and 10 years.

Figure 6.7: Number of years of experience of respondents in the SAPS

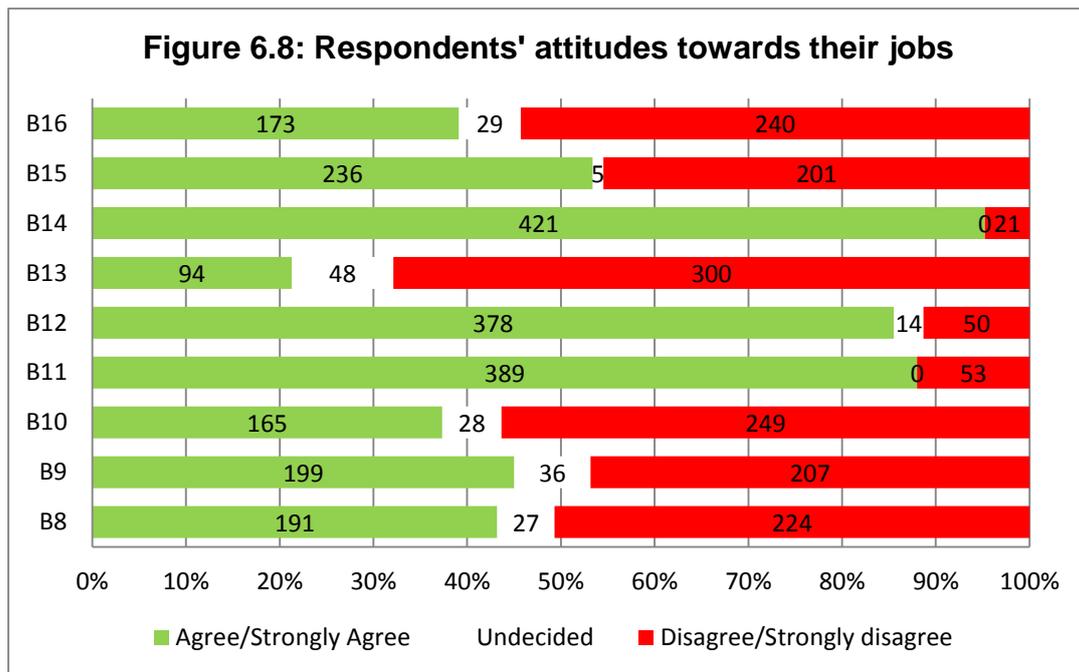


As illustrated in Figure 6.7, the third largest number of the respondents, 101 (23%), had worked for SAPS for between 11 and 15 years and the remainder (15%, n=68) and 6% (n=26) consisted of two highly experienced groups of respondents, namely, those that worked for the SAPS for periods of between 16 and 20 and over 21 years respectively. Not only does the finding reveal the diversity of experiences that the respondents had acquired, but their loyalty to the SAPS as well.

6.3 RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THEIR JOBS

As explained in the discussion of the research methodology in Chapter 5, the respondents' attitudes towards their jobs was determined using a five-point Likert scale comprising five predetermined alternatives which the respondents could select, namely (1) agree; (2) strongly agree; (3) neither agree or disagree; (4) disagree and (5) strongly disagree. For the purpose of interpreting these findings, the values for analogous responses, (e.g. *agree* and *strongly agree*)

are summed-up regardless of the degree to which the respondents (dis)agree. Respondents that 'neither agree nor disagree' are considered to be 'undecided'. The values of each of the responses to the nine research items that were included in Section B are illustrated in Figure 6.8 and are further explained in subsequent sub-sections.



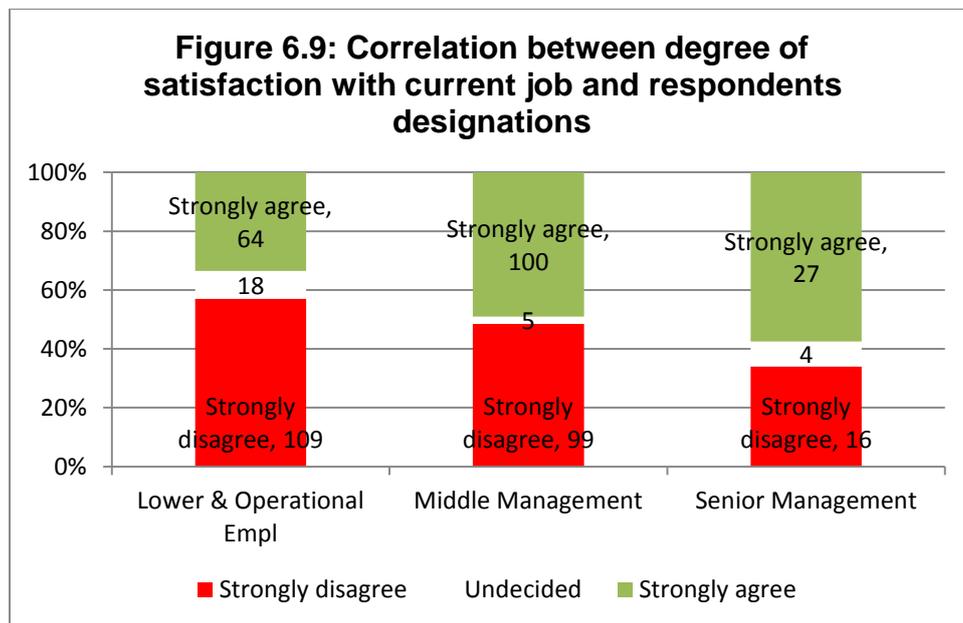
The values are used to illustrate the findings of the respondents' attitudes towards their jobs in Figure 6.8, and the percentages that were calculated from the same values are used to further elaborate on each finding in subsequent subsections.

6.3.1 Degree of satisfaction with the current jobs

The majority of the respondents (51%) expressed that they were dissatisfied with their current jobs and the second largest (43%) expressed that they were satisfied with their current jobs. A small proportion consisting of 6% of the total

respondents (n=442) were undecided. In order to deepen an understanding of the respondents' degree of (dis)satisfaction with their current jobs, it became necessary to correlate the findings to their designations.

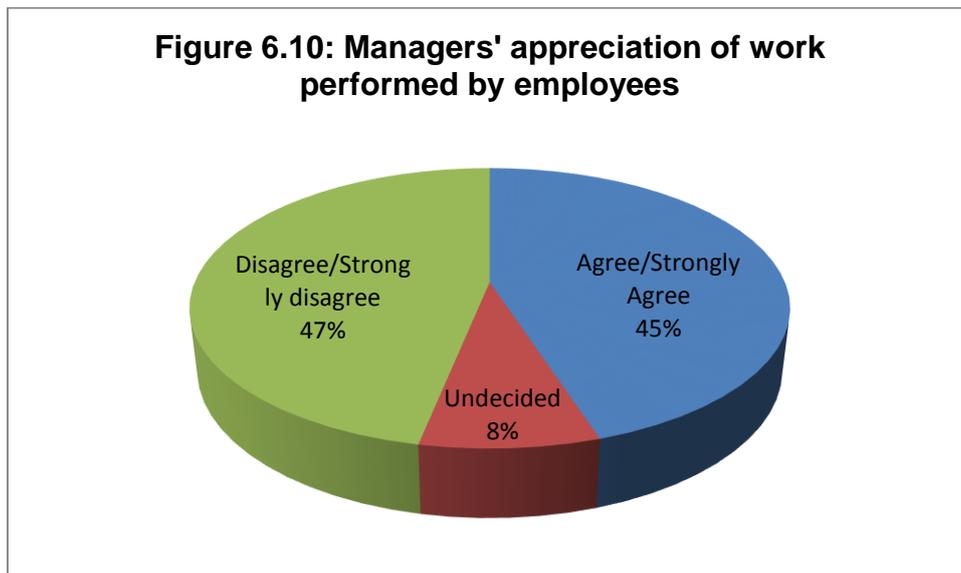
Generally, the degree of satisfaction amongst senior managers was found to be higher than of middle managers and employees at lower levels or those that performed operational duties. As illustrated in Figure 6.9, approximately half (49%) of the middle managers and 57% of the senior managers were satisfied with their jobs, whilst close 60% of employees interacting at lower levels who perform operational duties expressed dissatisfaction with their current jobs. Figure 6.9 illustrates the correlation of the degree of (dis)satisfaction to respondents' designations.



In addition to enquiring about the respondents degree of satisfaction with their current work, eight additional research items that were used to determine the respondents' attitudes towards their jobs were included.

6.3.2 Managers' appreciation of work performed by employees

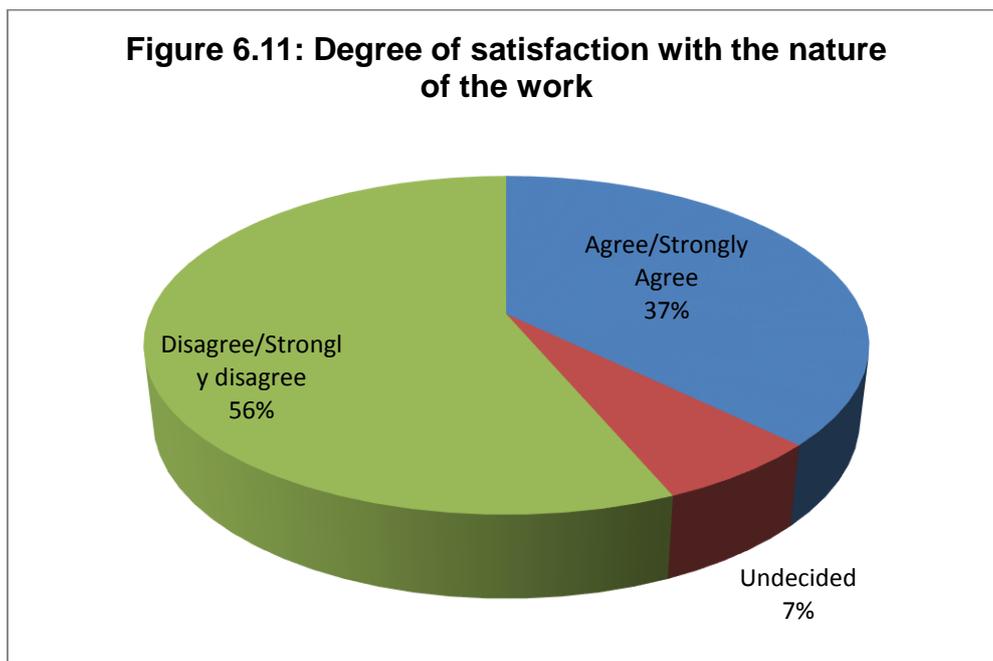
During their regular interactions with employees, managers are bound by their performance appraisal responsibilities to either appreciate outstanding performance or reprimand poor performance. They are required to institute appropriate disciplinary sanctions for prolonged poor performance. The reason for enquiring from respondents whether they experienced managers as appreciative of their work performance is that, consistent with the literature review which was discussed in previous chapters, acknowledging satisfactory and outstanding work performance improves morale and motivates employees in the workplace. Figure 6.10 illustrates the finding on whether respondents experienced their work as being appreciated or not.



The majority of respondents (47%) reported that managers are unappreciative of their work. Interestingly an equal number, 47% of the respondents experienced managers as appreciative of their work. An insignificant proportion (8%) of them was undecided.

6.3.3 Degree of satisfaction with the nature of the work

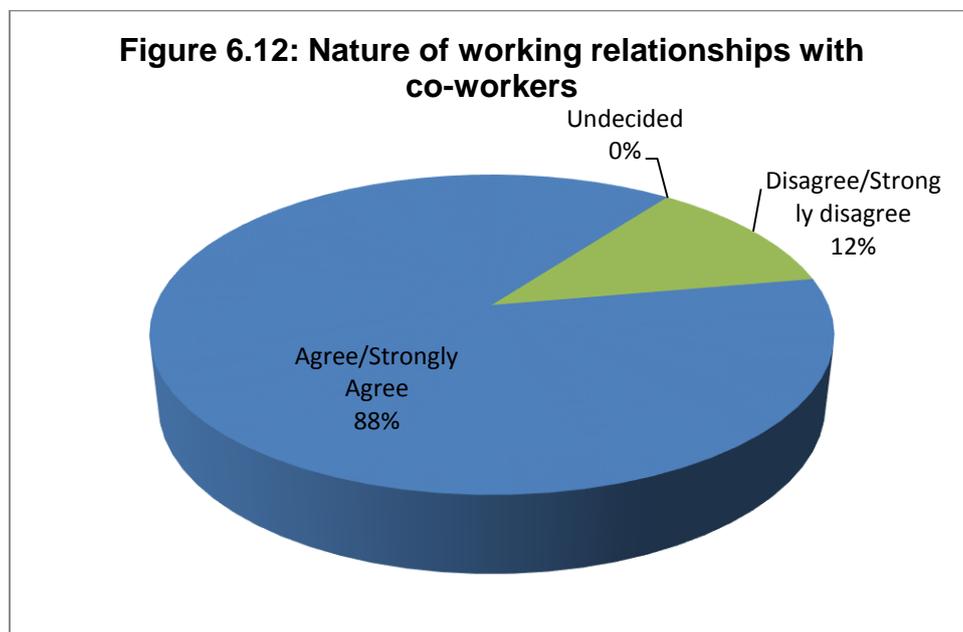
Employees that perform policing duties are confined to performing routine duties that are described in their job descriptions and performance plans. Compared to routine and rigid tasks that are strictly defined in regulations, most employees find flexible work over which they have control to be exciting, stimulating and inspiring. It gives employees the opportunity to acquire new skills and to broaden their experience. As a result, challenging work improves job satisfaction, motivation and commitment. In responding to this research item, the majority of the respondents (56%) experienced their work as boring, dull and uninspiring, whilst the 37% of them experienced theirs as fulfilling.



As illustrated in Figure 6.11, 7% of the respondents were undecided. This value 7% represents a total number of 28 of the 442 respondents that were selected as the target population. The next section presents the finding about whether the respondents experienced their working relationships as collegial or not.

6.3.4 Nature of working relationships with co-workers

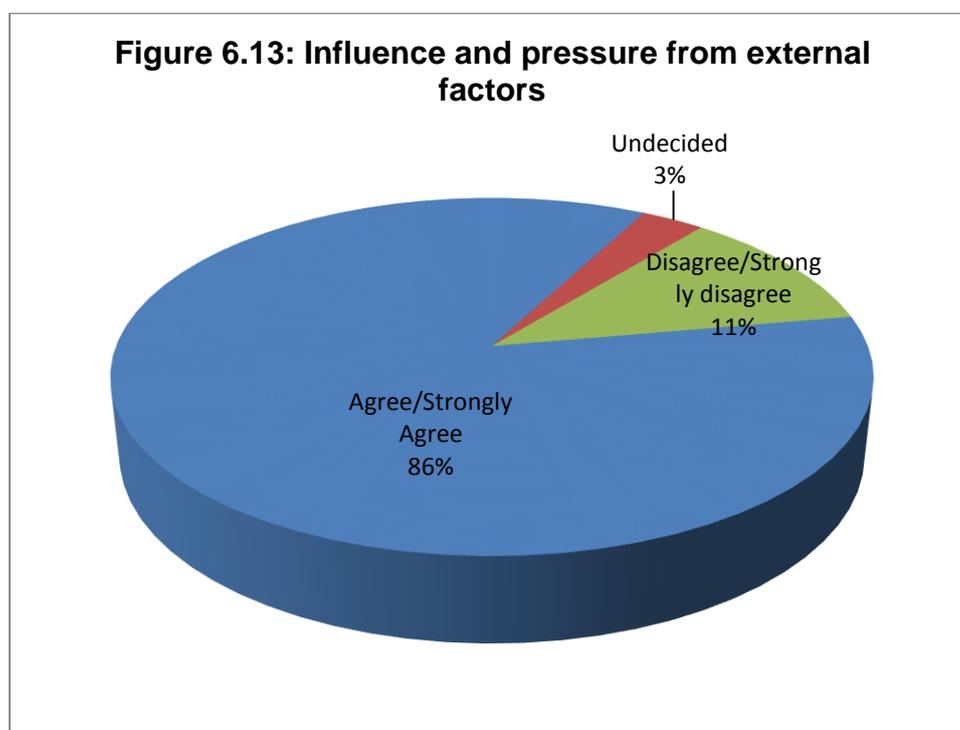
Good working relationships between employees in the workplace enhance co-operation, team work and as such help employees to achieve both personal and institutional goals. Working relationships are shared and affect employee work performance positively or negatively. Work relationships can influence employee decisions on whether to stay or leave. Good working relationships, as referred to in the literature (e.g. Source), are a motivating factor. As illustrated in Figures 6.8 and 6.12, the highest majority of the respondents (88%, n=389) agreed that they have good working relationships with their colleagues.



As illustrated in Figure 6.12, 12% of the respondents experienced their working relationships as unpleasant, suggesting strained and tension-filled work environments.

6.3.5 Influence and pressure from of external factors

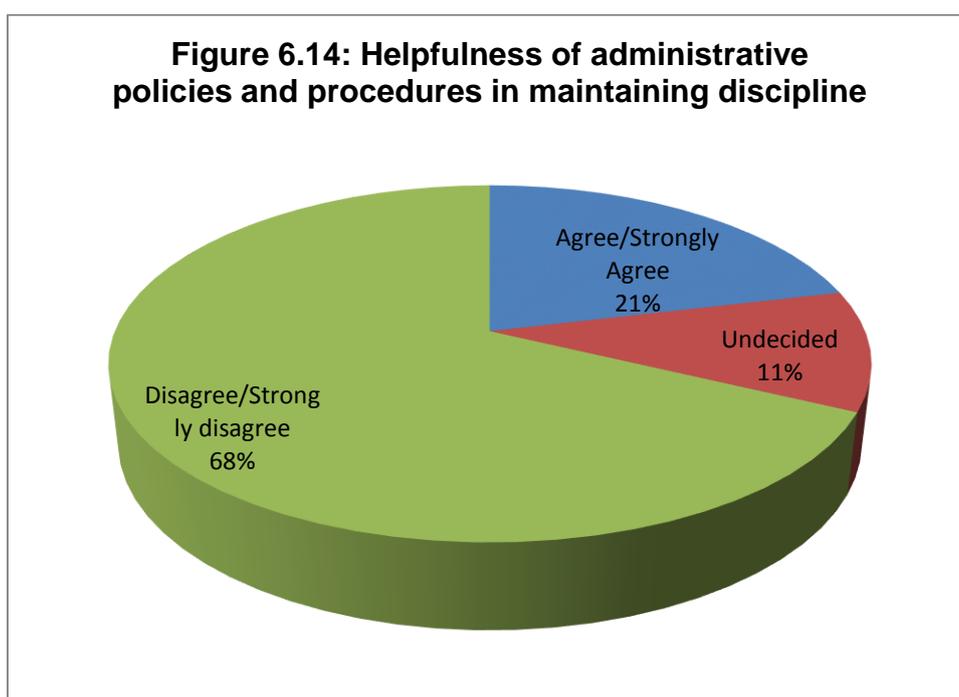
Like employees of most public institutions in the South African public sector, police officials perform their duties under severe pressure from citizens, interest groups, political parties and oversight bodies. Because the impact of safety and security services cannot be quantified, the performance of the police is continually criticised.



As illustrated in Figure 6.13, the majority of the respondents (86%) experienced their working environments as being influenced by pressures from the external environment, whilst 11% of them held a contrary view.

6.3.6 Helpfulness of administrative policies and procedures in maintaining discipline

As illustrated in Figure 6.14, the majority of the respondents experienced SAPS' administrative policies and procedures as obstructive (unhelpful) to maintaining discipline. Although a proportion of the respondents (11%) were undecided, another 21% of them agreed that SAPS' administrative policies and procedures are helpful to maintaining discipline.

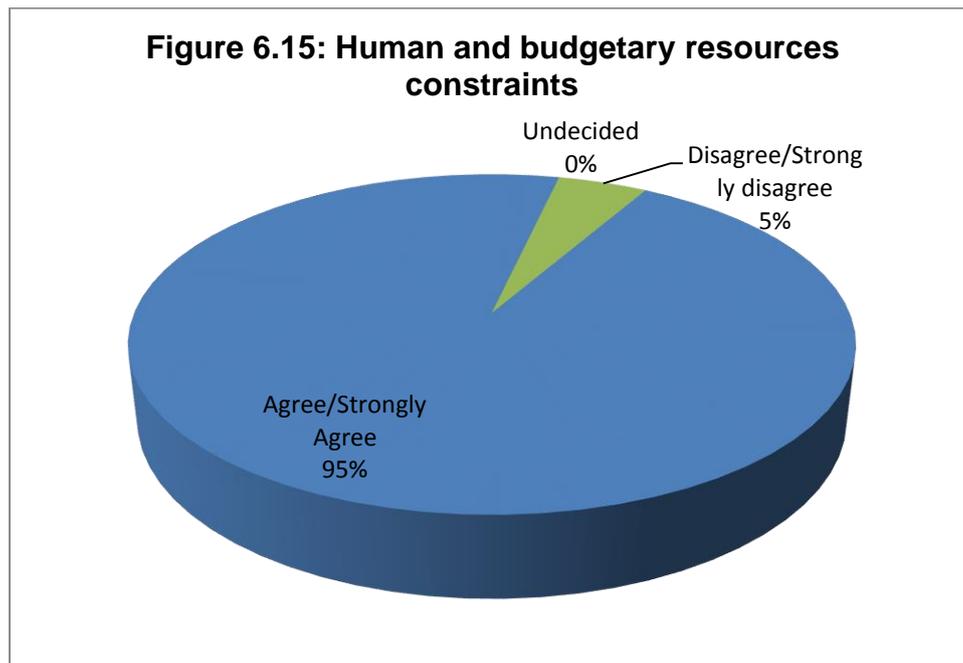


6.3.7 Human and budgetary resources constraints

Due to limited resources, most public institutions in the South African public sector are confronted with serious budgetary constraints. This problem has prompted both the President of the Republic of South Africa and Minister of

Finance to initiate expenditure cuts on certain government activities. The SAPS' budget has as a result been exponentially reduced.

In responding to this research item, the highest majority of respondents (95%) reported that there are human resources and budgetary constraints in their workplaces.

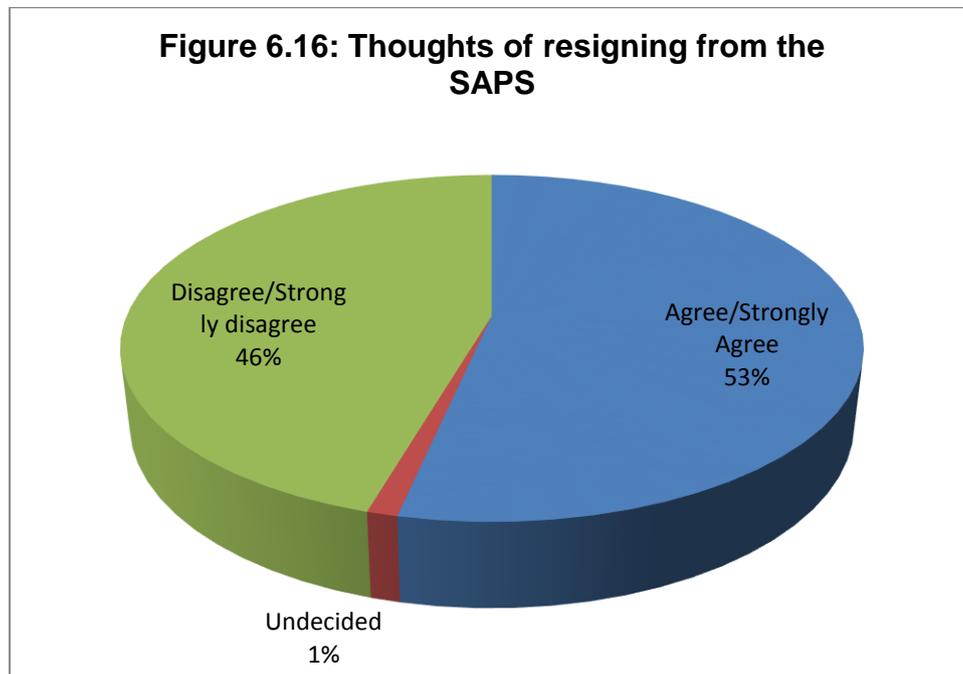


As illustrated by Figure 6.15, only 5% of the respondents, who might not have been exposed to how budgets are spent, did not experience any human and budgetary resources constraints in their work environments.

6.3.8 Thoughts of resigning from the SAPS

As illustrated by Figure 6.16, more than half of the respondents reported that they previously have had thoughts of resigning from SAPS whilst 46%, who probably could have been managers that are satisfied with their jobs and that

enjoy good working relationships with their colleagues, reported that they never did.

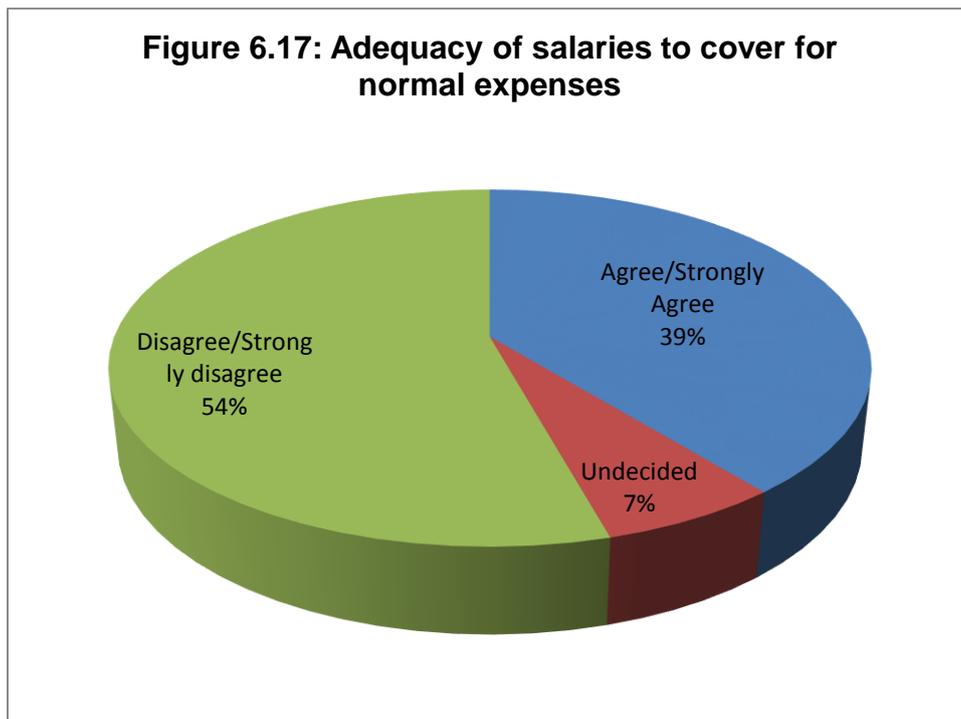


As depicted in Figure 6.16, only one respondent was undecided. No significant correlation between the respondents' thoughts of resigning from the SAPS and their gender and levels of educational achievements was observed. The next section explains the findings on respondents' degree of satisfaction with the adequacy of their salaries to cover normal expenses.

6.3.9 Adequacy of salaries to cover normal expenses

For the purpose of the interpretation of this finding, normal expenses refer to expenditure for basic household necessities examples of which may be food, clothing, school fees, transport costs and medical costs. A normal expense therefore does not include expenditure for luxury items that individuals or

households purchase irregularly, but basic necessities without which persons or households cannot survive. As illustrated in Figure 6.17, the majority of the respondents (54%) disagreed that their salaries are adequate to cover normal expenses and a further 39% agreed that theirs are able to cover necessary expenses.



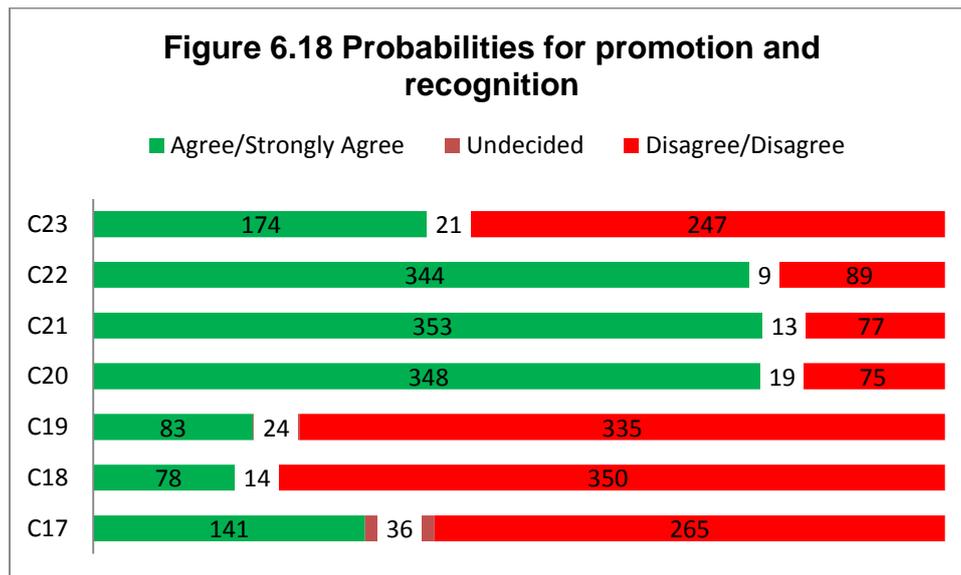
Only 7% of the total number of 442 respondents was undecided. The next section presents the findings of how the respondents experienced the probabilities for proportion and recognition in the SAPS.

6.4 PROBABILITIES FOR PROMOTION AND RECOGNITION

As referred to in the discussion of the literature review in Chapter 2, promotions and recognition for work done are significant sources of career advancement and mobility. The two are valued for being extrinsic motivating factors that

intrigue the desire to withstand or resign from jobs. This may even be intensified by competition between the public and private sectors for skilled and experienced employees in scarce skills occupations. Amongst other entities, SAPS competes with private security companies for skilled and experienced employees. Due to the intensity of the training that the police officials undergo after being recruited into SAPS, losing them to competing private security companies may incur serious cost implications for SAPS.

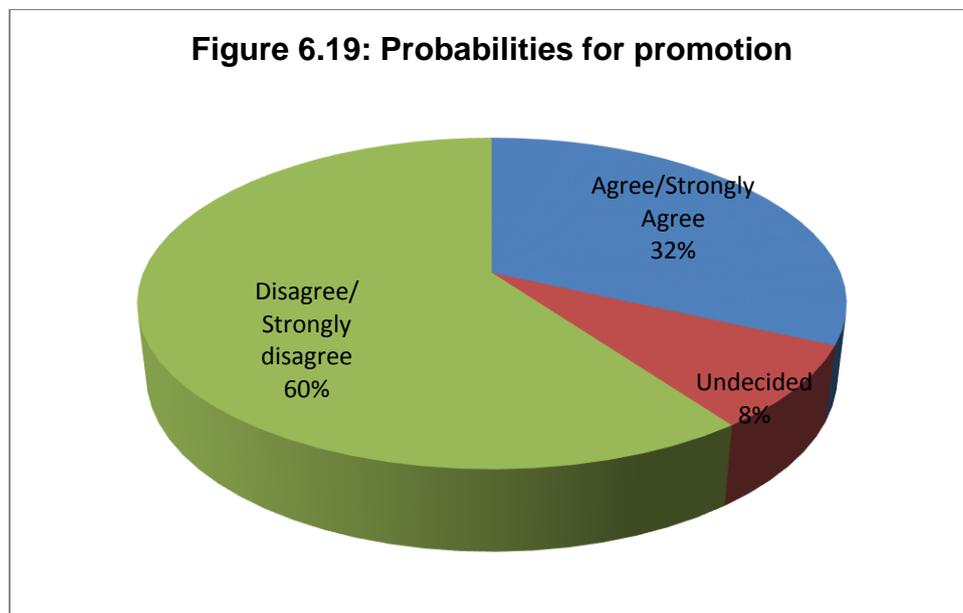
This section presents the findings of the seven research items that were used to enquire about the respondents' experiences of probabilities for promotion and recognition in SAPS. The values that illustrate the feelings and perceptions of the respondents' experiences of probabilities for promotion and recognition in SAPS are presented in Figure 6.18.



As in the presentation of the findings of the respondents' attitudes towards their jobs, each of the findings of the probabilities for promotion and recognition are further examined in following subsections.

6.4.1 Probabilities for promotion

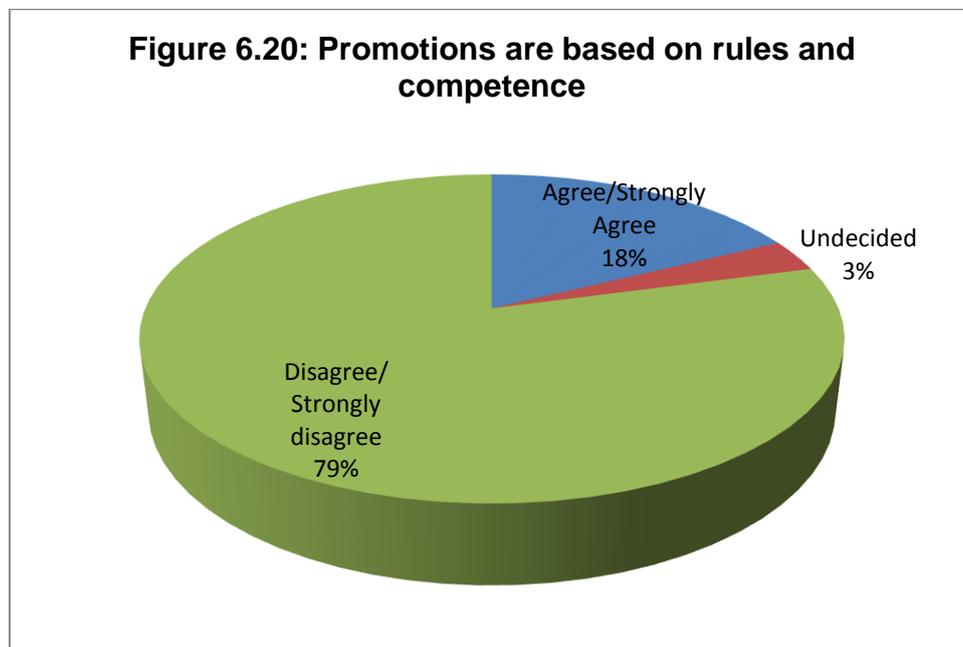
This research questionnaire enquired whether the respondents foresaw opportunities for personal growth in SAPS or not. This research item required them to predict the chances of being promoted in the future using the five-point Likert scale that illustrated their degree of satisfaction. As illustrated in Figure 6.19, the highest majority (60%) disagreed. Contrarily, 32% of the respondents were optimistic that there were future prospects of progressing to senior positions in the SAPS.



As illustrated in Figure 6.19, 8% of the respondents, who probably could have been relatively new appointees, were undecided.

6.4.2 Promotions are based on rules and competence

As explained in the discussions of the study area, SAPS has over years developed and implemented a promotion policy that is used to inform decisions on whether employees meet the requirements for promotion or not. Panels that consist of senior managers are often constituted to decide, on the basis of the information contained in the application forms, whether applicants are promotable or not. Amongst the requirements that these panels must observe in terms of this policy, is competence or merit. Figure 6.20 illustrates the degree to which the respondents were satisfied with compliance with rules and the degree to which competence influenced the decisions to promote the applicants.

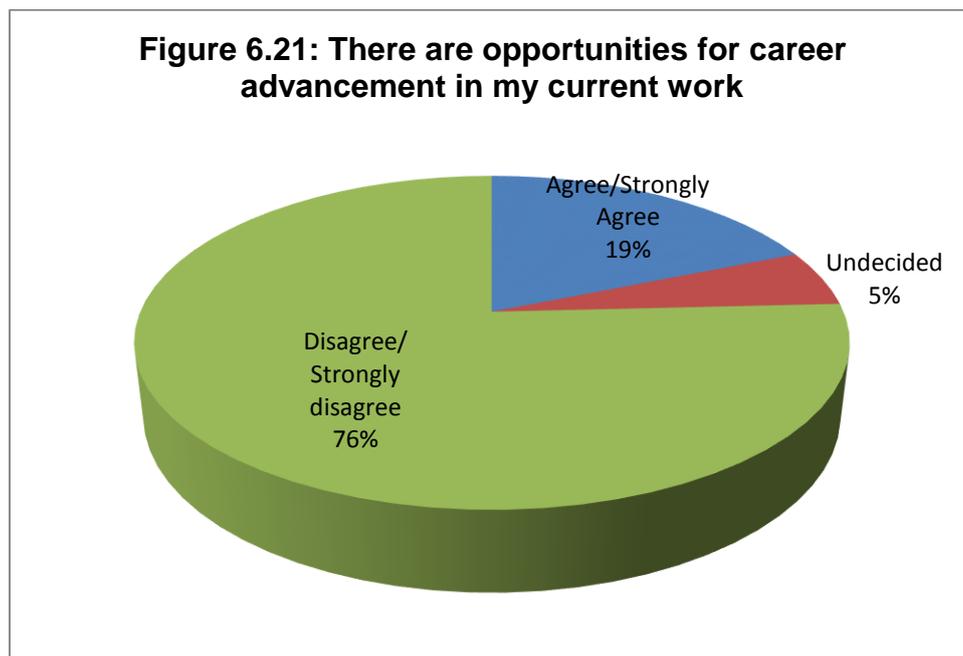


As illustrated in Figure 6.20, the majority of the respondents (79%) experienced promotion decisions not as rules-compliant and competence-driven. These respondents felt that panels who are constituted to decide on promotions

transgress the policy and as such undeserving employees that do not meet the requirements for promotion are promoted.

6.4.3 Existence of opportunities for career advancement

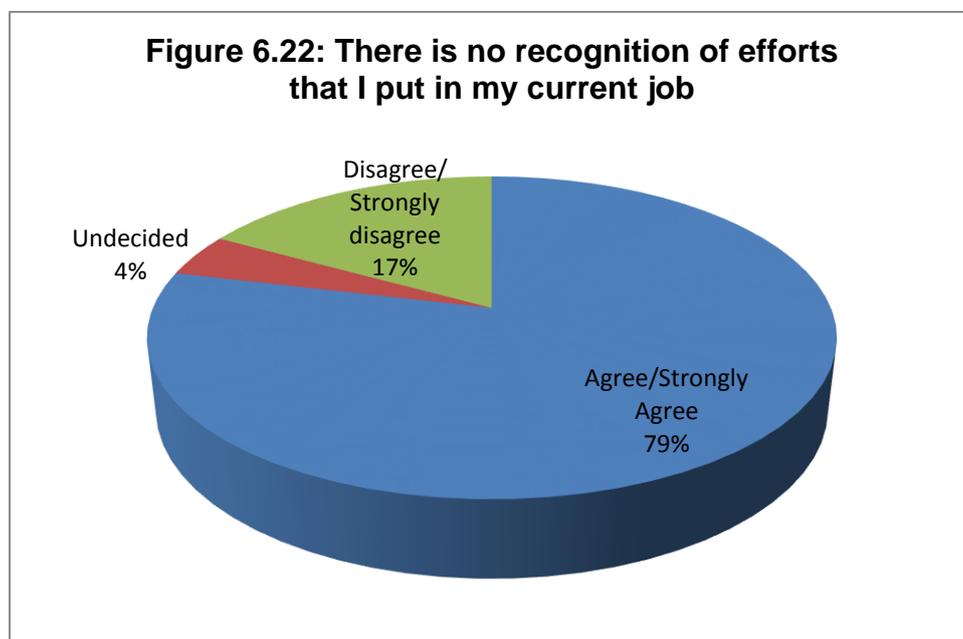
Consistent with the findings of the respondents' experiences of the probabilities for promotion, the highest majority of the respondents (76%) did not foresee opportunities for career advancement in their current work. This finding reveals that the respondents thought that opportunities for career advancement exist in SAPS generally, but not in the workstations at which they were deployed to.



As such, if they aspire to grow, they will have to apply for career advancement opportunities in other workstations that their immediate workstations and even in the public or private sectors in general.

6.4.4 Recognition for efforts undertaken by employees

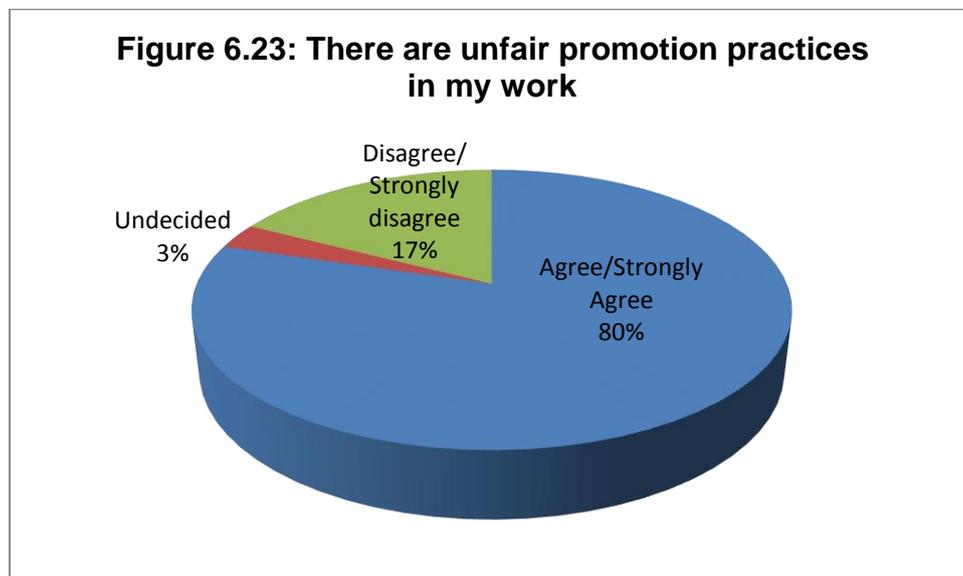
The findings of the research item that enquired from respondents whether managers appreciate the work that they perform may be correlated to this finding. Appreciation is positive by nature, it is a way that expresses recognition. Recognition is a motivating factor; it enhances morale and, job satisfaction and commitment. In SAPS, the performance enhancement process policy provides for both formal and informal ways through which managers should recognise employees' outstanding performance. As illustrated in Figure 6.22, an overwhelming majority of the respondents experienced the efforts that they put in their work as not being recognised.



As illustrated in Figure 6.22, 17% of the respondents experienced managers as recognising the efforts that employees put in their work and a further 4% of them were undecided.

6.4.5 Existence of unfair promotion practices

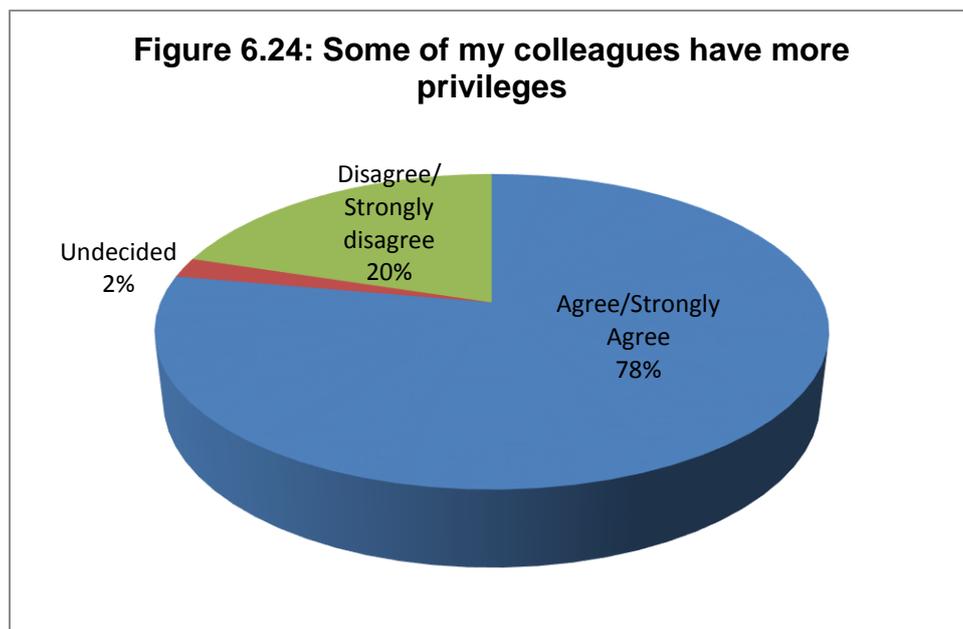
The findings that express views about the existence of fair promotion practices may also be correlated to the finding on whether the promotions are decided upon in terms of what the promotion policy provides and whether they are based on competence or merit. Most likely, the respondents that perceive that the requirements of the SAPS promotion policy are not adhered to and that promotions are not based on merit, they will perceive the practices that are instituted to promote employees as unfair. As illustrated in Figure 6.23 below, 80% of the respondents reported that there were unfair promotion practices whilst the experience of 17% of them was contrary. Figure 6.23 below illustrates this finding.



As illustrated in Figure 6.23, 3% of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that unfair promotion practices exist in their current work.

6.4.6 Equality and fairness

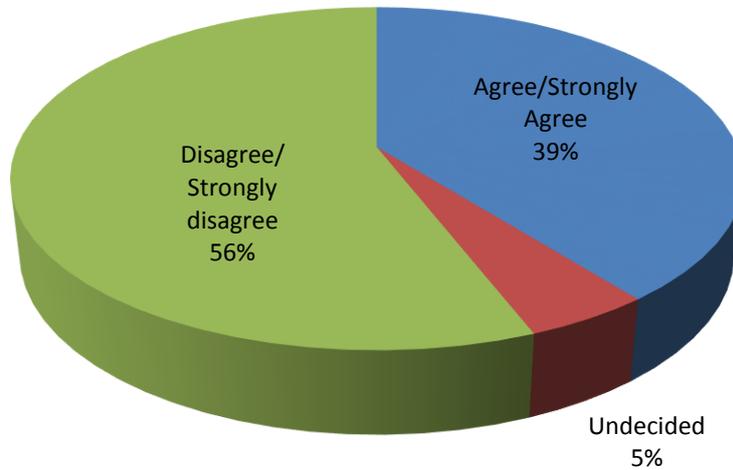
Consistent with the finding on whether there were unfair promotion practices in their work, the majority of the respondents (78%) agreed that some of their colleagues enjoy privileges that some are denied.



6.4.7 Usefulness of the current promotion system

The last research item required the respondents to assess whether the system that had been instituted to decide on promotions was useful or not. Whilst responding to this research item, the respondents could reflect on their acquired experiences of whether the promotions are decided upon in terms of the requirements of the promotions policy or not, whether they are based on competence or not and whether fair promotion practices existed or not. More than half (56%) of the respondents regarded the current promotion system as not useful.

Figure 6.25: Current promotion system is useful



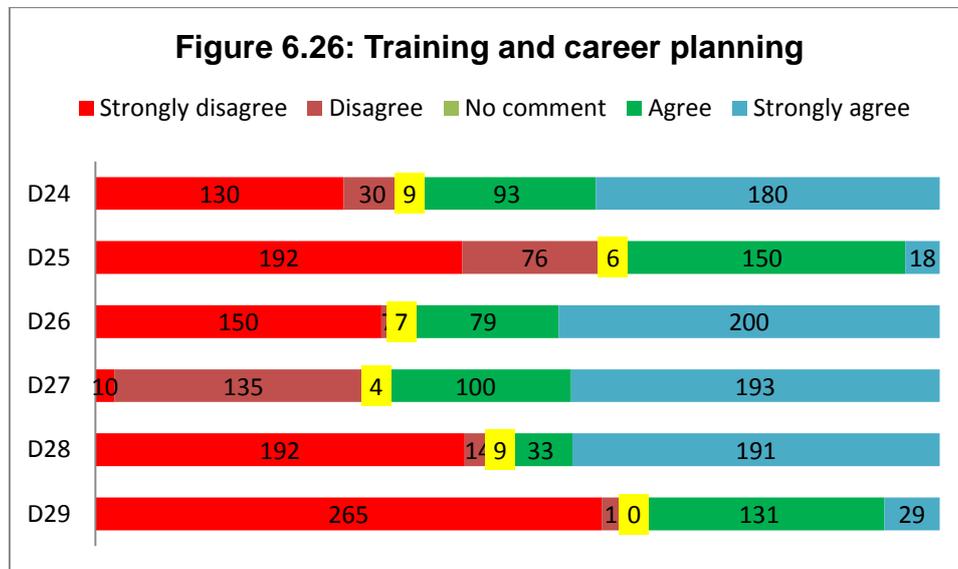
As illustrated in Figure 6.25, although the majority of the respondents appraised SAPS's current promotion system as useless, some 39% of them considered the system to be useful. The findings of how the respondents experienced training and career planning in SAPS are presented in the next section.

6.5 TRAINING AND CAREER PLANNING

As was explained earlier in this chapter, SAPS devotes a significant amount of its budget to training and career management. As the largest public institution in the South African public sector, it has well-established components that focus on training and career management. Therefore, the findings on how the respondents appraise aspects of training and career planning give insight into how the effectiveness of these components can be improved. Training helps employees to fulfil their career development goals, improves their performance, gains recognition and to grow in their careers. It therefore has a significant

influence over morale, degree of satisfaction and level of commitment of employees to their jobs (cf. Masood, Qurat-UI-Ain, Aslam & Rizwan, 2014: 98).

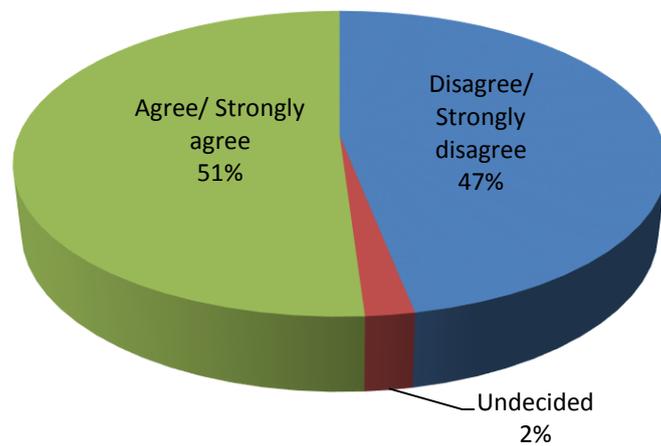
Figure 6.26 illustrates the values of the findings of how the respondents experienced the effectiveness of training and career planning in SAPS. Similar to the respondents' attitudes towards their jobs and probabilities for promotion and recognition, these values are further explained and explored. As illustrated in Figure 6.26, the respondents' experiences of the effectiveness of training and career planning in SAPS were diverse.



6.5.1 Degree of satisfaction with training that is provided for the job

As illustrated in Figure 6.27, the majority of the respondents (62%) were satisfied with the type of training that was provided for their jobs whilst (36%) of them were not.

Figure 6.27: Degree of satisfaction with training that is provided for the job

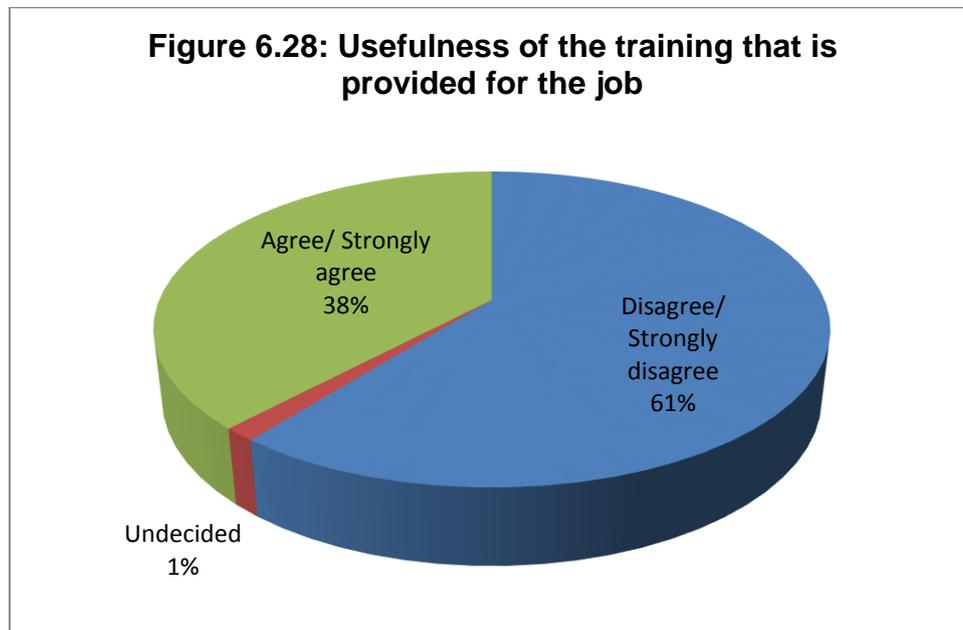


There were statistically significant age differences in the respondents' degree of satisfaction with the training to which they are exposed, existence of opportunities to use and develop skills in their current jobs and the degree of satisfaction with career prospects. The findings reveal that older respondents were significantly more satisfied with the training that they were exposed to, had more opportunities to use and develop skills in their current jobs and were satisfied with their career prospects than the younger (<35 years) respondents.

6.5.2 Usefulness of the training that is provided for the job

The term 'usefulness' was used to determine whether the respondents experienced the training to which they were exposed to as 'relevant' to the nature of the tasks that they performed and whether such training helped them to improve their performance or not. The majority of the respondents (61%) experienced the training to which they were exposed to as irrelevant for the types of work that they performed, whilst 38% of them reported that theirs was

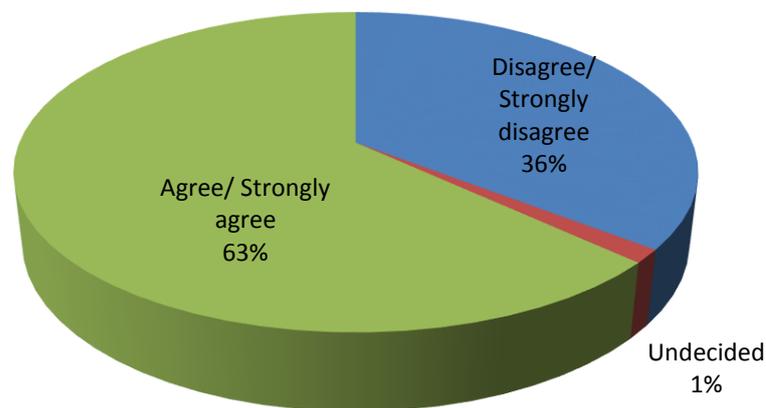
useful. Figure 6.28 below illustrates the respondents' experiences of the usefulness of the training that was provided for their jobs.



6.5.3 Special type of training is required for my current job

As was explained in both the discussions of the occupational categories in Chapter 4 and at the presentation of the findings of the biographical information of respondents earlier in this chapter, some employees in SAPS perform work of a specialised nature and for which intensive training is required. Two examples that may be noted in this case are ballistics and forensic investigation training.

Figure 6.29: Special training is required for my current job

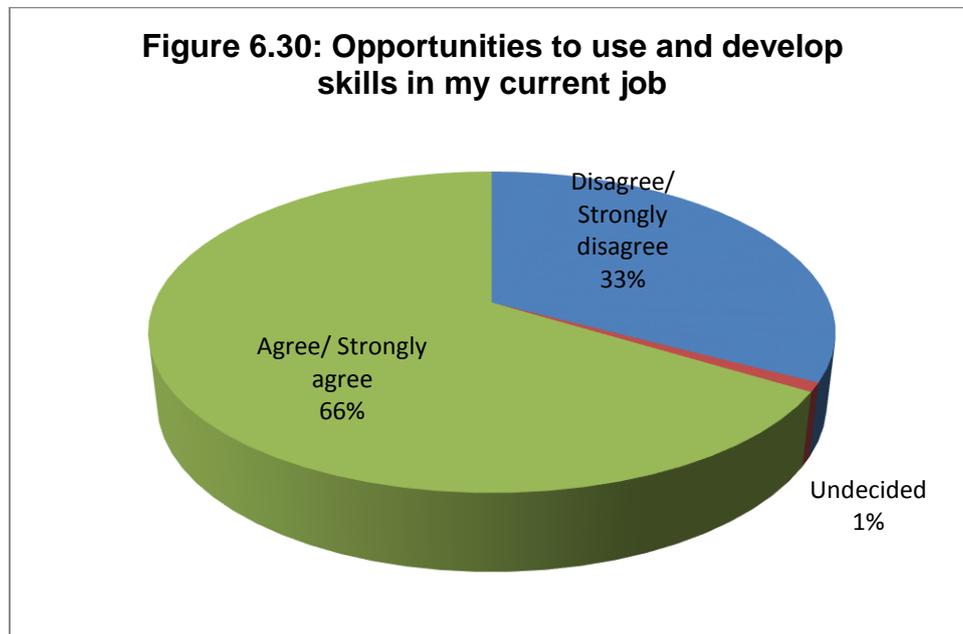


As illustrated in Figure 6.29, the majority of the respondents agreed that their jobs required specialised training. However, the experiences of another group consisting of 36% of the respondents felt that their jobs did not require specialised training. These may probably be employees that perform administrative work for which generic training may be provided. A significant number of younger (<35 years) respondents (72.9%) agreed that their current jobs require some special type of training; that there are very few opportunities for career development in their current jobs; and that they were satisfied with their present career prospects.

6.5.4 Opportunities to use and develop skills in my current job

After employees have been exposed to training, they must be able to make use of the skills that they have acquired. Because skills gaps are never completely non-existent, a skills audit that reveals the skills needs of employees during the performance cycle, must be identified. An appropriate skills plan that is

informed by the skills audit will therefore need to be developed and implemented.

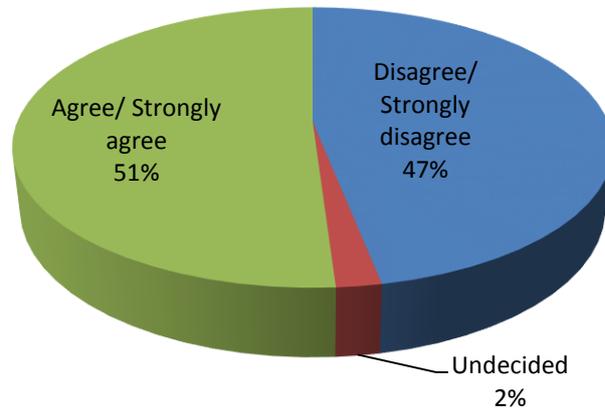


As illustrated in Figure 6.30, the majority of the respondents (66%) agreed that there were opportunities to make use of the skills on which they have been trained. Contrarily, another group that consisted of 33% of the respondents reported that there are no opportunities to make use of the skills on which they have been trained.

6.5.5 Opportunities for career development in my current job

Training and career planning are essentially about career development and growth. The two enable employees to satisfy their training and career development needs and in general to realise their potential. Employee development, therefore, increases the chances of career advancement.

Figure 6.31: Opportunities for career development in my current job

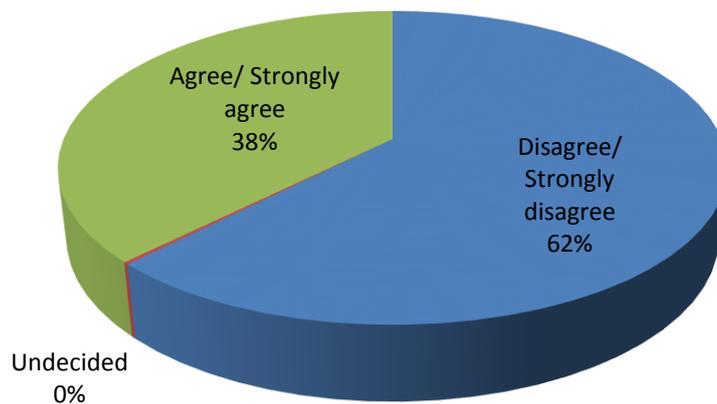


As illustrated in Figure 6.31, slightly more than half of the respondents (51%) agreed that there were opportunities for career development in their current jobs. Contrarily, another group consisting of 47% of the respondents experienced opportunities for career development in their current working environments as non-existent.

6.5.6 Degree of satisfaction with current career prospects

The finding of this research item correlates to both the findings on the respondents' experiences of probabilities for promotion (cf. Figure: 6.19) and existence of opportunities for career advancement (cf. Figure 6.21). Whilst responding to this research item, the majority of the respondents (62%) were not satisfied with their career prospects.

Figure 6.32: Degree of satisfaction with current career prospects



Another group that consisted of 38% of the respondents (cf. Figure 6.32) reported that they were satisfied with career prospects that existed in their working environments.

6.6 LEADERSHIP STYLE AND INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT

Amongst other factors, leadership entails giving support, inspiring employees to be productive, instilling discipline, building individual capacity and cohesive teams to enable cooperation and creating an environment in which employees are able to realise both personal and institutional goals. The leadership role of managers is a critical factor for the success of public institutions. The relationships that employees have with supervisors and managers are a central element to the employees' attachment to the public institution. The way in which employees behave is an outcome of the type of leadership that they are exposed to. The discussions in this part focus on the presentation of the findings of the respondents' experiences of leadership style and institutional support in SAPS. As explained in the introductory remarks of this chapter, the sequence

that is followed in presenting these findings derives from the discussion of the research methodology in Chapter 5.

6.6.1 Supervisors encourages employees to achieve the goals in time

As part of ensuring that public institutions deliver in a timely manner, supervisors are required to develop performance standards against which employees' performance will be assessed and to monitor that employees perform in accordance with those standards. Supervisors have the responsibility to motivate and encourage employees to meet performance targets. As illustrated in Table 6.1, the majority of the respondents (65%) agreed that their supervisors encourage them to achieve goals in time, whilst the experiences of 35% of them were contrary.

6.6.2 Supervisors support employees in their efforts to achieve goals

In the absence of the required support from supervisors, employees may find it difficult to achieve goals timeously or at all. It is therefore the role of supervisors to regularly support employees to enable them to perform satisfactorily. Support in this regard may refer to regular interventions such as training to improve performance, referral to employee assistance programmes to resolve personal problems or mediation to resolve conflict between employees. As shown in Table 6.1, the majority of the respondents (63%) agreed that supervisors support them to achieve their goals. However, the experiences of 35% of other respondents were of the opposite perception.

6.6.3 Supervisors encourage employees to see new opportunities and to act upon them

Exposure to new opportunities is a motivating factor that improves morale, enhances motivation and that increases job satisfaction and commitment. New opportunities such as acquiring new skills increases the likelihood for career

advancement. These opportunities may also be in the form of succession plans with which employees are trained to in future apply for leadership positions. As shown in Table 6.1, the majority of the respondents (60%) experienced their supervisors as exposing them to new career opportunities and encouraging them to take advantage of those opportunities.

6.6.4 Supervisors create good working environments

Creating 'good' working environments, sometimes referred to as 'enabling' environments is critical leadership success factor that is often overlooked during performance planning. Other than strict performance standards that are always emphasised upon, this complementary role that supervisors are required to perform is most often not agreed to between supervisors and employees during the formulation of performance plans. Encouraging and supporting employees to achieve goals are some of the typical ways through which supervisors create a good working environment. Whilst responding to this research item, the majority of the respondents (57%) agreed that their supervisors create good working environments in which they are able to perform their work. However, 39% of other respondents experienced their supervisors as doing the opposite. Table 6.1 illustrates the findings of the respondents' experiences of leadership style and institutional support in SAPS.

Table 6.1: Leadership style and institutional support

Item	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree %	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Overall Agreement %	Overall Disagreement %
30	My supervisor puts focus on the task, encouraging employees to achieve the goals in time	125	163	10 (2.0%)	43	101	288(65.0%)	144 (33.0%)
31	My supervisor puts focus on relations, striving to support the employees in their efforts to reach the goals	136	143	9 (2.0%)	50	104	279 (63.0%)	154 (35.0%)
32	My supervisor puts focus on development, encouraging the employees to see new opportunities and also act upon them	149	116	11 (2.0%)	33	133	265 (60.0%)	166 (37.6%)
33	My supervisor puts focus on creating a good working environment	134	121	14 (3.4%)	87	86	255 (57.7%)	173 (39.1%)
34	I have a good working relationship with my supervisor	129	116	36 (8.1%)	62	99	245 (54.5%)	161 (36.4%)
35	I have the support of my supervisor to balance family and work demands	114	119	31 (7.0%)	81	97	233 (52.7%)	178 (40.3%)
36	The supervisor try to understand the problems employees experience in their work	121	79	19 (4.3%)	23	200	200 (45.2%)	223 (50.5%)
37	My supervisor stimulates me to think of current and future prospects	123	14	26 (5.9%)	178	101	137 (31.0%)	279 (63.1%)
38	My supervisor takes my ideas and interests into consideration	136	23	31 (7.0%)	63	189	159 (36.0%)	252 (57.0%)
39	We can criticise the work regulations and our criticisms are heard	119	18	60 (13.6%)	83	162	137 (31.0%)	245 (55.4%)
40	My supervisor appreciates it when employees have new way of resolving the problem	104	36	46 (10.4%)	164	92	140 (31.7%)	256 (57.9%)
41	Supervisors make an effort to get to know employees individually	113	18	56 (12.7%)	176	79	131 (29.6%)	255 (57.7%)

6.6.6 Nature of working relationship with my supervisors

Working relationships between employees in general may be productive or counter-productive. As referred to in the presentation of the findings of the respondents' attitudes towards their jobs, good working relationships enable co-operation and team work. Like encouraging and supporting employees to achieve goals, the role of the supervisors in creating good working relationships is important in creating good working environments. More than half (54.5%) of the respondents identified their relationships with their supervisors as good whilst some 36.4% of them experienced theirs are counterproductive.

6.6.7 Employees have support from supervisors to balance family and work demands

Like in the case of the finding of the nature of the relationship the respondents had with their supervisors, more than half (53%) of the respondents reported that they acquired some form of support from their supervisors to balance family and work demands. However, 40% of them reported having not being offered such support by their supervisors.

6.6.8 Senior managers try to understand the problems that are experienced by employees in their work environments

In any workplace, employees will always experience problems for which they may have direct or no control over. Understanding and helping employees to resolve these problems is not only an indication of caring, but a way of supporting employee wellness in the workplace. Understanding and helping employees to resolve problems teaches employees to do the same to their peers and as a result helps create a supportive working environment in which employees depend on each other. In response to this research item, approximately half (50.5%) of the respondents experienced their senior managers as having not shown interest in understanding or helping them to resolve their problems.

6.6.9 Supervisors stimulate employees to think of current and future prospects

Although it is not always the case, supervisors as leaders inspire employees in many ways and encourage them to think of future prospects within their working environments. Such prospects may be personal or institutional in nature and they help employees to determine their degree of attachment to a public institution. In response to this research item, 63% of the respondents experienced their supervisors as not inspiring as they should be. However, 31% of them experienced their supervisors to be inspiring them to think of current of future prospects.

6.6.10 Supervisors take employees' ideas and interest into consideration

Similar to listening to constructive criticism about aspects of the working environment, allowing employees to have an input into how the working environment in general can be improved is a motivating factor. It enables employees to feel part of a team and as a result, increases their self-esteem, morale and levels of job satisfaction. Whilst responding to this research item, most respondents (57%) held that their supervisors do not consider their ideas.

6.6.11 Employees are able to criticise work regulations and such criticism is considered during the reviewing of policies

Although criticism of regulations is sometimes interpreted negatively, it simply is an appraisal of the value of the procedures. Criticism is a form of input on how the working environment can be improved. Experienced employees, after having utilised procedures for prolonged periods of time, are able to appraise the weaknesses or benefits of implementing certain procedures. It is therefore the role of managers in this regard to evaluate whether such criticism is constructive and to use it during the review of policies. Most (55.4%) of the respondents felt that they could not criticise procedures, whilst 31% of them felt that they could.

6.6.12 Supervisors appreciate it when employees have new ways of resolving problems

Recent problems that are experienced in public institutions require new ways of thinking as old procedures fall short of resolving them. This research item essentially enquired from the respondents whether they experienced supervisors and senior managers as creating an environment in which employees are able to think and act *creatively*. As illustrated in Table 6.1, 58% of the respondents experienced supervisors in the work environments as not allowing employees to be creative in resolving problems.

6.6.13 Supervisors make an effort to get to know employees individually

Lastly, approximately 58% of the respondents experienced their supervisors as not making an effort to know them individually.

6.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the findings of the study. These findings were presented consistently with the sequence of the questionnaire as was explained in Chapter 5. In as far as the findings of the biographical data are concerned, it can be concluded that the research sample was representative in that it consisted of respondents drawn from different levels of interaction, occupational categories, civil statuses, age groups, gender categories, educational achievements and numbers of years of experience. A significant element that justifies the validity of the findings is that the majority of the respondents (70%) had served the SAPS as loyal employees for between six (6) and twenty one (21) years.

Despite being significantly educated in that some of them had achieved educational qualifications such as doctoral, master and honours degrees, they remained employed by SAPS for all these years. In as far as the findings on the institutional factors are concerned; the discussions in this chapter reveal that the respondents were relatively dissatisfied with the practices that were instituted by managers and as a result they

held negative attitudes about their jobs, and could not predict the prospects for promotion and career advancement in that they perceived the criteria that were used to decide on promotions as unfair. Despite being dissatisfied about their jobs, there is evidence that reveals that the respondents were fairly satisfied with training and career planning initiatives and the leadership that they were exposed to as well as the amount of support given to them by their supervisors. Concluding remarks on the institutional factors are discussed in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 presented the findings of the study. These findings were divided into five sections that focused on the respondents' biographical information, attitudes towards their jobs, experiences of probabilities for promotion and recognition, training and career planning, and lastly, leadership styles and institutional support in SAPS. Although the findings are illustrative of areas in which there is significant progress, they also highlight areas in which improvements are required. Areas in which improvements are required are about the findings on the research items on which employees expressed their dissatisfaction. Despite having discussed the personal factors as both part of the literature review in Chapter 2 and the findings in Chapter 6, the concluding remarks and recommendations that are discussed in this chapter focus exclusively on institutional factors.

The discussions in this chapter are linked to the last research question and research objective that were described in Chapter 1. The concluding remarks that are drawn in this chapter are comprehensive in that they integrate the discussions of the literature reviews on job satisfaction, employee retention and the roles of managers in retaining employees. At the policy and strategy levels, the findings of this study may be used as a guideline to develop both the employee retention policy and strategy in SAPS. Although the research activities were confined to SAPS and in particular its head office, they may be applied by other public institutions that experience similar challenges in the South African public sector. The two main discussions that are dealt with in this chapter are the concluding remarks and recommendations.

7.2 CONCLUDING REMARKS

As explained in Chapter 1, the main purpose of this study is to contribute to research on job satisfaction and employee retention in the South African public sector. As explained in the introductory remarks of Chapter 1, although research that focuses on job satisfaction and employee retention has abundantly been conducted in other disciplines, there is little research done in the discipline of Public Administration and in particular, public human resource management. In order to contribute to research on these concepts, six research objectives, each being aligned to a particular research question were formulated. These research objectives were further aligned to the outline of chapters and the four areas to which this study aimed to contribute.

By posing the research questions and formulating consistent research objectives, this study therefore aimed to contribute to the development of the theory of public human resource management as an area of specialisation in the discipline Public Administration as well as the knowledge and practice of the roles of managers in retaining employees. As explained in Chapter 1, this study also intended to inspire public human resource management research that focuses on relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention and at policy and strategy levels, to give guidance about how managers in SAPS can develop an employee retention policy and strategy.

The discussions in Chapter 2 presented the literature review on job satisfaction and the determinants of job satisfaction. Both these discussions evolved as a response to the first research question that was posed in Chapter 1 that enquired about what job satisfaction was and what the factors that determined it were. The definition and the discussion of the determinants of job satisfaction revealed that job satisfaction is a complex, multifaceted or heterogeneous phenomenon in that it is determined by multiple interdependent factors, namely personal and institutional factors. Because employees spend most of their time in workplaces, job satisfaction becomes part of their overall satisfaction with life and wellbeing.

Valuable insight that is derived from the discussions of the determinants of job satisfaction is that both the personal and institutional factors are interrelated. For example, educational achievement (as a personal factor) increases opportunities for promotion and career advancement (institutional factor). Years of experience (as a personal factor) enable employees to better cope with the demands of their work and to better manage the pressures of the workplace environment. Despite being the source of job satisfaction, these factors may also have negative impact on job satisfaction. For example, educational achievement enhances job satisfaction; contrarily educational achievement may be the source of job dissatisfaction in that employees' educational achievements increase the expectations for high paid jobs and status. Not only did the discussions in this chapter shed insight into how complex job satisfaction is, but guided the process of constructing the research questionnaire that was used to gather data from the respondents. Although not exhaustive, most of the institutional factors that were discussed in this chapter are reflected as research items in the research questionnaire.

The discussions in Chapter 3 were based on the literature review of two constructs, namely, employee retention and roles of managers in retaining employees. From an analysis point of view, these discussions were also considered interrelated in that employee retention as a complex phenomenon cannot be defined without making specific reference to practices that are instituted and the designations of employees that are entrusted with powers to institute them. Similar to job satisfaction, employee retention is poorly researched in South Africa. The dearth of research on employee retention is particularly evident in the South African public sector, the largest employer in the job market. Employee retention was identified as an independent variable in that the ability of the public sector to retain employees is dependent on the effectiveness of the practices that are instituted to keep employees satisfied with their jobs.

As initiatives that were instituted to transform HRM practices in the South African public service, employee retention practices enjoy immense legislative support. The Constitution as the supreme law of the country gives effect to the promulgation and enactment of laws that guide managers about the nature of practices that must be instituted to retain employees. In particular, the legislation also entrusts managers with the required authority to institute employee retention practices. Some of the roles that they perform to retain employees include designing competitive and market-related rewards, creating supportive institutional cultures, investing in employee training and development and helping employees to balance work and non-work demands.

As reflected upon in the outline of chapters in Chapter 1, the purpose of the discussion in Chapter 4 was to introduce and justify SAPS as an appropriate study area. The discussions that were deliberated upon were about the developments in SAPS, SAPS as part of the South African public sector, its institutional culture and performance management. Although SAPS is a public institution, it is unique. Some of the features that distinguishes SAPS from other public institutions in the South African public sector are the legislation from which it derives its mandate, the nature of the services it renders to the society, the programmes that are instituted to achieve its constitutional mandate and its institutional culture.

The discussions also reveal that, as a result of having instituted a well-resourced career management component whose responsibilities are further cascaded to the level of police stations, SAPS is strategically positioned to effectively reduce employee turnover. Performance Enhancement Process, which is directly linked to SAPS' annual strategic plans and which integrates various HRM practices [such as career planning, training and development, rewards, employee assistance programme (EAP), incentives and promotions] is an important tool that managers can use to retain employees. Performance Enhancement Process can also be used as a tool to create a supportive and unitary culture.

The research design and methodology were explained in Chapter 5 and the discussions on research design were about the targeted research population, the sampling procedure that was used to select respondents and their composition, as well as the size and the diversity of the research sample. All the sections of the research questionnaire were discussed in Chapter 5 as part of the research methodology. The significance of the research methodology that is used in this study is that it is embedded in both the literature on job satisfaction and employee retention. The research methodology is embedded in the literature review of job satisfaction in that the research items that are contained in the research questionnaire were discussed as part of the institutional factors that determine job satisfaction in Chapter 2.

The Five-point Likert scale, from which the respondents selected the responses that describe their degree of satisfaction, is a predictor of the intentions of employees to quit. Some of the concluding remarks that can be drawn from the discussions in Chapter 5 are that the use of pilot study ensured that the conclusions that are reached in this study are valid and reliable. This chapter also discussed the ethical requirements that were adhered to, in particular, obtaining permission from SAPS, ensuring that the respondents participated voluntarily in the research activities and that information was kept confidential and anonymous. Furthermore, the discussions that were dealt with in Chapter 5 reflected on the limitations of the study.

The respondents' attitudes towards their jobs were determined in respect of the nine research items that were highlighted in the discussions of the research methodology in Chapter 5. From the findings that are presented in Chapter 6, it can be concluded that the respondents' attitudes towards their jobs were serious concerns in that only middle and senior managers found their jobs as a source of job satisfaction. Comparatively, non-commissioned police officials were the most dissatisfied respondents than commissioned managers and senior managers. Although the majority of the respondents reported that they have good working relationships with their co-workers, they felt that their supervisors were not appreciative of their work, that their work was a source of job dissatisfaction and that there were obstructive influences

and pressure from the external environments. The respondents experienced SAPS' policies and procedures as unhelpful in maintaining discipline. Because of serious human and budget constraints and the inability of their salaries to cover for normal expenses, the majority of the respondents reported that they frequently had thoughts of resigning from SAPS.

From the findings of the seven research items that were used to determine the respondents' degree of satisfaction with the probabilities for promotion and recognition, it can be concluded that the majority of the respondents could not foresee the probabilities of being promoted for career advancement in the nearby future in that the promotions were neither based on competence, nor on merit or rules. It can further be concluded that the majority of the respondents experienced their work as not being sufficiently recognised and that there were unfair promotion practices that accrued to some of their privileged colleagues. They therefore did not evaluate the criteria that were used to determine the promotions as useful and fair. In as far as training and career planning are concerned, it can be concluded that although the majority of the respondents were fairly satisfied with the training that was provided for their jobs, a large proportion of them experienced such training as not being useful for their jobs which require specialised forms of training. Although the majorities of the respondents felt that there were opportunities to acquire and utilise skills and for career development, they however were not satisfied with the career prospects.

From the discussions of the findings that were presented in Chapter 6, it can furthermore be concluded that the respondents were satisfied with the leadership styles and the amount of support from their supervisors. The respondents' degree of satisfaction with leadership styles and institutional support was demonstrated by the findings in which they experienced their supervisors as inspiring, supportive and encouraging them to foresee new career prospects in SAPS and to act on them. The respondents experienced their supervisors as making efforts to create good working environments. The other aspects that demonstrate the respondents' satisfaction with leadership styles and institutional support are the findings in which most respondents

reported that they have good working relationships with their supervisors, that supervisors support them to balance work and non-work demands and that their supervisors make efforts to understand the nature of problems that they encounter in their working environments.

Contrarily, the findings demonstrate that the respondents were however, dissatisfied with the time that the supervisors invested in motivating them to think of current and future prospects. Similarly, the respondents felt that their ideas and interests are not taken into consideration, that they were unable to criticise the regulations and procedures that govern their work and that their supervisors do not encourage creativity in resolving workplace problems. The respondents also experienced their supervisors as not making efforts to know them individually.

The recommendations that derive from these conclusions are discussed in the next subsection.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusions that have been discussed in the foregoing section outline the areas in which improvements need to be initiated. Viewed against SAPS having instituted employee retention practices that were explained as part of the study area in Chapter 4, it may not necessarily require that new interventions be initiated, but that those that already exist be strengthened and that managers commit themselves to ensuring that they implement them effectively. The recommendations that are discussed in this chapter are to a great extent influenced by the literature review that was conducted in Chapters 2 and 3 and the discussion of the achievements in the study area as explained in Chapter 4. These recommendations are brief in that they highlight elements of a strategy that could be adopted and do not therefore outline technicalities in which managers must engage and projected amounts of budgets that should be reserved to ensure an effective implementation.

7.3.1 Need to institute the employee retention policy and strategy

The concluding remarks that are discussed in the previous subsection necessitate that SAPS develops and implement an employee retention policy and strategy. The employee retention policy is necessary as a measure of compliance to the legislative requirements that were discussed in Chapter 3, to create awareness of the impacts of employee turnover, of roles that managers need to perform to retain employees and to set the policy goals that need to be achieved. The employee retention strategy must be linked to the employee retention policy and must outline the employee retention practices that must be instituted, standards in terms of which SAPS' performance will be assessed, project the resources that may be required and the chain of accountability in accordance with senior managers and commissioned officers will be held accountable. Most importantly, the employee retention strategy must give managers the authority to do all in their powers to achieve the goals that are spelt out in the employee retention policy. Even though the policy may be co-ordinated and implemented as part of the career management activities, managers (commissioned officers and senior managers) need to play significant roles in managing employee retention practices within their working environments.

Two questions that must be factored into this strategy are why do employees endure and what are the reasons that may propel them to resign from SAPS. Because employees' decisions to endure will vary significantly between age groups, gender, educational achievements, occupations and designations, the information gathered from having consulted with the employees in key positions may be used to develop targeted interventions. The knowledge of the reasons why employees that are appointed to key positions endure is critical in that it enables managers to sustain practices with which employees are satisfied. Understanding the reasons that may propel employees to resign is a good practice in that it is preventative.

As opposed to conducting exit interviews, which are by nature after-the-fact, *posteriori*, *ex post facto* or post-resignation, gathering information before-hand about the reasons that may propel employees to resign is critical because such information may be used during the reviews of the employee retention strategy. In order to be effective in retaining employees, SAPS' strategy must make provision for the criteria that will be used, whenever possible, to give counter-offers. This may help to create transparency, fairness and order in deciding about the conditions under which counter-offers may be permitted. Components that must be factored into the employee retention strategy must focus on creating and maintaining fulfilling jobs, developing and enforcing adherence to procedures and criterion for promotions and recognition, investing in training and career management and creating leadership capabilities and institutional support mechanisms that enhance employee job satisfaction.

7.3.1.1 Creation of fulfilling jobs

The recommendations that are proposed in this subsection are on the degree of satisfaction with the (1) overall jobs, (2) nature of the jobs, (3) appreciation of work by managers, (4) experiences of influences and pressure from external environments, (5) helpfulness of administrative policies and procedures in maintaining discipline, (6) experiences of human and budgetary constraints, (7) adequacy of salaries to cover normal expenses, all which are necessary to create fulfilling jobs. In terms of the discussions of the concluding remarks, the majorities of the respondents expressed dissatisfactions with these institutional factors.

The findings about the respondents' degree of satisfaction with their jobs and with the nature of the jobs (job contents) are related in that the overall job consists of job tasks. Dissatisfactions with the nature of the jobs are indicators of dissatisfactions with the overall job; therefore the recommendations for these two findings are unified. With reference to the review of the literature in Chapter 2, the findings of these two research items are consistent with the literature review on the relationships between job content, working environments and working conditions and job satisfaction. The underlying reasons for non-commissioned police officials' dissatisfaction with their jobs and the

nature of the jobs are due to their being routine, rigid tasks that are performed under pressure, strict supervision and during shifts. These jobs also expose them to risks, dangers, scrutiny, and because of strict control and command leadership styles, inputs (cf. 6.6.10), creativity, criticism (cf. 6.6.11) and discretion (cf. 6.6.12) are restricted. Compared to commissioned police officials' and senior managers' jobs, theirs are not lucrative, are without any form of status and are meaningless. These findings are also consistent with real life experiences in which non-commissioned police officials are attacked and killed by criminals whilst they are on duty. Although issues that relate to the creation of safe working environments for police officials may not be resolved in the short-term, managers do have direct control over the nature of the jobs and the conditions under which the work is performed.

With reference to the discussion of the literature review in Chapter 2, interventions that may be sought to enhance non-commissioned police officials' job satisfaction should be targeted at the nature of the work and working conditions, in particular to make their jobs meaningful and fulfilling. Dissatisfactions with the nature of the jobs persist for the reason that despite operations in SAPS having been transformed, not much attention was given to deconstructing the nature of the work and conditions under which non-commissioned police officials perform their work. Despite such work being performed in their immediate environments, managers have effectively left concerns about the nature of work and working environments to the Bargaining Council, which may not be mandated to resolve daily concerns. Some of the measures that may be initiated and that were in the discussion of the literature on the relationship between job content and working conditions and job satisfaction in Chapter 2, may include assigning challenging tasks, allowing freedom (discretion) and creativity, continuous communication to give job clarity and honest feedback, job variety (enlargement), introducing flexibility and consultation, giving support and helping employees to balance work and non-work demands.

In addition to dissatisfaction with the nature of their jobs, the respondents experienced their managers as being unappreciative of their work. This finding relates to the

acknowledgement (cf. Figure 6.22) that appreciation is a way of expressing recognition. Appreciation and recognition are also interrelated to the nature of leadership in that managers that use authoritarian leadership styles would use military ranking structures, command, control and coercion and threats as ways of providing leadership. Appreciation, recognition and allowing subordinates to be creative and to solve problems signify of loss of authority and status. As part of creating a culture in which managers appreciate employees' work, managers that interact at different levels must be capacitated with different leadership abilities, in particular encouraging them to be the source of support, care and continuous honest appreciative feedback. They must be capacitated on support oriented leadership styles, examples of which are participative, supportive and transformational and shared leadership styles which are considered to be effective in enhancing job satisfaction. These leadership styles match the current context of SAPS as both a transforming and service oriented public institution.

The respondents also assented that there were obstructive influences and pressure from the external environments. These influences are by nature criticism that is often levelled against police officials by media, citizens and independent oversight institutions (such as the Public Protector, South African Human Rights Commission, Commissions of Enquiry and Independent Complain Directorate) and are as a result of allegations of the inability of police officials to respond in time, use of excessive power, corruption and in general inherent negative relationships between police officials and members of communities. Influences and pressures from the external environment cannot be completely dealt with, but they need to be managed effectively. They will always be there, mainly because SAPS as a public institution, operates in a complex environment in which the needs of communities are changing. These influences and pressures can better be managed by reinforcing a culture that is based on ethical values, performance and in which citizens are the primary beneficiaries of police services. Existing collaborations and partnerships between SAPS and communities, for example Community Policing Forums, need to be strengthened by allocating them the necessary resources. With regard to dissatisfactions about the

ineffectiveness of policies and procedures in dealing with ill-discipline (corruption, fraud and 'solidarity'), it is important that managers institute disciplinary procedures for transgressions of policies and procedures. It is furthermore necessary to periodically assess whether policies and procedures are effective in achieving the intended policy goals. It is also necessary for managers to lead by example, promote good governance by improving stakeholder relations and putting emphasis on improving the image and credibility of SAPS.

Experiences of human and budget constraints are a common problem in the South African public sector. This is because the South African government collects far too little revenue than it requires to deliver goods and to render services and as a result SAPS is affected. It is good that from the selected respondents not only managers are aware of human and budgetary constraints, but employees in general. The shortage of employees and budget constraints may affect job satisfaction severely. As a result of shortage of employees, job loads increase, thereby increasing workloads that may require employees to put extra hours in their work and to perform standby duties. Ineffectively managed workloads may create conflicts and situations in which employees are unable to maintain a balance between work and non-work demands, which may reduce job satisfaction. Managers in this regard have the responsibility to ensure that the resources are used sparingly by initiating cost-cutting measures. It is necessary that they ensure that such measures are used by all employees in their working environments. The strengthening of the roles of the internal audit function and strict adherence to internal financial and non-financial controls may be helpful in ensuring that the resources are used efficiently and effectively to achieve predetermined goals.

The dissatisfactions with salaries are not surprising. Because of SAPS' integrated system of determining rewards, dissatisfactions about the salaries correlate to dissatisfactions about promotions, the criteria that are used to determine promotions and opportunities for career advancement and development. Dissatisfactions with salaries may be justified by the educational qualifications that the employees have

achieved (cf. Figure 6.6) and number of years of experience in SAPS (cf. Figure 6.7) in that the levels of education and numbers of years of experience increases the expectation for promotion, increased salary and work status. The dissatisfactions about salaries are shared both internally in SAPS and by sources in the external environment. Because SAPS renders essential services, dissatisfactions about salaries are raised secretly in corridor-talks and not demonstrated openly like in other public institutions in the South African public sector. Analysts blame inadequate salaries in SAPS as the source of corruption that renders police officials vulnerable to accepting bribes.

Similar to the nature of the work of non-commissioned police officials, dissatisfactions about salaries cannot be resolved in the short-term, but require stakeholders to periodically benchmark SAPS' reward system. This benchmark must not only be confined to private security companies and municipal police departments in South Africa, but internationally with institutions that share a similar profile with SAPS. Because this role is beyond the scope of managers in SAPS, the bargaining councils at which salary increments and rewards are determined would be more appropriate. However, managers must ensure that the employee retention strategy is continually informed of the changes in the rewards needs of employees. Along with this undertaking, managers must ensure that promotions and opportunities for career advancement are given to deserving employees.

Thoughts of resigning from SAPS do not emerge in a vacuum, but are an outcome of respondents' dissatisfactions with multiple institutional factors, namely, nature of the work, support by supervisors, promotions and criteria for deciding on promotions, salaries, institutional culture and leadership styles. As referred to in the review of the literature in Chapter 2, the intentions to quit intensify as dissatisfactions with these institutional factors intensify. It is therefore necessary that managers identify as much information as possible about the reasons that may propel employees that occupy key positions to resign from SAPS.

7.3.1.2 Procedures and criterion for promotions and recognition

The concluding remarks that were discussed earlier in this Chapter reveal that the probabilities for promotion and recognition constituted the highest dissatisfactions as compared to other parts of the findings of this study. The dissatisfactions were caused by the respondents' inability to foresee opportunities for promotions, promotions not being based on rules, competence and merit, but on unfair practices that privilege others. The respondents also reported that opportunities for career advancement were lacking, managers did not sufficiently give recognition for outstanding performance and as a result promotion systems were seen as being useless. These dissatisfactions come as a surprise in that SAPS has over time adopted a promotions policy that sets the criteria for promotions. In addition to the promotions policy, PEP is used as a tool through which managers get the opportunity to give performance feedback as a means of recognition.

This promotions policy also entrusts the decision making powers to special promotions committees and identifies the designations of panel members of such committees. This policy is furthermore communicated to the levels of police stations wherein managers in those working environments play critical roles in deciding whether the candidates meet the requirements for promotion or not. As revealed by the findings, issues are not only about the acceptance of the promotions policy, but the manner in which the provisions of the policy are interpreted and implemented in those working environments. The majority of the respondents could not foresee chances for promotions (cf. Figure 6.19), opportunities for career advancement (cf. Figure 6.21), career development (cf. Figure 6.31) and career prospects (cf. Figure 6.32) in that the promotions were not based on the requirements of the promotions policy, competence and merit (cf. Figure 6.20). Consistent with the literature review in Chapter 2, dissatisfactions about promotions and opportunities for career advancement, career development and career prospects may increase employee turnover. Therefore, it is important for managers, in consultation with the labour unions and any other collective that has an interest in promotions in SAPS, to take this matter seriously. These findings need to be taken seriously in that they raise issues of lack of transparency, unfairness

(cf. Figure 6.22) and nepotism (cf. Figure 6.24) which are inconsistent with the values that are promoted by the Employment Equity Act (55 of 1998) and those that are entrenched in SAPS' codes of Conduct and Ethics.

As part of the strategy that was referred to earlier in these recommendations, these stakeholders must continually assess the extent to which SAPS' employees are satisfied with the implementation promotions policy and specific issues in the policy with which they may be dissatisfied and which may compel them to resign from SAPS. In order to ensure that the promotions policy is implemented fairly, transparently and to ensure that members of the promotions committees accept the responsibility to implement the policy objectively, task teams whose role is to monitor whether the decisions are consistent with the policy requirements must be developed.

In order to prevent duplication, these task teams need not be adopted as formal internal bodies, but assigned to work stations at which the dissatisfactions are eminent. Alternatively, independent non-financial internal audit functions in SAPS may be assigned this role and be empowered to, whenever necessary, reject the decisions that are inconsistent with the promotions policy provisions. It is also necessary to encourage employees in SAPS to raise their concerns about how the promotions policy is implemented, which they may do anonymously or through their labour unions.

7.3.1.3 Training and career management

Judging from the findings in Chapter 6 and the concluding remarks that were discussed earlier in this chapter, the respondents were generally satisfied with training and career management. These degrees of satisfaction are justified because, as explained in the discussions of the study area in Chapter 4, SAPS consists of well-staffed and resourced career management, training and development and personnel services divisions whose functions are further cascaded to the levels of police stations. Concomitant with these components, SAPS implements policies that were developed in compliance with the provisions of the legislative framework for employee retention as was discussed in Chapter 3.

Except for areas in which the respondents expressed satisfaction with training and career management, there are areas that necessitate improvements. The majority of the respondents experienced the training that they attended as not useful. This finding essentially suggests that the skills that they had acquired from having attended the trainings were irrelevant as they could not apply them in their work environments; hence they reported that the nature of duties that they perform required specialised training. This finding is justified in that SAPS has over time adopted a 'culture' in which training and development are not based on proper training and development needs analysis. In fact, in SAPS, employees are instructed through 'call-up instructions' to report for training at an identified venue at a specific day and point in time. Even though PEP, as explained in the discussions of the study area, is a useful tool that managers can use to identify employees' training needs and to develop SAPS' training plan, often such information is unintentionally overlooked, mainly as a result of lack of skills to implement PEP effectively.

In as far as training and career management in SAPS are concerned; it is common to observe training sessions that are attended by properly constituted audiences. In as much as the audiences are not properly profiled, it is common practices as well for some attendees to be dressed in police uniform and to address each other using police ranks. Not only are these barriers to effective training, but reveal that some training initiatives other than those that are commissioned by the SAPS Training College are not well constituted and coordinated. The recommendations that are proposed in this section entail that ad-hoc training interventions that are aimed at capacitating employees with the skills to perform their duties has to be better coordinated to ensure that they target appropriate audiences. Nomination to attend training interventions must be informed of the relevance of such training to the nature of the work that is performed by a nominated employee. The learning outcomes of such training interventions must be matched to amongst other factors, the level of interaction of employees in SAPS.

7.3.1.4 Create leadership capabilities and enhance institutional support

The findings on the respondents' experiences of leadership styles are also consistent with the literature review of the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction as discussed in Chapter 2. These findings about the respondents' experiences interrelate with the finding that has been depicted in Figure 6.10 in Chapter 6 in which the respondents experienced their managers as appreciative of their work. Despite the respondents being satisfied with the roles of their supervisors in creating good working environments, establishing good working relationships with subordinates, supporting them to balance work and non-work demands and devoting time to understanding the problems that they encounter in their working environments, these findings are contradictory to the finding that was presented in Section 6.6.9, in which they reported that their supervisors do not stimulate them to think of current and future prospects in their working environments. These findings are contradictory in that it is reasonable to expect a supervisor that is appreciative, supportive, that creates good working environment and that has good working relationships with subordinates to be stimulating or motivating.

The components of leadership that require to be improved, as explained in the concluding remarks, are the roles of the supervisors in encouraging discretion and creativity. The majority of the respondents experienced their supervisors as prohibiting employees from introducing new ideas, being critical of work regulations and bringing about new ways of resolving work problems. Effectively, these findings reveal that despite SAPS having been transformed into a professional institution, supervisors still maintain the order in which the conduct of police officials, their responsibilities and duties are determined by rules, rigid control procedures, regulations and militaristic hierarchies rather than initiative, discretion and consultation. As explained in the literature review in Chapter 2, authoritarian leadership styles through which chains of command and top-down communication channels between supervisors and subordinates are maintained, restrict subordinates' initiatives, and as such may negatively affect their job satisfaction.

In order to improve on these findings, it is important for managers to create environments in which discretion, freedom and participation are encouraged. For SAPS to be able to deliver services efficiently and to reduce red-tape which is entrenched in its bureaucratic structure, it is important that the non-commissioners be empowered to make decisions that pertain to their working environments. Despite giving them such powers, the values of reasonable care, diligence and accountability, to which they have to adhere, must be featured in the culture of SAPS and be fostered. Similar to the recommendation that was proposed in the discussion of the role of managers in creating fulfilling jobs and in pursuance of transformation in SAPS, supervisors must be trained on participative, transformational or shared leadership styles, which are considered to be effective in enhancing job satisfaction. As explained earlier in this chapter, these leadership styles match the current context of SAPS as a transforming and service orientated public institution. By adopting these leadership styles, adherence to bureaucratic requirements in which subordinates require authority for minor incidental activities may be lessened. Reducing red-tape will not only save time, but will create bottom-up communication, add meaning to non-commissioned police officials' duties and save time and resources.

Furthermore, the findings revealed that the majority of the respondents experienced their supervisors as not making an effort to know them individually. Knowing subordinates individually is a significant indicator of the presence or absence of good working relationships and in this regard, this finding may be contradictory to that in Section 6.6.6 in which the majority of the respondents reported that they have good working relationships with their supervisors. In the same breadth, these findings may be consistent in that it is common practice in SAPS for employees to address each other impersonally by military ranks rather first names or surnames. Even though it may not be a formal requirement, it may be helpful to encourage supervisors to reserve time to interact with their subordinates, perhaps in sociable environments in which work is not discussed. Team building exercises and work-related social events such as end-of-year events have proved to be successful in helping employees to know each other

on a personal level. Despite their ability to build cohesive teams, events such as these create trust, which is necessary to enhance job satisfaction in workplaces.

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ANNEXURES

Annexure A: Permission to conduct the research at SAPS

IG.P.S 002-0222

SAPS 21

Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie



South African Police Service

Privaatsak /Private Bag X94,
PRETORIA 0001

Verwysing/Reference: 3/1/9/1
Navrae/Enquiries: Col Mohajane
Telefoon/Telephone: 012 432 7533
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SECTION
HR PLANNING & UTILISATION
HEAD OFFICE

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THESIS: THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP ON EMPLOYEE RETENTION IN THE PUBLIC SERVICES: A CASE STUDY OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICES: MAPOME JOEL MOHAJANE

1. It is with pleasure to inform you that the Division: Human Resource Management has granted you permission to conduct research within South African Police service.
2. The research to be conducted has to be in line with the topic presented, which is, "The role of leadership on employee retention in the public service: a case study of South African Police Services.
3. Furthermore, the permission for research conducted in the South African Police Service relies on the fact that the Provincial /Divisional Commissioner in which Province or Division the research is to be conducted has granted the researcher due access.
4. The researcher may arrive at recommendations for good practice based on the results of studies if conducted on the related phenomenon, and can add value to SAPS regarding current practice.
5. Copies of the research results must be made available to the Division Human Resource Management.
6. Good luck in the endeavour of your studies.

Yours sincerely

M. Nchwe
15/11/2011

LIEUTENANT GENERAL
DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER: HR UTILISATION
MA NCHWE

Date:

Annexure B: Consent form

You are invited to participate in a study which is being conducted by Mr Mapome Joel Mohajane, who is currently registered for a doctoral degree in Public Administration in the Department of Public Administration & Management, University of South Africa. The broad aim of the study is to explore the perceptions of senior, middle, and junior managers and other operational employees within the South African Police Service (SAPS).

At the completion of this study, I will as the researcher, share its findings and conclusions with whoever may be interested. The researcher is aware of time constraints and busy schedules and therefore would like to thank each respondent to taking time to respond to the questionnaire. Permission has been requested and granted by the SAPS' senior management. **You are under no obligation to complete the questionnaire**; however, your contribution is crucial. Your anonymity will be guaranteed – your name is not required. All information will be treated confidentially.

If you have any questions about this study, you may contact Mr Mapome Joel Mohajane 073 261 7996. **Detach and keep this consent form for future reference.** If you are interested a copy of the findings of this study, feel free to contact Mr Mapome Joel Mohajane on the abovementioned telephone number to provide you with the summary.

Consent

All of my questions have been answered and I am encouraged to ask any questions that I may have concerning this study.

Participants' signature

Date

Annexure C: Research questionnaire

JOB SATISFACTION AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Note to the respondent:

Take note that this questionnaire has been designed to gather data which will be used for study purposes for a doctoral degree at Unisa. The data provided by the respondent will solely be used for that purpose and will be treated as confidential. If you do not wish to participate as a respondent to this questionnaire you may do so as your participation is voluntary. A report on the findings of this study may be made available to you electronically after the study has been completed or you may access it from Unisa library.

INSTRUCTIONS

Mark your answer in the space provided with an (X).

For an example, if you agree:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No comment
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2. Whilst responding to questionnaire items in Sections B – F, try to avoid the ‘neither agree nor disagree’ where you possibly can.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1	Designation	Senior manager	Middle manager	Junior manager	Operational or admin employee	
2	Occupational category	Programme 1: Administration	Programme 2: Visible policing	Programme 3: Detective services	Programme 4: Crime Intelligence	Programme 5: Protection & security services
3	Marital status	Single	Married	Divorced	Widow/widower	
4	Age group	Below 30	31 - 40	41 - 50	Above 50	
5	Gender	Male		Female		
6	Highest educational achievement	Matric /Grade 12 Certificate	Diploma/ Undergraduate degree	Honours Degree/B-Tech	Master Degree	PhD/Doctorate Degree
7	Years of experience within SAPS	Below 5 years	5-10 years	11-15 years	16- 20 years	21 years above

SECTION B: ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE JOB

Item	Statement	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
8	I am satisfied with my current job.					
9	I am appreciated for the work that I do.					
10	It is a challenging work.					
11	I have better understanding with my colleagues.					
12	There are outside (e.g. political and other) pressures and influences in work and office.					
13	Administrative policies and procedures are helpful in maintaining discipline.					
14	There are constraints of human and budgetary resources.					
15	I thought of quitting public sector more than once.					
16	My salary is adequate for normal expenses.					

SECTION C: PROBABILITIES FOR PROMOTION AND RECOGNITION

Item	Statement	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
17	There are fairly good probabilities for promotion.					
18	Promotion is based on rules and competency.					
19	There are good opportunities for advancement in my current work.					
20	There is no recognition of efforts that I take in my current job.					
21	There are currently unfair promotion practices in my work.					
22	Some of my colleagues have more privileges.					
23	Current promotion system is useful.					

SECTION D: TRAINING AND CAREER PLANNING

Item	Statement	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
24	I am satisfied with the training that is provided for this job.					
25	Training that is provided is not useful at all for my current job.					
26	Some special type of training is needed for my current job.					
27	There are opportunities to use and develop skills in my current job.					

28	There are very few opportunities for career development in my current job.					
29	I am satisfied with my present career prospects.					

SECTION E: PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLE AND INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT

Item	Statement	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
30	My supervisor puts focus on the task, encouraging employees to achieve the set goals in time.					
31	My supervisor puts focus on working relations, striving to support the employees in their efforts to achieve the goals.					
32	My supervisor puts focus on development, encouraging the employees to see new opportunities and also to act upon them.					
33	My supervisor puts focus on creating a good working environment.					
34	I have a good working relationship with my supervisor.					
35	I have the support of my supervisor to balance family and work demands.					
36	Senior managers try to understand the problems employees experience in their work.					
37	My supervisor stimulates me to think about where I stand and where I need to get to in order achieve the institutional goals.					
38	My ideas and interests are taken into consideration by senior managers.					
39	Employees are able to criticise the work regulations and their criticisms is considered during policy review.					
40	Supervisors and senior managers appreciate it when an employee has a new way of resolving a problem.					
41	Senior managers make an effort to get to know employees.					

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION