

**EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER ANCHORS,
JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT.**

by

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DECLARATION

I, ELIZABETH JEAN LUMLEY, student number 30810086, declare that this dissertation entitled, “**Exploring the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment**”, is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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30 NOVEMBER 2009

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SUMMARY

EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER ANCHORS, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT.

by

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The primary objective of the study was to explore the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment using a sample of 86 employees at four Information Technology companies in South Africa. A secondary objective was to determine whether individuals from various gender, race, position and age groups differed significantly regarding their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The instruments used were the Career Orientations Inventory (COI), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).

The research findings indicated that career anchors are partially related to participants' job satisfaction and organisational commitment and participants' levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are significantly related. The findings also showed that demographic groups differ significantly regarding their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It is recommended that interventions aimed at improving individual career decision making and organisational retention practices take cognisance of how these variables relate to individuals' career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The study is concluded with recommendations for Industrial and Organisational Psychology practices and further research.

KEY TERMS

Career anchors, career decision making, career orientation, employee motivation, job satisfaction, life/career stage development, organisational commitment, retention strategies.

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CHAPTER 1

SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

This dissertation focuses on exploring the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment among individuals employed by various Information Technology (IT) companies.

Chapter 1 discusses the background to and motivation for the research topic; formulates the problem statement and research questions; states the general and specific theoretical and empirical objectives; discusses the paradigm perspective, which demarcates the boundaries for the study; describes the research design and methodology, and concludes with an outline of the dissertation.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THIS STUDY

The context of this study is career decision making and the retention of individuals in the contemporary world of work. More specifically, the study focuses on the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

In the past decade, organisations have increasingly stated that employees are their most important asset and that they are continually trying to create an employment brand that is attractive to both existing employees and potential talent, whilst competing in a “war for talent” (Glen, 2006). Employee retention is an increasingly important challenge for organisations as the age of the knowledge worker becomes predominant. The world of work in the 21st century has brought about unprecedented levels of talent mobility as employees seek to satisfy their own individual demands, increasing the intensity to retain talent. The question then arises, what makes some individuals psychologically more attracted and committed to organisations than others? To answer this question, industrial psychologists, researchers and business leaders need to conduct further research that will aid with the development of meaningful employee retention strategies within organisations.

Schein (1996) mentions that organisations are undergoing a state of metamorphosis, which may have given rise to organisational change initiatives, resulting in job loss, the changing nature of work, an increase in the understanding of cultural diversity, challenges related to work-life balance, globalisation, and technological advancement. Organisations are finding it increasingly challenging to handle competition in a profitable manner without having every employee committed to the organisation's objectives and strategic goals (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). The world of work and how individuals perceive the meaning of work has shifted over time (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). The psychological contract that exists between the individual and the organisation has been subject to an increase in "exchange-base" demands such as flexibility, mobility, self-reliance, value-added performance, trust and openness and greater responsibility that both parties look for as a result of increasing commitment (Zannad & Rouet, 2003).

Allen and Meyer (1990) found that there is a linkage between organisational commitment and employee turnover, whereby employees who were strongly committed to the organisation were less likely to leave. Organisational commitment has attracted considerable interest in an attempt to understand and clarify the intensity and stability of an employee's dedication to the organisation. It is regarded as an attitude, as it refers to the relatively stable mindsets of individuals towards their organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). According to Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007), the meaning individuals attach to work is central to their career choices and individuals are increasingly looking at ways in which to achieve a sense of psychological success and job satisfaction in their choice of organisations and jobs. Muthueloo and Che Rose (2005) make mention of two major theoretical approaches that emerged previously from research on commitment. The first approach emphasises the influence of commitment attitudes on behaviour (resulting in lower absenteeism and voluntary turnover), whereas the second approach emphasises the influence of committing behaviour on attitudes that influence individual career behaviour. In this regard, Edgar Schein's concepts of career anchors can provide the basis for career choices, because an individual is likely to select a job or organisation based on that which is consistent with their own self-image and perceptions (Greenhaus, Callanan & Godshalk, 2000).

Spector (1997) states that job satisfaction is the attitude people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. Job satisfaction is affected by personal and organisational factors causing an emotional reaction which affects organisational commitment (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979). The consequences of job satisfaction include better performance and a reduction in withdrawal and counterproductive behaviours (Morrison, 2008). Since job satisfaction involves employees' affective or emotional feelings, it has control over an organisation's well-being when it comes to job productivity, employee turnover, absenteeism and life satisfaction (Sempane, Rieger & Roodt, 2002, Spector, 2008). Motivated employees are crucial to a company's success, and therefore understanding people in their jobs and what motivates them could be a driving force in strengthening organisational commitment (Schein, 1996).

Schein (1996) states that people are primarily motivated by one of eight career anchors, which define how individuals see themselves and how they see their work. Organisational commitment is viewed as an outcome of the career choices that are determined by an individual's career anchors (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). A person's career anchor is his or her self-concept consisting of: 1) self-perceived talents and abilities, 2) basic values, and, most important, 3) the evolved sense of motives and needs as they pertain to the career (Schein, 1996). The new world of work has allowed individuals to increase their education and professionalism. At the same time however, organisational loyalty appears to have decreased, making the retention of knowledge workers a challenging task (Döckel, Basson & Coetzee, 2006).

Knowledge workers are connecting differently with their employers, and the psychological contract between employer and employee has changed fundamentally in order to keep up with the constant state of change and technological advances that the industry faces on an ongoing basis. A loyalty clash exists, as knowledge workers generally identify with a high technology culture which is separate from the organisation employing them (Döckel et al., 2006). As a result, it has become critical for organisations to gain deeper insight into understanding the career drivers (career anchors) and motivators (job satisfaction) that a highly skilled, mobile individual seek in enhancing organisational commitment (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Against the aforementioned background, it is evident that knowledge of employees' career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and the nature of the relationship between these variables, will enhance understanding of the aspects that may influence employee satisfaction, intention to stay and career decisions.

While research has focused on each of the concepts of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment separately or in relation to other variables, there is a need for further research to explore the relationship that exists between these variables. This research aims to benefit both industrial psychologists and employers in further understanding the mobility of knowledge workers in an evolving world of work. The findings could better enable organisations to develop employee value propositions that would enhance organisational commitment. The results of such studies could be used in most initiatives aimed at designing and implementing an effective talent management strategy. Examples of such initiatives include career guidance and development, succession planning, reward strategies and organisational development initiatives, which could contribute to the overall organisational commitment of employees.

This study aims to explore the relationships existing between the career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment preferences of a sample of respondents in the South African organisational context. However, research on the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, particularly in the South African diverse and multi-cultural context appears to be limited. In this regard, research on the relationship between these variables could therefore make an important contribution to career decision making and retention strategies.

The following research questions emerge from the foregoing problem statement:

1.2.1 Research questions with regard to literature review

Against this background the general research question that requires further research is as follows:

What is the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and do people from different gender, race, position and age groups differ regarding these three variables?

1.2.2 Research questions with regard to the empirical study

In terms of the literature study, the following specific research questions will be addressed in this study:

- How are “career anchors” conceptualised in the literature?
- How is “job satisfaction” conceptualised in the literature?
- How is “organisational commitment” conceptualised in the literature?
- Does a theoretical relationship exist between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment?
- What are the implications of the theoretical relationship between the career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables for career decision making and retention practices?

In terms of the empirical study, the following specific research questions will be addressed:

- Does an empirical relationship exist between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment as manifested within a sample of respondents from the South African organisational work context?
- Do gender, race, position, and age groups differ significantly regarding career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment within a sample of respondents from the South African organisational work context?
- What recommendations can be formulated for the practice of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, and for further research based on the findings of this study?

1.3 AIMS

From the above research questions, the following aims are formulated:

1.3.1 General aim of the research

The general aim of this research is to explore the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and to determine whether individuals from different gender, race, job positions and age groups differ significantly regarding these three variables.

1.3.2 Specific aims of the research

The following specific aims are formulated for the literature review and the empirical study:

1.3.2.1 Literature review

In terms of the literature review, the specific aims are to conceptualise:

- career anchors from a theoretical perspective.
- job satisfaction from a theoretical perspective.
- organisational commitment from a theoretical perspective.
- the theoretical relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.
- the implications of the theoretical relationship between the career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables for career decision making and retention practices.

1.3.2.2 Empirical study

The specific aims of the empirical study are to:

- investigate the relationship dynamics between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment as manifested in a sample of participants employed in the South African work context.
- determine whether gender, race, position, and age groups differ significantly regarding their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.
- formulate recommendations for the discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, particularly with regard to career decision making, and retention practices and further research.

1.4 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The use of the term paradigm and its supporting theory has made an impact on the philosophy and methodology of social sciences (Mouton & Marais, 1996), and is therefore used in its meta-theoretical and philosophical perspective to illustrate an implicit or explicit view of reality (Morgan, 1980).

1.4.1 The relevant paradigms

Thematically, the literature survey will cover theories related to the constructs of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment which will be presented from the humanistic-existential paradigm. The empirical study will be presented from the functionalistic paradigm.

1.4.1.1 Humanistic-existential paradigm

Humanistic-existential psychology can be distinguished from the other two traditional theoretical paradigms of psychodynamic and cognitive-behavioural forces, in that it is about understanding an individual's life experiences and the ways in which one constructs

meaning of the world. It is about placing a high value on the unique ways in which an individual develops their own view of situations (Ivey, Ivey & Simek-Morgan, 2007). The humanistic paradigm underlines the individual, self-actualisation and self-development (Schreuder, 2001). The literature review of this study will include discussions on Maslow's theory on self-actualisation and Herzberg's theory on motivation.

The basic assumptions of the humanistic-existential paradigm are made (Cilliers, 2000; Garrison, 2001):

- Individuals are seen as more than the sum of their parts and can be studied as a whole.
- Individuals are principally good and should be seen as dignified beings.
- People exist in a human context and form the basis of human identity.
- Individuals act in self-awareness, where they have ongoing growth whilst realising their own true potential.
- People have the freedom and responsibility to make choices and living purposefully.

1.4.1.2 Functionalistic paradigm

The empirical study will be researched within the functionalistic paradigm. The functionalistic paradigm is regulative and pragmatic in orientation and it tries to understand behaviour in a way which generates useful empirical knowledge (Cilliers, 2000).

The following are additional basic assumptions of the functionalistic paradigm, according to Morgan (1980):

- Society has a concrete, real existence, and a systemic character oriented to produce an ordered and regulated state of affairs.
- It encourages an approach to social theory that focuses upon understanding the role of human beings in society.

- Behaviour is always seen as being contextually bound in a real world of concrete and tangible social relationships.

1.4.2 The market of intellectual resources

The market of intellectual resources refers to the collection of beliefs which has a direct bearing upon the epistemic status of scientific statements. The two major types that can be differentiated, namely theoretical beliefs about the nature and structure of phenomena and methodological beliefs concerning the nature and structure of research process (Mouton & Marais, 1996). For the purposes of this study the meta-theoretical statements; theoretical models; conceptual descriptions about career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and central hypothesis are presented.

1.4.2.1 Meta-theoretical statements

Any meta-theoretical statement or world view may include different schools of thought, which are described as different ways of approaching and studying a shared reality or world view (Morgan, 1980). The discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology relies on various domains of applied psychology that are used to integrate practices and research (Venter & Barkhuizen, 2005).

More specifically the focus in the literature survey is on career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In terms of the empirical study, the focus is on psychometrics and statistical analysis. Meta-theoretical statements are presented on the following: Industrial and Organisational Psychology; Personnel Psychology, Career Psychology, Organisational Psychology and Psychometrics.

a) Industrial and Organisational Psychology

This research is undertaken within the context of the Industrial and Organisational Psychology discipline.

The basic aims of the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology are to understand, explain and predict human behaviour and experience in the workplace (Watkins, 2001). The industrial psychologist's anchor is primarily their theoretical knowledge and research ability in the field of industrial psychology (Barnard & Fourie, 2007b). According to Barnard and Fourie (2007b), the practical contributions of industrial psychologists are, amongst others, labour relations, training and development, change management, evaluation or assessment, organisational development, strategic management, career management, selection and placement, psychometric testing, human resources management, counselling and affirmative action.

b) Personnel Psychology

Within the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, the study of Personnel Psychology focuses on individual differences in behaviour and job performance (Cascio, 1998). The study of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment pays attention to the difference individuals display in their behaviour and job performance, which in turn have an effect on career decision making and retention strategies. Personnel Psychology focuses on behaviours that influence productivity and employee satisfaction through assessment and selection procedures, job evaluation, performance appraisal, ergonomics, and career planning methodologies (Watkin, 2001). Personnel psychology is concerned more with individual issues.

c) Career Psychology

Career Psychology is the study of career development and career behaviour, which can assist both individuals and organisations with career choices and defining career paths (Greenhaus, Callanan & Godshalk, 2000). This study has relevance in the field of career psychology, because it supports the need for an overall conceptual framework of career counselling that focuses on matching an individual's career preferences to the type of career offered by organisations in the 21st century world of work (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009).

d) Organisational Psychology

Organisational Psychology concentrates on the organisational responsiveness to psychological, socio-political and economic forces, which focus on individual, group and system level interventions (Watkins, 2001). Work in this area focuses on such factors as role-related behaviour, group dynamics, personal feelings of commitment to an organisation, and patterns of communication within an organisation (Muchinsky, Kriek & Schreuder, 1998). Organisational psychology is more concerned with social and group influences.

e) Psychometrics

Psychometrics comprises the concept and activities of “assessments” which links Industrial and Organisation Psychology with Psychology (Stümpfer, 2007). Psychometrics is used by industrial psychologists to measure behaviour in various forms, offering different interpretations for individuals and groups functioning in the workplace. In this research, questionnaires are used to measure individuals’ career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

1.4.2.2 Theoretical models

The literature survey on career anchors will be presented from the Career Psychology perspective and the model of Schein (1974) and Super (1957) will be discussed. The literature survey on job satisfaction and organisational commitment will be presented from the perspective of Personnel Psychology and Organisational Psychology.

The literature survey on job satisfaction will be presented from the Personnel Psychology perspective. Various motivational theoretical models of relevance will be briefly discussed, namely Maslow’s (1954) hierarchy of needs, Herzberg’s (Herzberg, Mausner, Snyderman, 1959) two-factor theory, Alderfer’s (1969) ERG theory, McClelland’s (1961) achievement motivation theory, expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), equity theory (Adams, 1963) and goal setting theory (Locke, 1968). In terms of job satisfaction, the facets of Spector (1997) will be discussed.

The literature survey on organisational commitment will be presented from the Organisational Psychology perspective. In terms of organisational commitment, the model of Meyer and Allen (1997) and O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) will be discussed.

1.4.2.3 Conceptual descriptions

The following conceptual descriptions serve as a point of departure for discussion in this research:

a) Career anchors

Career anchors refer to an individual's talents, motives and values that describe an individual's evolving self concept (Schein, 1990a). The career anchor concept can be viewed as a useful tool to match persons and organisations to each other and to aid the career decision making process (Larsson, Brousseau, Kling, & Sweet, 2007).

b) Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to the attitude that individuals' have towards their jobs and the aspects that may influence their jobs (Spector, 2008). According to Rothman and Coetzer (2002), job satisfaction is an indicator of organisational effectiveness, and is influenced by organisational and personal factors.

c) Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment refers to the stabilising and obliging force which provides direction to behaviour that binds the person to a course of action (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). According to Meyer and Allen (1997), organisational commitment is viewed as a psychological state that depicts the employee's relationship with the organisation and their decision to continue membership in the organisation.

1.4.2.4 The central hypothesis

The central hypothesis for this study can be formulated as follows:

A relationship exists between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Furthermore, people from different gender, race, position and age groups differ significantly in terms of their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2002), research design is a strategic framework which serves as the bridge between research questions and the execution of the research. Each of the aspects of research design is discussed in relation to this research.

1.5.1 Research variables

The dependent variable in this study is organisational commitment and the independent variables are career anchors and job satisfaction. The research will focus on determining whether a significant empirical relationship exists between these three variables.

1.5.2 Type of research

A quantitative research approach will be used for this study. This research will meet the requirements of descriptive research by describing the conceptual characteristics of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and the relationship between these variables. Thereafter, the research will investigate the empirical relationship between these three variables by means of descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analyses.

A cross-sectional survey design will be used to address the research objectives, within a particular sample at a certain time (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Cross-sectional research is most consistent with a descriptive approach to research and the advantages are that it is

simple and cost-effective. The disadvantage is that it cannot capture change or social progression, as in the case of using longitudinal research (Neuman, 1997).

1.5.3 Methods used to ensure reliability and validity

1.5.3.1 Validity

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2002), both internal and external validity are important and desirable for a research design. The aim of the research design is to plan and structure the research project in such a way that it would ensure that the literature review and empirical study is valid in terms of the variables in this study (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

Ensuring validity requires making a series of informed decisions about the purpose of the research, theoretical paradigms that will be used in the research, the context within which the research will take place and the research techniques that will be used to collect and analyse data (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). The validity of the literature review will be ensured by using literature that is relevant to the research topic, problem statement and aims. In the empirical study, the validity of the research will be ensured by using standardised instruments of measurement. The validity will be determined by how appropriate, meaningful and useful the instrument was, and where validity coefficients are calculated, they will usually range between a low score of zero and a high score of one (Gregory, 2000).

1.5.3.2 Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which a test is repeatable and yields consistency of the results indicated by that which is measurable. Reliability in the literature review will be addressed by using existing literature sources, theories and models that are available to researchers (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2001). The reliability of the empirical study will be ensured through the sampling methods, and the reliability of the measuring instrument will be based on inter-item correlations, using the Cronbach alpha coefficient, where the greater the number of similar items, the greater the internal consistency. A correlation reliability score between

0.70 and 0.80 is deemed to be reliable and an instrument with a score closer to 0.30 is deemed to be less reliable (Gregory, 2000). Reliability of this study will also be addressed through the standardised assessment conditions and standard scoring instructions for the instruments (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2001).

1.5.4 Unit of study

The unit of analysis distinguishes between the characteristics, conditions, orientations and actions of individuals, groups, organisations and social artefacts (Mouton & Marais, 1996). In terms of individual measurement, the unit of analysis will be the individual. In terms of the analyses of data, the unit of analysis will be the group. In terms of investigating the differences between biographical groups, the unit of analysis will be sub-groups. In social sciences, the most common object of research is the individual human being (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

1.6 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method is divided into two phases, which address the literature review and the empirical study respectively.

Phase one: Literature review

Step 1: Conceptualise career anchors from a theoretical perspective.

Step 2: Conceptualise job satisfaction from a theoretical perspective.

Step 3: Conceptualise organisational commitment from a theoretical perspective.

Step 4: Conceptualise the theoretical relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Step 5: Conceptualise the implications of the theoretical relationship between the career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables for career decision making and retention practices.

Phase two: Empirical study

The empirical study comprises nine steps:

Step 1: Determination and description of the sample

The empirical study will take place among a population consisting of Information Technology (IT) organisations based in Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa. The population consists of approximately 193 individuals and will consist of a sample of different gender, race, position and age groups across these selected organisations. The sample will be non-random and based on convenience. Individuals will be invited to voluntarily complete the questionnaires as a paper-and-pencil assessment.

Step 2: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery

A biographical questionnaire containing data regarding age, tenure, gender, position title and ethnic origin will be used in addition to the three quantitative instruments used to measure the variables. The instruments that will be used are the Career Orientations Inventory (COI), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).

a) Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

The Career Orientations Inventory (COI) of Schein (1990a) will be used to measure each respondent's dominant career anchor. The COI measures eight career preferences (technical/functional competence, managerial competence, entrepreneurial creativity competence, security/stability, autonomy/independence, lifestyle, dedication to a cause and pure challenge).

b) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) of Spector (1997) measures nine facets of job satisfaction (pay; promotion; supervision; fringe benefits; contingent rewards; operating

conditions; co-workers; nature of work and communication), as well as overall job satisfaction.

c) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Organisational commitment will be measured using the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), which was developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). The OCQ measures three scales of organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment).

Step 3: Administration of the psychometric battery

The data will be collected in pre-arranged group administration sessions. Individuals will be required to complete a paper-and pencil version of the three measuring instruments. Individuals will be invited, via an email, to participate in a session that will take approximately 30 minutes for the data to be collected. In situations in which a participant cannot attend these sessions, the questionnaires will be given to them for completion.

Step 4: Scoring of the psychometric battery

The responses of subjects to each of the items of the three questionnaires will be captured into an electronic spreadsheet format. All data will be analysed through statistical analysis, using a statistical package (Statistical Package for Social Sciences Inc., 2006).

Step 5: Statistical processing of the data

The statistical procedures will be conducted in three stages:

Stage 1: Descriptive statistics which include Cronbach alphas, means and standard deviations.

Stage 2: Correlational statistics to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between the three variables.

Stage 3: Inferential statistics which include multiple regression to explore the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (organisational commitment) that is explained by the independent variables (career anchors and job satisfaction), and t-tests and ANOVAS to explore significant differences in the mean scores of the biographical groups in terms of the three variables.

Step 6: Formulation of research hypotheses

The research hypotheses will be formulated in order to achieve the objectives of the study.

Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results

Results will be presented in tables, diagrams and/ or graphs and the discussion of the findings will be presented in a systematic framework, ensuring that the interpretation of the findings is conveyed in a clear and articulate manner.

Step 8: Integration of the research findings

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

Step 9: Formulation of research conclusions, limitations, and recommendations

The final step relates to conclusions based on the results and their integration with the theory. The limitations of the research will be discussed, and recommendations will be made in terms of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment as constructs used to drive effective career decision making and retention strategies.

The flow of the research process is illustrated in Figure 1.1:

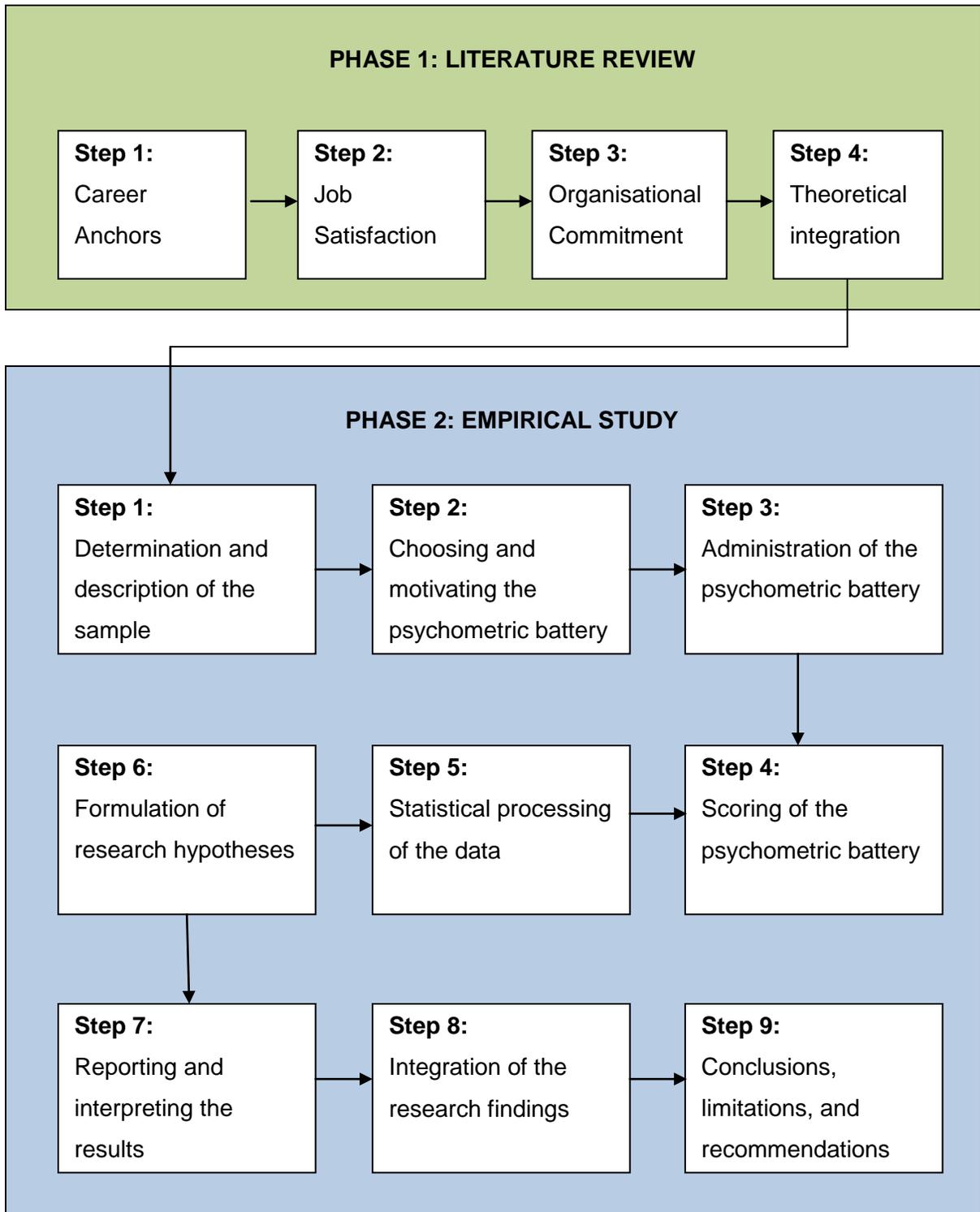


Figure 1.1 - Flow diagram of the research model

1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The chapters will be presented in the following manner:

Chapter 2: Career anchors

The aim of this chapter is to conceptualise the construct of career anchors. Firstly, the paradigmatic and conceptual foundations of career anchors will be discussed. The development of career anchors will be explored and the practical implications of career anchors from both an individual and organisational perspective will be discussed. A theoretical integration of the approaches of life stages and career stages in career development will be presented. The chapter will conclude with a brief discussion regarding the implications of career anchors for career decision making.

Chapter 3: Job satisfaction

The aim of this chapter is to conceptualise the construct of job satisfaction. Firstly, the paradigmatic and conceptual foundations of job satisfaction will be discussed, followed by a discussion of traditional frameworks of motivation, antecedents of job satisfaction. The chapter will conclude with an overview of the impact of job satisfaction on organisational and individual performance and satisfaction.

Chapter 4: Organisational commitment

The aim of this chapter is to explore, clarify and describe the concept of organisational commitment and the consequences of this construct for both organisations and individuals. Firstly, the paradigmatic and conceptual foundations of organisational commitment will be discussed, followed by the exploration of different approaches, models, foci and antecedents of organisational commitment. Furthermore, the consequences of organisational commitment and its impact on career decision making and retention will be presented. Finally, the chapter will conclude with the integration of the career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables.

Chapter 5: Empirical study

This chapter will focus on the empirical study of the research methodology used in this study. Firstly, an overview of the study's population and sample will be presented. The measuring instruments will be discussed and the choice of each justified, followed by a description of the data gathering and processing. Finally, the research hypotheses will be formulated.

Chapter 6: Research results

This chapter will discuss the statistical results of this study and will integrate the empirical research findings with the literature review. The statistical results will be reported in terms of descriptive, explanatory and inferential statistics. The limitations of the study will be explained and the recommendations will be made for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and further research. Finally the chapter will conclude with a summary and integration of research results.

Chapter 7: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This is the final chapter in which the results are integrated and conclusions reached. The limitations of the study are explained and recommendations are made for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, both applied and in terms of further research. Finally, the chapter will end with concluding remarks to integrate the research.

1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The background to and motivation for the research, the problem statement, the objectives of the study, paradigm perspectives, research design and research methodology of the study were discussed in this chapter. The motivation for this study is based on the fact that by exploring the relationship that exists among career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, it may aid individuals with career decision making and help organisations develop more effective retention strategies. Chapter 2 comprises a literature review of the construct of career anchors from the paradigm of career psychology.

CHAPTER 2

CAREER ANCHORS

The aim of this chapter is to focus on step 3 of the literature review, namely to conceptualise the construct of career anchors. Firstly, the paradigmatic and conceptual foundations of the concept of career anchors will be discussed. The development of career anchors is explored and the practical implications of career anchors for career decision making from both an individual and organisational perspective will be discussed.

2.1 PARADIGMATIC AND CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS

The concept of career anchors will be discussed from the perspective of career psychology. An overview of the field of career psychology will be given as well as the main focus areas. Thereafter a discussion on the concepts that relate to the notion of career anchors will follow.

2.1.1 Paradigmatic foundation: Career Psychology

Career Psychology is the study of career development and career behaviour, which can assist both individuals and organisations with career choices and defining career paths (Greenhaus et al., 2000). According to Coetzee and Bergh (2009), the 21st century world of work has led to a considerable amount of research in the field of career development, which suggests that there is a greater awareness of the effect of individuals' occupational expertise and their career competencies on their general employability.

Career development as an aspect of human development refers to the concept "career choice" which evolved from the matching of a person to a specific job based on identified characteristics of the job and individual traits (Collin, 2006). Content theorists, such as Holland (1973) and Jung (1971), focus on specific individual characteristics (age, ability, interests, personality, beliefs and values). The process theorists, such as Schein (1974) and Super (1957), focus on how a person's individual characteristics influence their career development over a period of time (career and life stages). McMahon and Watson (2007) refer to the field of career development as an open system, called the Systems Theory

Framework (STF), which is influenced by the changes and developments from within itself, and through the interaction with other systems. The STF focuses on bringing together the content and process theories that influence career choice.

In this study, career behaviour will be addressed within the context of career anchors as the internal factors influencing career decision making. Career anchors involve matching persons and organisations to each other, through the self-concepts (abilities, motives and values) that individuals developed during career experiences (Larsson et al., 2007; Schein, 1974; Yarnall, 1998).

2.1.2 Conceptual foundations

The following concepts of relevance to the study will be discussed, namely; career, career success, career indecision, career decision-making, career competencies, career maturity, career self-efficacy, career development and career orientation.

2.1.2.1 Career

The term “career” is broad and there are various definitions. However, what does appear to be constant is that careers are viewed from both an organisational or individual perspective and how they interact with each other over a period of time (Greenhaus et al., 2000; Schein, 1978; Sharf, 2002). Organisations and individuals constantly try to match their needs so that there is mutual benefit (Schein, 1978). However, the psychological contract has been altered significantly in the 21st century world of work and the subjective beliefs and perceptions exchanged between an employer and employee has an impact on the long-term reciprocal expectations and obligations that underpin the transactional contract that exists between the parties (McDonald & Makin, 2000).

A career can be described as a developmental concept comprising of a combination and sequence of an individual’s work-life experiences and how the individual perceives these in relation to what they do (Sharf, 2002). It can also be defined as a pattern of work experiences expanding over the entire life span of a person, whilst comprising a number of stages and sequences of work roles (Super, 1957). According to Weinert (2004), a ‘career’

may be conceptualised with regard to the development of skills and expertise, the ability to learn, the developmental identity, and the self-concept as 'career anchor.'

Greenhaus et al. (2000, p.9) defines the term career as the "pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a person's life". There are two predominant components of this definition in that careers are:

- the structural responsibility of the job or organisation, which includes the objective events or situations such as job positions, duties or activities and work-related decisions; and
- the responsibility of the individual which involves subjective interpretations of work related events such as work aspirations, expectations, values, needs and feelings about particular work experiences.

Schein (1974) supports this definition by describing a career as having a set of stages or paths over a period of time whereby the:

- individual's needs, motives, and aspirations in relation to work are present, and
- society's expectations of what kinds of activities will result in monetary and status rewards for the career occupant are present.

Schein (1978) describes a career as being a complicated concept from the perspective of the individual developing their own life pattern of work experiences and from the organisational perspective of creating a suitable career path for individuals to follow. In the context of career anchors, a career includes how an individual's work-life develops over a period of time and how the person perceives their career (Schein, 1990a).

Stead and Watson (1999) suggest that in a South African context a "career" should reflect the meaning of work across both the internal and external employment contexts, in relation to the roles individuals fulfill across their lifespan. Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007) highlight that people search for meaning through their careers and this insight is central to their career choices in the contemporary world of work.

2.1.2.2 Career success

For the individual to adapt a fast-changing environment and gain a better understanding of the dynamics of work there is a need to shift from external to internal career thinking (Ellison & Schreuder, 2000). Internal careers are described as an individual's subjective opinion and external careers are described as an individual's progression of positions (Marshall & Bonner, 2003; Schein, 1990a).

The work-related experiences referred to in the definition of "careers" by Greenhaus et al. (2000) are broadly construed as objective events or subjective interpretations of work-related events. According to Van Vuuren and Fourie (2000), individuals' objective and subjective careers are bound to be severely challenged in the new career paradigm.

The subjective or internal career reflects changing work aspirations, satisfactions, values, needs, expectations and feelings about particular work experiences (Greenhaus et al., 2000; Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000). By viewing careers from a subjective perspective, the accuracy of predicting a match between the individual and organisation can potentially be increased (Ellison & Schreuder, 2000). This may be because the individual emphasises self-direction and greater personal responsibility on the choices made (Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000).

The objective or external career plays a key part in the traditional organisational career paradigm because it refers to situations or events such as job positions, job duties, and work-related decisions (Greenhaus et al., 2000; Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000). By using the objective situations in isolation of subjective interpretations would not do justice to the complexity of a contemporary career (Greenhaus et al., 2000).

Therefore, in contemporary career management it is increasingly important for individuals to explore internal or subjective interpretations of career success, in order to catch the shortfalls of external career measures of success (Ellison & Schreuder, 2000; Greenhaus et al., 2000; Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000).

2.1.2.3 Career decision making

A part of the career management process is the ability to set career goals. Career indecisiveness results in individuals having a lack of decision making self-confidence (self-efficacy) which in turn leads to ineffective career choices being made (Betz, 2004). According to Lee (2005), career indecision results in individuals being confused about their self-identities, and often lacking confidence concerning their career preferences. Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007) identify that individuals who have strong career decision making skills are able to demonstrate the ability to obtain self-knowledge, knowledge of employment opportunities, have the ability to develop career goals and strategies and implement these strategies and effectively make changes through the feedback received on the effectiveness of the career goals and strategies used.

Lee (2005) found that career-undecided individuals could benefit from consideration of their emotional states, apart from their knowledge about diverse careers and other cognitive aspects of career decision making. A study by Brown, George-Curran and Smith, (2003) indicated that individuals with a higher ability to perceive, access, and generate emotions to assist thought and to understand and regulate emotions reflectively, were more likely to report greater confidence in their career decision making tasks.

King (2001) uses a career self-management framework to argue that the role of career counsellors should shift towards helping individuals to learn how to deal and become aware of the external political and economic instabilities that affect their career decision making. The career self-management framework is based on the principle that career decisions may rest outside the individual's control. Consequently individual's should devise career strategies that can influence the necessary people in the workplace, known as "gatekeepers", to assist them with making effective career decisions and therefore gain a sense of personal control over their careers.

2.1.2.4 Career competencies

Defillippi and Arthur (1994) refer to career competencies as know-why, know-how and know-whom competencies which subsequently overlap with an organisation's broader arenas of culture, know-how and networks. Career competencies are described as follows:

- “Know-why” competencies relate to an individual's career motivation, personal meaning, identification (Defillippi & Arthur, 1994), values, attitudes and lifestyle (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007).
- “Know-how” competencies reflect the relevant job-related skills and knowledge capabilities that an individual has and uses in the workplace (Defillippi & Arthur, 1994).
- “Know-whom” competencies are the relevant network relationships individuals have in order to find the right people that can assist them in decision making (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Defillippi and Arthur (1994) describe such networking capabilities as the “social capital” where contacts are drawn on to assist with career decision making through personal experiences with family, friends, colleagues, fellow alumni and external mentors.

Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007) add an additional three career competencies that career counsellors and individuals should be aware of:

- “Know-what” competencies refer to the opportunities, threats and job requirements that may face the individual during their decision making process.
- “Know-where” competencies are relevant to gathering information about entering the workplace, understanding the training and advancement opportunities.
- “Know-when” competencies are relevant to the timing of choices and activities that are available to the individual.

Developing career competencies gives the individual a holistic perspective of the career information gathered for the purposes of making an informed career decision.

2.1.2.5 Career maturity

Career mature individuals have the ability to identify specific career preferences and implement appropriate activities in order to achieve their goals and are therefore more capable of making successful career choices and career decisions (Coertse & Scheepers, 2004). Higher levels of career maturity are achieved as an individual masters specific developmental tasks during each career life stage. Unsuccessful completion of each developmental task can lead to lower levels of career maturity and indecisiveness about career decisions (Watson & Stead, 1999).

2.1.2.6 Career self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to one's belief in their capabilities to successfully engage in a specific area of behaviour (Betz, 2004). According to Brown et al. (2003), the application of Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory in career decision making is indicated by the individual's confidence in his or her ability to successfully perform career-related tasks. The concept of self-efficacy enables the counsellor and individual to understand and modify career behaviour which will significantly influence individuals' career choices, performance and goal persistence (Betz, 2004).

2.1.2.7 Career development

According to Greenhaus et al. (2000, p.13), career development can be defined as "an ongoing process by which individuals progress through a series of stages, each of which is characterised by a relatively unique set of issues, themes, and tasks." For career development to be successful in the workplace the set of activities, such as recruitment, development and promotion, that a company provides to its employees in order to enhance their careers need to meet the companies short and medium-term human resource needs (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007).

2.1.2.8 Career orientations

The concept of career orientation has a close link to career success (Kanye & Crous, 2007). Edgar Schein (1990a) termed the notion of career orientations as “career anchors”. Career orientations may be depicted as the multi-dimensionality of the internal career construct and its relationship to career success (Kanye & Crous, 2007). A career orientation can be described as accumulated work experiences which enable an individual to have increased self-concept awareness of their own abilities, motives and values and as a result are able to serve as a guide to constrain, stabilize and integrate an individual’s career (Schein, 1990a). Coetzee (2007) refers to psychological career resources that lead individuals to self-empowering career behaviours and general employability through a set of career-related orientations, abilities, attitudes, values and attributes.

According to Schein (1990a), the career anchor is the composite of career orientation and self-perceived talent. Career anchors can serve to explain how and why an individual interacts with an organisation in a particular way (Yarnall, 1998). For the purposes of this study, career orientation is core to the concept of career anchors and the influences these may have on an individual’s type of organisational commitment.

2.2 THEORETICAL MODELS OF CAREER DECISION MAKING

Since an individual’s life-span plays a critical role in career choices, process theories in career development such as Donald Super’s (1957) developmental theory and Schein’s (1990a) major career stages are concerned with the evolving ways that an individual deals with various career issues over their entire life. As indicated in Table 2.1, both researchers believe that career choice is a developmental process that evolves over time and a person can move through these stages at any point in their career.

The following career models are of relevance to the study will be discussed: Super’s (1957) development theory of life stages, Schein’s (1990a) major stages of the career and career anchor model.

2.2.1 Super's development theory of life stages

Super's (1957) theory is a process theory which describes career choice as a series of related decisions which are made during the developmental stages of a person's life being from childhood to old age. The career decision making that takes place is a lifelong process in which people strive to match their changing career goals to the realities of the world of work (Smart & Petersen, 1997). Super's (1957) model comprises five different life stages:

- growth (usually experienced between ages 4 and 14 years);
- exploration (ages 14-25 years),
- establishment (ages 25-45 years);
- maintenance (ages 45-65 years), and
- disengagement (age 65 years and over).

According to Super's (1957) life-span model of career development, individuals make career choices based on their self-concept, which consists of attributes such as personality traits, needs, interests and values. Each life stage has a series of developmental tasks individuals progress through. The nature of these tasks will change with each life stage based on gaining appropriate self-awareness and career maturity competencies (Betz, 2004; Coetzee, 2007; Coertse & Scheepers, 2004).

2.2.1.1 Growth (Between ages 4 – 14)

During the growth period the child develops physically and psychologically in four major career developmental tasks, namely; becoming concerned about the future; increasing personal control over one's own life, convincing oneself to achieve in school and at work, and acquiring competent work habits and attitudes (Stead & Watson, 1999).

2.2.1.2 Exploration (Ages 14 – 25)

In the exploration period individuals encounter the career development tasks of crystallising, specifying and implementing a career choice which can lead to trial activities, new choices, self-identity changes, and increased adaptability (Smart & Petersen, 1997).

2.2.1.3 Establishment (Ages 25 - 45)

The establishment stage begins with searching for work, being accepted by your peers, learning the job, and gaining work experiences of success and failure in a work environment (Haider & Supriya, 2007). Generally, establishment is a period where individuals are in actual work situations and it involves learning new tasks and being exposed to different career choices which would lead to enhancing self-concept (Smart & Petersen, 1997).

2.2.1.4 Maintenance (Ages 45 - 65)

During the maintenance period individuals spend time continuing to develop their career identity and acquiring new skills in order to improve their situation in a chosen career (Hall & Mirvis, 1995).

2.2.1.5 Disengagement (Ages 65 and over)

Individuals during the disengagement stage may find their physical and mental powers are declining and therefore selectively or are encouraged to start disengaging from their work roles and move towards retirement (Smart & Petersen, 1997). This life stage involves the career development tasks where individuals decelerate working experiences and move into retirement plans.

Super's (1957) notions of career stages are particularly helpful during the career development process in developing an individual's career maturity across their lifespan. As career maturity develops an individual learns to manage their motives and crystallise their self-concept which enables them to enact their career intentions (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007).

According to Super's (1957), developmental theory, an individual's self-concept is at the core of their approach in making career choices. Self-concept refers to how individuals view themselves and their situations in a subjective manner about the roles and values important to them during their different life stages (Sharf, 2002). Career development may be viewed as the formation and implementation of self-concept in an occupational context (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Other theorists (Bandura, 1977; Sharf, 2002) refer to the self-concept as self-efficacy which refers to the beliefs an individual has in their own capabilities to perform successfully in a given environment. Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007) also believe that the self-concept evolves throughout a person's life-cycle during which they take in a range of self-expressed unique qualities, talents and abilities.

Super's (1957) theory of occupational choice can also be extended to organisational choice of an individual and may also be a means of implementing an individual's self-concept (Schein, 1990a). The relationship between the individual's self-concept and the perceived organisational image could be a determinant of organisational choice made by the individual (Martins & von der Ohé, 2002).

2.2.2 Schein's major stages of the career

Schein (1974) expanded his research on "career anchors" based on Super's (1957) theory of self-concept and its relation to an individual's career stages. As outlined in Table 2.1, Schein (1990a) refers to the ten major stages of the career versus Super's (1957) life stages:

- Stage 1: The *career growth, fantasy and exploration* period is associated with childhood and early adolescence where the thought of a career has little significance.
- Stage 2: Depending on the individual's occupation the stage of *education and training* can last a couple of months or in excess of twenty years.
- Stage 3: *Entry into the working world* is a time where individuals learn about the realities of work and how they will react, regardless of their preparedness.
- Stage 4: During the induction of the individual into the new role *basic training and socialisation* takes place where the new career occupant will be faced with real choices about their engagement with the occupation or organisation.
- Stage 5: The next stage of the career is where the individual feels that they have gained *membership* and is no longer a trainee, has been accepted in the organisation as a full contributor and has a clearer self-image which is built on the individual becoming aware of their own motives, values, talents, strengths and weaknesses.
- Stage 6: The individual then focuses on building their career through *gaining tenure and permanent membership* with the organisation.
- Stage 7: During the *midcareer crisis and reassessment stage* the individual reassesses their initial choices about what they have attained and about their future.
- Stage 8: The reassessment results in decisions that allow the individual to *maintain momentum regain it and level off* and develop a personal solution that will guide them into the declining stages of their career.
- Stage 9: As the individual slows down they become less engaged with the organisation or occupation and start thinking about retirement, this stage is referred to as *disengagement*.
- Stage 10: *Retirement* is inevitable and the organisation or occupation no longer plays a meaningful role and the individual needs to adjust according to their self-image.

TABLE 2. 1 - SCHEIN'S MAJOR STAGES OF THE CAREER VERSUS SUPER'S LIFE STAGES

Schein's (1974) major stages of the career	Super's (1957) life stages
Stage 10: Retirement	Disengagement (age 65 years and over).
Stage 9: Disengagement	
Stage 8: Maintaining momentum, regaining it, or levelling off	Maintenance (ages 45-65 years)
Stage 7: Midcareer crisis, reassessment	
Stage 6: Gaining of tenure, permanent membership	Establishment (ages 25-45 years)
Stage 5: Gaining membership	
Stage 4: Basic training, socialisation	Exploration (ages 14-25 years)
Stage 3: Entry into the world of work	
Stage 2: Education and training	Growth (usually between ages 4 and 14 years)
Stage 1: Growth. fantasy, exploration	

According to Baruch (2004), by the end of the 1970s it was clear that organisations needed new ways to manage employee development across their career management systems. The 21st century world of work requires individuals to have multiple career paths, each progressing through different career stages within their particular life stage. These career stages do not have specific age boundaries and characterise the cyclical progression of development through subjective career experiences and new career choices as their self-concept evolves. Individuals who experience career breaks will have different numbers of career stages (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007).

Schein (1990a) designed a more advanced career model which involves cross-sectional and functional moves allowing stronger consequences for both individuals and organisations (Baruch, 2004; Schein, 1996). Schein's (1990a) career model, being cone shaped, illustrates that contemporary career patterns have evolved from being purely linear to being more spiral focused, where individuals develop themselves by moving different functions whilst progressing upward within their careers and within the same organisation (Baruch, 2004; Schein, 1996). Schein's career stages also suggest that

individuals can pursue a variety of careers within any occupational field where they could follow a career path with a specific career anchor (Feldman & Bolino, 1996).

2.2.3 Schein's career anchor model

Schein (1996, p.18) defines the career anchor as the "one element in a person's self-concept that he or she will not give up, even in the face of difficult choices". Anchors can create the basis for career choices because an individual is likely to select a job or organisation that is consistent with their own self-image.

2.2.3.1 The career anchor concept

The career anchor concept can be viewed as a useful tool to match persons and organisations to each other (Larsson et al., 2007). The career anchor concept emerged as a way of explaining the pattern of reasons given by individuals as they progressed through their careers (Yarnall, 1998). As earlier stated, a career anchor is described as an individual's evolving self-concept consisting of the following three elements (Schein, 1990a; Schreuder & Theron, 1997; Yarnall, 1998):

1. Self perceived talents, skills and competence (allowing strong and weak points to be discovered through actual successes in a variety of work settings).
2. Self perceived motives, needs, drives and goals (originating from opportunities for self-tests and self-diagnosis in real situations and feedback from others, to discover what they ultimately seek from their career).
3. Self perceived attitudes and values (originating from actual encounters between the individual and the norms and values of the employing organisation and work settings, to realise what environments they want to be associated with).

Based on the first two elements, self perceived talents, skills, competence and self perceived motives, needs, drives and goals, a career is based on actual experience in a work setting and anchored in a set of needs and motives which the individual is attempting to fulfill in their work either through tangible and non-tangible rewards (Danziger & Valency, 2006; Schein, 1974). The third element, self perceived attitudes and values,

highlights the notion that a career can be anchored in a set of job descriptions and organisational norms where individuals react to these various norms and values according to the different social and work situations encountered (Danziger & Valency, 2006; Schein, 1974).

Career anchors distinguish a career as the “internal career” in which individuals have an internal picture of how their work life is perceived and what role they will play in that life (Schein, 1990a). Internal career anchors refer to an individual's self-concept which influences the psychological attractions that serve to guide a person's career choice (Schein, 1990a). Once established, people are reluctant to change their anchors even if other opportunities arise that may be rewarding on other anchors (Hsu, Jiang, Klein & Tang, 2003).

Schein (1990a) was able to identify that career anchors evolve as individuals gain more work and life experience. Once the self-concept is formed it guides and stabilises a person's career and help them to realise which values and motives they will not give up if forced to make a career choice (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Schein, 1990a). People's insight into themselves becomes more refined as more experience is gained and as a result their self-concept is honed (Schein, 1990a). As individuals reach the end of their early career life stage, they begin to make career decisions which have an impact on the balance of personal and work life situations (Schein, 1990a, 1996). To avoid career indecision and enhance career maturity, the development of career anchors becomes more refined (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Robbins, 1993).

If individuals sense that their job or job situation will not be consistent with their talents, needs, and values, their career anchor pulls them back into situations that are more congruent and stable with their self-image, hence the metaphor of an anchor (Robbins, 1993; Schein, 1990a). The main function of career anchors seems to be that it is the conservative, stabilising force in the total personality that guides and constrains future career decisions (Schein, 1974; Schein 1996; Van Vuuren & Fourie 2000).

Schein (1996) discovered that as individuals accumulated more work experience, they increased their opportunity to make choices and then from these choices were able to determine what critical skills, abilities, needs or values dominated their orientation towards life (Schein, 1996). He also discovered that self-concepts are developed more quickly when experiences are varied and constructive feedback is received frequently and therefore resulting in an enhanced self-discovery learning experience which provides the basis for more rational and empowered career decisions. This means that a person may not be completely aware of their career anchors until forced to make difficult choices pertaining to personal and career related decisions which lead them to be confronted with their own self-image (Schein, 1996).

According to Schein (1974), a person's abilities, motives and values are mutually interactive and inseparable. Based on this, Schein (1974) developed a typology of career paths which highlighted important dimensions of the career. These dimensions were the underlying themes of the individual's growing sense of self and resulted from their life learning experiences (Schein, 1990a). The career paths can be thought of as the individual's needs, motives, and aspirations, and as being interactive and inseparable in relation to work. These career paths are then linked to society's expectations of what kinds of activities will result in monetary and status rewards based on what is important to each individual (Schein, 1974).

Although the career anchor theory research was developed through a study of managers, career anchors are applied to all levels of employees for the purposes of employee attraction and retention (Coetzee, Schreuder & Tladinyane, 2007; Ellison & Schreuder, 2000; Yarnall, 1998). A particular advantage of Schein's (1974) model is that it recognises the need to create balance between the individual and the organisation, rather than having a purely individual focus (Yarnall, 1998).

2.2.3.2 Types of career anchors

Career anchors are described as being broader than just values as they are personal characteristics discovered through work experience and explain how and why an individual interacts with the organisation in a certain way (Yarnall, 1998).

In Schein's (1974) earlier work on career anchors, he identified five career anchors:

- technical/functional competence;
- general managerial competence;
- security and stability;
- autonomy and independence; and
- entrepreneurial creativity.

In his later work on career anchors, Schein (1990b) proposed three additional career anchors:

- service/dedication to a cause;
- pure challenge; and
- lifestyle.

Baruch (2004) suggests additional career anchors for the 21st century, such as employability and spiritual purpose. Feldman and Bolino (1996) believe that Schein's (1974) eight career anchors should be grouped primarily into three dimensions, being talent-based, need-based or value-based. These three dimensions are closely linked to the three elements that define an individual's self-concept (Schein, 1990a; Yarnall, 1998). According to Feldman and Bolino (1996), career anchors can be classified by integrating them into three dimensions based on the elements of self-concept:

- Technical/functional, general managerial, and entrepreneurial creativity competencies are grounded in a person's *work talents* where an individual focuses on the day-to-day type of work.
- Security and stability, autonomy and independence, and lifestyle competencies are predominantly grounded in an individual's *motives and needs* where an individual focuses on how to structure their work roles to keep them consistent with their basic personal desires and their personal lives.

- Service/dedication to a cause and pure challenge competencies are grounded in a person's *attitudes and values* where an individual focuses on their identification with their occupation and the culture of their organisation.

The characteristics of the eight career anchors can be used to explain why individuals stay engaged in a certain job and committed to an organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007, Schein, 1974;). Table 2.2 represents an overview of the eight career anchors and the typical rewards that motivate individuals with each relevant anchor (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Kniveton, 2003; Schein, 1990a).

TABLE 2. 2 - EIGHT TYPES OF CAREER ANCHORS AND THE TYPICAL ASSOCIATED REWARDS (COETZEE & ROYTHORNE-JACOBS, 2007; FELDMAN & BOLINO, 1996; KNIVETON, 2003; SCHEIN, 1990A)

CAREER ANCHOR	DESCRIPTION
Talent-based anchors	
Technical/Functional Competence	<p>The satisfaction of being an expert in a particular field is more important than anything else. People with a technical/functional competence career anchor are concerned with the work itself and prefer advancement in a technical area as opposed to general management. If moved into other areas they will feel drawn back to their specific area of competence. Such individuals are committed to being a specialist rather than climbing the organisational ladder. They thrive on being perceived by their peers as the expert.</p> <p><u>Rewards</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Desire to be paid according to skills level. • Provided opportunities for self development in a particular field.
General managerial competence	<p>The managerial-anchored individual has an interest in managing others, advancement, responsibility, leadership and income. They differ from the technically competent anchored individual in that they place value on the skill of general management as an end in itself, as opposed to a technical individual who would regard it as a necessary, but unfulfilling part of the job. He is interested in making or coordinating major policy</p>

	<p>decisions and being a generalist, rather than focusing on specialist information. There is a willingness to solve complex organisational problems and undertake subsequent decision-making.</p> <p><u>Rewards</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bonuses for achieving organisational targets. • Promotion based on merit, measured performance, or results. • Promotion to a position of higher responsibility – rank, title, salary, number of subordinates, size of budget.
Entrepreneurial creativity	<p>This career anchor is characterised by an overriding need to create or exercise creativity which is identified as a person's own personal efforts. The individual with an entrepreneurial anchor will continually seek to establish new business, new organisations and/or develop new products and services, as they would rather set up new projects than manage existing ones.</p> <p><u>Rewards</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wealth, ownership, freedom and power.
Need-based anchors	
Autonomy/Independence competence	<p>Individuals with this anchor avoid being subjected to people's norms. They value freedom to do things their own way above all. This concerns the key characteristics of self-reliance and independent judgment. They find organisational life intrusive and restricting and seek out employment situations where they can be masters of their own fate. They generally experience personal freedom in job content and settings.</p> <p><u>Rewards</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pay for performance, bonuses. • Autonomy-oriented promotion systems.

Security/ Stability	<p>The security/stability-anchored individuals are primarily motivated by long-term job security where they feel safe and secure within an organisation. It is for this reason that individuals with this anchor choose well-established and reliable organisations that offer long-term security. They will willingly adapt to the organisation's norms and standards.</p> <p><u>Rewards</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seniority-based promotion systems with published ranks spelling out how long a person must serve in any given grade before promotion is preferred
Lifestyle	<p>Lifestyle-anchored individuals are concerned with aspects of balancing their career with their family and other personal interests. Such individuals will seek out meaningful careers that can accommodate their lifestyle factors. They have a strong desire towards organisations that provide flexibility and respect for personal and family concerns.</p> <p><u>Rewards</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Company benefits that allow options for travelling or moving when family issues permit, part-time work if life concerns require it, sabbaticals, paternity and maternity leave, day-care options, flexible work arrangements.
Value-based anchors	
Service/dedication to a cause	<p>This anchor is largely concerned with improving the world and helping society through the framework of the individual's belief system with the overriding need to express this in the context of work. The expression of values in the work context is of greater importance than utilising skills. Working for the greater good of organisations or communities is most important.</p> <p><u>Rewards</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fair pay. • Recognition for one's contributions. • Opportunities to move into positions with more influence and freedom.

Pure challenge	<p>An individual with this type of anchor values overcoming obstacles or problems. Individuals constantly search for opportunities for self-tests concerned with competition and winning. The goals of these individuals are to solve unsolvable problems and win against all odds. Life and work are seen as a competition in which winning means everything. There is a tendency to test personal endurance through risky projects or physically challenging work.</p> <p><u>Rewards</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adequate opportunities for self tests.
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2.2.3.3 Multiple career anchors

The main assumption of Schein's (1990a, 1996) model is that each individual has only one true career anchor which becomes clearer after an individual has accumulated a meaningful amount of life and work experiences (Ramakrishna & Potosky, 2001). Schein (1990a) argues that an individual's career anchor is the one thing they would not give up if forced to make a difficult choice.

Conversely Feldman and Bolino (1996) argue that people may be trying to combine multiple career goals and personal interests into a viable career path by holding multiple career anchors for two possible reasons. Firstly, because their career anchors can be talent-based, need-based, or value-based and secondly, individuals may have work-life career indecision because of two equally attractive goals and no single career path appears to be more attractive than another (Feldman & Bolino, 1996). Yarnall (2003) refers to Derr's (1980) argument that career orientations can change with age and due to external influences.

Even though Schein's (1990a) definition of career anchors allows for only one anchor, he does recognise that in practice many career situations require an individual to fulfill several sets of talents, motives, and values, making it difficult for a person to achieve a clear self-identity.

2.2.3.4 Practical implications of career anchors

According to Schein (1990a), when individuals achieve congruence between their career anchor and their work environment positive career outcomes are most likely achieved from both an organisational and individual perspective. Such positive outcomes from an individual perspective are job effectiveness, job satisfaction and job stability (Schein, 1990). Conversely, those that have failed to attain this congruence do not work in jobs that fit their career anchors and as a result achieve lower career outcomes (Danziger & Valency, 2006). These individuals seek to achieve the missing elements of their anchor through outside work interests or by withdrawing commitment, which has various implications for organisations (Yarnall, 1998). From an organisational perspective, the positive outcomes achieved when there is congruence between an individual's career anchor and work environment are improved productivity and lower staff turnover (Schein, 1990a).

The implications of career anchors from both an individual and organisational perspective are indicated in Figure 2.2:

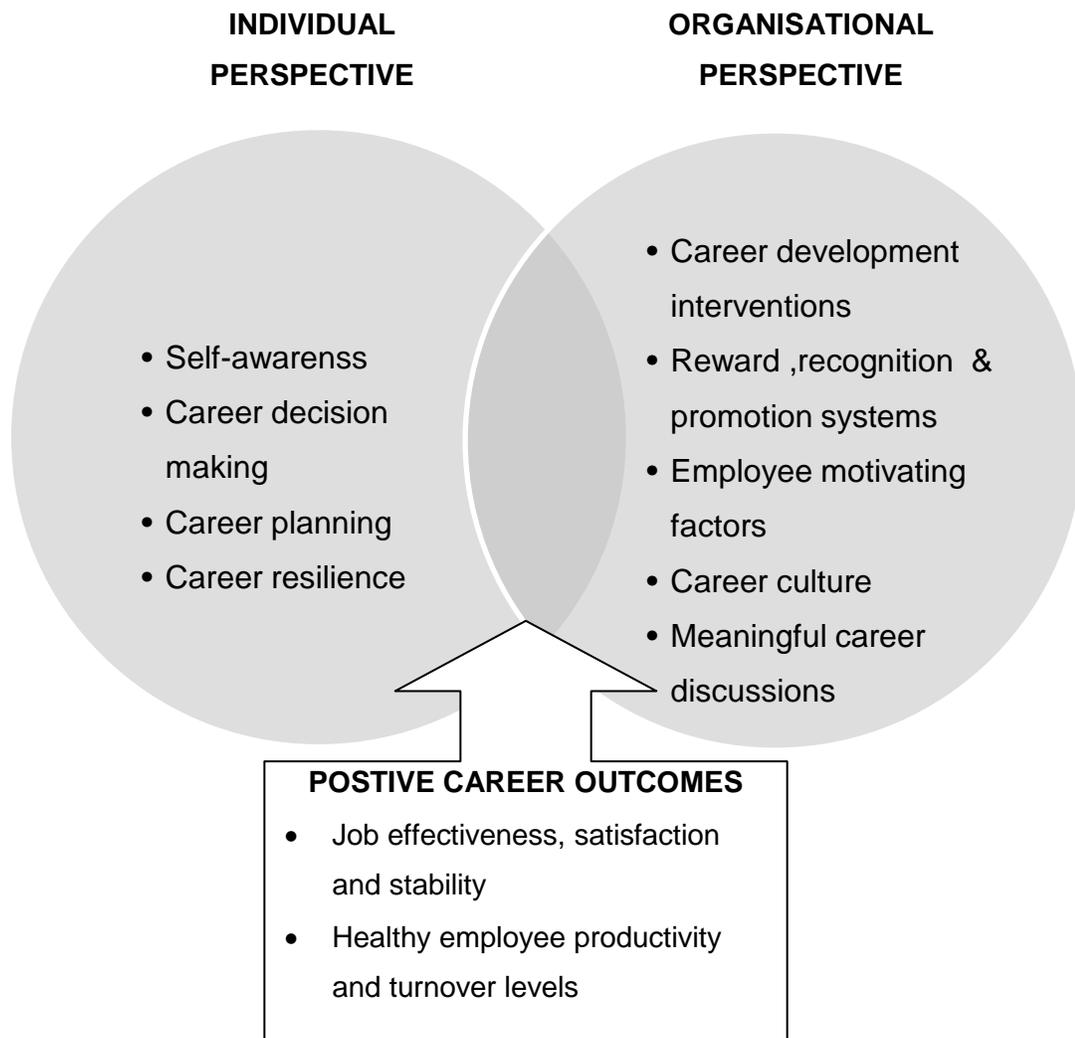


Figure 2.2 - Implications of career anchors from both an individual and organisational perspective (Danziger & Valency, 2006; Feldman and Bolino, 1996; Hsu, 2003; Jiang, Klein, & Tang, 2003; Schein, 1990a; Yarnall, 1998).

From both an individual and organisational perspective a career anchor may provide the basis for career decisions and choices that depict an individuals' career motives and values and influence their psychological attachment to an occupation. It can also be used to explain why people remain engaged in a certain job or are committed to an organisation (Coetzee et al., 2007; Schein, 1974, 1990a). Employees' career anchors play a role in

making decisions about what they want from their jobs and from the organisation which employs them (van Rensburg, Rothman & Rothman, 2002).

Schein (1990b) makes the assumption that organisations attempting to maintain effectiveness in increasingly dynamic environments will need to improve the process by which people are matched to jobs. This matching process will require employees to be open and transparent about their own career anchors, in order for the best interests of both the individual and the organisation to stimulate self-awareness and to create a climate which encourages constructive feedback.

a) Practical implications: Individual perspective

From an individual's perspective, identifying their own career anchor is useful because it helps them to gain self-knowledge about their long-term contributions, personal criteria for choosing certain work-life goals, their ability to define the meaning of personal success and organise life and work experiences accordingly (Derr, 1980). Based on an individual's self-discovery through their work and developmental experiences, career anchors can serve to explain how and why individuals interact with an organisation in a certain way (Yarnall, 1998).

The career anchor theory has been applied in many professional fields where research found that various internal career anchors exist among these professionals and have an impact on their career satisfaction (Hsu et al., 2003). Where an individual's career anchor is connected with their current job they generally have greater levels of job satisfaction. Conversely, individuals have a greater willingness to change jobs when their specific career anchor preferences are not met (Coetzee et al., 2007).

It is noted by Feldman and Bolino (1996) that the career anchor theory does acknowledge that because individuals cannot always find jobs that match their career anchor, the relationship between career anchors and career outcomes is not a perfect match. This results in an individual adapting their performance to meet the role, but does not feel totally engaged in the organisation or job role.

As an individual becomes more self-aware and develops insight about their career anchor they are able to make better career choices and have meaningful conversations with their employer around career paths and career development (Schein, 1990b). This highlights the salience of career anchors and their impact on the career decisions individuals make, they influence career choices, affect the decision to move from one job to another, shape what an individual is looking for in life, determine personal views of the future, and also affect the selection of work settings (Jiang, Klein & Balloun, 2001). Salience consists of both self-insight and the centrality of work in an individual's overall life (Feldman & Bolino, 1996).

Schein (1990a) suggests that from an individual perspective the benefits in understanding career orientations are that individuals have the ability to:

- Apply their career anchor insight into developing a clearer understanding of their needs, talents and values;
- Analyse whether there is congruence with their present job;
- Have constructive career conversations with their managers that will assist with making a sensible career decision;
- Assist with career planning congruent with their self-concept;
- Design an effective career management plan which can be communicated to those that may have an influence on their career outcomes and actively manage their own careers.

Feldman and Bolino (1996) believe that individuals' values, motives and needs about their work situations and enduring personal desires have a potentially greater influence on an individual's ability to make insightful career decisions as opposed to the more visible norms of the organisation and society.

b) Practical implications: Organisational perspective

Organisations are being faced with talent management challenges of attracting (leadership reputation, recruitment, and selection), retaining (performance management and compensation activities), and developing (includes training and career development activities) (Tarique & Schuler, 2009). According to Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007), the career development support framework focuses on 21st century practices that influence the outputs at an organisational level such as talent retention; career resilient workforce, competitive knowledge advantage, quality human resource development and career-orientated practices, whilst sustaining profitability. There is a strong acknowledgement that organisational career management is important because of the strong non-monetary factors which influence the career decisions an individual makes regarding their work performance and career satisfaction (Yarnall, 1998).

Career anchors provide a practical means to career guidance especially during times of organisational change, where the individual having an awareness of their own anchors may be able to accept the change and seek alternative opportunities of career development which they may not have considered earlier (Kniveton, 2004).

Traditionally career development processes in organisations predominantly focused on developing an individual's functional, managerial or cross-cultural skills (Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Schein, 1990a). Conversely, career anchor theory suggests that having preset standardised career ladders and job rotation sequences for all employees may lead to poor staffing decisions, lowered job performance, and increased turnover (Feldman & Bolino, 1996). Organisations using career anchors in career development initiatives need to be more collaborative and flexible in their career planning for individuals and not assume that the career ladders determined by the organisation are best for employees (Feldman & Bolino, 1996). The career development intervention of mentoring has the potential to gain increased effectiveness by having an awareness of career anchors, because individuals can be more appropriately matched to mentors based on their specific career anchor (Kniveton, 2004). The benefits of recognising other motivators gives an organisation greater insight into why employees leave the organisation and an

ability to target career management practices more effectively resulting in increased job satisfaction (Yarnall, 1998).

Research by Hsu et al., (2003) indicates that career anchors have an impact on career satisfaction in such a way that if an individual's career anchor is compatible with their job their intention to leave the organisation would be lower than if there was a lack of congruency. Various researchers (Hsu et al., 2003; Kniveton, 2004) have indicated that retention of employees can be improved by organisations offering incentives based on the different career anchor desires and motivations of each individual. According to Feldman and Bolino (1996), ignoring employees' career anchors in selection decisions can lead to poor hiring decisions. An individual's needs related to their career anchors should be taken into consideration when negotiating the psychological contract (Ellison & Schreuder, 2000).

Career anchor theory has some implications for how organisations design reward systems (Schein, 1990a). Individuals with different career anchors have widely different preferences towards financial and non-financial forms of reward and recognition, to the extent that organisations can design flexible organisation-wide benefit systems to meet the needs of the dominant career anchors of their employees (Feldman & Bolino, 1996).

Yarnall (1998) summarises the organisational benefits in understanding career orientations allowing for the organisation to:

- tailor career interventions appropriately;
- offer opportunities congruent with an individual's orientation;
- design appropriate reward and promotion systems;
- have targeted recognition systems;
- increase understanding by managers as to what drives an individual's internal career satisfaction;
- understanding the overriding career culture in the organisation;
- structure meaningful career discussions and exit interviews.

According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2008), having knowledge of employees' career anchors helps management to practically understand what gives their employees internal career satisfaction and also helps them design appropriate reward, recognition and promotion systems. By having insight into different career anchor preferences, managers develop practical ways of providing career guidance by helping individuals become aware of the range of their own career anchors and the alternative career paths they could pursue which resonate with their preferences (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008).

Schein's (1974) career anchor theory was chosen for the purposes of this study because the model has proved to be regarded as being valuable in other studies, both from an individual and organisational perspective (Ellison & Schreuder, 2000; Coetzee et al., 2007; Hsu et al., 2003).

2.2.4 Integration of theoretical models

Figure 2.3 integrates the main constructs that are related to the different life and career stages of an individual's development, starting at childhood through to late adulthood.

Career development and career decision-making is a lifelong process comprising several life stages, which offer developmental requirements associated with the mastery of each adult career life stage (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Smart & Petersen, 1997). Development through the life stages can be guided through facilitating the maturity of abilities, interests and coping resources required during the horizontal progression from childhood through to late adulthood where an individual disengages themselves from work by retiring (Schreuder & Theron, 1997; Stead & Watson, 1999).

An individual's values may also change throughout their life stages having an impact on career decision making from accepting values from authority figures, to becoming more independent and materialistic in later life stages (Stead & Watson, 1999). Career maturity refers to an individual's ability to identify specific career preferences and implement activities appropriate to their life stage that would allow them to achieve goals and make successful career choices and decisions (Coertse & Scheepers, 2004). The important constructs related to career maturity include having acceptable levels of self-knowledge,

decision making skills, career information, integration of information, and career planning at each developmental stage (Stead & Watson, 1999). Career adaptability is the individual's ability to adjust their career behaviour to changing career related circumstances (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007), which requires the ability to understand their own limitations and willingness to develop new skills and abilities in work-related areas (Stead & Watson, 1999).

According to Stead and Watson (1999), the process of career development is the developing and implementing of occupational self-concepts. According to Schein (1990a), an individual's self-concept evolves as they progress through the different career stages (these career stages are not necessarily age bound). The cyclical progression means the individual may move through multiple career stages, starting at career entry and moving through to decline and disengagement (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Figure 2.3 presents Schein's (1990a) career stages integrated with each life stage which depicts that an individual is able to progress in an upward spiral, moving through the different career stages as more work and life experiences are gained. By progressing through life stages in this spiral manner, an individual is able to avoid career indecision and enhance career maturity through the development of self-awareness (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Robbins, 1993).

	Childhood (4-14 years)	Adolescence (14-25 yrs)	Early adulthood (25 – 45 yrs)	Middle adulthood (45 – 65 yrs)	Late adulthood (65+ yrs)
Super's life stages	Growth	Exploration	Establishment	Maintenance	Disengagement
Self-concept	Develop positive self concept in different areas of life	Integrate real, ideal and social self-concept	Integrate psychological and environmental factors of self concept	Accept limitations; develop new potential	Sustain sense of self-acceptance
Values	Accept parental values; identify and learn by example	Physical, social, autonomous lifestyle	Materialistic	Inner-oriented	Inner-oriented
Career maturity	Make tentative choices	Verify career choice	Make choice, secure and settle in occupation	Hold own against competition	Keep up what is still enjoyed
Adaptability	Conform to pattern set by environment	Focus on own needs and identity	Person-environment correspondence; embrace positive uncertainty	Adapt own limitations; accept new challenges in changing environment	Accept decline in some abilities (e.g. physical); sustain/develop abilities (e.g. integrity, wisdom).

Schein's career stages	Career entry	Growth. Fantasy, exploration; Education and training
	Establishment and advancement	Entry into the world of work; Basic training, socialisation
	Re-evaluation	Gaining membership; Gaining of tenure, permanent membership
	Reinforcement	Midcareer crisis, reassessment; Gaining of tenure, permanent membership
	Decline and disengagement	Retirement; Disengagement from work

Figure 2.3 - Integration of the approaches of life stages and career stages in career development (adapted from Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Stead & Watson, 1999).

2.3 VARIABLES INFLUENCING CAREER DECISION MAKING

Variables such as biographical, environmental and cultural factors have been researched by different authors as influencing an individual's ability to make career decisions (Schreuder & Theron, 1997; Stead & Watson, 1999). In order to make effective career decisions it is important that individuals understand themselves through self-awareness of their career choices and decisions (Hsu et al., 2003).

2.3.1 Biographical influences

An individual's ability to make career decisions may be influenced by the level of self-awareness they have on how their age, marital status, educational level, gender and race relates to their career preferences and values, psychological career resources and experiences of psychological career success (Coetzee, 2008). Schreuder and Theron (1997) refer to genetic endowment and special abilities as *genetic factors* that influence career choice. Genetic endowment may be gender, race, physical appearance and physical handicaps that influence the limits individuals set on career choice (Schreuder & Theron, 1997). Career decision making is also influenced by an individual's special abilities which are their inherited aptitudes, such as intelligence, artistic ability, musical ability or muscular coordination (Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

Research has found that career anchors differ among genders and as a result impact on the career choices made (Kniveton, 2004). Females will focus more on attachment, affiliation, working conditions, child care facilities, career stability and working hours. Males on the other hand focus on the extrinsic rewards from their employment and are more likely to seek challenging work environments (Kniveton, 2004). According to Schreuder and Theron (1997), career choice may be influenced by gender because males and females are exposed to different environmental experiences.

Research findings by Coetzee et al. (2007) indicated that race and gender groups differ significantly regarding their career anchors. According to Coetzee et al. (2007), black male and female participants showed higher preference for values-based anchors (*service/dedication to a cause* and *pure challenge*) and the needs-based *lifestyle* career anchor. White female participants showed preference towards the lifestyle

career anchor, while the black and white participants showed a preference for the *autonomy* career anchor (Coetzee et al., 2007).

An individual's particular life stage, as expressed by a certain age group, has a significant influence on their career anchor preferences (Bonner & Marshall, 2003; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008, Kniveton, 2004). According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2008), occupational position, gender and race also appear to influence an individual's career anchor preferences. Coetzee and Schreuder's (2008) study also takes into account the influence of marital status and education on individuals' career anchor preferences, which was new to the discipline of career psychology. According to Martin and Roodt (2008), married females are committed to organisations which provide them with the job and financial security and stability needed in order to maintain their family needs.

Providing appropriate incentives to retain individuals with very different motivations can be given when employers have knowledge of an individual's career anchors (Hsu et al., 2003). Yarnall (1998) found that career anchors have a relation to length of service and grade-related difference.

Since the variables of age, race, gender, marital status and educational levels have been shown to be related to the participants' career orientations, it would be beneficial for organisations to focus on designing their career development policies, frameworks, interventions and reward systems by taking into consideration the different career needs and aspirations related to these biographical factors (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008).

2.3.2 Cultural and environmental influences

Career decision making may be influenced by factors such as social, cultural, political and economic factors (Schreuder & Theron, 1997). According to Stead and Watson (1999), the cultural context within which an individual operates will change and have an effect on their process of career development. The cultural influences are usually family during childhood, peers during adolescence and work and possibly a new family during early adulthood (Stead & Watson, 1999). During middle adulthood, work continues to have a cultural influence on how an individual progresses through their career

development family responsibilities start to decline and social interaction increases, whilst during late adulthood the family responsibilities have narrowed and an established social system exists (Stead & Watson, 1999). Included in environmental influences are factors such as on-the-job training opportunities, education systems, personnel management practices, technology development and natural disasters (Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

As society undergoes a transformational socio-economic change these turbulent environmental influences has meant individuals need to become less dependent on organisations to manage their careers because they experience more frequent career transitions (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Some of the environmental influences are downsizing, free trade, globalisation, process re-engineering, increased competition, market demands and technology advancement both locally and globally (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Thite, 2001). These environmental influences have been instrumental in individuals developing self-awareness, which has led to greater career decision making skills, career competencies, career maturity and career success (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007).

2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the concept of career anchors by discussing the paradigmatic and conceptual foundations of the concept of career anchors. Furthermore, it sought to provide an overview of the literature pertaining to the theoretical models that predominantly influence the notion of career anchors through life stages and career stages.

The concept of career anchors and various types of career anchors were discussed in relation to both the practical implications from the perspective of individuals and organisations. A summarised discussion on the integration of the approaches of life stages and career stages in career development was presented. The chapter concluded with a brief discussion on the person/biographical, cultural and environmental variables affecting career decision making which impacts both job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Chapter 3 will address the construct of job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 3

JOB SATISFACTION

The aim of this chapter is to focus on step 3 of the literature review, namely to conceptualise the construct of job satisfaction. Firstly, the paradigmatic and conceptual foundations of job satisfaction will be discussed, followed by the exploration of job satisfaction through the traditional frameworks of motivation, antecedents of job satisfaction, and finally understanding the consequences of job satisfaction and its impact on organisational and individual well-being.

3.1 PARADIGMATIC AND CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

The concept of job satisfaction will be discussed from the perspective of the human relations involvement. The job satisfaction concepts that are relevant to the study will then be discussed.

3.1.1 Paradigmatic foundation: Personnel Psychology

Job satisfaction is a frequently studied variable in organisational behaviour research (Martin & Roodt, 2008). The concept of job satisfaction is an outcome of the human relations movement that began with the classic Hawthorne studies in the late 1920s (Spector, 1997; Spector, 2008).

Robbins (1993) refers to three eras of industrial and organisational psychology namely; classical, behavioural and contemporary, that influences the core focus of the human relations movement.

3.1.1.1 Classical era

The long history of job satisfaction goes as far back as the classical era when one of the pioneers of job satisfaction, Frederick Winslow Taylor (1911) studied employee productivity during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries (Spector, 2008). During this era it was found that workers were largely motivated based on their interest in money, which meant the most satisfying situation for an employee was making the most money

with the least amount of effort (Robbins, 1993). As a result, both productivity and satisfaction could be achieved if employees were paid a fair salary for work that could be done quickly without excess fatigue (Robbins, 1993).

3.1.1.2 Behavioural era

The essence of the human relations movement resulted in the belief that the key to increasing productivity in organisations was to increase employee satisfaction (Robbins, 1993). During the period 1924 and 1930 the Hawthorne studies took place where researchers discovered that many social aspects of organisational life affected employee behaviour and performance (Robbins, 1993). As a result of the Hawthorne Effect, it became apparent that social factors were more important than physical factors in increasing an individual's level of job performance (Spector, 2008).

3.1.1.3 Contemporary era

Human relations in the contemporary era is studied and applied according to contingency theories which recognise that there are potentially multiple ways to manage individuals in an organisation and no single set of principles can be applied universally (Robbins, 1993). During the 21st century, the world of work has become a challenging and complicated era in which the human relations movement has had to adapt to dwindling resources, free trade, downsizing, re-engineering, legislative adjustments and rapid growth of information technologies and globalisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007).

3.1.2 Conceptual foundations: Job Satisfaction

The following concepts of relevance to the study will be discussed, namely; job satisfaction, work motivation, job characteristics and job role.

3.1.2.1 Job satisfaction

As job satisfaction is a widely researched and complex phenomenon, it follows that there are numerous definitions for the concept.

Job satisfaction can be defined as an individual's global feeling about their job and the attitudes they have towards various aspects or facets of their job (Spector, 1997, p.2). Robbins (1993) views the definition of job satisfaction as being a broad one, in that it refers to an individual's general attitude towards their job. A person with high job satisfaction appears to generally hold positive attitudes, and one who is dissatisfied holds negative attitudes towards their job (Robbins, 1993). Ivancevich and Matteson (2002, p.121) define job satisfaction as an attitude and perception that individuals have towards their jobs and as a result influence the degree to which there is a good fit between the individual and organisation.

Job satisfaction is viewed as a generalised affective work orientation (Martin & Roodt, 2008) and as an attitudinal variable (Spector, 2008) towards one's present job and employer. Spector (1997) explains that for researchers to understand these attitudinal feelings, they need to understand the complex and interrelated facets of job satisfaction. A job satisfaction facet can be described as any part of a job which produces feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997). This perspective can be useful to organisations that wish to identify employee retention areas which can be improved on (Saari & Judge, 2004; Westlund & Hannon, 2008).

Martins and Coetzee (2007) suggest that job satisfaction is closely related to employee satisfaction, which is described as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an employee's appraisal of their workplace environment or company experience. Employee satisfaction is closely related to job satisfaction and the intention to leave or stay with the organisation.

Job satisfaction is a result of an individual's perception and evaluation of their job influenced by their own unique needs, values and expectations, which they regard as being important to them (Sempane, Rieger & Roodt, 2002). Research has proved that job satisfaction does not happen in isolation, as it is dependent on organisational variables such as structure, size, pay, working conditions and leadership, which

constitute organisational climate (Sempene et al., 2002). According to Martins and Coetzee (2007), job satisfaction is described as probably one of those experiences of work that make it less likely that an employee will think about leaving even if there are available opportunities. However, if job satisfaction is absent and there are other opportunities, turnover could well increase (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). In this regard, job satisfaction can be viewed as a reaction to a job, resulting from what an individual seeks in a job in comparison to the actual outcomes that the job gives the individual (Rothman & Coetzer, 2002).

According to Rothman and Coetzer (2002), job satisfaction among employees is an indicator of organisational effectiveness, and is influenced by organisational and personal factors. Most employers realise that the optimal functioning of their organisations depends in part on the level of job satisfaction of employees, hence the emergence of the statement “happy employees are productive employees” (Saari & Judge, 2004). For performance to be optimal, an employee’s full potential is needed at all levels in organisations, stressing the importance of employee job satisfaction (Rothman & Coetzer, 2002).

3.1.2.2 Work motivation

Work motivation is associated with an individual’s level job satisfaction depending on an individual’s willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organisational goals based on whether the effort has the ability to satisfy their own personal needs (Robbins, 1993). Motivation is derived from an individual’s wants, needs, or desires they have towards acquiring or achieving a certain goal (Spector, 2008).

3.1.2.3 Job characteristics

The content and nature of job tasks can be referred to as job characteristics (Spector, 1997). Job characteristics are linked to the psychological states of individuals and their connection to certain work and personal outcomes (Swanepoel, Erasmus, van Wyk, & Schenk, 1998), such as job performance, motivation, turnover and job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is likely to be high when the job characteristics are liked by the individuals performing the job, as they feel motivated to perform well in their jobs (Spector, 1997).

3.1.2.4 Job role

The approach taken to understanding the job role of an individual is important when viewing the interaction that individuals have with their jobs, because a role dictates the pattern of behaviour an individual demonstrates in the organisation (Spector, 1997). Job roles are related to the variables of role ambiguity and role conflict and have influences on job satisfaction because these variables often create psychological strains which impact an individual's job performance level (Spector, 1997; Spector, 2008).

As indicated in the job satisfaction definitions and concepts, the most common aspect of job satisfaction is that it is an attitude that individuals have about their jobs, based on their perception of their jobs and their own needs and whether these are congruent with the needs of the organisations. For the purposes of this study, job satisfaction will be considered a facet approach which is used to find out which parts of the job produce an individual's level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997).

3.2 THEORETICAL MODELS OF MOTIVATION

Classic researchers have studied job satisfaction from the perspective of need fulfillment, whilst the more contemporary researchers have focused research on the cognitive processes (Spector, 1997). Some of the more predominant theoretical frameworks of motivation are discussed to give insight into the various perspectives of both the individual and organisation when understanding job satisfaction.

Attitudes are determinants of behaviour which are linked to perception, personality, feelings and motivation. Job satisfaction can be described as a type of attitude an individual has towards their jobs (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; Robbins, 1993; Spector, 1997). Leading theorists have consistently tried to establish the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction by means of various motivational theories, which can be classified into representing either content or process approaches to motivation (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; Robbins, 1993; Spector, 2008). Content approaches focus on identifying specific motivational factors and process approaches focus on describing how behaviour is motivated (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002).

Such motivational theories all have substantial implications for understanding job satisfaction and should be addressed to provide a supporting context for job satisfaction (Pietersen, 2005). Various theoretical models of relevance will be briefly discussed in this study, namely content and process theories. The content theories discussed are; Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's (Herzberg, Mausner, Snyderman, 1959) two-factor theory, Alderfer's (1969) ERG theory and McClelland's (1961) achievement motivation theory. The process theories discussed are; expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), equity theory (Adams, 1963) and goal setting theory (Locke, 1968).

3.2.1 Content theories

The content theories addressed are Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg's (Herzberg et al., 1959) two-factor theory, Alderfer's (1969) ERG theory and McClelland's (1961) achievement motivation theory. According to the content theories, individuals have intrinsic needs that they wish to satisfy and as a result their behaviour is altered because of these needs.

3.2.1.1 Maslow's need hierarchy

Maslow's (1954) theory states that physical and psychological needs are arranged in a hierarchy. Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs is divided into five levels ranging from lower to higher order needs. The lowest needs are the physiological needs including physical necessities for survival, such as food, shelter, air and water. The second level consists the safety needs such as the need for freedom and security gained from surrounding events. The third level comprises belongingness, social and love needs, which include the need for friendship, affiliation, interaction and love. The fourth level includes the need for self-esteem and esteem for others. The highest order of needs is self-actualisation which refers an individual's ability to fulfill personal life goals by making maximum use of abilities, skills, and potential (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Spector, 2008). Maslow's (1954) theory assumes that an individual does not move to a higher need level without satisfying the more basic needs (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002) and therefore a need which is unfulfilled becomes demotivating (Spector, 2008).

Although Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy theory is widely known, it has not been very supported in that it comes across as vague, making it difficult to design good valid and reliable tests (Spector, 2008). However, despite the lack of empirical evidence, Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs has had a positive impact on organisations and therefore is continues to be used and researched as it helps managers to focus on an employee's needs at work (Spector, 2008).

3.2.1.2 Herzberg's two-factor theory

The two-factor theory of Herzberg (Herzberg et al., 1959) states that motivation comes from the nature of the job and not from external rewards or job conditions (Spector, 2008). Herzberg's (Herzberg et al., 1959) theory distinguishes between general types of work motivations consisting of two dimensions known as "hygiene" factors, also referred to as extrinsic factors and "motivator" factors referred to as intrinsic factors (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; Pietersen, 2005). These two groups of motivators were associated with job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, respectively (Pietersen, 2005).

According to Spector (2008), most researchers consider Herzberg's (Herzberg et al., 1959) theory to be invalid because the two-factor structure has not been supported sufficiently by research.

3.2.1.3 Alderfer's ERG Theory

Alderfer (1969) supports Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy theory by compressing the hierarchy of needs from five to three levels (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; Robbins, 1993).

- *Existence needs*, such as food, air, water, pay and working conditions. Similar to that of Maslow's (1954) physiological needs and some of the hierarchical security needs (Westlund & Hannon, 2008).
- *Relatedness needs* are satisfied by meaningful social and interpersonal relationships. This is comparable to the social needs and several of the security and esteem needs in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy (Westlund & Hannon, 2008).

- *Growth needs* are satisfied by an individual making a creative or productive contribution. It corresponds to include Maslow's self-actualisation needs and several esteem needs (Westlund & Hannon, 2008).

The major difference between Maslow's (1954) theory and the ERG theory is that the latter theory postulates that progression to the next level of need is not rigid and a person can skip levels (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; Westlund & Hannon, 2008). People can be simultaneously motivated by needs at different levels (Westlund & Hannon, 2008). As an example, a person can be concerned with satisfying growth needs even though existence and relatedness needs are not met (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002).

3.2.1.4 McClelland's learned needs theory

McClelland's (1961) theory proved that some individuals needs differ and are greater than others (Smit & Cronjé, 1996). This theory focuses on three needs described as achievement, power and affiliation needs (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002):

- Employees who have a strong need for achievement (*nAch*) seek jobs that are challenging and where they have control over them.
- Those with a high need for affiliation (*nAff*) experience high job satisfaction with jobs that involve working with others and establishing close interpersonal relationships.
- Individuals with the need for power (*nPow*) concentrate on achieving job satisfaction by obtaining and exercising power and authority over others.

Research has predominantly been conducted on predicting the relationship between performance and need for achievement, whereby high achievers are driven internally provided they are given personal responsibility, feedback and moderate risk (Robbins, 1993). Individuals with a high need for achievement are not particularly motivated by effort-performance, performance-rewards, or rewards-goals linkages (Robbins, 1993).

Table 3.1 presents a comparative summary of the content core aspects of the content theories discussed.

TABLE 3. 1 - COMPARISON BETWEEN THE THEORIES OF MASLOW, ALDERFER, HERZBERG AND MCCLELLAND (ADAPTED FROM IVANCEVICH & MATTESON, 2002; SWANEPOEL ET AL., 1998).

		Maslow (1954)	Alderfer(1969)	Herzberg et al. (1959)	McClelland (1961)
Focus of needs/ motivators	Higher order of needs	Self-actualisation	Growth	Motivators	Need for achievement (nAch)
		Esteem			Need for power (nPow)
	Basic needs	Affiliation	Relatedness	Hygiene conditions	Need for affiliation (nAff)
		Safety			
		Physiological	Existence		

3.2.2 Process theories

The focus in process theories is on how motivation actually occurs through individual goal setting and evaluation of satisfaction after the goals have been attained (Smit & Cronjé, 1996). The process theories addressed are the Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), Equity theory (Adams, 1963) and Goal Setting theory (Locke, 1968).

3.2.2.1 Vroom's expectancy theory

According to Vroom's (1964), expectancy theory the success of motivation is dependent on two factors; the strength of how attractive the individual perceives the expected outcome and what are the chances of the individual attaining the desired outcome (Robbins, 1993; Smit & Cronjé, 1996). Individuals are motivated when they believe their behaviour will lead to desired rewards or outcomes (Spector, 2008). Vroom explained the scope of motivation as a process governing choices between alternative forms of voluntary activity and control (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002).

Vroom's (1964) theory stems from the three types of cognitions that mathematically equate to the motivation or force (Spector, 2008). The three types of cognitions are described as, expectancy, valence and instrumentality and the mathematical equation is displayed in Figure 3.1 (Spector, 2008).

$$\text{Force} = \text{Expectancy} \times \sum(\text{Valences} \times \text{Instrumentalities})$$

Figure 3. 1 - The mathematical equation for the expectancy theory (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; Robbins, 1993; Spector, 2008).

The variables of the mathematical equation can be described individually (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; Robbins, 1993; Spector, 2008). *Force* represents the amount of motivation a person has to engage in a particular behaviour or sequence of behaviours that are relevant to job performance. *Expectancy* is the subjective probability that a person has about their ability to perform, often referred to as self-confidence or self-esteem. *Valence* is the value of an outcome or reward to a person. To what extent does the person want or desire something. Instrumentality is the subjective probability that a given behaviour will result in a particular reward.

Smit and Cronjé (1996) make reference to the following assumptions that underlie the expectancy theory:

- Behaviour is determined by a combination of forces in the individual and the environment.
- Individuals control their behaviour in organisations and these influence how they handle their work-related outcomes.
- Individuals differ on their needs, desires and goals.
- Individuals choose between alternative plans and behaviours, based on how they perceive the degree of effort required that will lead to the desired result.

According to Robbins (1993), the expectancy theory is useful when determining whether an individual will accept or resign from a job, and is not useful for determining typical work behaviours for lower level jobs because of the limitations imposed on work methods, supervisors and operating conditions.

Figure 3.2 summarises the core aspects of the expectancy theory model as discussed.

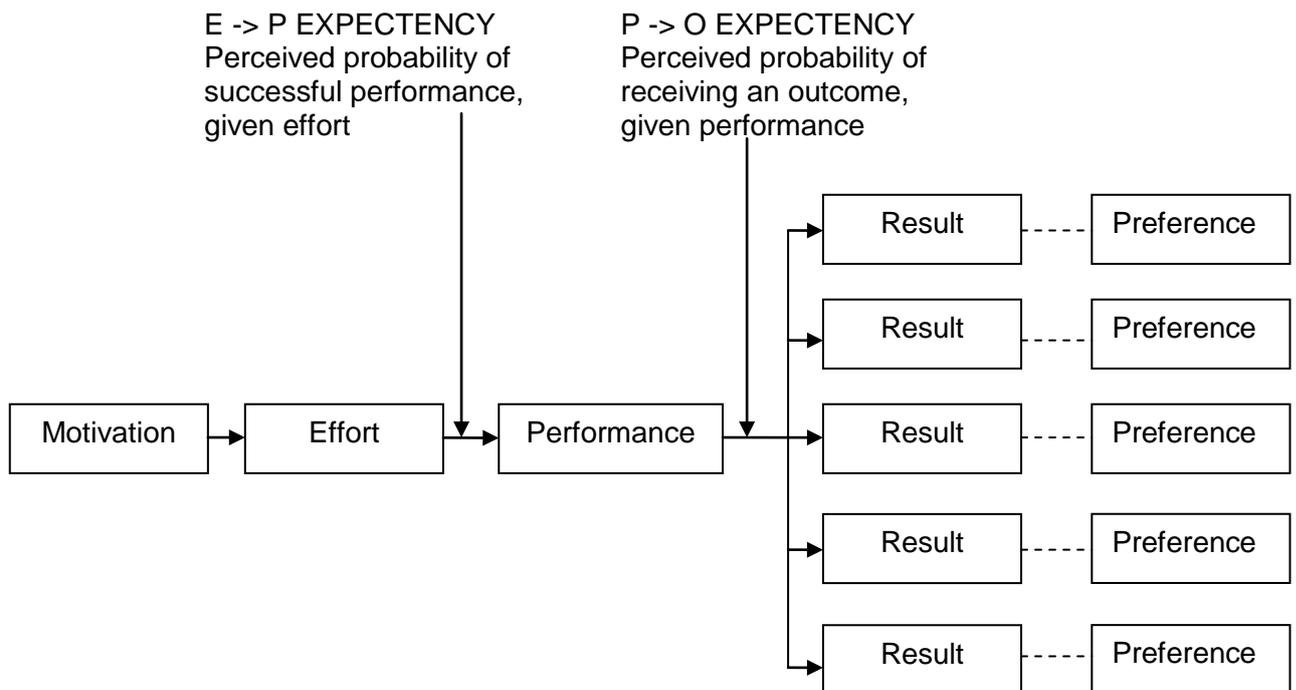


Figure 3. 2 - The expectancy theory model (Smit & Cronjé; 1996; Swanepoel et al., 1998).

3.2.2.2 Equity theory

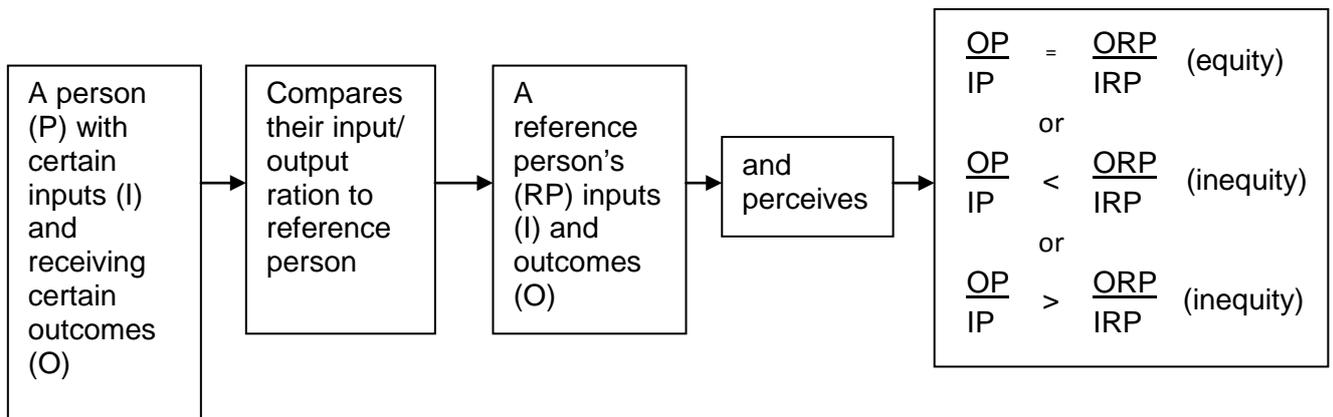
The equity theory of motivation (Adams, 1963) is based on the assumption that individuals are motivated by a desire to be treated fair and equally at work (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002). Equity theory exists when individuals perceive that the ratios of their inputs (efforts) to their outputs (rewards) are equivalent to the ratios of comparable others. This is when an individual asserts their input-outcome ratio with the input –outcome ratio of relevant others (Swanepoel et al., 1998). According to Swanepoel et al. (1998), satisfaction occurs when perceived equity exists, and dissatisfaction results when perceived inequity exists.

The equity theory of motivation can be indicated in the following equation (Smit & Cronjé, 1996):

$$\frac{\text{Reward}}{\text{Individual's own inputs}} = \frac{\text{Reward}}{\text{Comparable individuals' inputs}}$$

This means that should the individual find the situation to be fair and equitable, then there will be no motivation to change anything. Should there be inequalities, then the individual makes changes that will result in equality. For rewards to have a positive motivational effect, individuals need to perceive them to be fair and equitable (Smit & Cronjé, 1996).

Figure 3.3 summarises the core aspects of the equity theory of motivation as discussed.



IP - Inputs of the person
OP - Outputs of the person
IRP - Inputs of reference person
ORP – Outputs of reference person

Figure 3. 3 - The Equity theory of motivation (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002, p. 163).

3.2.2.3 Goal setting theory

Goal setting theory (Locke, 1968) is closely tied to an individual's behaviour that is motivated by their internal intentions, objectives, or goals (Spector, 2008). Specific goals operate as powerful motivators for individuals to understand what needs to be done and how much effort it will take to achieve the desired goal (Swanepoel et al., 1998).

Goal setting theory suggests that specific and more challenging goals may result in higher performance on condition the individual believes that they have the capabilities to achieve the goals (Robbins, 1993; Swanepoel et al., 1998). For goal setting theory to have a positive influence on motivation, emphasis needs to be placed on the importance of conscious goals (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002).

Figure 3.4 summarises the core aspects of the goal-setting theory as discussed.

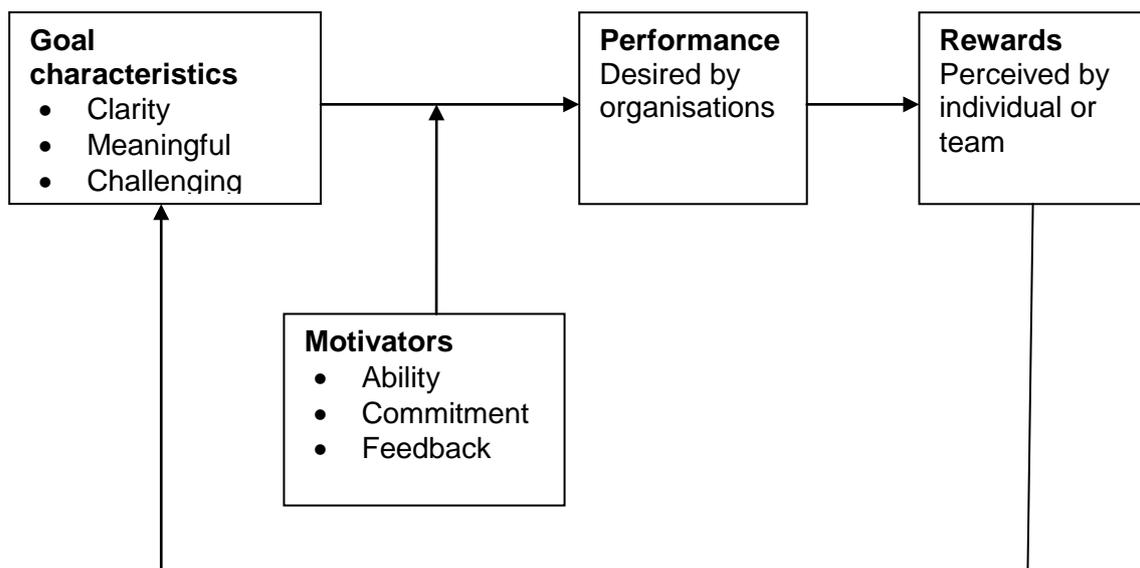


Figure 3. 4 - Goal-setting theory (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002, p. 167).

3.2.3 Integration of theoretical models

Table 3.2 summarises the basic characteristics of content and process theoretical models of motivation and the managerial implications they may have on an organisation. According to Ivancevich and Matteson (2002), both content and process theories have important implications for managers, because of the managerial roles involved in the motivation process.

TABLE 3. 2 - MANAGERIAL PERSPECTIVES OF CONTENT AND PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION (IVANCEVICH & MATTESON, 2002, p151).

Theoretical base	Theoretical explanations	Founders of the theories	Managerial application
Content	Focuses on factors within the person that energise, direct, sustain, and stop behaviour. These factors can only be inferred.	Maslow(1954) – five-level need hierarchy Alderfer(1969) – three-level hierarchy (ERG) Herzberg (Herzberg, Mausner, Snyderman, 1959) – three learned needs acquired from the culture, achievement, affiliation, and power.	Managers need to be aware of differences in needs, desires, and goals because each individual is unique in many ways.
Process	Describes, explains, and analyses how behaviour is energised, directed, sustained, and stopped.	Vroom (1964) – an expectancy theory of choices Adams (1963) – equity theory based on comparisons that individuals make Locke (1968) – goal setting theory that conscious goals and intentions are the determinants of behaviour.	Managers need to understand the process of motivation and how individuals make choices based on preferences, rewards, and accomplishments.

3.3 ANTECEDENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is described as a complex summation of a number of elements or job dimensions, which are interrelated based on common dimensions of job satisfaction being work itself, supervision, pay, promotional opportunities and co-workers (Robbins, 1993; Sempene, 2002). Martin and Roodt (2008) make reference to the different methods that researchers have used to measure job satisfaction.

According to Spector (1997), there have been two approaches to the study of job satisfaction, the *global approach* and the *facet approach*. The *global approach* explains job satisfaction as a single, overall feeling towards a job, while the *facet approach* suggests that different facets are used to assess which part of the job an individual likes or dislikes, such as appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of work itself, organisation itself, the organisation's policies and procedures, pay, personal growth, promotion opportunities, recognition, security and supervision. Spector (1997) adopted a multifaceted approach to job satisfaction which provides a clearer picture of how satisfied an individual is with their job according to different levels of satisfaction with regards to the various facets. The multifaceted approach is relevant to this study because of how the various facets are measured in accordance to an individual's level of satisfaction.

The factors affecting job satisfaction can be divided into two main areas, namely organisational and personal/ biographical factors (Spector, 2008).

3.3.1 Organisational factors

Based on the different concepts of job satisfaction and motivational theories, different dimensions or scales of job satisfaction may be identified (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Rothman & Coetzer, 2002; Sempene et al., 2002; Spector, 1997; 2008). According to Ivancevich and Matteson (2002), a number of factors have been associated with job satisfaction, such as pay, promotion opportunities, work itself, supervision, co-workers, working conditions and job security. It can be assumed that employees value certain conditions of work and if these conditions are evident and congruent with the individuals own needs, employees will be

more satisfied and committed and less likely to leave the organisation (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

For the purposes of this study, nine facets of job satisfaction are discussed and summarised in Table 3.3. These facets are pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication (Spector, 1997).

TABLE 3. 3 - NINE FACETS OF JOB SATISFACTION INDICATING DESCRIPTIONS (SPECTOR, 1997).

Facet	Description
Pay	Satisfaction with pay and pay raises
Promotion	Satisfaction with promotion opportunities
Supervision	Satisfaction with person's immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	Satisfaction with monetary and non-monetary fringe benefits
Contingent Rewards	Satisfaction with appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work
Operating Procedures	Satisfaction with operating policies and procedures
Coworkers	Satisfaction with the people a person works with
Nature of Work	Satisfaction with type of work done
Communication	Satisfaction with communication within the organisation

3.3.1.1 Pay

Pay is associated with both global satisfaction and even more strongly with the facet of pay satisfaction. Although money is important to individuals, research has found that individuals who make more money are not necessarily more satisfied in their jobs (Spector, 2008). In a military study conducted by Yang, Miao, Zhu, Sun, Liu and Wu (2008) to evaluate the influence of a pay increase on job satisfaction, it was found that

pay is an important factor affecting overall job satisfaction and not only in the facet of salaries and benefits.

3.3.1.2 Promotion

Promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, more responsibilities and increased social status (Robbins, 1993). Job satisfaction is likely to be experienced by individuals who perceive promotional opportunities to be fair (Robbins, 1993; Spector, 1997).

3.3.1.3 Supervision

An immediate supervisor's behaviour is also a determinant of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). Employee satisfaction is increased when the immediate supervisor is understanding, friendly, offers praise for good performance, listens to employees opinions and shows personal interest in them (Robbins, 1993).

3.3.1.4 Fringe benefits

Spector (1997) refers to fringe benefits as monetary and non-monetary. Increasing intrinsic and extrinsic fringe benefits that attract an employee's attention may subsequently increase their performance and induce higher levels of organisational commitment (Suliman & Illes, 2000).

3.3.1.5 Contingent rewards

According to Spector (1997), contingent rewards are defined as appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work. Employee dissatisfaction may result if an employee perceives that their efforts are not recognised or their rewards are not equitable, tied to their performance and tailored to their needs (Robbins, 1993). Contingent rewards support the reinforcement theory of motivation where performance-relevant behaviours will increase in frequency if rewarded (Spector, 2008).

3.3.1.6 Operating conditions

Perceptions of fairness are important determinants of people's behaviour and reactions to work (Spector, 2008). According to Martins and Coetzee (2007), employee motivation and organisational culture is affected by how an employee's needs and objectives are integrated into the needs and objectives of the organisation, work/life balance practices and physical work environment.

3.3.1.7 Co-workers

Work fills an individual's social factor need. Therefore, having friendly and supportive co-workers lead to increased job satisfaction (Robbins, 1993). According to Ghazzawi (2008), an employee's co-workers, the groups they belong to, and the culture an individual is exposed to all have the potential to impact on job satisfaction.

3.3.1.8 Nature of work

Nature of work satisfaction is defined as the employees' satisfaction with the type of work done (Spector, 1997). Employees prefer work which is mentally challenging by providing them with opportunities to use their skills and abilities and offer a variety of tasks, freedom, and feedback on how well they are doing (Robbins, 1993).

Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job characteristic theory focuses on the five core job characteristics and how individuals are motivated by the intrinsic satisfaction found in their job tasks (Spector, 2008):

- Skill variety: the number of different skills necessary to do a job.
- Task identity: whether the employee does an entire job or a piece of a job.
- Task significance: the impact a job has on other people.
- Autonomy: the freedom employees have to do their jobs as they see fit.
- Task feedback: the extent to which it is obvious to employees that they are doing their jobs correctly.

According to the job characteristics theory, intrinsic work characteristics positively affect job satisfaction through a perceptual process (Judge, Bono & Locke, 2000).

Specific job characteristics lead to positive psychological states such as meaningfulness of work, feelings of responsibility and knowledge of results about the products of work, which in turn lead to satisfaction with the job (Judge et al., 2000; Spector, 1997). Meaningfulness of work results from skill variety, task identity and task significance. Feelings of responsibility result from autonomy. Knowledge of results about the products of work is gained through job feedback (Spector, 1997).

When these characteristics are combined, the scope and complexity of a job is defined (Spector, 2008). High scope results in high levels of job satisfaction and low scope leads to boredom and dissatisfaction (Spector, 2008).

3.3.1.9 Communication

The formation of specific goals, feedback on progress towards the goals, and reinforcement of desired behaviour all stimulate motivation and require communication. The less distortions, ambiguities and incongruities that occur in communication within organisations, employees will have less uncertainties and in return greater levels of satisfaction (Robbins, 1993).

Aspects of the job and the organisational environment relate to job satisfaction, and as a result some situations produce positive job satisfaction, whilst others will produce job dissatisfaction (Spector, 2008).

3.3.2 Biographical factors

Job satisfaction has also been associated with personal factors, known as biographical variables such as personality, gender, age, tenure and race (Ghazzawi, 2008; Martins & Roodt, 2008; Spector, 1997).

3.3.2.1 Personality

An individual's personality may have a positive or negative effect on how satisfied they are with their jobs (Ghazzawi, 2008; Spector, 1997). According to Spector (2008), the influence personality has on job satisfaction can be traced back to Hawthorne studies, but lacks clarity on which traits lead to job satisfaction. The two traits that demonstrate significant correlations with job satisfaction are locus of control and negative affectivity (Spector, 1997).

Locus of control refers to the degree to which individuals believe they are masters of their own fate (Robbins, 1993). People with an internal locus of control believe that they have control and influence over what happens to them and people with an external locus of control believes what happens to them is controlled by outside forces or people (Robbins, 1993; Spector, 1997). Internals have been found to be more job satisfied than externals (Spector, 2008).

According to Spector (2008), negative affectivity is the tendency for an individual to experience negative emotions such as anxiety or depression across a variety of situations. Research has consistently indicated that negative emotions correlate negatively with job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

3.3.2.2 Gender

Research indicates that the relations between gender and job satisfaction have been generally inconsistent (Ghazzawi, 2008; Spector, 1997). Some studies indicate that men and women may differ in expectations suggesting that women expect less and are therefore satisfied with less and different genders have different values (Spector, 1997).

3.3.2.3 Age

Research has indicated that age and job satisfaction are related in that general job satisfaction increases with age (Spector, 1997). That is, as an individual gets older they become more satisfied with their jobs, which may be as result of them having less

interest in task variety as opposed to younger workers who find such jobs unsatisfying (Spector, 2008).

3.3.2.4 Tenure

The correlation between job satisfaction and tenure has also indicated inconsistencies (Martins & Roodt, 2008). Job satisfaction follows a U-shaped relationship with respect to an individual's tenure in their current position and that overall job satisfaction increased as the years of experience increased (Martins & Roodt, 2008).

3.3.2.5 Race

As with gender, research indicates that there has been inconsistency in results comparing racial groups (Martins & Roodt, 2008). According to research, white employees are generally more job satisfied than black employees (Martins & Roodt, 2008; Spector, 2008).

3.4 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Since job satisfaction involves employees' affective or emotional feelings, it has a major consequences on their lives (Sempene et al., 2002). By having insight into the facets and behaviours related to job satisfaction, managers can understand the impact employee job satisfaction has on the well-being of the organisation when it comes to job productivity, turnover, absenteeism and life satisfaction (Spector, 2008).

3.4.1 Job satisfaction and productivity

The relationship between job satisfaction and productivity has become apparent during research carried out in the nineties, unlike early studies which showed no consistent relationship (Jones, 2006; Robbins, 1993). Research indicates that there is a modest relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Spector, 2008). According to Spector (1997), job satisfaction should be related to job performance, based on the assumption that productive employees are happy employees.

The relationship between job satisfaction and productivity can be justified in two ways (Spector, 2008). Firstly, satisfaction might lead to performance, in that individuals who enjoy their jobs work harder and are therefore more productive in their role. Secondly, performance may lead to satisfaction, in that individuals who perform well will receive benefits that may enhance employee job satisfaction (Spector, 2008). Spector (1997) postulates that the relationship existing between job satisfaction and productivity might be adjusted by the rewards given to high performing employees.

3.4.2 Job satisfaction and turnover

A number of studies support the view that turnover is strongly related to job satisfaction (Robbins, 1993; Spector, 2008). Research indicates that job satisfaction levels are related to turnover where correlations between these two variables have been reasonably consistent (Spector, 1997). The classic theories view turnover as a result of employee job dissatisfaction where an individual's attitude towards their job is based on their assessment of their employment (Robbins, 1993; Spector, 1997; Westlund & Hannon, 2008). According to Spector (1997), a causal correlation exists between job satisfaction and turnover where people who dislike their jobs will try to find alternative employment.

In a study by Martin and Roodt (2008), the correlation between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover indicates that the more job satisfied an individual is, there is less likelihood that they will leave the organisation, because of higher levels of commitment, and therefore the lower the predicted turnover intentions. Employee job dissatisfaction may exist more during times of low rates of unemployment, because there are more opportunities offering alternative employment, as opposed to when the unemployment rate is high and job opportunities are limited (Spector, 1997).

3.4.3 Job satisfaction and absence

Research indicates that job satisfaction levels are related to absenteeism where correlations between these variables have been inconsistent (Saari & Judge, 2004; Spector, 1997; 2008). According to Spector (1997), absence can result in increased labour costs thereby reducing organisational effectiveness and efficiency.

Organisations that keep track of absenteeism are better able to manage the absence of each person and in turn manage costs (Spector, 1997).

Job satisfaction plays a critical role in an employee's decision to be absent (Spector, 1997). Individuals who dislike their jobs are more likely to take time off work than people who like their jobs (Spector, 2008). When comparing the attendance records of satisfied and dissatisfied individuals, research indicated that employees with high satisfaction scores had much higher attendance than those with lower satisfaction levels (Robbins, 1993).

3.4.4 Job and life satisfaction

Spector (1997) refers to life satisfaction as a person's feelings about life in general and therefore it is considered a measure of emotional well-being. An individual's behaviour and reaction to jobs are a result of the interplay that exists between the events and situations existing in the workplace and in their personal lives (Spector, 1997). Both physical and psychological health may be influenced by job attitudes and, as a result, individuals who dislike their jobs could experience negative health effects and therefore experience higher levels of job dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997; Spector, 2008). This is opposed to individuals with high levels of job satisfaction who tend to experience better mental and physical health (Spector, 2008).

By making people happier with their lives overall, organisations are also increasing the job satisfaction of their employees and can, in turn, reap the benefits of employees with high job satisfaction (Jones, 2006). Spector (1997) views job satisfaction and life satisfaction as being related because work is a major component of a person's life. Research does suggest that employees who are happy with their lives tend to be more productive in the workplace (Jones, 2006). Managers can use related research to realise that they have limited control over a person's job satisfaction, because job satisfaction, in part, is a spillover of their life satisfaction (Saari & Judge, 2004).

3.4.5 Implications for career decision making and retention

According to Glen (2006), retaining employee skills can be achieved by focusing on broader employee engagement predictors of retention and motivation; namely:

- people have very individual motivations, often in complex combinations;
- motivation and retention are not necessarily best or exclusively managed with cash inducements;
- ignoring broader potential predictors of motivation and/or dissatisfaction is naïve, and
- regular measurement of the most likely predictors of motivation and/or dissatisfaction, and the interactive communication of these to the organisation is a powerful first step to actively managing employee motivation, and, by extension, enhanced key skills retention, attendance and improved performance.

Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007) identify that individuals who have strong career decision making skills are able to demonstrate the ability to obtain strong self-knowledge, and knowledge of employment opportunities. Career decision making leads to career choice which is defined through the subjective context of the individual's preferences, aspirations, orientations, images and intentions, as well as the objective context of economic conditions and sociological factors such as family and education (Schreuder & Theron, 1997). A combination of individual and job environment characteristics has an influence on the level of job satisfaction an individual experiences (Spector, 1997). If job satisfaction is low, the individual will generally start developing behavioural intentions to quit their job (Spector, 1997).

The retention of skills can be managed across an organisation by balancing employee individual need with engagement predictors such as organisational process, role challenges, values, work-life balance, information, management and reward and recognition (Glen, 2006). By gaining insight into the various predictors of job satisfaction, employee turnover can be minimised as turnover is viewed as a reaction by individuals to the work environment (Spector, 1997).

3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the concept of job satisfaction and highlighted the different theoretical frameworks of motivational theories relating to job satisfaction. Furthermore, it sought to provide an overview of the literature pertaining to job satisfaction antecedents, whereby personal and organisational factors impacting on job satisfaction were discussed.

In terms of the job satisfaction antecedents and job satisfaction consequences, various areas were made reference to and the chapter highlighted the importance of job satisfaction to both employees and organisations alike. For the purposes of this study it has become apparent that employees have their own unique factors which represent job satisfaction, and organisations can leverage these facets to address the challenge of improving productivity and retention of employees.

Chapter 4 will discuss the construct of organisational commitment.

CHAPTER 4

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The aim of Chapter 4 is to explore, clarify and describe the concept of organisational commitment and the consequences organisational commitment has on both organisations and individuals.

Firstly, the paradigmatic and conceptual foundations of organisational commitment will be discussed, followed by the exploration of different approaches, organisational commitment models, foci and antecedents of organisational commitment. The consequences of organisational commitment and its impact on career decision making and retention will be discussed. Finally, the chapter will conclude with the theoretical integration of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables.

4.1 PARADIGMATIC AND CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The concept of organisational commitment will be discussed within the paradigm of Organisational Psychology by giving a brief outline of the principles of organisational commitment. Thereafter the discussion will be followed by the concepts that relate to the notion of organisational commitment.

4.1.1 Paradigmatic foundation: Organisational Psychology

Organisational psychology is a discipline of psychology which focuses on how the behaviours and attitudes of people are influenced by the organisational contexts within which they are employed (Muchinsky et al., 2005). The concept of organisational psychology is also a field of study known as organisational behaviour (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002).

The areas of focus within organisational psychology are more concerned with social and group influences namely; role related behaviour, pressures that groups can impose on individuals, personal feelings of commitment to an organisation and patterns of communication within an organisation (Muchinsky et al., 2005). Management has increased their focus on issues such as employee productivity, quality of work life, job

stress and career progression by understanding the organisational behaviour of employees. According to Robbins (1993), organisational behaviour has four dependent variables affecting organisational effectiveness, namely; productivity, absenteeism, turnover and job satisfaction.

Organisational psychology has a predominant focus on assessing employee attitudes about their jobs and how to improve them (Spector, 2008). The focus is not only on the causes and consequences of job satisfaction, but also on organisational commitment and how people's feelings of attachment to their jobs and organisations affect their emotions towards the workplace (Spector, 2008).

4.1.2 Conceptual foundations

The following concepts of relevance to the study will be discussed, namely; organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, career salience, occupational commitment and turnover intention.

4.1.2.1 Organisational commitment

Over the past few decades, organisational commitment has become a topic of increasing importance in industrial and organisational psychology research and has been measured and defined in many different ways.

According to Mester, Visser, Roodt and Kellerman (2003), the concept of organisational commitment has attracted considerable interest in an attempt to understand and clarify the intensity and stability of an employee's dedication to an organisation. High organisational commitment may be defined as the state in which an employee decides to continue their employment in their employing organisation based on how they identify with the organisation and its goals (Robbins, 1993).

Despite the lack of consensus on the various definitions, conceptualisations and measurements, there is a common theme in that organisational commitment is considered to be a bond or linkage of the individual to the organisation (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Allen and Meyer (1990) believe that the difference between the various conceptualisations of commitment involve the psychological state, the antecedent

conditions leading to its development, and the behaviours that are expected to result from commitment.

Table 4.1 replicates a set of definitions taken from the organisational commitment literature researched by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), and examples of organisational commitment are defined by various authors with different interests and perspectives.

Some definitions indicated in Table 4.1 (e.g. Becker, 1960, Mowday, et al, 1979; Wiener, 1982) view organisational commitment as a uni-dimensional construct. Others (e.g. Allen & Meyer, 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) view organisational commitment as the common variables linking the different forms of commitment within multidimensional models, while others (e.g. Brickman, 1987; Brown, 1996; Oliver, 1990; Scholl, 1981) believe there is a core essence that distinguishes commitment from other constructs (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), all definitions generally point to commitment as being a stabilising and obliging force which provides direction to behaviour that binds the person to a course of action. The definition assumed for the purposes of this study corresponds with the definition by Meyer and Allen (1997, p.11) which views organisational commitment as a psychological state that characterises the employee's relationship with the organisation and has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organisation. Mowday et al., (1979) argue that although commitment and job satisfaction are both attitudes, commitment differs from the concept of job satisfaction. While organisational commitment is considered to be a more global and stable construct reflecting general employee attitude, job satisfaction is considered to be a more fragile and changeable employee attitude (Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Mowday et al., 1979).

**TABLE 4. 1 - A SET OF DEFINITIONS FOR ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT
(MEYER & HERSCOVITCH, 2001).**

Commitment in general

“...engagement which restricts freedom of action” (Oxford English Dictionary, 1969)

“Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity” (Becker, 1960, p.32)

“... a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities of his own involvement.” (Salancik, 1977, p. 62)

...a stabilising force that acts to maintain behavioural direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function.” (Scholl, 1981, p.593)

“...a force that stabilises individual behaviour under circumstances where the individual would otherwise be tempted to change that behaviour.” (Brickman, 1987, p.2)

“... one’s inclination to act in a given way toward a particular commitment target.” (Oliver, 1990, p.30)

“... an obliging force which requires that the person honour the commitment, even in the face of fluctuating attitudes and whims.” (Brown, 1996, p.241)

Organisational commitment

“... the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation.” (Mowday, Steers and Porter ,1979, p. 226)

“... The totality of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests.” (Weiner, 1982, p.421)

“...the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organisation; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalises or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organisation.” (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p.493)

“... a psychological state that binds the individual to the organisation (i.e., makes turnover less likely).” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.14)

“... a bond or linking of the individual to the organisation.” (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p.171)

Job commitment

“...refers to the likelihood that an individual will stick with a job, and feel psychologically attached to it, whether it is satisfying or not.” (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983)

4.1.2.2 Job satisfaction

The concept of job satisfaction has been extensively discussed in chapter 3. Generally, job satisfaction can be defined as an individual's global feeling about their jobs and the attitudes they have towards various aspects or facets of their jobs (Spector, 1997). Robbins (1993) views the definition of job satisfaction as being a broad one, in that it refers to an individual's general attitude towards their job. A person with high job satisfaction appears to generally hold positive attitudes towards their job, and one who is dissatisfied holds negative attitudes (Robbins, 1993). Ivancevich and Matteson (2002) define job satisfaction as an attitude and perception that individuals have towards their jobs and as a result influence the degree to which there is a good fit between the individual and organisation.

Organisational commitment may be determined by the factors of job satisfaction, and job satisfaction was found to be positively associated with job involvement (Coetzee et al., 2007).

4.1.2.3 Job involvement

The term job involvement measures the degree to which an individual identifies psychologically with their job and the importance of work for their total self-worth (Robbins, 1993; Roodt, 1997). A high level of job involvement is related to lower absenteeism and resignation rates (Robbins, 1993).

4.1.2.4 Career salience

Career salience can be defined as the importance of work and of a career in the total life of a person (Greenhaus, 1971). According to Muthuveloo and Rose (2005), career salience is also related to as career commitment and occupational commitment, where the critical notion is that an individual becomes more committed to their career than to the organisation.

4.1.2.5 Occupational commitment

Occupational commitment refers to the extent to which an individual identifies with their occupation and becomes involved their occupation (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005). Organisational commitment is related to occupational commitment by virtue of the fact that an individual's involvement in their occupation depends on their form of commitment towards the occupation (Coetzee et al., 2007).

4.1.2.6 Turnover intention

Employees within organisations will intend quitting their jobs at some point in time, thus resulting in turnover behaviour (Spector, 2008). Turnover behaviour is a process which includes attitudinal, decisional and behavioural components (Martin & Roodt, 2008). An individual's intention to quit is related to job search behaviours which act as a strong predictor of turnover (Spector, 1997). Such behaviours are contacting employment agencies, preparing curriculum vitae, submitting curriculum vitae to various employers and actually attending interviews (Spector, 1997). Turnover intentions are seen as mental decisions that intervene between an individual's attitudes regarding a job and their behaviour to either stay or quit (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

In a study by Martin and Roodt (2008), the correlation between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover indicates that the more job satisfied an individual is, the less the likelihood there is that they will leave the organisation, because of higher levels of commitment, therefore the lower the predicted turnover intentions.

4.2 APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

An important factor to consider when reviewing the different explanations of the concept of organisational commitment is whether commitment can be clearly distinguished from related constructs and different approaches to organisational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). There are four main approaches to conceptualising and exploring organisational commitment namely; the attitudinal approach, the behavioural approach, the motivational approach and the multidimensional approach (Roodt, 2004; Sulliman & Illse, 2000). These three

approaches describe the different ways in which organisational commitment is developed and the implications related to employee behaviour (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The differences identified in the three theoretical approaches are explained briefly below and in Table 4.2.

4.2.1 Attitudinal approach

The most prominent uni-dimensional approach to organisational commitment is the attitudinal approach of Mowday et al., (1979), which views commitment largely as an employee attitude or a set of behavioural intentions. It can be argued that organisational commitment has evolved as a key indicator of employees' attitudes (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). Research has indicated that the attitudinal approach for conceptualising organisational commitment indicates the strongest correlations with the variables linked to commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Suliman & Illse, 2000). This approach focuses on how the individual identifies with the organisation and its goals and as a result chooses to remain committed to the organisation to be a part of achieving its goals (Mowday et al., 1979).

According to Mowday et al., (1979), organisational commitment is defined in terms of an attitude in that it is the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation, characterised by at least three related factors: (1) a strong belief in, and acceptance of, the organisation's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. This approach typically encompasses an exchange relationship in which individuals attach themselves to the organisation in return for certain rewards or payments from the organisation (Mowday et al., 1979).

Attitudinal commitment may be thought of as a process and mindset in which individuals consider their values and goals in relation to those of the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective and normative components reflect employee's attitudinal dispositions whereas the continuance component indicates their behavioural orientation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1997) argue that this approach includes factors associated with positive work experiences, personal characteristics and job characteristics, while the outcomes include increased performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced employee turnover.

4.2.2 Behavioural approach

The behavioural approach refers to organisational commitment as the behaviour where individuals are committed to a particular course of action rather than an entity (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This means that an employee who is committed to their organisation might develop a more positive view of these organisations consistent with their behaviour to avoid cognitive dissonance or to maintain positive self perceptions (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Organisational commitment has been used as an independent variable which accounts for certain kinds of behaviour demonstrated by individuals or groups (Becker, 1960). Becker (1960) identified the term “side bets” which was used to describe the form of commitment behaviour in the work context. Side-bet theory is where an employee’s commitment is the continued association with an organisation that occurs because of the employee’s decision to stay after evaluating the costs of leaving the organisation. Employees who freely choose to behave in a certain way, and who find their decisions difficult to change, become committed to the chosen behaviour and develop attitudes consistent with their choice (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005).

4.2.3 Motivational approach

The motivational approach focuses on the state of commitment, known as cognitive predisposition (Martin & Roodt, 2008). As opposed to the attitudinal and behavioural approaches, the motivational approach includes the realisation of salient values and the achievement of salient goals (Martin & Roodt, 2008). The state of commitment can be subjectively experienced by an individual and is characterised by a focus on antecedent and consequential behaviours and conditions (Roodt, 2004). Roodt (2004) argues that the state of commitment is not only separated from its antecedents and consequential conditions and behaviours, but also from its relative affective and conative components such as job satisfaction and intention to leave.

Mowday et al., (1979) stipulate that commitment should be related to an intrinsic motivational force, because highly committed individuals are thought to be motivated to exert a high level of energy on behalf of the organisation. Commitment as part of a motivated mindset requires goal regulation which focuses on the reasons for and

purpose of a course of action (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). Motivated behaviour may be accompanied by different psychological states or mindsets found in different forms of commitment and therefore it is important to consider behaviours that are not required of an individual (Meyer et al., 2004).

4.2.4 Multidimensional approach

Organisational commitment has been researched in terms of a uni-dimensional and multidimensional perspective (Suliman & Illse, 2000). The lack of consensus in defining commitment has greatly contributed to treating organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). According to Suliman and Illse (2000), the multidimensional approach is the most recent approach to conceptualising organisational commitment. This approach assumes that organisational commitment develops through the interplay of emotional attachment, perceived costs and moral obligation (Suliman & Illse, 2000). One of the early studies that contributed to this new approach was introduced by Kelman (1958) who argued that commitment is based on the basic principles of compliance, identification and internalisation that affect attitudinal change.

Based on these three-components, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) considered organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct which shares the central theme that commitment is the individual's psychological attachment to an organisation. Becker's (1960) side-bet theory was adopted by Meyer and Allen (1997) who argued that commitment to a course of action results from the accumulation of side bets a person makes, and as a result introduced the concept of continuance commitment alongside the theory of affective commitment. Normative commitment was added later to their multidimensional approach. Reichers (1985) supported this recent multidimensional approach by offering three definitions to organisational commitment, based on side-bets, attributions and goal congruence, all with a focus on specific commitments to various entities within the organisation.

**TABLE 4. 2 - A SET OF DEFINITIONS FOR ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT
(MEYER & HERSCOVITCH, 2001).**

Approaches	Core aspect of each approach towards organisational commitment
Attitudinal approach	Commitment is largely viewed as an employees' attitude or a set of behavioural intentions which focuses on how the individual identifies with the organisation and its goals and chooses to remain committed to the organisation to be a part of achieving its goals (Mowday et al., 1979).
Behavioural approach	Focuses on the behaviour where individuals are committed to a particular course of action rather than an entity (Allen & Meyer, 1990).
Motivational approach	Focuses on the state of commitment, known as cognitive predisposition which includes the realisation of salient values and the achievement of salient goals (Martin & Roodt, 2008).
Multidimensional approach	Organisational commitment develops through the interplay of emotional attachment, perceived costs and moral obligation (Suliman & Illes, 2000).

Research concerning organisational commitment in the field of organisational psychology has gained increased support since the conceptualisation of the multidimensional approach (Suliman & Illes, 2000). Meyer and Allen's (1997) multidimensional three-component commitment model has received a large amount of modern day focus and is therefore of relevance to this research (Suliman & Illes, 2000).

4.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT MODELS

The models that have generated most research and which best explain commitment in terms of organisational behaviour for the purposes of this research are Allen and Meyer (1990) and O'Reilly and Chatman (1986). Table 4.3 represents Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) reference towards the different binding forces of organisational commitment by describing the O'Reilly and Chatman model and Meyer and Allen three-component model.

4.3.1 O'Reilly and Chatman's model

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed a multidimensional framework based on the fact that commitment represents an attitude, which is developed through various mechanisms towards the organisation. The concept commitment, it was argued, reflects the "psychological bond" that ties individuals to their employing organisations, whilst bearing in mind that the nature of the bond could differ (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Based on Kelman's (1958) research on attitude and behaviour change, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) argued that commitment takes the following three forms between an employee and an organisation which they labeled compliance, identification and internalisation:

- *Compliance*: This occurs when attitudes and corresponding behaviour are adopted in order to gain specific rewards, not because of shared beliefs.
- *Identification*: This occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship in which they feel proud to be part of a group, respecting its values and accomplishments without adopting them as his or her own.
- *Internalisation*. This occurs when influence is accepted because the attitude and behaviours one is being encouraged to adopt are congruent with existing values between the individual and respective entity.

The psychological attachment to an organisation can reflect varying combinations of these three distinct forms (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Identification and internalisation were relatively negatively related to turnover intention and turn over and positively related to pro-social behaviour (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Compliance indicated the reverse and contributed uniquely to the predication of turnover intention (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The impact of O'Reilly and Chatman's model (1986) has been weakened because of the difficulty to distinguish identification and internalisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It can however be said that the O'Reilly and Chatman model (1986) supports the notion that commitment is a multidimensional construct (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.3.2 Meyer and Allen's three-component model

The Meyer and Allen (1997) three-component model has undergone the most empirical research to date as a multidimensional construct and measure associated with the conceptualisation of organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1997) were able to acknowledge the differences in the various definitions of organisational commitment and developed a three-component model of commitment. The model was developed based on the observation that there were similarities and difference in the existing uni-dimensional concepts of organisational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer et al., 2004). The commonalities existing among all the uni-dimensional concepts resulted in the belief that commitment binds an individual to an organisation and reduces their intentions to leave (Meyer et al., 2004).

The key differences were in the mindsets presumed to characterise the commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). These different mindsets are described in the three-component model of commitment as affective, continuance and normative (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.3.2.1 Affective commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1997, p.11), affective commitment is “the employees emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation”. Affectively committed individuals continue their employment with an organisation because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective or emotional attachment to the organisation is the most prevalent component describing organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

4.3.2.2 Continuance commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1997, p.11), continuance commitment is “an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation”. Individuals who experience continuance commitment remain with an organisation because they feel they need to (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Continuance commitment can be described as the perceived cost an individual may incur when leaving an organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

4.3.2.3 Normative commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1997, p.11), normative commitment “reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment”. Individuals experiencing normative commitment feel obliged to remain with the employing organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

TABLE 4. 3 - DIMENSIONS OF TWO FORMS OF COMMITMENT REPRESENTED (MEYER & HERSCOVITCH, 2001, p.304).

O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986)	Compliance	Instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards.
	Identification	Attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organisation.
	Internalisation	Involvement predicted on congruence between individuals and organisational values.
Meyer and Allen's three-component model (1991)	Affective	The employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation.
	Continuance	An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation.
	Normative	A feeling of obligation to continue employment.

For the purposes of this research study, Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component commitment model is adopted.

4.4 FOCI OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Understanding organisational commitment as a concept is imperative to organisations because it helps management to understand what the real issues are in the organisation, which areas need attention, and what can be done to address the identified gaps (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). It has been recognised that organisational commitment can take different forms and can be directed towards various targets or foci (Meyer et al., 2004). According to Cohen (1999), there are five main foci of work

commitment namely; affective commitment; continuance commitment; work ethic endorsement; career commitment; and job involvement.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) define commitment as “a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets”. This creates a point of confusion as to whether employees commit to a course of action or to an entity. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) argue that organisational commitment suggests that individuals can commit to both entities and behaviours.

According to Reichers (1985), the foci of commitment are the particular entities being either individuals or groups to whom the employee is attached. Meyer and Allen (1997) define commitment in such a way that it implies a course of action through the decision to continue membership with a relevant entity such as an organisation. Individuals may commit to entities such as organisations, occupations and unions, as well as demonstrate behaviours as a result of the attainment of goals and the implementation of policies (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Understanding the range of different commitment foci may eliminate construct redundancy and construct contamination across the different approaches to the development of organisational commitment (Roodt, 2004).

4.4.1 Behavioural focus on organisational commitment

Different behavioural consequences may be associated with different forms of commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). An individuals' behaviour and attitudes are affected by organisational factors in terms of the psychological contract (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Cohen, 1999; Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007; Meyer & Allen, 1997; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). The behavioural focus may be viewed as the bases of commitment, which are the motives underlying the psychological attachment (Reichers, 1985). The focus of behavioural commitment is on explaining commitment to a course of action and that the major goal within this research has been to identify the conditions under which an act once taken will continue (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

An important reason for distinguishing between the different forms of organisational commitment is that they have different implications for behaviour (Meyer et al., 2004). According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), behaviour is better predicted when a clear understanding exists as to what an individual views as the target of their commitment. When commitment is considered to focus on an entity, the behavioural consequences are often implied, if not stated explicitly and as a result there may be an advantage to specifying the relevant entity and behaviour.

4.4.2 Entity focus on organisational commitment

When commitment is to an entity, the behavioural implications are sometimes considered to be quite specific, such as continued membership or quite broad by working towards organisational objectives (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Organisational commitment should not be viewed as monolithic and undifferentiated entity of individual attachment to an organisation, but rather as a collection of multiple commitments to various groups comprising the organisation (Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Reichers, 1985). Reichers (1985) states that specific groups and the goals of these specific groups need to be identified and then serve as the foci for multiple commitments that individuals experience.

The foci of multiple commitments are linked to the various groups that are relevant to the organisation or organisation's role set (Reichers, 1985). The four groups Reicher (1985) makes mention of, are rank and file employees; clients/ customers; top managers/ owners; and the public. Hunt and Morgan (1994) refer to entities as various constituencies to which an employee might be committed, including top management, supervisors, work groups, occupations, departments, divisions, and unions. According to Hunt and Morgan (1994), empirical studies indicate positive relationships between commitment to these constituencies and global organisational commitment.

4.4.3 Mindsets of organisational commitment

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) argue that it is important to distinguish among the different mindsets that accompany the development of commitment. These mindsets bind an individual to a course of action of relevance and make it possible to distinguish among antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment.

The mindsets are desire, perceived costs and perceived obligation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The mindset of desire (affective commitment) develops when an individual becomes involved in, recognises the value-relevance of, and/or derives their identity from or association with an entity in pursuit of a course of action (Döckel, Basson, & Coetzee, 2006). The mindset of perceived cost (continuance commitment) develops when an individual recognises that they stand to lose investments, and/or perceives that there are no alternatives other than to pursue a course of action relevant to a particular target (Döckel et al, 2006). The mindset of obligation (normative commitment) develops as a result of the internalised norms through socialisation, and creates the perceived receipt of benefits that induces a need to reciprocate, and/or accept the terms of a psychological contract (Döckel et al., 2006).

Table 4.4 indicates the integration of foci of organisational commitment and how it is potentially advantageous to specify between both the relevant entity and behaviour when understanding and predicting the outcomes of organisational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The top row reflects the commitment dimensions and the first column indicates the multiple constituencies of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The blank spaces, indicated in table 4.4, depict that essentially it should be possible to measure the different forms of commitment to each of the various constituencies and to enter a value into each cell in the matrix to reflect the complexities of an individual's organisational commitment profile (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The fact that commitment can take on different forms supports the complexities of behaviour on commitment. Understanding the implications of the different commitment mindsets on behaviour is also important (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) when determining the development of organisational commitment.

**TABLE 4. 4 - AN INTEGRATION OF FOCI OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT
(MEYER & ALLEN, 1997).**

	Nature of commitment		
Focus of commitment	<i>Affective</i>	<i>Normative</i>	<i>Continuance</i>
Organisation			
Top management			
Unit			
Unit manager			
Work team			
Team leader			

4.5 DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

An employee's commitment to an organisation develops during their employment in the organisation (Döckel et al., 2006). Organisational commitment has been widely researched and has been largely unsystematic, leading to unclear answers (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Research consistently supports this because of the lack of consensus in the conceptualising of commitment and the failure to consider process issues (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

According to Meyer and Herscovitch, (2001), it is important to distinguish among the mindsets related to commitment when considering the factors involved in the development of commitment. Meyer and Allen's (1997) three types of commitment are related to the relationship between the individual and the organisation and the strength of each is influenced by different factors.

Figure 4.1 indicates that each type of organisational commitment has different antecedents, namely affective commitment; normative commitment and continuance commitment (Spector, 2008):

- *Affective commitment* arises from favourable experiences on the job and the extent to which the expectations the individual has of the organisation are met (Spector, 2008). Affective attachment to the organisation is influenced by the extent to which the individuals' needs and expectations about the organisation are matched by their actual experiences and this has clear links with the perceived reciprocal obligations of the psychological contract (McDonald & Makin, 1999).
- *Continuance commitment* is developed by investments in the job and the difficulty of finding yet another job (Spector, 2008). Continuance commitment is determined by the perceived costs of leaving the organisation, such as side-bets and other investment costs are an important determinant (McDonald & Makin, 1999).
- *Normative commitment* derives from a sense of obligation either because of the person's values or from favours done for the person by the organisation (Spector, 2008). Normative commitment is a perceived obligation to stay with the organisation, which is based upon generally accepted rules about reciprocal obligations between organisations and their employees (McDonald & Makin, 1999).

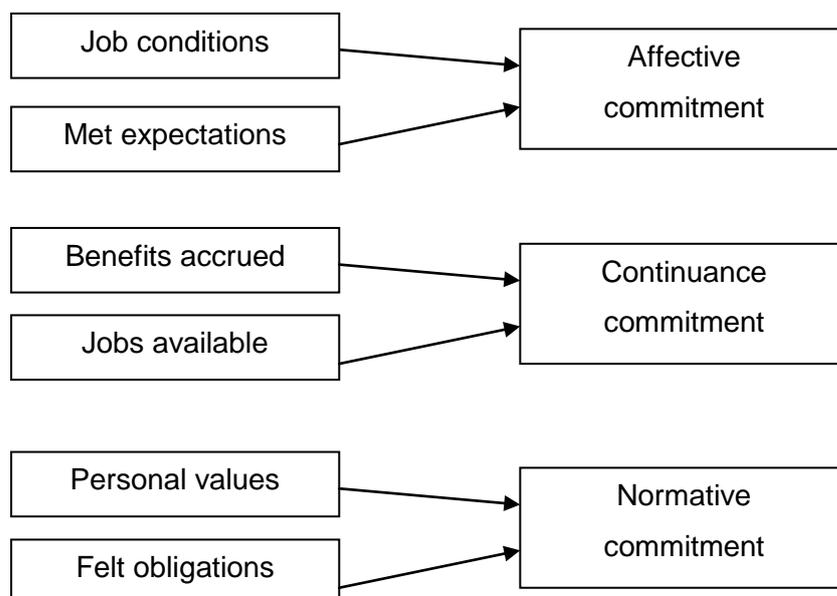


Figure 4. 1 - Antecedents of the three-components of organisational commitment (Spector, 2008).

Any factor that contributes to the development of commitment has an impact on the mindsets that bind an individual to their course of action which is relevant to a particular entity (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Given the conceptual differences, according to Meyer and Allen (1990), it seems reasonable to suggest that each of the three-components of commitment develop independently of the others as a function of different antecedents. Measures of work behaviour were found to correlate positively with measures of affective and normative commitment, but not with continuance commitment (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007).

4.5.1 Development of affective commitment

The mindset characterising affective commitment is desire, where individuals with strong active commitment are focused on pursuing a course of action of relevance to a specific target (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Affective commitment usually arises from job conditions and met expectations (Spector, 2008). The mechanisms creating this desire include involvement, shared values and identification (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

According to Muthueloo and Rose (2005), the antecedents for affective commitment include: i) perceived job characteristics such as, task autonomy, task significance, task identity, skill variety and supervisory feedback; ii) organisational dependability, which is the extent to which employees feel the organisation can be counted on to look after their interests; and iii) perceived participatory management, which is the extent to which employees feel they can influence decisions made on the work environment and other issues which concern them.

Meyer and Allen (1997) believe the antecedents of affective attachment to the organisation fall into three main categories, being personal characteristics, job characteristics, work experiences and structural characteristics.

4.5.1.1 Personal characteristics

The two types of variables that personal characteristics focus on are biographical variables and dispositional variables (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Examples of biographical variables are gender, age, tenure, marital status and examples of dispositional variables are personality and values (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Research has shown that biographical variables have neither a strong nor consistent correlation with affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Studies report that gender and affective commitment are unrelated (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Evidence suggests that age and affective commitment are weakly related, whilst a more positive relationship exists between tenure and affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This may be a result of the fact that employees need to acquire a certain amount of experience with an organisation to become strongly attached to them (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Neither marital nor educational levels appear to be consistently related to affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

There is slight evidence that individuals with particular personality characteristics are more or less likely to become affectively committed to an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). However, there is evidence that an employee's perceptions of their own abilities and achievements have a positive effect on the development of affective commitment, in that those with strong confidence in their own competence had higher affective commitment than those who were less confident (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.5.1.2 Work experiences

According to Allen and Meyer (1990), the strongest evidence has been provided for work experience antecedents, because those experiences fulfill employees' psychological needs to feel comfortable within the organisation and a feeling of competence in their work-role. Work experiences are the strongest and most consistent correlations with affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Job characteristics have strong correlations with affective commitment, such as job challenge, degree of autonomy and variety of employee uses (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The employee's role has also been consistently related to affective commitment and is

likely to indicate affective commitment to be low among employees who were unsure of their job role because of ambiguity, or who are expected to behave in ways that seem incompatible and conflicting (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Finally where an employee's supervisor involves the employee in decision making treats them fairly and with consideration they appear to have stronger affective commitment towards the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.5.1.3 Structural characteristics

There have been some studies indicating that organisational structure variables influence affective commitment, However, the evidence regarding these links is neither strong nor consistent (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Structural characteristics also focus on ways in which organisation-level policies are designed to take into consideration justice when it comes to policies such as drug testing and decision making (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Positive correlations have been found between perceptions of the fairness of the policy and affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The manner in which policies are communicated has also been linked to affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Research by Meyer et al., (2004) suggests that affective commitment has the strongest positive correlation with job performance, organisational citizenship behaviour and attendance.

4.5.2 Development of continuance commitment

Continuance commitment is produced by the benefits accrued from working for the organisation and by the lack of available alternative jobs (Spector, 2008). This mindset is also known as 'personal sacrifices' and 'high alternatives' (Cohen, 1999). It is related to the magnitude and/or number of investments individuals make and a perceived lack of employment alternatives (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) describe continuance commitment to be characterised by the perception that it would be costly to discontinue the chosen course of action.

The antecedents of continuance commitment include age, tenure, career satisfaction and intent to leave (Cohen, 1999; Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005). Age and tenure can

function as predictors of continuance commitment, primarily because of their roles as surrogate measures of investment in the organisation (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005). Specific antecedents of continuance commitment would be the nature of the employment contract and the level of education (Delobbe & Vandenberghe, 2000).

Continuance commitment can develop as a result of any action or event that increases the costs of leaving the organisation, provided the employee recognises these costs have been incurred (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The antecedent variables related to these actions or events are investments and alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.5.2.1 Investments

Continuance commitment, which reflects the recognition of costs associated with leaving the organisation, should be related to anything that increases perceived costs (Cohen, 1999). Becker (1960) argues that commitment to a course of action results from the accumulation of side bets a person makes. Side bets are direct or indirect investments in the organisation which link a person to a particular course of action by virtue of the fact that something would be forfeited should they discontinue the activity (Becker, 1960; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Side bets are considered good indicators of such costs and are operationalized mainly by demographic variables such as age, education, and tenure (Becker, 1960).

4.5.2.2 Perceived alternatives

The other hypothesized antecedent of continuance commitment is the employee's perception of employment alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Continuance commitment is weaker among those employees who believe they have viable alternative employment options available, as opposed to those who think alternatives are few (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Perceptions of alternatives can also be influenced by previous job search attempts, whether other organisations have tried to recruit the employee, and the extent to which family factors limit the employee's ability to relocate (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The development of continuance commitment has received less research attention than affective commitment, possibly because measures of continuance commitment have only recently been adequate and therefore included in commitment literature, with evidence being consistent with the antecedents of investment and alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.5.3 Development of normative commitment

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) describe normative commitment to be characterised by the mindset that an individual feels obliged to pursue a course of action to an entity. Normative commitment comes from the employee's personal values and the obligations they have towards the employer (Spector, 2008). The normative component of organisational commitment will be influenced by the individual's experiences both prior to and following entry into the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Often such experiences are formed through familial or cultural socialisation and organisational socialisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The potential antecedents for normative commitment include co-worker commitment, organisational dependability and participatory management that influence the development of normative commitment (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005). Normative commitment may also be developed on the basis of the "psychological contract" between an employee and the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Such commitment develops on the basis that the employing organisation creates a particular kind of investment in employees which makes it difficult for the employee to return such investments (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Psychological contracts consist of the beliefs and perceptions exchanged between parties regarding their reciprocal obligations (McDonald & Makin, 1999; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Psychological contracts appear to be more subjective than formal contracts and subject to change over time as obligations are perceived to have been fulfilled or violated (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Unlike formal contracts, psychological contracts have two distinct sets of employee obligations, either referred to as transactional or relational (McDonald & Makin, 1999).

A transactional psychological contract is characterised by more objective obligations that are based on economic exchange (Meyer & Allen, 1997), such as a willingness to work overtime, to provide high levels of performance for contingent pay, giving notice before resigning, but with no feeling of loyalty to the organisation by the employee (McDonald & Makin, 1999). According to McDonald and Makin (1999), these transactional obligations were correlated with employer obligations to their employee to provide high performance-based pay.

A relational psychological contract appears to be more abstract and based on principles of social exchange (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Relational contracts correlate with long-term relationships, as such a contract is characterised on the employees' side by perceived obligations to their employer of loyalty, and on the employers side by an obligation to provide job security (McDonald & Makin, 1999). Relational contracts seem more relevant to normative commitment, as opposed to transactional contracts being more involved in the development of continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Meyer and Allen (1997), the distinct emphasis on obligations that normative commitment has, may assist with further research into the influences of psychological contracts on employee commitment.

It is expected that a normative commitment to the organisation will be positively related to work behaviours such as job performance, work attendance and organisational citizenship (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It is indicated by Meyer and Allen (1997) that significant negative correlations exist between affective commitment and various self-reported indices of psychological, physical and work-related stress, where employees with strong affective commitment work better in a positive environment. Normative commitment was also negatively correlated with various stress-related variables. However, there were no significant correlations between continuance commitment and these measures (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.6 CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The high level of interest in researching organisational commitment is based on the importance placed on the fact organisational commitment forming part of an employee's psychological state, as employees who experience high organisational commitment are presumed to engage in many behaviours, such as citizenship activities

and high job performance, that are believed to be beneficial to the organisation (Jaros, 1997). The expected behavioural consequences of commitment to an organisation have included lower turnover, reduced absenteeism, improved performance and increased organisational citizenship behaviour (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

4.6.1 Employee retention

The aim of retention policies is to identify and retain committed employees based on profitability to both the organisation and the employee (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). Most measures of organisational commitment were developed to predict employee retention (Meyer et al., 2004). Therefore, with retention as the motivating goal, staying with the organisation is the focal behaviour (Meyer et al., 2004).

Because commitment refers to the attachment of people to their jobs, the assumption can be made that employee turnover is closely related to organisational commitment (Spector, 2008). Lesabe and Nkosi (2007) refer to a number of factors that may have a bearing on an organisation's ability to retain employees. These factors may be compensation, benefit packages, morale and motivation, career development, leadership, nature of the job itself, training and development, performance management and work environment (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). Organisational commitment has been found to be related to the major work outcomes of turnover intention and actual turnover, where research found that employees who are strongly committed to their organisation are less likely to leave (Delobbe & Vandenberghe, 2000; Spector, 2008).

Overall turnover correlates negatively with affective, continuance and normative commitment. However, continuance commitment relates most strongly to turnover (Spector, 2008). Affectively committed individuals are most strongly related with the desire or intention to quit, but continuance commitment is the most important in translating intentions to actual turnover (Spector, 2008). Gaining an understanding of employee withdrawal has been enhanced by the emergence of multidimensional conceptualisations of commitment (Delobbe & Vandenberghe, 2000).

4.6.2 Performance at work

Work performance can be assessed by attendance at work, in-role job performance, citizenship behaviour at work and other general reactions to work performance (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organisational commitment improves an employee's work performance as it is assumed that committed employees are motivated to work hard and put in more effort than less committed employees (Suliman & Illse, 2000). Although performance has positive correlations with affective commitment, the correlations are still low (Solinger, Olfen & Roe, 2008) between measures that can be considered more voluntary in nature such as annexed absence, culpable absence and absence frequency (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

According to Solinger et al. (2008), the correlation between performance at work and organisational commitment largely rests on either the unique conditions created by the organisation or the inherent conditions of the job. However, if the performance is attributed to conditions inherent in the job or to unique qualities of the individual, it may not be likely that greater organisational commitment will arise (Solinger et al., 2008).

A manager's rating of an individual's job performance and ability to be promoted are positively related to their level of affective commitment (McDonald & Makin, 1999). The relationship between job performance and continuance commitment is negative, where higher continuance commitment was associated with lower ratings of performance and promotability (McDonald & Makin, 1999). Absenteeism does not seem to significantly relate to continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

According to Cohen (1999) and Spector (2008), job performance is related most strongly to affective commitment. People who are working because of an emotional attachment to the organisation will perform better, as opposed to those individuals working because they feel they have to. Research indicates that a negative relationship exists between continuance commitment and work performance based on individuals not exerting much effort because they feel promotional opportunities or areas of growth are limited in an organisation (Cohen, 1999). Commitment has been negatively associated with other withdrawal behaviours leading to decreased performance, increased absenteeism and tardiness (Reichers, 1985).

According to McDonald and Makin (1999), both affective and normative commitment are related to better performance and higher pro-social and organisational citizenship behaviour, where behaviour goes beyond a strict interpretation of the contract of employment. However, the relation between normative commitment and absenteeism has received limited attention (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Employees with strong affective commitment to their organisations work harder and perform better than those with weak commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The particular psychological link between continuance commitment and performance indicates a few positive relations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). There are neither significant nor consistent studies indicating a positive correlation between normative commitment and in-role performance indicators (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.6.3 Citizenship behaviour at work

Citizen behaviour at work is described as a person's commitment to the organisation and those behaviours that are believed to be critical to organisational success (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Employees with strong affective commitment appear much more willing to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour than those with weak commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The relations between normative commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour are much weaker than those involving affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Studies show predominantly an unrelated relationship between continuance commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Becker and Billings (1993), most research has shown that overall commitment to an organisation is not strongly related to performance and productivity. However it is possible that certain patterns of commitment do influence these variables.

4.6.4 Employee well-being

The possibility that organisational commitment has implications for employee well-being and behaviour beyond work may not be surprising, based on the argument that an employee with strong affective commitment feels more enthusiastic about working in an environment which they feel positive about (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Suliman and Illes (2000) identified the following important aspects of organisation commitment:

- It fosters better superior-subordinate relationships;
- It enhances organisational development, growth and survival;
- It improves the work environment;
- It negatively influences withdrawal behaviour such as turnover, lateness and absenteeism; and
- It has a positive impact on employees' readiness to innovate and create.

4.6.5 Other reactions to work

Commitment is related to how employees respond to dissatisfaction with events at work (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective commitment may be positively related with willingness to suggest improvements and to accept things as they are and negatively correlated with the tendency to withdraw passively from or ignore the dissatisfying situation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Whistle-blowing is when employees report organisations that may be involved in unethical or illegal conduct to certified institutions who may be able to remedy it (Meyer & Allen, 1997). There are inconsistent findings that those with strong commitment are least engaged in whistle-blowing (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Those with moderate affective commitment were more likely to divulge a wrongdoing within the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Employees with strong continuance commitment are less reluctant to engage in unethical activities, possibly because of the strong protection for their own jobs (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Strategies to encourage organisational commitment will continue to be important in managing human resources in the contemporary world of work, owing to its potential for increasing sales, improving productivity, profitability and retention (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). According to Lesabe and Nkosi (2007), for organisations to be highly competitive and perform at peak levels in today's world, every employee needs to be committed to the organisations objectives and strategic goals.

4.7 AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Figure 4.2 presents the multidimensional model of organisational commitment, its antecedents and its consequences (Meyer & Allen, 1997) as discussed in this chapter. This graphic representation provides a summary of the complexities of organisational commitment and the key variables involved, their relations to each other and respective consequences.

For the purposes of this study, organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct, where many factors are implicated in the development of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The causes of commitment can be distinguished through proximal and distal causes. The distal causes include the organisational characteristics, personal characteristics, socialised experiences, management practices and the environmental conditions that influence organisational commitment through their influence on proximal causes. The proximal causes are the employees work experiences, role states and the psychological contract defining their relationship with the organisation.

The *process variables* of affect-related, norm-related and cost-related are the mechanisms through which the antecedent variables, distal and proximal causes, are presumed to operate. These variables play an important function in helping understand the reasons why other variables are correlated with commitment. The process variables also help in speculating how organisational actions might affect an employee's commitment to a specific entity. Individuals may commit to entities such as organisations, occupations and unions, as well as demonstrate behaviours as a result of the attainment of goals and the implementation of policies (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Behaviours result in the consequences of the complex process by influencing employee turnover, productive behaviour demonstrated by employees and employee well-being.

This integrated model can be used to distinguish the distal and proximal antecedents which influence the process of organisational commitment development, by taking into account the behaviour-entity implications which result in overall behavioural consequences (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p.106).

4.8 THEORETICAL INTEGRATION OF CAREER ANCHORS, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

This section addresses step 4 of the literature review by integrating the theoretical constructs of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The purpose of the literature review study was to investigate the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Figure 4.3 presents the theoretical integration between these constructs and is discussed as follows.

4.8.1 Chapter 2: Career Anchors

The contemporary world of work has created a state of change which has given rise to organisational change initiatives resulting in job loss, changing nature of work, an increase in understanding cultural diversity, work-life balance, globalisation, and technological advancement (Schein, 1996). Organisations are finding it increasingly challenging to handle employees committed to the organisation in competitive environmental contexts (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007).

Work in the 21st century requires both organisations and individuals to be more sensitive to the complex and challenging contexts towards work and how these affect the individual's self concept and attitudinal feelings that influence their commitment towards an organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Greenhaus et al., 2000; Sharf, 2002; Stead & Watson, 1999). Based on the literature review carried out for this study, it appears that having knowledge and insight into how an individual's career anchors and job satisfaction preferences interact with organisational commitment may potentially be instrumental in managing the effects on productivity, retention and employee well-being. In order to make effective career decisions, it is important that individuals understand themselves through self-awareness of their career choices and decisions (Hsu et al, 2003). Variables such as demographic, environmental and cultural factors have been influenced on an individual's ability to make career decisions and also have an impact in the managerial sphere in lowering employee retention (Schreuder & Theron, 1997; Stead & Watson, 1999).

The psychological contract that exists between the individual and the organisation has resulted in an increased demand for flexibility, mobility, self-reliance, value added performance, trust and openness and greater responsibility (Zannad & Rouet, 2003). Because employees are connecting differently with their employers and the psychological contract has changed fundamentally, it has become critical for organisations to gain deeper insight into understanding the motivators and career drivers that a highly skilled, mobile individual seeks. In return organisational commitment which is critical to future organisational success will need to be enhanced (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). According to Zannad and Rouet (2003), meeting the psychological contract demands has a positive effect on increasing organisational commitment.

In chapter 2 the concept of career anchors was explored as the self-awareness in which individuals gain an understanding of what talents, motives, and abilities they have and how these influence their commitment to an organisation. The career anchor has the function of organising individuals' experiences, identifying individuals' long-term contributions, and establishing criteria for success by which individuals can measure themselves (Coetzee et al., 2007). The career anchor concept can be seen as a meeting point and useful tool to match persons and organisations to each other (Larsson et al., 2007). Research indicates that individuals' career motives and values have an impact on their career decision-making and their psychological attachment to an occupation or organisation (Feldman & Bolino 2000; Kniveton 2004; Schein 1996). In addition to helping understand the motives for choosing an occupation, career anchors provide a useful framework for examining how individuals' career anchors relate to their organisational commitment levels (Coetzee et al., 2007).

4.8.2 Chapter 3: Job satisfaction

Chapter 3 focused on the attitudinal concept of job satisfaction and the facets that may affect how an individual feels towards their employing organisation. According to the literature survey conducted by South African researchers such as Ellison and Schreuder (2000), there is consistent evidence of increased job satisfaction when person-environment congruence exists. The research also indicated that intrinsic job satisfaction (i.e. meaningful and stimulating work, flexible structures and procedures, and an adequate

level of autonomy) can be more accurately predicted than extrinsic job satisfaction (i.e. financial reward, positive promotion) prospects, and position and status on the basis of career anchors (Ellison & Schreuder, 2000; Roos & van Eeden, 2008).

In order for managers to successfully influence employee motivation and satisfaction they need to be aware of differences in needs, desires, and goals as each individual is unique, and also understand how individuals make choices based on preferences, rewards, and accomplishments (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002). Career anchors can be used as an instrument to explain the pattern of reasons given by individuals as they progress through their careers and make career choices that affect their job satisfaction. Organisational commitment is increased by the fact that career anchors distinguish a career as the “internal career” in which an individual has a clearer understanding of how their work -life is perceived and what role they play in that life (Schein, 1990a).

Schein (1996) states that people are primarily motivated by how they see themselves and how they see their work. Motivated employees are crucial to a company's success and therefore understanding people in their jobs and what motivates them, could be the driver to strengthening organisational commitment (Schein, 1996).

4.8.3 Chapter 4: Organisational commitment

In chapter 4 the concept of organisational commitment was explored, clarified and discussed. Research indicated that organisational commitment has attracted considerable interest in an attempt to understand and clarify the intensity and stability of an employee's dedication to the organisation (Delobbe & Vandenberghe, 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1979; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Suliman & Illes, 2000). Organisational commitment may be regarded as an attitude as it refers to the relatively stable mindsets of individuals towards their organisation, and the meaning individuals attach to their work is central to their career choices (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Organisational commitment is viewed as an outcome of the career choices that are determined by an individual's career anchors (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). The causes of organisational commitment are developed through the antecedent variables which relate to whether an individual has a mindset of desire to stay with a company, the

need to stay with a company based on the cost impact of leaving or feels obliged to stay with the company (Meyer & Allen, 1997). These behaviours can influence productivity, retention and employee well-being (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Muthueloo and Che Rose (2005) make mention of two major theoretical approaches that emerged previously from research on commitment. The one approach emphasises the influence of commitment attitudes on behaviours (resulting in lower absenteeism and voluntary turnover), whereas the other approach emphasises the influence of committing behaviours on attitudes.

Both career anchors and job satisfaction were found to be instrumental in affecting an employee's commitment towards the organisation. The relationship that Schein's (1990a) eight types of career anchors and Spector's (1997) nine job satisfaction facets have on organisational commitment is influenced by personal and organisational factors. By having insight into this relationship a manager can develop an awareness of the impact employee job satisfaction and career anchors have on the consequences of organisational commitment. Since job satisfaction involves employees' affective or emotional feelings, it has major consequences on the organisation's well-being when it comes to job productivity, turnover, absenteeism and life satisfaction (Sempene et al., 2002, Spector, 2008). Career anchors create the basis for career choices and individuals are likely to select a job or organisation that is consistent with their own self-image (Greenhaus et al., 2000).

The integration of the literature review chapters has postulated a theoretical relationship that exists between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This literature review may be of benefit to both industrial psychologists and employers in furthering their understanding of the mobility of employees in the contemporary world of work and how the developing of an employee value proposition based on career anchors and job satisfaction facets would positively enhance organisational commitment levels. The overall results of this literature research study could be used in most initiatives involving effective talent management and retention strategies. These are career guidance, development, succession planning, as well as organisational development initiatives such as flexible working practices, which could contribute to the overall organisational commitment of employees.

4.8.4 Variables related to career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment

When determining the possible relationships that exist in this study between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the personal characteristics of age, gender, race, marital status, position and tenure were taken into account.

4.8.4.1 Age

The relationship between age and job satisfaction appears to have a positive linear relationship, in that employees become more satisfied with their jobs as their chronological age progresses (Martin & Roodt, 2008). There are contradictory findings about the relationship between age and commitment (Martin & Roodt, 2008). The relationship between age and career anchor preferences appears to be positive during middle and late adulthood where an individual's career and life structure begins to stabilise (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008; Schein, 1996).

4.8.4.2 Gender

Research findings suggest that male and female participants differ on career anchor preferences (Coetzee et al., 2007; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008). The relationship between gender and organisational commitment appears to have conflicting results in that it cannot be clearly distinguished whether males or females are more committed (Martin & Roodt, 2008). The relationship research findings between gender and job satisfaction have been generally inconsistent (Spector, 1997).

4.8.4.3 Race

Research has found significant differences between race and career anchor preferences (Coetzee et al., 2007; Coetzee and Schreuder, 2008). As with the relationship between race and job satisfaction, research indicates there has been inconsistency in results comparing racial groups (Martins & Roodt, 2008; Spector, 2008). Research does however

indicate differences between race and organisational commitment (Martins & Roodt, 2008).

4.8.4.4 Marital status

According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2008), research findings show significant differences in career anchor preferences between participants who were single, married and widowed. Generally research indicates that there is no significant difference between job satisfaction and the marital status variable. However, marital status has been shown to be related to commitment, possibly because married people have greater financial responsibilities towards their family commitments (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

4.8.4.5 Position

According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2008), occupational position appears to influence the career anchor preferences of individuals. There appears to be a lack of research conducted indicating the relationship between position and the variables of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007).

4.8.4.6 Years of working experience

There appears to be a lack of research conducted indicating the relationship between years of working experience and the variables of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. However, literature research does exist indicating the relationship between tenure and job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The correlation between job satisfaction and tenure has also indicated inconsistencies (Martins & Roodt, 2008). Tenure has consistently been found to be positively associated with organisational commitment and more specifically between tenure and affective commitment (Döckel et al., 2006; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.8.5 Implications from both organisational and individual perspectives of career decision making and retention

The 21st century world of work has seen an increase in research towards understanding the concepts of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment from both an individual and organisational perspective and the implications these variables pose on career decision making and retention strategies (Coetzee et al., 2007; Greenhaus et al., 2000; Kanye & Crous, 2007; Spector, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Schein, 1990a).

Organisations that endeavour to retain valuable employees should focus on providing incentives and career paths that are consistent with the career values, expectations and aspirations that underlie the organisational commitment of these employees (Coetzee et al., 2007; Spector, 1997). According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2008), if there is no fit between an individual's perspective and their job environment, the result may well be anxiety, stress, job dissatisfaction and turnover. From an organisational perspective, research on career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment can be resourceful in selection, placement, development, reward and retention practices (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Spector, 1997).

According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2008), a talent management strategy in South Africa's multi-cultural organisational context should be conducted in relation to both organisational and individual interests to avoid unproductive career decision making and to enhance individuals' experiences of psychological career success which influence commitment and job satisfaction.

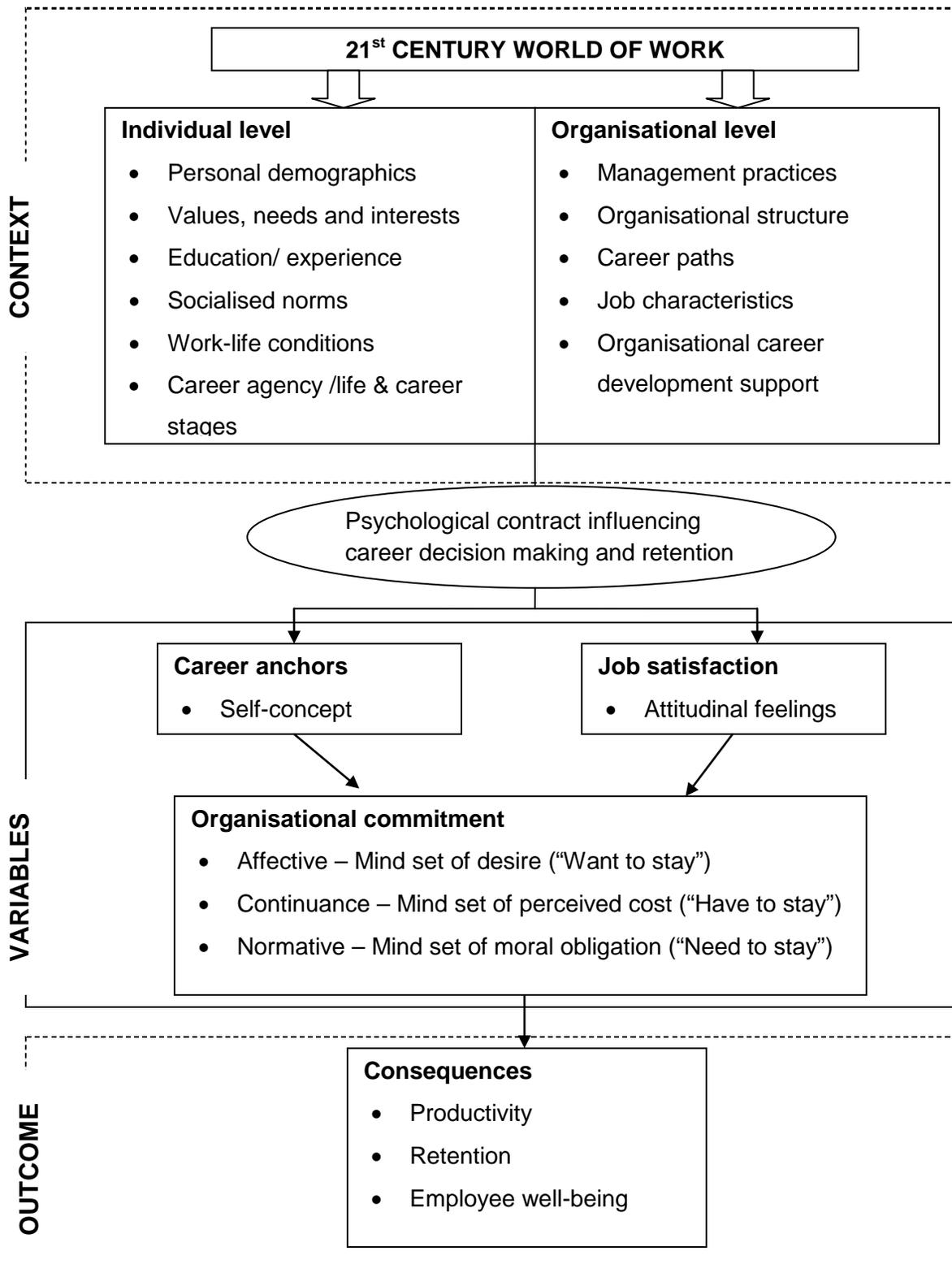


Figure 4. 3 - Theoretical integration of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment

4.1 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Organisational commitment has been defined in this chapter. A variety of different definitions and approaches were discussed to understand the concept of organisational commitment. Based on the multiple constructs identified across the various definitions, organisational commitment was described as a multidimensional concept.

The focus of organisational commitment was explored through a discussion on the behaviours and mindsets that relate to organisational commitment. The development of an employee's organisational commitment was discussed according to Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component model.

The behavioural consequences of organisational commitment in the work environment and the effects from the perspective of the individual towards their employing organisation were discussed. The literature review of organisational commitment concludes with Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component model indicating the multiple constructs of organisational commitment, its antecedents and its consequences.

Finally this chapter has provided an overview of the theoretical relationship between the variables career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Herewith the objectives of the literature review have been achieved.

Chapter 5 will discuss the research design of the empirical part of the study.

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL STUDY

Chapter 5 outlines the empirical investigation with the specific aim of describing the statistical strategies that will be employed to investigate the relationship dynamics between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Firstly, an overview of the study's population and sample is presented. The measuring instruments will be discussed and the choice of each justified, followed by a description of the data gathering and processing. The formulation of the hypotheses will be stated, and the chapter will conclude with a chapter summary.

The empirical research phase consists of nine steps as outlined below:

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Step 1 | Determination and description of the sample |
| Step 2 | Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery |
| Step 3 | Administration of the psychometric battery |
| Step 4 | Scoring of the psychometric battery |
| Step 5 | Statistical processing of the data |
| Step 6 | Formulation of research hypotheses |
| Step 7 | Reporting and interpreting the results |
| Step 8 | Integration of the research findings |
| Step 9 | Formulation of research conclusions, limitations, and recommendations |

Steps one to six are addressed in this chapter and steps seven to nine in chapters 6 and 7.

5.1 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

The term population is defined by Howell (1995, p.6) as, "the complete set of events in which you are interested". In order for the population to be accurately defined, the units being sampled, the geographical location, and the temporal boundaries of the population need to be specified (Neuman, 1997). According to Neuman (1997, p. 201), sampling "is a process of systematically selecting cases for inclusion in a research project". The

researcher uses sampling as an aim to select a representation of the population from which the research conclusions will be drawn (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). A sample can be described as a set of cases containing any number of individuals less than the population (Howell, 1995; Neuman, 1997; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

The two main types of sampling are referred to as probability and non-probability (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Probability sampling provides every element in the target population a known chance of being selected into the sample. Non-probability sampling does not allow for elements to be selected according to the principle of systematic randomness (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

This research study made use of the non-probability sampling method called convenience sampling, where data was collected from a readily available and accessible population. Non-probability samples are often used when there are possible boundaries in place preventing probability sampling from being used, namely; there are no available sampling frames, the cost of probability sampling is costly and time consuming (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

The study comprised a population of 193 employees across four different head office IT companies based in the province of Kwa-Zulu Natal, South Africa. All these companies are registered with the Information Systems, Electronics and Telecommunications Technologies (Isett) Sector Education and Training Authority (Seta). The initial sample comprised only 92 participants who voluntarily completed the measuring instruments. Responses for 6 participants had to be discarded due to various sections of the questionnaires being incomplete, bringing the final sample to 86 respondents (N= 86).

Table 5.1 gives an overview of the initial and final sample size.

TABLE 5. 1 - INITIAL AND FINAL SAMPLE SIZE

Total population	Questionnaires returned and usable	Rate of response %
193	86	45%
TOTAL SAMPLE SIZE	N=86	

The profile of the sample is described according to the following biographical variables; gender, race, position, age and marital status. The decision to include these categories of biographical variables was based on the literature review's exploration of variables that influence the constructs of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Marital status was not a focus area of this study and therefore it was excluded from empirical analysis.

5.1.1 Composition of gender groups in the sample

Table 5.2 and Figure 5.1 illustrate the gender distribution of participants of the sample. Males comprised 52% and females comprised 48% of the participants (N=86).

TABLE 5. 2 – GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE

Gender	N	Percentage of sample
Male	45	52%
Female	41	48%
<i>Total</i>	<i>N = 86</i>	<i>100%</i>

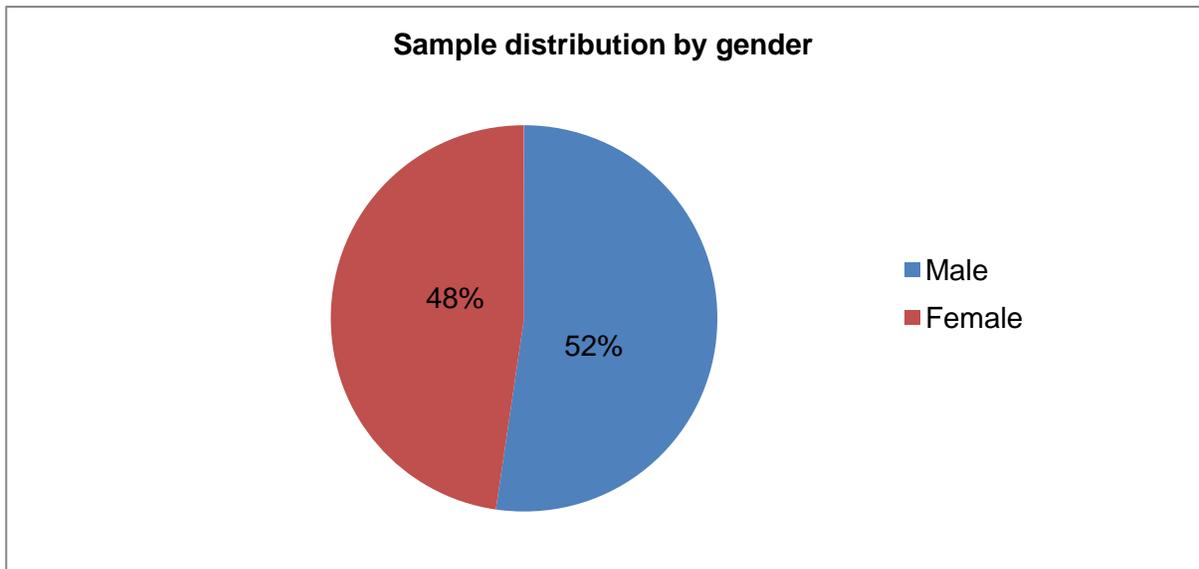


Figure 5. 1 - Sample distribution by gender (N=86)

5.1.2 Composition of race groups in the sample

Table 5.3 and Figure 5.2 illustrate the race distribution of the sample. The distribution of the sample implies that whites comprised 68%, Indians comprised 26% and Africans comprised 6% of the participants (N=86).

TABLE 5. 3 – RACE DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE

Race	N	Percentage of sample
White	59	68.60%
Indian	22	25.58%
African	5	5.81%
<i>Total</i>	<i>N = 86</i>	<i>100%</i>

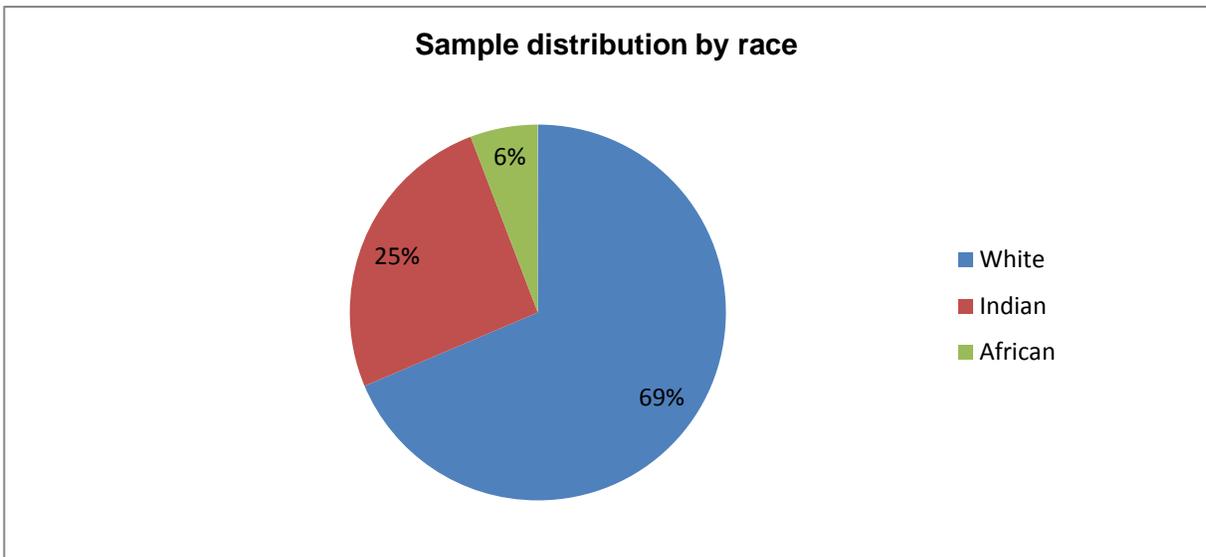


Figure 5. 2 - Sample distribution by race (N=86)

5.1.3 Composition of position groups in the sample

Table 5.4 and Figure 5.3 illustrate the position distribution of the sample. The distribution of the sample implies that of the participants (N=86), 59% were employed in staff level positions and 41% function in supervisory (team leader or manager) positions.

TABLE 5. 4 – POSITION DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE

Position	N	Percentage of sample
Supervisory	35	41%
Staff	51	59%
<i>Total</i>	<i>N = 86</i>	<i>100%</i>

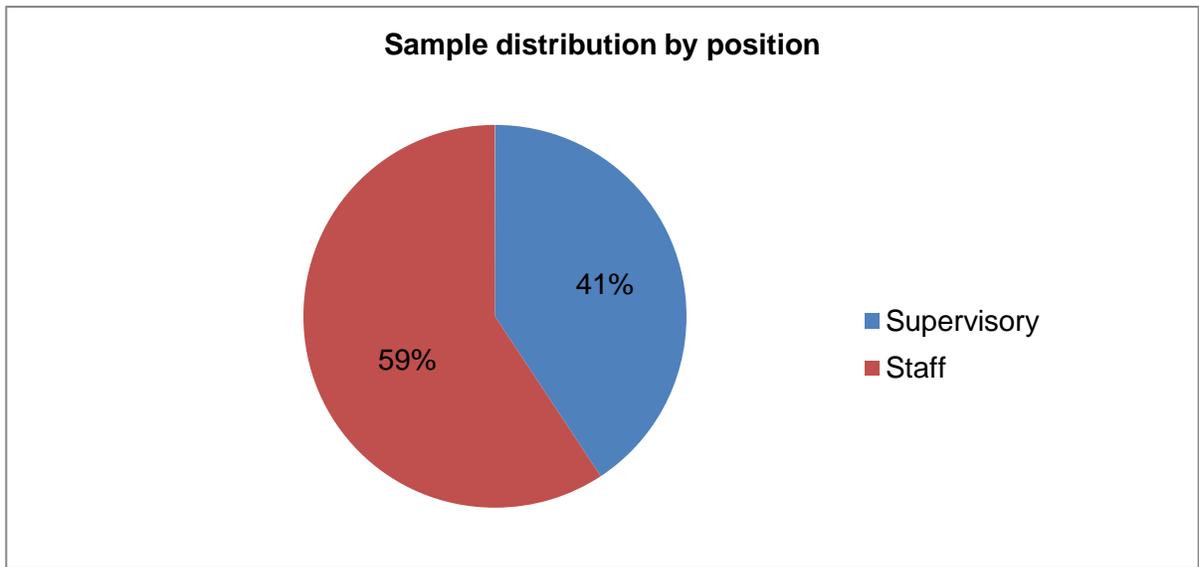


Figure 5. 3 - Sample distribution by position (N=86)

5.1.4 Composition of age groups in the sample

The age of the respondents were measured in categories, ranging from 20 years to over 50 years. Age was measured through a variety of categories, yet the scores seemed to be concentrated around the 25-40 years of age. Comparing groups works best when the group sizes are more or less equal, or at least when there are no groups with very small sample sizes. As a result some of the age categories were collapsed to create four new groups: younger than 30 years, 30-34 years, 35-39 years and older than 40 years.

Table 5.5 and Figure 5.4 illustrate the age distribution of participants of the sample. Participants younger than 30 years comprised 38%, participants aged 30–34 comprised 20%, participants aged 35-39 comprised 20% and participants older than 40 years comprised 22% of the total sample (N=86).

The age groups have also been presented in Table 5.5 according to Schein's (1974) and Super's (1957) career life stages. Participants younger than 30 years are at the entry world of world/basic training/socialisation/exploration stage, those aged 30-34 are at the full membership/establishment/achievement/advancement stage, whilst those aged 35-39 are

at the maintenance/mid career crisis stage and those participants older than 40 years are in their mid/late career stage.

TABLE 5. 5 – AGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE

Age	N	Percentage of sample	Super’s (1957) and Schein’s (1974) career life stages
Younger than 30	33	38.37%	Exploration stage (entry world of world/ basic training/socialisation stage) stage
30-34	17	19.77%	Establishment stage (full membership/ achievement/advancement)
35-39	17	19.77%	
Older than 40	19	22.09%	Maintenance stage (mid career crisis)
<i>Total</i>	<i>N = 86</i>	<i>100%</i>	

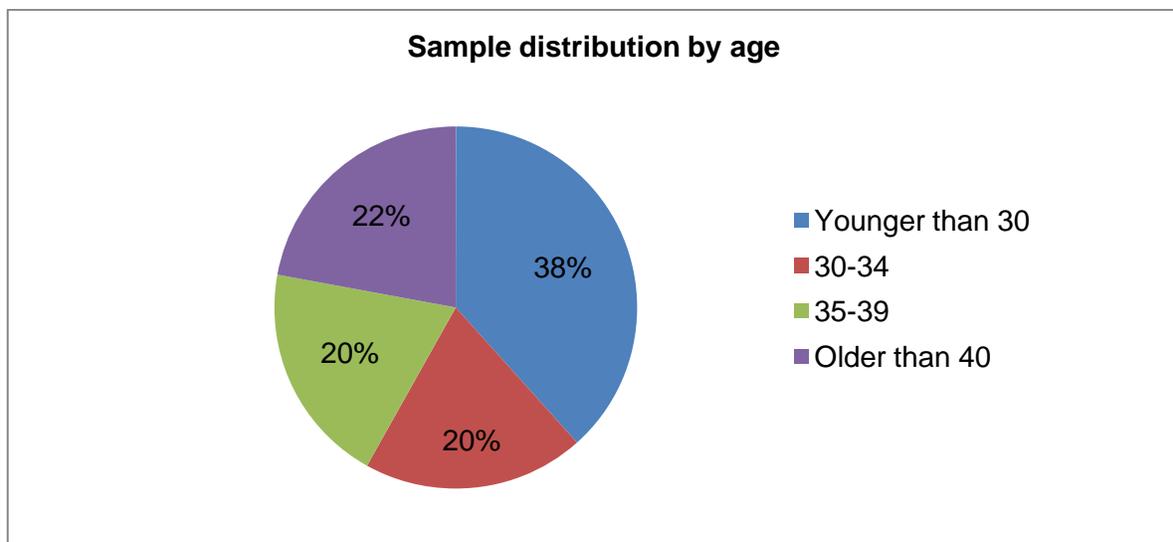


Figure 5. 4 - Sample distribution by age (N=86)

A relatively young workforce is reflected in the sample distribution by age. According to Super’s (1957) career life stages, the results show that most of the workforce is either entering the explorative career life stage (ages 14-25 years) or in the establishment career life stage (ages 25-45 years).

Table 5.6 indicates a cross-tabulation between age and position. This indicates that older employees were more likely to be in supervisory positions. The majority of individuals at a staff level seem most likely to be between 20 and 29 years of age (59%). Supervisors were mostly aged 35 and older (69%).

TABLE 5. 6 - CROSS-TABULATION BETWEEN AGE AND POSITION (N= 86)

Age	Position		Super's (1957) and Schein's (1974) career life stages
	Staff	Supervisory	
Younger than 30	59%	9%	Exploration stage (entry world of world/basic training/socialisation) stage
30-34	18%	23%	Establishment stage (full membership/achievement/advancement)
35-39	8%	37%	
Older than 40	16%	32%	Maintenance stage (mid career crisis)
Total	100%	100%	

5.1.5 Composition of marital status groups in the sample

Table 5.7 and Figure 5.5 illustrate the marital status distribution of participants in the sample. The majority of employees were either married (51%) or single (40%). Only 9% were divorced or separated. Marital status is not considered to be a dominant factor investigated in this study. However, it is worthy to note that an individual's marital status is related to their career anchor preference and type of organisational commitment. Participants who are married may appear to have a stronger preference towards a secure and stable work environment. Married people have greater financial responsibilities and family commitments which makes their work environment important when providing personal stability and security (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

TABLE 5. 7 - MARITAL STATUS DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE

Marital status	N	Percentage of sample
Divorced/ Separated	8	9%
Married	44	51%
Single	34	40%
<i>Total</i>	<i>N = 86</i>	<i>100%</i>

Figure 5.5 illustrates the distribution of respondents according to marital status.

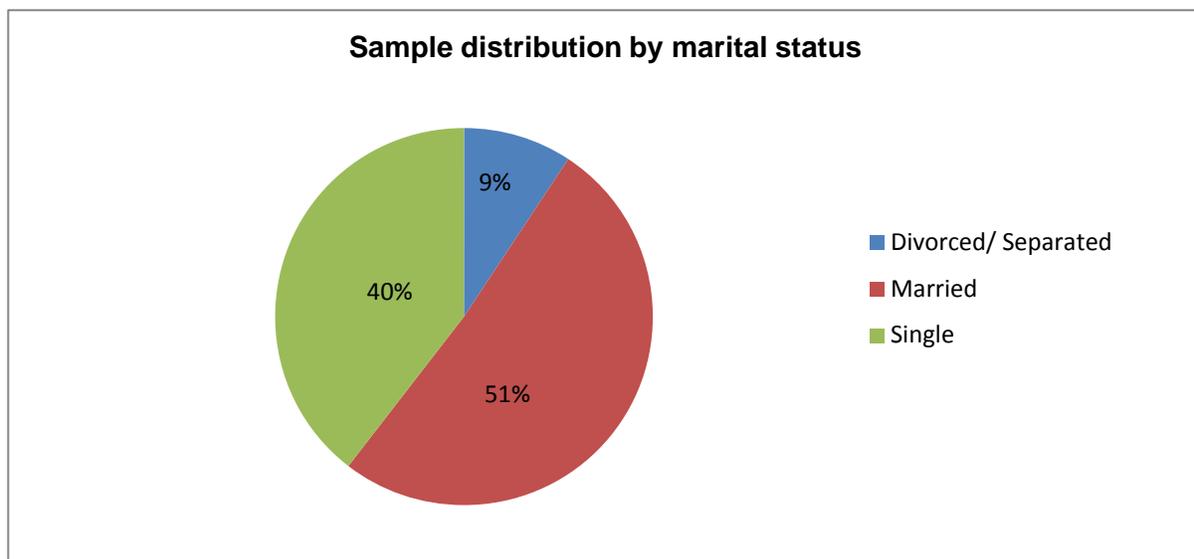


Figure 5. 5 - Sample distribution by marital status (N=86)

5.1.6 Summary of frequency distribution tables of biographical profile of the sample

In summary, the biographical profile obtained for the sample shows that the main sample characteristics that need to be considered in the interpretation of the empirical results are the following: gender, race, position and age. Table 5.8 indicates that participants of the sample are predominantly white, males, employed at a staff level and aged younger than 30 years (explorative career life-stage).

TABLE 5. 8 – SUMMARY OF FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION: BIOGRAPHICAL PROFILE OF SAMPLE

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Male	45	52.33	45	52.33
Female	41	47.67	86	100.00
Total	86			
Race	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
White	59	68.60	59	68.60
Indian	22	25.58	81	94.18
African	5	5.81	86	100
Total	86			
Position	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Supervisory	35	40.70	35	40.70
Staff	51	59.30	86	100.00
Total	86			
Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Younger than 30	33	38.37	33	38.37
30-34	17	19.77	50	58.14
35-39	17	19.77	67	77.91
Older than 40	19	22.09	86	100.00
Total	86			

5.2 CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

The selection of the psychometric battery was guided by the literature review which can be categorised as explanatory research in which the relevant constructs of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment were presented in an integrated manner. Psychometric tests are used for sampling behaviour and describing it with categories or scores (Gregory, 2000). The following measuring instruments were chosen:

- a biographical questionnaire to ascertain the personal data regarding gender, race, position, and age which was used for the purposes of the empirical study.
- the Career Orientations Inventory (COI) developed by Schein (1990a).
- the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1997).
- the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Allen & Meyer (1997).

The COI (Schein, 1990a), JSS (Spector, 1997) and OCQ (Allen & Meyer, 1997) were chosen based on their suitability, validity, reliability and cost effectiveness. Validity refers to the extent to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Neuman, 1997). Reliability refers to the precision, accuracy and stability of the measuring instrument, in that it accurately and consistently produces the same measurement (Neuman, 1997).

The psychometric properties of the COI (Schein, 1990a), JSS (Spector, 1997) and OCQ (Allen & Meyer, 1997) will be discussed in the sections to follow.

5.2.1 Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

The COI of Schein (1990a) was used to measure each respondent's dominant career anchor. In this study, the COI is discussed with reference to the development, rationale, description of sub-scales, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability and motivation for choice.

5.2.1.1 Development of COI

Career anchor theory was developed by Edgar Schein at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in the 1960s (Schein, 1974). The initial research took place over approximately a twelve year period where a longitudinal study of forty-four MBA graduates was carried out (Schein, 1974). The study focused on the interaction of personal values and career events in the lives of managers in organisations (Schein, 1974). This study resulted in the development of the career anchors theory which was defined as the “motivational/ attitudinal/ value syndrome that guides and constrains the person’s career” (Schein, 1974, p.1).

According to Schein (1974), a person’s abilities, motives and values are mutually interactive and inseparable. Based on this research, Schein (1974) developed a typology of career paths which highlighted important dimensions of the career. These dimensions were the underlying themes of the individual’s growing sense of self and resulted from their life learning experiences (Schein, 1990a). The career paths can be thought of as the individual’s needs, motives, and aspirations, and as being interactive and inseparable in relation to work (Schein, 1974). These career paths are then linked to society’s expectations of what kinds of activities will result in monetary and status rewards based on what is important to each individual (Schein, 1974).

Although the career anchor theory research was developed through a study of managers, career anchors are applied to all levels of employees for the purposes of employee attraction and retention (Coetzee et al., 2007; Ellison & Schreuder, 2000; Yarnall, 1998). A particular advantage of Schein’s model is that it recognises the need to create balance between the individual and the organisation, rather than having a purely individual focus (Yarnall, 1998).

5.2.1.2 Rationale of the COI

The COI is a self-diagnosing questionnaire developed by Schein (1974) and later revised by Schein (1990a). The aim of the instrument is to measure the eight career anchors of individuals which are primarily grouped into three dimensions, being *talent-based*

(technical/functional, managerial, and entrepreneurial creativity competence), *need-based* (security and stability, autonomy and independence, and lifestyle competence) and *value-based* (dedication to a cause and pure challenge competence) (Felman & Bolino, 1996; Schein, 1990a).

It should be pointed out that the COI does not purport to measure career anchors as such, but rather career orientations. In an attempt to validate and refine Schein's (1978) career anchor model, DeLong (1982) found that the COI measured career attitudes, values and needs of individuals, but did not reflect individuals' perception of their talents. According to DeLong (1982), the COI measures a central part of the concept of career anchors, namely career orientation. Schein (1990a) agrees with the view that the construct career anchors can be measured by means of a combination of the COI and a structured in-depth interview exercise. Moreover, applying the COI as a measurement of career anchors for research purposes is regarded as an acceptable and reliable practice by researchers in the field (Burke, 1983; Custodio, 2004; Erdoğan, 2003; Marshall & Bonner, 2003; Ramakrishna & Potosky, 2002)

5.2.1.3 Description of the COI scales

The COI (Schein, 1990a) consists of a set of 40 items, all of which are considered to be of equal value and to which respondents respond in terms of how true the statement is. The sub-scale used is a summated rating in the form of a six-point Likert type scale. The purpose of this questionnaire is to stimulate the respondent's thoughts about their own areas of talents, needs and values that anchor them in their careers.

Table 5.9 indicates the eight sub-scales of the COI and their corresponding allocated items.

TABLE 5. 9 - SUB-SCALE CONTENTS OF COI (SCHEIN, 1990a)

COI sub-scales	Allocated items
<i>Talent-based anchors</i>	
Technical/ functional	1,9,17,25,33
General management	2,10,18,26,34
Entrepreneurial creativity	5,13,21,29,37
<i>Need-based anchors</i>	
Autonomy/ Independence	3,11,19,27,35
Security/ stability	4,12,20,28,36
Lifestyle	8,16,23,32,40
<i>Value-based anchors</i>	
Service/ dedication to a cause	6,14,22,30,38
Pure challenge	7,15,23,31,39

5.2.1.4 Administration of the COI

The COI instrument is a self-diagnosis questionnaire, which can be administered individually or in group and takes approximately 10 minutes to answer, although there is no time limit. The COI is administered according to the rating and scoring instructions provided by Schein (1990a). Respondents are required to answer each statement as honestly and quickly as they can, choosing their best alternative on a six-point Likert scale. Respondents are to avoid extreme ratings, except in areas where the respondent has very strong feelings in one direction or the other.

For each of the 40 items, respondents are required to rate how true that item is for them in general by assigning a number 1 to 6. The higher the number, the more that item is true to the respondent. The rating scale is as follows:

- “1” if the statement is never true to the respondent
- “2” or “3” if the statement is occasionally true to the respondent
- “4” or “5” if the statement is often true to the respondent
- “6” if the statement is always true to the respondent.

On completing all the items, the respondent is to look over their answers and locate all the items that they rated highest. Respondents are to pick out the three (3) items that seem most true to them and indicate the item number in the three blocks provided at the end of the questionnaire. These items will be given an additional four (4) points, and added to the original rating that the respondent has given to the selected items (Schein, 1990a).

The allocated item scores for each of the eight categories of career orientation are summed up and divided by 5 to yield the respondents average score for each career orientation sub-scale. The sub-scale that yields the highest score is regarded as the respondent's dominant career orientation (Schein, 1990a). Each of the eight sub-scales can produce a separate score which can range from 1 to 8.4.

5.2.1.5 Interpretation of the COI

Each sub-scale (technical/functional; general management; entrepreneurial creativity; autonomy/independence; security/stability; lifestyle; service/dedication to a cause and pure challenge) is measured separately and reflects participants' preferences and feelings on these dimensions. As a result, analysis can be carried out as to what dimensions are perceived to be true for the participants and which are not. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the respondent. Sub-scales with the highest mean scores are regarded as respondents' dominant career anchor. According to Feldman and Bolino (1996), an individual's career anchor can be primarily categorised as talent-based, need-based, or value-based. High scores on the COI represent a person's dominant preferences towards either talent based anchors, need based anchors or value based anchors. Such a person will have greater ability to define their basic self-image, in terms of their dominant career orientation preference characteristics.

5.2.1.6 Validity and reliability of the COI

The COI provides a pretested instrument with demonstrated high internal validity and reliability (Burke, 1983; Custodio, 2004; DeLong, 1982; Wood, Winston & Polkosnik, 1985). For the purposes of this study the level of validity is considered adequate as the instrument is being used to predict broad trends rather than individual differences (Ellison

& Schreuder, 2000). A validity test on a sample of 167 was conducted by Kniveton (2004), where 135 respondents had a job or position which generally matched their chosen career anchor.

Internal consistency (coefficient alpha) ranges from 0.59 to 0.78 in a sample of 295 predominantly white managers. Scores for technical/functional competence (0.59), general management (0.71), autonomy (0.75), security (0.78), entrepreneurship (0.75), service (0.73), pure challenge (0.70) and lifestyle (0.64) are considered to be moderately high, with the exception of the technical/functional competence and Lifestyle (Ellison & Schreuder, 2000). According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999), it is acceptable for alpha coefficients to be as low as 0.30 for broad group measures (as in the case of the current study).

5.2.1.7 Motivation for choice

The COI (Schein, 1990a) was utilised in this study because of the psychometric properties of the instrument, which make it a valid and reliable measure of career orientation preferences. One of the aims of this study is to determine the influences of career anchors, along with job satisfaction, on organisational commitment. According to van Vuuren and Fourie (2000), the COI is considered to be psychometrically acceptable when used as an instrument to investigate certain relations between constructs.

5.2.2 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The JSS of Spector (1997) was used to measure each respondent's predominant area of job satisfaction. In this study, the JSS is discussed with reference to the development, rationale, description of sub-scales, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability and motivation for choice.

5.2.2.1 Development of the JSS

The JSS was developed by Paul Spector (1985) and is used as an instrument measuring employee job satisfaction within organisations. The JSS is a scale that assesses nine job

satisfaction dimensions. According to Spector (1997), the JSS was developed on the basis of the facet approach which suggests that the different facets used to assess an individual's job satisfaction preferences are appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of work itself, organisation itself, the organisation's policies and procedures, pay, personal growth, promotion opportunities, recognition, security and supervision. Spector (1997) adopted a multifaceted approach to assess job satisfaction because it provides a clearer picture of how satisfied an individual is with their job according to different levels of satisfaction with regards to the various facets.

5.2.2.2 Rationale of the JSS

The purpose of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) of Spector (1997) is to evaluate nine facets of job satisfaction. The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) is an existing questionnaire which was used for the present study as it has been proven to be a reliable and valid instrument (Spector, 1997).

5.2.2.3 Description of the JSS scales

The JSS (Spector, 1997) assesses nine facets of job satisfaction (pay; promotion; supervision; fringe benefits; contingent rewards; operating conditions; co-workers; nature of work and communication), as well as overall job satisfaction. The questionnaire consists of a set of 36 items, all of which are considered to be of equal value and to which subjects respond in terms of how true the statement is. The scale used is a summated rating in the form of a six-point Likert type scale. The purpose of this questionnaire is to stimulate the respondents' thoughts about their own areas of job satisfaction which are related to the nine facets of the JSS.

5.2.2.4 Administration of the JSS

The JSS instrument is a self-diagnosis questionnaire, which can be administered individually or in groups and takes approximately 10 minutes to answer, although there is no time limit. The JSS is administered according to the rating and scoring instructions

provided by Spector (1997). Respondents are required to answer each of the 36 items as honestly and quickly as they can.

Respondents are required to rate each item on a six-point Likert scale. The higher the number, the more that item is true to the respondent. The rating scale is as follows:

- “1” if the respondent disagrees very much
- “2” if the respondent disagrees moderately
- “3” if the respondent disagrees slightly
- “4” if the respondent agrees slightly
- “5” if the respondent agrees moderately
- “6” if the respondent agrees very much

Nineteen items are formulated in the negative and reverse scored. All the items are added to form the total job satisfaction score. To reverse the score, the items are renumbered 6 to 1 rather than 1 to 6 (Spector, 1997). Each of the nine sub-scales can produce a separate score and the total of all items produces the total score which can range from 36 to 216. Each sub-scale can produce a score which can range from 4 to 24.

Table 5.10 indicates which items correspond to each sub-sale. Items followed by “r” indicate which items are reverse scored.

TABLE 5. 10 – SUB-SCALE CONTENTS FOR THE JSS (SPECTOR, 1997)

Sub-scale	Item number
Pay	1, 10r, 19r, 28
Promotion	2r, 11, 20, 33
Supervision	3, 12r, 21r, 30
Fringe benefits	4r, 13, 22, 29r
Contingent rewards	5, 14r, 23r, 32r
Operating conditions	6r, 15, 24r, 31r
Co-workers	7, 16r, 25, 34r
Nature of work	8r, 17, 27, 35
Communication	9, 18r, 26r, 36r

5.2.2.5 Interpretation of the JSS

Each sub-scale (pay; promotion; supervision; fringe benefits; contingent rewards; operating conditions; co-workers; nature of work and communication) is measured separately and reflects participants' perception and feelings on these sub-scales. As a result, analysis can be carried out as to what sub-scales are perceived to be true for the participants and which are not. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the respondent. Sub-scales with the highest mean scores are regarded as respondents' dominant job satisfaction sub-scale. High scores on the JSS represent high levels of overall job satisfaction. Such a person will have a greater ability to understand how they feel about their jobs and the different aspects of their jobs (Spector, 1997).

5.2.2.6 Validity and reliability of the JSS

Validity of the JSS scales was proven by studies that compared different scales with one another on the same employees (Spector, 1997). The different scales used were Job Descriptive Index (JDI), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). The validity of five JSS sub-scales (pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers and nature of work) correlated well with the well validated JDI. These correlations ranged from 0.61 for co-workers to 0.80 for supervision (Spector, 1997). The validity of the JSS sub-scales has also correlated well with job characteristics as assessed with the JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

The reliability of the JSS was evaluated in terms of internal consistency reliability and test-retest reliability. The internal consistency reliability refers to how well the items of a scale relate to each other. The JSS scores range between 0.60 for the co-worker sub-scale to 0.91 for the total scale (Spector, 1997). According to Spector (1997), the widely accepted minimum standard for internal consistency is 0.70. The test-retest reliability relates to the stability of the scale over time. These reliabilities ranged from 0.37 to 0.74, which is relatively stable since the time span was over 18 months and several major changes did occur in the sample (Spector, 1997). These changes resulted from reorganisation, layoffs and change of top administration (Spector, 1997).

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999), it is acceptable for alpha coefficients to be as low as 0.30 for broad group measures (as in the case of the current study).

5.2.2.7 Motivation for choice

The JSS (Spector, 1997) was used in this study because of its high degree of validity and reliability and it is affordable and easy to administer. The JSS was used because of the facet approach which can provide a more complete picture of a person's job satisfaction than the global approach (Spector, 1997). The multifaceted approach is relevant to this study because of how the various facets are measured in accordance to an individual's level of satisfaction. The nine facets of job satisfaction used in the instrument allows for the identification of a wider range of areas which individuals in the sample are more satisfied or dissatisfied with.

5.2.3 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The OCQ of Allen and Meyer (1990) was used to measure each respondent's dominant organisational commitment scale. In this study, the OCQ is discussed with reference to the development, rationale, description of sub-scales, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability and motivation for choice.

5.2.3.1 Development of the OCQ

Meyer and Allen (1997) developed a three-component model of organisational commitment, namely; affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The development of the affective, continuance and normative commitment scales were based on the definitions of the three constructs used to develop an initial pool of items that were administered to a sample of men and women working in various occupations and organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The items were selected on the basis of a series of decision rules that took into account the distribution of responses on the 7-point Likert scale for each item, item-scale correlations, content redundancy and the desire to include both positively and negatively

stated items (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The original questionnaire comprised 24 items. Later, based on the response to some of the findings, the OCQ was revised to 18 items. The revision of the questionnaire was not extensive, except in the case of the normative commitment scale (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

5.2.3.2 Rationale of the OCQ

The OCQ was developed with the aim of measuring the three distinct components of organisational commitment, namely affective (emotionally attached to an organisation), continuance (aware of the costs associated with leaving an organisation) and normative (feeling of obligation to continue employment with an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

5.2.3.3 Description of the OCQ scales

For the purposes of this study, the researcher used the original affective commitment items, except for *“I do not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to this organisation”*. The reason for leaving this question out of the OCQ was based on the feeling that the other affective commitment items gave a broader scope as to what constitutes “emotional attachment”. The items used in this study to measure continuance commitment comprised both the original and revised items. The revised items were used to measure normative commitment. All the items contained in the OCQ provide structure to the research findings of this study, based on the subject’s response in terms of how true the statement is. The scale used is a summated rating in the form of a seven-point Likert type scale. The purpose of this questionnaire is to stimulate the respondent’s thoughts about their own areas of organisation which are related to affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

Table 5.11 indicates a description of the three scales of the OCQ (Allen & Meyer, 1997).

TABLE 5. 11 - DESCRIPTION OF OCQ SCALES (MEYER & ALLEN, 1997)

Sub-scale	Description
Affective	An employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation. Individuals stay with the organisation because they want to do so.
Continuance	An employee's commitment to the organisation based on the costs that are associated with leaving the organisation. Individuals remain with the organisation because they need to.
Normative	An employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation. Individuals remain with the organisation because they ought to.

5.2.3.4 Administration of the OCQ

The OCQ instrument is a self-diagnosis questionnaire, which can be administered individually or in groups and takes approximately 10 minutes to answer, although there is no time limit. There were seven items linked to the affective commitment scale, the continuance commitment scale comprised nine items and the revised normative organisational commitment scales comprise six items.

Respondents are required to rate each item on a seven-point Likert scale. The higher the number, the more that item is true to the respondent. The rating scale is as follows:

- "1" if the respondent strongly disagrees
- "2" if the respondent disagrees
- "3" if the respondent slightly disagrees
- "4" if the respondent neither disagree or agree
- "5" if the respondent slightly agrees
- "6" if the respondent agrees
- "7" if the respondent strongly agrees

Six items are formulated in the negative and to be reversed scored. All the items are added to form the total job satisfaction score. To reverse the score, the items are

renumbered 7 to 1 rather than 1 to 7 (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The total of all items produces the total score which can range from 22 to 154. Each of the three scales can produce a separate score. The total of all affective commitment items can produce a score which can range from 7 to 49. The total of all continuance commitment items can produce a score which can range from 9 to 63. The total of all normative commitment items can produce a score which can range from 6 to 42.

Table 5.12 indicates which items go into each sub-scale and also which items need to be reversed scored. Items followed by “r” indicate which items are reversed scored.

TABLE 5. 12 - SUB-SCALE CONTENTS FOR OCQ (MEYER & ALLEN, 1997)

Sub-scale	Item number
Affective commitment	1, 2, 3,4r, 5r, 6,7r
Continuance commitment	8r,9,10,11r,12,13,14,15,16
Normative commitment	17r, 18,19, 20, 21, 22

5.2.3.5 Interpretation on the OCQ

Each sub-scale (affective commitment; continuance commitment and normative commitment) is measured separately and reflects the participants' perception and feelings on these sub-scales. As a result, analysis can be carried out as to what dimensions are perceived to be true for the participants and which are not. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the respondent. Sub-scales with the highest mean scores are regarded as respondents' dominant organisational commitment sub-scale. High scores on the OCQ represent high levels of emotional attachment towards the organisation (affective), costs associated with leaving the organisation (continuance) or obligation to remain with the organisation (normative).

5.2.3.6 Validity and reliability of the OCQ

According to Allen and Meyer (1990), construct validity of the OCQ dimensions is based on the fact that the items of affective, continuance and normative scales correlate as predicted with the proposed antecedent variables. The internal consistency of the three scales of organisational commitment has been estimated using the Cronbach alpha coefficient. Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) report in their research the coefficients for affective commitment (0.82), continuance commitment (0.74) and normative commitment (0.83). The median reliabilities for the affective, continuance, and normative scales are respectively 0.85, 0.79 and 0.73. With few exceptions', the reliability estimates exceed 0.70 (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Temporal stability is obtained through test-retest reliability and it was found that commitment scored lower when measured early in an employee's career (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The test-retest scores ranged from 0.38 for affective commitment to 0.44 for continuance commitment. These scores were correlated with commitment six months later and reliability estimates for affective, continuance and normative commitment increased to 0.60 (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Meyer and Allen (1997), these reliability research findings indicate that it can be expected that an employee's commitment can change over a period of time and then stabilises with tenure.

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999), it is acceptable for alpha coefficients to be as low as 0.30 for broad group measures (as in the case of the current study).

5.2.3.7 Motivation of choice

The OCQ (Meyer & Allen, 1997) was used in this study because of its high degree of reliability and validity and it is affordable and easy to administer. Further to this, the three dimensions and the contents pertaining to the affective, normative and continuance commitment scales are applicable to this study.

5.2.4 Biographical questionnaire

A biographical questionnaire was constructed to gather information on the biographical variables of gender, race, position and age.

5.3 ADMINISTRATION OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

Leading up to the data collection for this research project, the purpose of the research was discussed and participation permission was received from the head managers and/ or human resource managers of the various selected IT companies to invite staff to participate in the research study.

Individuals were invited, via an email meeting request, to participate in a session that will take approximately 30 minutes for the data to be collected. Individuals who indicated interest in participating were calendar booked via email to attend a session which would consist of 8-10 individuals per session. The purpose of the study was communicated to all participants both via email and verbally on attendance to the meeting. Participation was voluntary, based on the acceptance of the meeting request sent out. Anonymity and confidentiality of all individuals participating in the study was retained.

5.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Ethical and employment equity issues have been taken into consideration. Anonymity of the participants has been ensured both during the data collection and analyses of data. The Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998, requires all psychological tests and other similar assessments to be valid, reliable, fair, as well as not biased against any employee or any specific group of employees. In order to comply with legislation, care was taken in the choice and administration of the psychometric battery. The validity of items were evaluated, a reliable process was followed during data collection and data was analysed, reported and interpreted in a valid, reliable, fair and unbiased manner.

5.5 SCORING OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

Responses to each of the instrument measures were initially captured onto a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet where each row was a participant and each column was a question. The completed questionnaires were scored by an independent statistician. All data was imported and analysed through statistical analysis, using the statistical programme SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) Version 14.0 for the Microsoft Windows platform (SPSS Inc., 2006), to determine the relationship between the variables applicable to this study.

5.6 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA

The process of determining whether a relationship exists between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and whether biographical groups differ significantly regarding the variables of gender, race, position and age can be described as follows:

- a. Firstly, the categorical or frequency data (means and standard deviations) as measured by the COI, JSS and OCQ was determined for the total sample in order to apply the statistical procedures. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were also determined for the COI, JSS and OCQ to determine the reliability of the instruments for the purpose of the study.
- b. Secondly, correlation tests were conducted to investigate the direction and strength of the variables measured by the COI, JSS and OCQ. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were applied.
- c. Thirdly, inferential statistics were performed to enable the researcher to make inferences about the data. Multiple regressions were performed in order to determine the proportion of variance that is explained by the independent variables (career anchors and job satisfaction) regarding the scores of the dependent variable (organisational commitment).
- d. Fourthly, inferential statistical analyses were performed to determine whether the gender, race, position and age groups differ significantly in terms of the constructs measured. T-test and ANOVAS were applied for this purpose.

5.6.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics describe the sample characteristics in numerical data in terms of the chosen constructs as well as demographic variables.

5.6.1.1 Cronbach alpha coefficient

The reliability of an instrument can be defined in terms of the internal consistency where each item in a scale correlates with each other item, ensuring that a test measuring the same thing more than once has the same outcome results (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

The Cronbach Alpha coefficient was used in this study to determine the reliability of the instrument. The Cronbach coefficient alpha ranges from 0, which means there is no internal consistency, to 1, which is the maximum internal consistency score (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). This means the higher the alpha, the more reliable the item or test. A Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.75 is considered a desirable reliability coefficient (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). However, in the case of individual testing, reliabilities as low as 0.30 are acceptable when instruments are used to gather group data (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999).

5.6.1.2 Means and standard deviations

The descriptive statistics used to analyse data in this study were frequencies, means and standard deviations (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Frequency tables were used to indicate the distribution of biographical variable data and enable the researcher to describe the sample population.

5.6.2 Correlational statistics: Pearson-product correlation coefficient

Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient (r) is used to calculate the direction and strength between three variables. The correlation coefficient is a point on the scale between -1.00 and +1.00 and the closer the coefficient is to either of these points, the

stronger the relationship is between the two variables (Howell, 1995). A correlation of +1.00 indicates a perfect positive relationship, a correlation of 0.00 indicates no relationship, and a correlation of -1.00 represents a perfect negative relationship. In this study, the Pearson-product correlation coefficient was used to test hypotheses regarding positive or negative relationships that exist between the scores on the COI, JSS or OCQ.

5.6.3 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics were performed to enable the researcher to make inferences about the data.

5.6.3.1 Multiple regression

Multiple regression analysis is one of the most common used multivariate methods used to study the separate and collective contributions of several independent variables to the variance of a dependent variable (Terre Blance & Durrheim, 1999). The analysis procedure is used to build models for explaining scores of the dependent variable from scores on a number of other independent variables (Terre Blance & Durrheim, 1999).

According to Neuman (1997), multiple regression results highlight two things. Firstly, the R^2 values tell how well a set of variables explains a dependent variable and secondly the regression results measure the direction and size of the effect of each variable on a dependent variable.

5.6.3.2 Tests of differences between mean scores

(a) t-Test analysis

The t-Test is a statistical test for analysing the data differences between the means of two groups (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). For the purpose of this study, t-tests were used to determine statistically significant differences between groups of respondents on the basis of gender, race and position with the intention of determining whether these groups

differ in terms of the variables of career anchors and job satisfaction on organisational commitment.

(b) Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is the statistical technique used to determine differences in means of several groups (Howell, 1995). The one-way ANOVA, *F-test*, is a statistical technique used to test the significant differences between the means of a number of different groups (Howell, 1995). For the purpose of this study, ANOVA was used to test the differences between sample means, but unlike the t-test, it has no restriction on the number of means and allows the researcher to determine the individual variable effects, including the interaction these effects have on two or more variables (Howell, 1995). The Post Hoc Duncan test is performed with the ANOVA to help pinpoint within a specific group where the significant differences exist. The Post Hoc Duncan test indicates both the mean scores of the different groups as well as providing an indication of which groups differ significantly from one another (Howell, 1995).

5.6.4 Statistical significance level

The level of significance expresses statistical significance in terms of giving the specific probability. In practice, a general level of significance at ≤ 0.05 is chosen to test the hypothesis, which indicates that there is a likelihood that there are approximately 5 chances in 100 that the researcher could reject the hypothesis when it should be accepted. In other words, there is a 95 percent chance that the sample results reflect the real relationship in the population (Neuman, 1997). In such a case, the researcher would reject the null hypothesis at ≤ 0.05 level of significance, which means that the decision could be wrong with a probability of $p \leq 0.05$.

Table 5.13 indicates the different levels of statistical significance.

TABLE 5. 13 - DIFFERENT LEVELS OF STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE (TREDOUX & DURRHEIM, 2002).

Probability	Level	Significance
p	0.10	Less significant
p	0.01 to 0.05	Significant
p	0.001 to 0.01	Very significant
p	0.001	Extremely significant

5.6.4.1 Statistical significance of Pearson-product correlations

Where statistically significant relationships were found through correlation coefficients, r-values (equal to correlation magnitude) will be interpreted according to the following guidelines (Cohen, 1988):

- $r \geq 0.10$ (small practical effect)
- $r \geq 0.30$ (medium practical effect)
- $r \geq 0.50$ (large practical effect)

The significance level of $p \leq 0.05$ and $r \geq 0.30$ was chosen as the cut-off point for rejecting the null hypotheses.

5.6.4.2 Statistical significance of multiple regression correlations

Each variable in the equation is tested for statistical significance, by testing whether the value of each regression coefficient is greater than 0.

The levels of statistical significance of multiple regressions used in this study were:

$F(p) < 0.001$;

$F(p) < 0.01$; and

$F(p) < 0.05$ as the cut-off for rejecting the null hypotheses.

5.6.4.3 Statistical significance of analysis of variance

General significance associated with the one-way ANOVA is indicated as the probability associated with the F-statistic. The analysis is only significant and valid if the probability associated with the analysis is less than $p < 0.05$.

5.6.4.4 Type I and Type II errors

Statistical differences are based on $p \leq 0.05$ as a rule of thumb, therefore providing 95 percent confidence in the results being accepted as the standard when applied in other research contexts (Neuman, 1997). However, the researcher can make two types of errors (Type I and Type II errors). A Type I error occurs when the researcher falsely rejects a null hypothesis, by stating that a relationship exists when in fact no relationship exists. A Type II error occurs when the researcher falsely accepts a null hypothesis by stating that a relationship exists, when in fact no relationship exists between variables.

5.7 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPHOTHESES

A hypothesis is defined as “a proposition to be tested or a tentative statement of relationship between two variables” (Neuman, 1997 p. 108). Hypotheses are rejected when hypothesis statements cannot be answered through scientific observation and scientific hypotheses are accepted when they are statistically proven (Neuman, 1997).

In the literature review chapters, the central research hypothesis was formulated to determine whether a relationship exists between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The following research hypotheses are formulated with a view to achieve the empirical objectives of the study and to meet the criteria for the formulation of hypotheses:

HO1: There are no significant relationships between the career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables.

H1: There are significant relationships between the career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables.

HO2: There are no significant differences between the gender, race, position and age groups regarding their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

H2: There are significant differences between the gender, race, position and age groups regarding their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The research hypotheses will be tested by means of descriptive, correlation and inferential statistics.

5.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter commenced with presenting an overview of the study's population sample. A description of the measuring instruments, data collection process, administration of the measuring instruments and data analysis were discussed. The chapter concluded with the formulation of the hypotheses related to the study.

Chapter 6 covers the data analysis, interpretation and integration of the empirical findings.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH RESULTS

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the statistical results of this study and to integrate the empirical research findings with the literature review. The statistical results will be reported in terms of descriptive, explanatory (correlational) and inferential statistics.

6.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The purpose of the descriptive statistics is to describe sets of data. Descriptive statistics are essential to an understanding of inferential statistics (Howell, 1995). Item-reliability and Cronbach coefficient alpha for the Career Orientations Inventory (COI), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) were conducted in order to establish construct reliability. The item-reliability and Cronbach alpha coefficients for the three measuring instruments will be reported and subsequently interpreted. The reporting and interpretation of means and standard deviations were conducted, as these statistics assist in providing context to the research results and findings.

6.1.1 Reporting of item-reliability: Cronbach alpha coefficients

The internal consistency reliability estimates refer to how strong items of a scale relate to one another (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). It is important to establish the reliability of constructs measured through different items to give confidence in the interpretation of the results. The Cronbach alpha is one of the most widely used methods of calculating the internal reliability consistency (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). In terms of the current study, item analyses were conducted for sub-scale items that did not correlate highly.

This section provides the item-reliability of the following measurement instruments and sub-scales: Career Orientations Inventory (COI), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).

6.1.1.1 Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

Table 6.1 provides the Cronbach alpha values for each of the 8 sub-scales of the COI (Schein, 1990a). These scores varied from 0.78 to 0.36 for the total sample (N = 86). The total COI scale obtained a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.75 which can be considered adequate for the purpose of the current study.

Table 6.1 indicates that most of the sub-scales have adequately high reliabilities. The service/dedication to a cause variable obtained an alpha coefficient of 0.66, while the pure challenge variable obtained an alpha coefficient of 0.67. Low alpha coefficients were obtained for the technical/functional competence (0.36) and lifestyle (0.56) variables. According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999), for broad group measures (as in the case of the current study), it is acceptable to have alpha coefficients as low as 0.30.

TABLE 6. 1 - RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR THE COI (N=86)

COI sub-scales	Cronbach alpha Coefficients	
	Total sample	Number of items
Technical/Functional competence	0.36	5
General managerial competence	0.70	5
Autonomy/Independence	0.71	5
Security/Stability	0.78	5
Entrepreneurial Creativity	0.72	5
Service/Dedication to a Cause	0.66	5
Pure challenge	0.67	5
Lifestyle	0.56	5
Total	0.75	40

In order to investigate whether the reliability of the sub-scales with low Cronbach alpha coefficients could be improved, item analyses were conducted on the technical/functional competence, service/dedication to a cause, pure challenge and lifestyle sub-scales.

Table 6.2 indicates the item analysis for the sub-scale technical/functional competence. The item analysis results show that by removing item 25 (*I would rather leave my organisation than accept a rotational assignment that would take me out of my area of expertise*) the alpha coefficient would only improve the coefficient value to 0.42 which is not regarded as a substantial improvement. It was therefore decided to include all the items in the scale for the purpose of this study.

TABLE 6. 2 - ITEM ANALYSIS FOR THE TECHNICAL/FUNCTIONAL COMPETENCE SUB-SCALE

Question item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
v1	17.57	18.37	0.18	0.30
v9	17.56	18.11	0.29	0.21
v17	18.12	18.27	0.23	0.26
v25	19.80	25.17	-0.02	0.42
v33	17.23	20.37	0.17	0.31

Table 6.3 indicates the item analysis for the service/dedication to a cause sub-scale. No items could be excluded to substantially improve the overall sub-scale reliability.

TABLE 6. 3 - ITEM ANALYSIS FOR THE SERVICE/ DEDICATION TO A CAUSE SUB-SCALE

Question item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
v6	16.28	21.99	0.51	0.56
v14	15.55	23.45	0.33	0.64
v22	15.91	20.06	0.46	0.59
v30	16.02	21.13	0.44	0.59
v38	17.08	25.32	0.33	0.64

Table 6.4 indicates the item analysis for the sub-scale pure challenge sub-scale. No items could be excluded to substantially improve the overall sub-scale reliability.

TABLE 6. 4 - ITEM ANALYSIS FOR THE PURE CHALLENGE SUB-SCALE

Question item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
v7	17.44	26.01	0.50	0.60
v15	17.71	24.54	0.41	0.62
v23	16.78	20.72	0.43	0.62
v31	17.20	24.02	0.35	0.65
v39	18.45	23.31	0.47	0.59

Table 6.5 indicates the item analysis for the lifestyle sub-scale. By removing Item 16, the overall reliability of the lifestyle sub-scale would not improve substantially. It was therefore decided to include all the items for the purpose of this study.

TABLE 6. 5 - ITEM ANALYSIS FOR THE LIFESTYLE SUB-SCALE

Question item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
v8	20.24	35.316	.255	.541
v16	18.78	32.904	.207	.581
v24	19.22	30.856	.361	.482
v32	19.67	30.128	.395	.461
v40	20.73	31.257	.415	.455

In summary, no items were deleted in order to improve the reliability of the sub-scales. For the purpose of this study, the psychometric properties of the COI were regarded as being acceptable.

6.1.1.2 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Table 6.6 provides the Cronbach alpha values for each of the 9 sub-scales of the JSS (Spector, 1997). These alpha coefficients varied from 0.92 to 0.48 for the total sample (N= 86). The total job satisfaction sub-scale obtained a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92 which can be considered highly reliable. The sub-scales of pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, nature of work and communication obtained high reliability coefficients. On the other hand, the sub-scales of co-workers (0.48) and operating procedures (0.58) obtained somewhat lower reliability coefficients. Item analyses were conducted to investigate whether those sub-scales that obtained low reliability coefficients could be substantially improved.

TABLE 6. 6 - RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR THE JSS

JSS sub-scales	Cronbach alpha Coefficients	
	Total sample (N=86)	Number of items
Pay	0.78	4
Promotion	0.78	4
Supervision	0.89	4
Benefits	0.72	4
Contingent rewards	0.76	4
Operating procedures	0.48	4
Co-workers	0.58	4
Nature of work	0.70	4
Communication	0.72	4
Total	0.92	36

Table 6.7 indicates the item analysis for the sub-scale operating procedures. As shown in Table 6.7, item 15 does not correlate well with the sub-scale. Item analysis indicated that by removing the item the sub-scale reliability would substantially improve to 0.61. However, for the purpose of consistency, it was decided not to remove the item and retain all the original items as suggested by the literature.

TABLE 6. 7 - ITEM ANALYSIS FOR THE OPERATING PROCEDURES SUB-SCALE

Question item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
J6RE	11.6744	8.387	.407	.306
J15	11.8953	10.260	.076	.608
J24RE	12.3140	9.512	.251	.444
J31RE	11.4884	7.241	.450	.237

Table 6.8 indicates the item analysis for the sub-scale co-workers. As shown, no items could be excluded to improve the overall reliability of the sub-scale, as all the items in the scale contribute positively to the co-workers sub-scale.

TABLE 6. 8 - ITEM ANALYSIS FOR THE CO-WORKERS SUB-SCALE

Question item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
J7	12.9535	9.104	.497	.499
J16RE	14.5116	5.688	.399	.499
J25	13.2907	9.291	.362	.541
J34RE	14.2558	5.581	.411	.486

In summary, each sub-scale of the JSS was deemed to be reliable and no items have been excluded as no significant improvement would be made to the overall internal reliability of the sub-scales. The psychometric properties of the JSS were therefore regarded as being acceptable for the purpose of this study.

6.1.1.3 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Table 6.9 provides the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the three organisational commitment sub-scales. These Alpha coefficients varied from 0.82 to 0.68 for the total sample (N = 86). The total organisational commitment scale obtained a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.77 which can be considered as adequate for the purpose of this study.

The affective and normative commitment sub-scales obtained high alpha coefficients of 0.79 and 0.82 respectively. The continuance commitment sub-scale obtained a lower reliability of 0.68. However, for the purpose of this study, the psychometric properties of the OCQ were regarded as acceptable. Considering that the alpha coefficients for the overall and three sub-scales were regarded as being adequate, no item analyses were conducted (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

TABLE 6. 9 - RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR THE OCQ

OCQ sub-scales	Cronbach alpha Coefficients	
	Total sample (N=86)	Number of items
Affective	0.79	7
Continuance	0.68	9
Normative	0.82	6
Total commitment scale	0.77	22

6.1.2 Reporting of means and standard deviations

The means and standard deviations for each of the three measuring instruments (COI, JSS & OCQ) were calculated and are reported in the section that follows.

6.1.2.1 Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

The COI is scored by obtaining a mean score across all the items within each sub-scale. A mean score is obtained by summing all the individual scores for each sub-scale and then dividing the total score for each sub-scale by 5. Each individual sub-scale can range from 1-8.4. A 1 would be the minimum score that will result if a person scored each of the items applicable to the sub-scale as a 1, and likewise a score of 8.4 is possible if all items were scored as a 6 applicable to the sub-scale and the three most preferred statements referred to the same sub-scale. Table 6.10 presents the descriptive information for the 8 COI sub-scales. The descriptive information consists of the minimum score, the maximum scored, mean, and standard deviation on each sub-scale.

TABLE 6. 10 – MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF COI (N=86)

COI sub-scales	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Technical/Functional competence	2.00	7.40	4.51	1.04
General managerial competence	1.00	6.60	3.06	1.08
Autonomy/Independence	1.60	6.40	3.84	1.14
Security/Stability	1.40	7.60	4.33	1.38
Entrepreneurial Creativity	1.00	7.80	3.85	1.48
Service/Dedication to a Cause	1.80	7.40	4.04	1.14
Pure challenge	1.80	7.20	4.38	1.17
Lifestyle	1.00	8.00	4.93	1.34

The mean scores ranged from 4.93 to 3.06. The sample of participants obtained the highest scores on the lifestyle ($m=4.93$; $SD=1.34$) and technical/functional competence ($m=4.51$; $SD=1.04$) sub-scales, and the lowest scores on the general managerial competence sub-scale ($m=3.06$; $SD=1.08$). The standard deviations of the sub-scales are fairly similar, all ranging from 1.04 to 1.48.

6.1.2.2 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Individual sub-scale scores for the JSS are computed by summing the appropriate items. Because each item score can range from 1 – 6, each individual sub-scale score can range from 4 – 24. A four would be the minimum score that will result if a person scored each of the items in the sub-scale as a 1, and likewise a score of 24 is possible if all 4 items were scored a 6.

Table 6.11 presents the means and standard deviations obtained for the JSS.

TABLE 6. 11 - MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF JSS (N = 86)

Job satisfaction sub-scale	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pay	4	24	16.58	4.27
Promotion	4	22	13.83	4.34
Supervision	4	24	19.35	4.71
Fringe benefits	5	24	15.02	4.02
Contingent rewards	8	24	16.48	3.73
Operating procedure	8	24	15.79	3.67
Co-workers	11	24	18.34	3.40
Nature of work	6	24	19.07	3.37
Communication	4	24	15.29	4.23
Total job satisfaction	81	210	149.74	24.19

The mean scores of all the JSS sub-scales ranged between 19.07 and 13.83.

The sample of participants obtained the highest scores on the supervision (m=19.35; SD=4.71) and nature of work (m=19.07; SD=3.40) sub-scales and the lowest score on the promotion sub-scale (m=13.83; SD=4.34). The standard deviations of the sub-scales are fairly similar, all ranging from 3.40 to 4.71.

6.1.2.3 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The OCQ scores are determined by obtaining a mean score across all the items relating to the affective, continuance and normative commitment sub-scales. A mean score is obtained by summing all the individual scores in a scale and then dividing the total by the number of items in the scale. Table 6.12 presents the descriptive information on the organisational commitment sub-scales.

TABLE 6. 12 - MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF OCQ (N=86)

OCQ sub-scales	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Affective	1.43	6.86	4.64	1.12
Continuance	1.67	6.00	4.12	0.97
Normative	1.00	6.50	4.35	1.20

The mean scores of all the OCQ scales ranged between 4.64 and 4.12. The sample of participants obtained the highest scores on the affective commitment (m=4.64; SD=1.12) sub-scales and the lowest scores on the continuance commitment sub-scale (m=4.12; SD=0.97). The standard deviations of the sub-scales are fairly similar, all ranging from 0.97 to 1.20.

6.1.3 Interpretation of means and standard deviations

This section interprets the results reported in Tables 6.10 to 6.12.

6.1.3.1 Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

The high scores obtained for the lifestyle (value-based anchor) and technical/functional competence (talent-based anchor) variables suggest that the participants prefer working in environments that allow them to express their desire for balancing their family and other personal interests and being an expert in a particular field.

Based on the low reliability coefficients obtained for the lifestyle and technical/functional sub-scales, these findings should be interpreted with caution. Reliabilities of the COI lifestyle and technical/functional competence are possibly low because participants are predominantly young employees (younger than 30) and entering the explorative career stage, where they are developing career competencies, self-efficacy and maturity. Individuals entering this stage of their careers are faced with the demands of developing their self-concept and faced with career choices that will influence their decisions to remain in a specific occupation or organisation (Schein, 1990a). Participants in this study may still be too young and inexperienced and therefore unable to clearly match their own desires with that of their existing career option. Coetzee et al. (2007) found in their study that whites have a higher preference towards the career anchors of lifestyle and technical/functional competence.

The low mean scores obtained for the general managerial competence variable suggest that participants have a higher need for a work environment that allows them to develop expertise than to advance up the corporate ladder and take on more managerial responsibilities and decision making. In a study conducted by Ramakrishna and Potosky (2001), it was found that IS (Information System) employees had the strongest preference towards a needs-based career anchor security/stability. It cannot be assumed that employees working in a technical environment would have technical/functional competence or managerial competence as their dominant career orientations.

6.1.3.2 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The high scores obtained for the supervision and nature of work variables suggest that the participants regard supervisor behaviour and type of work as important. They seem to prefer working in environments where the immediate supervisor is understanding, friendly, offers praise for good performance, listens to employees' opinions and shows personal interest in them. They also seem to prefer work which is mentally challenging by providing them with opportunities to use their skills and abilities and offer a variety of tasks, freedom, and feedback on how well they are doing.

The low mean scores obtained for the promotion variable suggest that participants do not necessarily prefer opportunities for personal growth and more responsibilities. Job satisfaction is likely to be experienced by individuals who perceive promotional opportunities to be fair (Robbins, 1993; Spector, 1997).

The results of this study suggest that participants are most satisfied with their supervision and nature of work. Satisfaction towards supervision means participants feel their supervisors are competent, fair, show an interest in their feelings and are likeable. Satisfaction with the nature of work means that participants enjoy the type of work they are doing, their work is meaningful and there is a sense of pride towards their job. These findings are in line with other studies (Spector, 1997; Westlund & Hannon, 2008). In comparison with Spector's (1997) study, the individuals generally felt the same levels of satisfaction towards supervision, co-workers and nature of work. According to research findings by Westlund and Hannon (2008), individuals tend to have high levels of satisfaction towards supervision, nature of work, co-workers and fringe benefits. In this study, participants seem to be less satisfied with their promotional opportunities, fringe benefits and clarity of communication within the organisation.

6.1.3.3 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The high scores obtained for the affective commitment and normative commitment variables suggest that the participants feel committed due to a desire to work for the organisation or an obligation to remain with the organisation because they ought to. The relatively high score on normative commitment, in this study compares well with findings reported by Allen and Meyer, (1990), Spector, (2008), Suliman and Ilse (2000) and Coetzee et al. (2007). These findings suggest that individuals feel a sense of obligation towards their employer either based on their own values being met or from favours done for the person by the organisation.

The mean score obtained for the continuance commitment variable suggests that participants see a high cost in leaving their organisation based on their preference towards working in a secure and stable work environment. According to Spector (2008), continuance commitment is produced by the benefits accrued from working for the

organisation and by the lack of available alternative jobs. The results of this study suggest that the recent recession has led to an increase in retrenchments, and participants may feel insecure in finding alternative employment.

6.2 CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS

In order to investigate the relationship between the variables in this study, the descriptive statistics had to be transformed into explanatory (correlational) statistics to decide whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis. The inter-relationships between the variables were computed using Pearson's product-moment correlations. Pearson product-moment correlations allowed the researcher to identify the direction and strength of the relationships between each of the variables. A cut-off of $p \leq 0.05$ ($r \geq 0.30$, medium practical effect size) was used for the interpretation of significance of the findings.

6.2.1 Reporting of Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients (COI & OCQ)

Table 6.13 reports the Pearson Product-moment correlations obtained for the COI and OCQ.

A significant positive relationship is observed between only the security/stability and continuance commitment variables ($p < 0.001$; medium practical effect size), suggesting that the higher a participant scored on the security/stability sub-scale, the higher they scored on the continuance commitment sub-scale.

TABLE 6. 13 – PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS (COI & OCQ) (N=86)

COI		OCQ		
		Affective	Continuance	Normative
Technical/Functional competence	Pearson Correlation	0.09	-0.11	-0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.39	0.33	0.96
General managerial competence	Pearson Correlation	0.16	-0.01	0.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.15	0.91	1.00
Autonomy/ Independence	Pearson Correlation	0.07	-0.02	0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.55	0.83	0.87
Security/Stability	Pearson Correlation	-0.01	0.39(++)	0.03
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.94	0.000(***)	0.79
Entrepreneurial Creativity	Pearson Correlation	-0.01	0.20	0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.95	0.07	0.88
Service/Dedication to a Cause	Pearson Correlation	-0.17	0.04	0.14
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.12	0.74	0.21
Pure challenge	Pearson Correlation	0.11	-0.04	0.15
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.33	0.70	0.18
Lifestyle	Pearson Correlation	-0.11	0.19	-0.17
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.32	0.09	0.11

***p ≤ 0.001 **p ≤ 0.01 *p ≤ 0.05

+ r ≥ 0.10; ++ r ≥ 0.30; +++ r ≥ 0.50

6.2.2 Interpretation of Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients (COI & OCQ)

Based on the data displayed in Table 6.13, the specific relationships between the COI subscales and the OCQ scales can be derived. The positive relationship observed between the variables of security/stability and continuance commitment suggest that participants who prefer secure/stable or steady employment seem to feel more obliged to remain with the organisation. They are prepared to carry out work in the manner required by their employer; they want stability and predictability, and they want to be recognised for loyalty and steady performance (Van Rensburg, Rothman & Rothman, 2002). Continuance commitment creates a mindset of perceived costs, which compels the employees to stay in

the organisation because of sunken costs (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). According to Allen and Meyer (1990), the lack of employment opportunities and fewer alternatives freely available to employees, increases the perceived costs associated with leaving an organisation, resulting in stronger continuance commitment. These findings are contrary to findings reported by Coetzee et al. (2007).

6.2.3 Reporting of Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients (JSS & OCQ)

Table 6.14 reports the Pearson-product moment correlations obtained for the JSS and OCQ. In terms of the OCQ affective commitment sub-scale, significant positive relationships ($p \leq 0.001$; medium to large practical effect sizes) are observed between all the JSS variables and the affective commitment variable with the exception of the operating conditions variable. Similarly, in terms of the OCQ normative commitment sub-scale, significant positive relationships are observed between all the JSS variables and the normative commitment variable ($p \leq 0.01$; medium practical effect size), with the exception of the operating conditions variable. No significant relationships were observed between the OCQ continuance commitment and JSS variables.

TABLE 6. 14 – PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS (JSS & OCQ) (N=86)

JSS		OCQ		
		Affective	Continuance	Normative
Pay	Pearson Correlation	0.62+++	0.01	0.38++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000***	0.93	0.000***
Promotion	Pearson Correlation	0.38++	-0.12	0.30++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000***	0.29	0.01**
Supervision	Pearson Correlation	0.47++	0.07	0.28+
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000***	0.543	0.01**
Fringe benefits	Pearson Correlation	0.37++	-0.00	0.31++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000***	0.97	0.00**
Contingent Rewards	Pearson Correlation	0.49++	0.01	0.32++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000***	0.91	0.00**
Operating conditions	Pearson Correlation	0.17	-0.14	0.14
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.12	0.20	0.19
Co-workers	Pearson Correlation	0.46++	-0.12	0.37++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000***	0.29	0.001***
Nature of work	Pearson Correlation	0.54+++	-0.03	0.41++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000***	0.810	0.000***
Communication	Pearson Correlation	0.43++	-0.08	0.32++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000***	0.47	0.00**

***p ≤ 0.001; **p ≤ 0.01; *p ≤ 0.05

+ r ≥ 0.10; ++ r ≥ 0.30; +++ r ≥ 0.50

6.2.4 Interpretation of Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients (JSS & OCQ)

Based on the data displayed in Table 6.14, the specific relationships between the JSS sub-scales and the OCQ scales can be derived. The positive associations observed between the JSS variables and the affective commitment variable suggest that participants who are satisfied with pay, promotion (advancement), supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards (recognition and achievement), relationship with co-workers, nature of work and communication (organisational and job specific) feel more emotionally attached to and involved with an organisation. This observation is supported by the literature research where, according to Spector (2008), job satisfaction related most strongly to affective commitment. This finding is not surprising as both variables are based on an individual's attitude towards work. According to Herzberg et al. (1959), pay, supervision, fringe benefits, co-workers and communication are extrinsic factors which do not act as motivators. People are only truly motivated by enabling them to reach for and satisfy the intrinsic factors of promotion, contingent rewards (recognition and achievement) and nature of work.

Similarly, the positive relationships observed between the JSS variables and the normative commitment variable suggest that participants who are satisfied with pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, co-workers, nature of work and communication seem to feel more obliged to remain with an organisation because of social norms. These areas of job satisfaction can be described as the obligations that exist in an employment relationship. Research (Döckel et al., 2006; McDonald & Makin, 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1997) suggests that normative commitment is characterised by the obligations that create a psychological contract between employer and employee. The obligations that exist are both objective economic exchanges (contingent pay, working overtime, giving notice and high performance based pay) and subjective social exchanges (employee loyalty, job security, co-worker relationships).

No significant relationship is detected between the JSS operating conditions and the OCQ scales (affective, normative and continuance commitment), implying participants'

commitment to their organisation is not significantly related to their satisfaction with the company rules and procedures. Since no significant relationships between job satisfaction and continuance commitment are observed from Table 6.14, the results suggest participants' feelings of attachment and obligation are stronger due to motivational factors that relate to job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work and communication), and by implication, people's decisions to stay rather than the costs associated by leaving the company (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The findings of this study seem to be in line with research conducted by Meyer et al. (1993), where job satisfaction correlated positively with affective and normative commitment but negatively with continuance commitment.

6.2.5 Reporting of Pearson-product correlation coefficients (JSS & COI)

The Pearson-product correlation coefficients between the sub-scales of the JSS and the COI are presented in Table 6.15 below. Based on the size of the table the abbreviations used for the COI are provided below in Table 6.15:

TABLE 6. 15 – PEASON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN (COI & JSS) (N = 86)

Job Satisfaction Survey sub-scales		Career Orientation Inventory sub-scales							
		TF	GM	AU	SE	EC	SV	CH	LS
Pay	Pearson Correlation	0.07	0.06	0.01	-0.17	-0.17	-0.17	0.11	-0.04
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.55	0.56	0.94	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.33	0.69
Promotion	Pearson Correlation	0.01	-0.09	0.05	-0.19	-0.23	-0.20	-0.02	0.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.90	0.42	0.67	0.08	0.03	0.07	0.84	0.59
Supervision	Pearson Correlation	0.07	-0.10	-0.27	0.06	-0.09	-0.02	0.01	0.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.53	0.34	0.01	0.58	0.42	0.83	0.95	0.40
Fringe benefits	Pearson Correlation	0.09	0.03	-0.05	-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	0.11	-0.11
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.42	0.77	0.64	0.85	0.84	0.79	0.34	0.30
Contingent Rewards	Pearson Correlation	-0.01	-0.07	-0.07	0.14	0.02	-0.11	0.01	0.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.93	0.50	0.50	0.20	0.83	0.31	0.93	0.26
Operating conditions	Pearson Correlation	0.09	0.02	-0.06	-0.01	0.15	-0.11	0.10	-0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.42	0.89	0.61	0.95	0.18	0.32	0.37	0.67
Co-workers	Pearson Correlation	0.04	-0.14	-0.19	0.00	-0.11	-0.16	-0.02	-0.10
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.70	0.21	0.08	0.99	0.30	0.14	0.86	0.35
Nature of work	Pearson Correlation	0.09	-0.03	-0.17	0.23+	0.01	0.08	0.22+	-0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.40	0.82	0.12	.037*	0.94	0.44	.042*	0.67

Communication	Pearson								
	Correlation	-0.08	-0.02	-0.17	0.14	-0.01	-0.11	-0.04	0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.48	0.87	0.11	0.21	0.96	0.31	0.75	0.90

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$

+ $r \geq 0.10$; ++ $r \geq 0.30$; +++ $r \geq 0.50$

TF	Technical/Functional competence
GM	General managerial competence
AU	Autonomy/Independence
SE	Security/Stability
EC	Entrepreneurial Creativity
SV	Service/Dedication to a Cause
CH	Pure challenge
LS	Lifestyle

Table 6.15 indicates a significant negative relationship between only the JSS promotion and the COI entrepreneurial creativity variables ($p \leq 0.05$; small practical effect size) and the JSS supervision and COI autonomy/independence variables ($p \leq 0.02$; small practical effect size).

A significant positive relationship is observed between only the JSS nature of work and security/stability variables ($p \leq 0.05$; small practical effect size) and the pure challenge variable ($p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect size).

6.2.6 Interpretation of Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients (JSS & COI)

Based on the data displayed in Table 6.15, the specific relationships between the JSS sub-scales and the COI sub-scales can be derived. The negative associations observed between the JSS variables and COI variables suggest that participants with an autonomy/independence career anchor feel less satisfied with supervision. According to Schein (1990a), the autonomy-anchored person has the desire to decide when to work, what to work on and how hard to work without close supervision whilst completing imposed organisational goals. Autonomy/independence is a needs-based anchor, where the *motives and needs* of such individuals emphasise a need or preference for personal freedom in job content and settings, including organisational rules and control from supervisors (Feldman & Bolino, 2000; Schein, 1990a).

The negative relationship observed between the variables of entrepreneurial creativity and promotion suggest that participants who prefer a environment which requires new creative challenges will feel less satisfied with promotional opportunities. Participants with an entrepreneurial preference want a promotion system during their career, where they have the power and freedom to move into the roles that meet their own needs and continue to exercise creativity (Schein, 1990a).

The positive associations observed between the JSS nature of work and COI security/stability variables suggest that participants who have a high preference for the needs-based anchor security/stability feel more satisfied with the nature of their work. Schein (1990a) contradicts this by suggesting that security/stability-anchored people are more concerned with the context of work rather than the nature of work. Participants with security/stability seem to seek improved pay, working conditions and secure benefits (such as medical aid, provident or pension fund and bonuses. The nature of work (intrinsic motivator) is measured by an individual's feeling that their job is meaningful, engaging and a sense of pride towards the job exists (Spector, 1997).

Similarly, the positive relationship between pure challenge and nature of work suggests that participants have a preference towards the value-based anchor pure challenge and

feel more satisfied with the nature of work. Pure challenge anchored people seem to regard job challenge as important as they define success by overcoming challenging obstacles, solving difficult problems and coming out top in a competitive environment. According to Schein (1990a), the person anchored by pure challenge is concerned with the area of work, the kind of employing organisation, pay system, type of promotion system and the form of recognition given.

6.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Inferential statistics are concerned with using samples to infer something about populations. Firstly, multiple regression analyses were performed in order to further investigate the relationship between only those variables that related significantly. Thereafter, t-tests and ANOVAs were performed to examine whether the biographical groups (gender, race, position and age) differ significantly on their mean scores with regard to the variables of concern to this study.

6.3.1 Multiple regression analyses

Multiple regression analysis was performed to assess the career anchor and job satisfaction variables that provide the best explanation of the proportion of the total variance in the scores of the organisational commitment variables. The value of adjusted R^2 was used to interpret the results. In order to counter the probability of a Type I error, it was decided to set the significance value at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0.05$). The F-test was used to test whether there was a significant regression between the independent and dependent variables.

6.3.1.1 Reporting of regression analyses (OCQ & JSS)

Table 6.16 provides the summary of results from the multiple regression analyses performed on the OCQ and JSS. Two models are suggested by the regression analysis and both models are significant ($p \leq 0.001$). The first model explains 21% of the variance in the dependent variable (OCQ) and the second model explains 29% of the variance. The second model, which explains the most variance, includes the pay and nature of work subscales of the JSS. The pay ($\beta = 0.37$; $p = 0.000$) and nature of work ($\beta = 0.30$; $p \leq 0.001$) variables positively predict total organisational commitment.

TABLE 6. 16 - MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSES: OCQ & JSS (N=86)

Model	Variable	Unstandardised coefficient		Standardised coefficient	t	p	F	R ²	R
		B	Std. Error	Beta (β)					
1	(Constant)	3.01	0.28		10.62	.000	23.99	0.21	0.47 ^a
	Pay	0.08	0.02	0.47	4.90	.000			
2	(Constant)	2.06	0.41		5.03	.000	17.92	0.29	0.55 ^b
	Pay	0.06	0.02	0.36	3.72	.000			
	Nature of work	0.07	0.02	0.30	3.07	.003			

a Predictors: (Constant), Pay

b Predictors: (Constant), Pay, Nature of work

6.3.1.2 Interpretation of regression analyses between total organisational commitment and job satisfaction

The results shown in Table 6.16 suggest that a participant's level of satisfaction with their pay and the nature of work are significant in terms of predicting or explaining their overall commitment to the organisation.

Pay and nature of work are associated with the behaviour that drives an individual's career motivations and decisions to stay with a company. Pay measures the elements of pay

fairness and procedural justice in pay policies (Spector, 1997). Pay satisfaction is driven extrinsically and if unfairly handled or is absent, individuals will become demotivated. Nature of work (an intrinsic motivator) is measured by an individual's feeling that their job is meaningful, engaging and a sense of pride towards the job exists (Spector, 1997). Satisfaction with the nature of work was found by Westlund and Hannon (2008) to be significantly related to an employee's intention to leave an organisation. According to Döckel et al. (2006), money is still used as a primary incentive to attract professionals, based on "competitive" and "fair" salaries indicating a strong correlation with the intention to stay.

6.3.1.3 Reporting of regression analyses between affective commitment and job satisfaction sub-scales

The results of the stepwise regression analysis are reported in Table 6.17, where the dependent variable is affective commitment and the independent variables are the sub-scales of JSS. Table 6.17 below indicates the variables in each of the models and the variance accounted for in each model. Three models are suggested by the regression analysis, where the models are significant ($p \leq 0.001$). The first model explains 37% of the variance in affective commitment, the second model increases the variance to 49% and the third model only increased the variance to 50%, when adding the variable co-workers.

All three of the variables in the third model contributed significantly to the variance in the job satisfaction scores. Pay obtained the largest beta weight ($\beta = 0.44$; $p \leq 0.001$), followed by nature of work ($\beta = 0.32$; $p \leq 0.001$) and co-workers ($\beta = 0.17$; $p \leq 0.05$). It is valuable to note that when the variable co-workers are included in the computing of the multiple regression analyses, it increased the variance in job satisfaction scores by 1%. This observation is also in line with the Pearson-product correlation moment coefficients reported in Table 6.14, where both pay and nature of work had the most significant correlations with affective and normative commitment. Pay and nature of work are the same job satisfaction drivers found in the regression analysis between total organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

TABLE 6. 17 - MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSES: AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION

Model	Variable	Unstandardised coefficient		Standardised coefficient	t	p	F	R ²	R
		B	Std. Error	Beta (β)					
1	(Constant)	1.97	0.39		5.10	0.00	51.433	0.37	0.62 ^a
	Pay	0.16	0.02	0.62	7.17	0.00			
2	(Constant)	0.21	0.53		0.40	0.69	41.062	0.49	0.71 ^b
	Pay	0.13	0.02	0.49	5.85	0.00			
	Nature of work	0.12	0.03	0.37	4.41	0.00			
3	(Constant)	-0.33	0.59		-0.57	0.57	29.781	0.50	0.72 ^c
	Pay	0.12	0.02	0.44	5.17	0.00			
	Nature of work	0.11	0.03	0.32	3.77	0.00			
	Co-workers	0.06	0.03	0.17	2.03	0.05			

a Predictors: (Constant), Pay

b Predictors: (Constant), Pay, Nature of work

c Predictors: (Constant), Pay, Nature of work, Co-workers

6.3.1.4 Interpretation of regression analyses between affective commitment and job satisfaction

The results shown in Table 6.17 suggest that a participants' level of satisfaction with their pay, the nature of their work and co-worker relationships are significant in terms of predicting or explaining their overall emotional attachment to the organisation. Affective commitment is described by Meyer and Allen (1997) as the positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement individuals have in and towards their employing organisation. Employees with strong affective commitment remain with an organisation because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In terms of the current study, it appears that those participants satisfied with their pay, nature of work and co-worker relationships have a stronger desire to remain with the organisation.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) indicate a positive correlation between salary and commitment. This study supports Döckel et al. (2006) in their finding that “competitive” and “fair” compensation is used as a primary incentive to attract professionals. Compensation offers an individual with the opportunity for security, autonomy, recognition and improved self worth, which as a result increases feelings of self worth leading to affective commitment (Döckel et al., 2006). Meyer and Allen (1997) highlight that perceptions of fairness in compensation have a direct effect on affective organisational commitment.

Meyer et al. (1993) found a positive correlation existed between affective commitment and positive work experiences, which may lead a person to feeling a sense of attachment, identification and involvement with an organisation and associated work experiences with the occupation. Allen and Meyer (1990) state that affective commitment is most strongly developed through the work experiences fulfilled by employees as they need to feel comfortable within an organisation and competent in the work-role.

The literature research indicated that work fills an individual's social need, and therefore the importance of co-worker acceptance and sense of group and culture belonging potentially impacts on job satisfaction (Ghazzawi, 2008; Robbins, 1993). This study highlights the positive effect that exists between the job satisfaction facet of co-workers and organisational commitment, where the greater employees' satisfaction is with their co-workers, the greater their affective commitment to the organisation.

The findings of this study support the findings of Martin and Roodt (2008), in that employees value certain conditions of work and if these conditions are evident and congruent with the individual's own needs, employees will be more satisfied and committed and less likely to leave the organisation. Therefore pay, nature of work and co-workers need to be congruent with an employee's own needs, making them feel affectively committed to their employer and resulting in improved retention.

6.3.1.5 Reporting of regression analyses between normative commitment and job satisfaction

The results of the stepwise regression analysis are reported, where the dependent variable is normative commitment and the independent variables are the sub-scales of job satisfaction. The results of the stepwise regression analyses between normative commitment and job satisfaction are reported in Table 6.18 where the dependent variable is normative commitment and the independent variables are the JSS variables nature of work and pay.

Table 6.18 below indicates the variables in each of the models and the variance accounted for in each model.

TABLE 6. 18 - MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSES: NORMATIVE COMMITMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION.

Model	Variable	Unstandardised coefficient		Standardised coefficient	t	p	F	R ²	R
		B	Std. Error	Beta (β)					
1	(Constant)	1.57	0.69		2.29	0.03	16.972	0.16	0.41 ^a
	Nature of work	0.15	0.04	0.41	4.12	0.00			
2	(Constant)	0.97	0.70		1.38	0.17	12.290	0.21	0.48 ^b
	Nature of work	0.11	0.04	0.32	3.08	0.00			
	Pay	0.07	0.03	0.26	2.55	0.01			

a Predictors: (Constant), Pay

b Predictors: (Constant), Pay, Nature of work

Table 6.18 indicates the variables of the models and the variance accounted for by each model. Two models are suggested by the regression analysis and both models are significant ($p \leq 0.001$). The first model explains 16% of the variance in the independent variable and the second model explains 21% of the variance. The second model, which

explains the most variance includes the nature of work and pay sub-scales of the JSS. The nature of work ($\beta = 0.32$; $p \leq 0.001$) and pay ($\beta = 0.26$; $p \leq 0.001$) variables positively predict total organisational commitment.

6.3.1.6 Interpretation of regression analyses between normative commitment and job satisfaction

The results shown in Table 6.18 suggest that participants' level of satisfaction with their pay and the nature of their work are significant in terms of predicting or explaining their feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation. Normative commitment is described as the mindset of obligation, where an individual develops a transactional and relational "psychological contract" based on principles of economic or social exchange, where it is difficult for employees to reciprocate back to their organisation (Döckel et al., 2006; McDonald & Makin, 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Research conducted by Döckel et al. (2006), found pay to have a direct effect on normative commitment. High performance based pay creates an economic obligation for an individual to remain with an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Döckel et al. (2006) also found that the nature of work, resulting from job characteristics, to have no direct effect on normative commitment. According to Spector (1985), job characteristics such as skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback influence an individual's normative component of organisational commitment.

The regression analysis results between normative commitment and job satisfaction are similar to those observed for the relationship between affective commitment and the JSS variables of pay and nature of work. However, the order of the two variables entered into the model differs slightly. Nature of work seems to contribute slightly more to explaining the proportion of variance in normative commitment. The stepwise regression analyses between the normative commitment and job satisfaction variables also yielded a weaker model than those between affective commitment and job satisfaction. From the regression analyses results, a participant's normative commitment can potentially be explained by their level of satisfaction with their nature of work and pay. This observation is also in line with the Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients reported in Table 6.18 where

nature of work had the strongest association with normative commitment ($r = 0.41$, $p < 0.001$).

It appears from the findings that participants may have a heightened sense of loyalty towards their employer, due to the opportunities presented in their job or projects. According to Klaus, LeRouge and Blanton (2003), through better job assignment or work design, employees may have greater commitment, leading to higher job performance. When considering that nature of work has the highest effect on normative commitment, in this study, the findings may be useful for guiding managers in making effective work assignment decisions and improving job designs, with the intention of increasing organisational commitment and improving employee retention.

An individual's sense of obligation towards their employing organisation is positively associated with work behaviours such as higher levels of job performance, work attendance and organisational citizenship (Döckel et al., 2006). In terms of this study, participants seem to experience feelings that motivate positive behaviour based on the nature of work and pay received by their organisations.

6.3.1.7 Reporting of regression analyses between total organisational commitment and career orientations

The results of the stepwise regression analyses between total organisation commitment and career anchors are reported in Table 6.19, where the dependent variable is total organisational commitment and the independent variable is the COI security/stability variable.

Table 6.19 below indicates the variables of the model and the variance accounted for in the model. The regression analysis yielded one possible model that only explains 4.7% of the variance in total organisational commitment. The F-value for this model is significant, with a p-value of 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$), indicating that career anchors do not explain a large proportion of the variance in terms of total organisational commitment.

TABLE 6. 19 - MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSES BETWEEN TOTAL ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND COI

Model	Variable	Unstandardised coefficient		Standardised coefficient	t	p	F	R ²	R
		B	Std. Error	Beta (β)					
1	(Constant)	3.85	0.26		14.96	0.00	4.113	0.35	0.22(a)
	Security/ Stability	0.12	0.06	0.22	2.03	0.05			

a Predictors: (Constant), Security/ stability

6.3.1.8 Interpretation of regression analyses between total organisational commitment and career orientations

The results shown in Table 6.19 suggest that participants who value steady employment feel more committed to their employing organisations. Individuals anchored by security/stability as their dominant *motives* and *needs*, focus on job security and long-term attachment to one organisation and are willing to conform to an organisation's values and norms (Feldman & Bolino, 1996). The security/stability anchored individuals are concerned about the context of the work more than the nature of the work itself (Schein, 1990a). This may confirm the linkage between job satisfaction and normative commitment, as well as with affective and total organisational commitment, in that nature of work has a positive association with organisational commitment. Individuals with the needs-based anchor of security/ stability generally have a preference towards being paid in steady and predictable increments based on tenure with the company (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). This supports the finding of this study, that pay has the strongest significant association with affective commitment.

Research conducted by Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) indicates that participants with a security/stability career orientation have a higher need for steady employment in their area of expertise and a lower need for career venturing and being exposed to new, different and challenging job opportunities. This may support the results of this study, which suggest that participants seeking security/stability have a higher level of continuance organisational

commitment. This finding is further confirmed by the Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients as indicated in Table 6.13. Traditional career management interventions create stronger organisational commitment amongst individuals dominated by the needs-based anchor of security/stability, because such interventions are characterised by creating a feeling of stability, security, loyalty and predicated career progression (Thite, 2001). It may be presumed, based on this study, that regardless of whether an individual's job does not completely match their desired career orientation, the individual's satisfaction with their pay, nature of work and co-workers does have a significant association with their organisational commitment, as it provides them with the basic extrinsic need of security and stability.

It is important to note that the results indicate that career orientations do not seem to contribute much in explaining an individual's commitment to an organisation. The results highlight that career anchors may help a person to choose an occupation and if an individual is aware of their career orientation preferences, it will lead them to feelings of subjective success. According to Coetzee and Bergh (2009), this is supported in that career preferences and career values become the guiding foundation for an individual's long-term career choices. However, once career choices are made, other variables such as pay and nature of work will have an influence on a person's decisions to stay or leave an organisation.

6.3.2 Reporting differences in mean scores for gender groups (COI, JSS and OCQ)

The research results of the t-tests and mean scores investigating the relationship between COI, JSS and OCQ and the demographic variable of gender are presented in Table 6.20 and Table 6.21.

**TABLE 6. 20 - INDEPENDENT T-TEST RESULTS FOR GENDER: COI, JSS and OCQ
(N=86)**

COI sub-scales	t	Significance (p-value)
Technical/ Functional competence	-2.05	0.04*
General managerial competence	-1.73	0.09
Autonomy/ Independence	-1.40	0.17
Security/ Stability	2.27	0.03*
Entrepreneurial Creativity	-1.89	0.06
Service/ Dedication to a Cause	2.19	0.03*
Pure challenge	-1.71	0.09
Lifestyle	1.55	0.12
JSS sub-scales	t	Significance (p-value)
Pay	-0.44	0.66
Promotion	-0.59	0.60
Supervision	0.49	0.63
Fringe benefits	-1.96	0.05*
Contingent rewards	-1.08	0.285
Operating procedures	-2.78	0.01**
Co-workers	-0.88	0.38
Nature of work	0.20	0.84
Communication	-0.61	0.55

Organisational commitment sub-scales	t	Significance (p-value)
Affective	-0.77	0.45
Continuance	2.40	0.02*
Normative	0.18	0.85
Total organisational commitment	0.96	0.34

**p≤0.01; *p ≤ 0.05

The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between gender and the COI variables technical/functional competence ($p \leq 0.05$), security/ stability ($p \leq 0.05$) and service/ dedication to a cause ($p \leq 0.05$).

Males and females differ significantly on the JSS operating procedure ($p \leq 0.01$). Table 6.21 shows that the female participants ($m=14.68$; $SD=3.79$) obtained a significantly lower score for operating procedures than males ($m=16.80$; $SD=3.27$).

In terms of organisational commitment, males and females differ significantly in terms of continuance commitment ($p \leq 0.05$). Table 6.21 shows that the female participants obtained significantly higher scores ($m=4.38$; $SD=0.90$) than the male participants on the continuance commitment sub-scale. Female participants further obtained significantly higher scores than males on the career anchor preferences of security/stability ($m=4.67$; $SD=1.43$) and service/dedication to a cause ($m=4.32$; $SD=1.24$). Males have a significantly higher preference towards technical/functional competence ($m=4.73$; $SD=1.09$).

Table 6.21 indicates that females ($m=4.28$; $SD=0.93$) scored significantly lower than males ($m=4.78$; $SD=1.09$) in terms of technical/functional competence. Females scored higher in terms of security/stability ($m=4.67$; $SD=1.43$) and service/dedication to a cause ($m=4.32$; $SD=1.24$). Females ($m=4.38$; $SD=0.90$) also seem to have significantly higher levels of continuance commitment than males ($m=3.89$; $SD=0.98$). This result is supported by the correlation findings observed in Table 6.17, where the Pearson-product moment correlation showed a positive correlation between continuance commitment and

security/stability ($r = 0.390$; $p < 0.001$). Males seem to have scored particularly low on service/dedication to a cause ($m=3.79$; $SD=0.98$).

TABLE 6. 21 - MEAN SCORES FOR SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES FOR GENDER ON JSS, COI AND OCQ (N=86)

Career Orientation Inventory sub-scales	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Technical/ Functional competence	Female	41	4.28	0.93
	Male	45	4.73	1.09
Security/ Stability	Female	41	4.67	1.43
	Male	45	4.01	1.27
Service/ Dedication to a Cause	Female	41	4.32	1.24
	Male	45	3.79	0.98
Job satisfaction Survey sub- scales	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Operating procedures	Female	41	14.68	3.79
	Male	45	16.80	3.27
Organisational commitment scales	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Continuance commitment	Female	41	4.38	0.90
	Male	45	3.89	0.98

6.3.3 Interpretation of significant differences in mean scores for gender groups

The results shown in Table 6.20 and 6.21 suggest that female participants have a stronger preference than males, towards occupations or organisations that provide them with security and an opportunity to meet their personal values. This finding could offer an explanation for female participants' apparent stronger desire to remain with an organisation because the cost of leaving the secure/stable environment may be greater than staying and would potentially mean giving up their chance to serve others. According

to Yarnall (1998), security/stability anchored individuals tend to take a passive role in their own career development and would need the organisation to drive their professional growth and in return improve productivity.

Findings from the research conducted by Spector (1997) indicate that women may expect less from work and are therefore potentially satisfied with less. Social changes in the modern world of work may be the result of females feeling that they need to remain with an organisation based on the costs that are associated with leaving the organisation. These costs may be driven by security/stability preferences to maintain a work-life balance, and the cost of giving up the opportunity to work in a stable and secure environment is greater than leaving their employing organisations.

The research suggests that males have a significantly higher preference for work that tests their skills and abilities and where they can become an expert in their area of speciality. Danziger and Valency (2006) also report findings that men scored technical/functional competence higher than females. The majority of male participants seem to have significantly higher level of satisfaction with organisational practices and procedures which are fair. According to Martins and Coetzee (2007), employee motivation is affected by how an employee's needs and objectives are integrated in a fair and unbiased manner into the needs and objectives of the organisation, work/life balance practices and physical work environment.

6.3.4 Reporting differences in mean scores for race groups (COI, JSS and OCQ)

The research results of the t-tests and mean scores investigating the relationship between COI, JSS and OCQ and the demographic variable of race are presented in Table 6.22 and Table 6.23. The race groups in the sample comprise white (69%), Indian (25%) and African (6%) participants. Since the African group is so small, only the white and Indian results are compared, since they formed the majority of the sample (94%), and the t-test was used for difference in independent means. By including African results with Indian results, the researcher would be making the assumption that Africans share the same career anchors, areas of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Based on the

culture and social differences that exist among racial groups in South Africa, it was decided not to combine African and Indian results in this study.

The results in Table 6.22 indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between race and the COI sub-scale of security/stability ($p \leq 0.01$). Table 6.23 shows that Indian participants ($m=4.90$; $SD=1.49$) obtained a significantly higher score than white participants ($m=4.07$; $SD=1.22$).

TABLE 6. 22 - INDEPENDENT T-TEST RESULTS FOR RACE: COI, JSS & OCQ (N =81)

COI sub-scales	t	Significance (p-value)
Technical/ Functional competence	-0.69	0.49
General managerial competence	-0.53	0.60
Autonomy/ Independence	-1.23	0.22
Security/ Stability	2.55	0.01**
Entrepreneurial Creativity	0.81	0.42
Service/ Dedication to a Cause	0.92	0.36
Pure challenge	0.05	0.96
Lifestyle	0.05	0.96
JSS sub-scales	t	Significance (p-value)
Pay	-3.98	0.000***
Promotion	-3.27	0.00**
Supervision	-1.94	0.06
Fringe benefits	-2.58	0.01**
Contingent rewards	-2.48	0.02*
Operating conditions	0.03	0.98
Co-workers	-2.23	0.03*
Nature of work	0.34	0.74
Communication	0.37	0.71

OCQ sub-scales	t	Significance (p-value)
Affective	-1.08	0.28
Continuance	1.04	0.30
Normative	-1.46	0.15
Total commitment	-0.60	0.55

*** $p \leq 0.000$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$

Table 6.22 indicates that in terms of job satisfaction, Indians and whites differ significantly in terms of pay ($p \leq 0.000$), promotion ($p \leq 0.01$), fringe benefits ($p \leq 0.01$), contingent rewards ($p \leq 0.05$) and co-workers ($p \leq 0.05$). Table 6.23 shows that there is a statistically significant difference between race and the JSS variables. Indian participants scored significantly lower on all the job satisfaction sub-scales. The white participants obtained significantly higher scores on the job satisfaction sub-scales of pay ($m=17.63$; $SD=3.31$), promotion ($m=14.66$; $SD=4.02$), fringe benefits ($m=15.69$; $SD=3.82$), contingent rewards ($m=16.76$; $SD=3.26$) and co-workers ($m=18.59$; $SD=3.25$).

Table 6.23 shows that in terms of organisational commitment there were no significant differences found between Indian and white participants (all p-values > 0.05).

TABLE 6. 23 – MEAN SCORES FOR SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES FOR RACE GROUPS ON COI AND JSS (N=81)

Career Orientation Inventory sub-scales	Race	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Security/ stability	Indian	22	4.90	1.49
	White	59	4.07	1.22
Job satisfaction sub-scales	Race	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pay	Indian	22	13.77	5.14
	White	59	17.63	3.31
Promotion	Indian	22	11.27	4.48
	White	59	14.66	4.02
Fringe benefits	Indian	22	13.14	4.36
	White	59	15.69	3.82
Contingent rewards	Indian	22	14.59	4.10
	White	59	16.76	3.26
Co-workers	Indian	22	16.77	3.31
	White	59	18.59	3.25

6.3.5 Interpretation of significant differences in mean scores for race groups

The results shown in Table 6.22 and 6.23 suggest that Indian participants have a stronger preference than white participants towards or organisations that provide them with a secure and stable working environment. The white participants appear to be significantly more satisfied with pay, promotion, fringe benefits, contingent rewards and co-worker relationships. The results suggest that Indians and whites do not differ significantly in terms of their commitment to their employing organisations.

According, to Martin and Roodt's (2008) literature review, some studies regarding Asian and African people reported lower overall job satisfaction than white people. The results of

this study support this finding, suggesting that the majority of white participants seem to be satisfied with more areas of job satisfaction than their Indian counterparts.

6.3.6 Reporting of significant differences in mean scores for position groups

The research results of the t-tests and mean scores investigating the relationship between COI, JSS and OCQ and the demographic variable of position (staff and supervisory) are presented in Table 6.24 and Table 6.25.

The results in Table 6.24 indicate that staff and supervisors differ significantly in terms of COI sub-scales of general managerial competence ($p \leq 0.05$), autonomy/independence ($p \leq 0.001$); and security/stability ($p \leq 0.01$). Table 6.25 shows that supervisors have a significantly higher preference towards general managerial competence ($m=3.37$; $SD=1.16$) and autonomy/independence ($m=4.32$; $SD=1.16$) than staff. Staff appear to have a significantly higher preference towards security/stability ($m=4.70$; $SD=1.43$).

Staff and supervisors differ significantly on the JSS sub-scales pay ($p \leq 0.01$) and promotion ($p \leq 0.05$). Table 6.25 shows that staff obtained a significantly higher score towards pay ($m=15.59$; $SD=4.77$) and promotion ($m=18.03$; $SD=2.92$) than supervisors.

TABLE 6. 24 - INDEPENDENT T-TEST RESULTS FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SUPERVISORS AND STAFF ON COI

COI sub-scales	t	Significance (p-value)
Technical/ Functional competence	0.80	0.427
General managerial competence	-2.20	0.03*
Autonomy/ Independence	-3.43	0.001***
Security/ Stability	3.20	0.00**
Entrepreneurial Creativity	1.50	0.14
Service/ Dedication to a Cause	1.57	0.12
Pure challenge	0.91	0.36
Lifestyle	-0.81	0.42
JSS sub-scales	t	Significance (p-value)
Pay	-2.70	0.01**
Promotion	-2.45	0.02*
Supervision	-0.31	0.75
Fringe benefits	-0.39	0.70
Contingent rewards	-0.90	0.37
Operating conditions	0.34	0.74
Co-workers	-0.08	0.94
Nature of work	-0.29	0.77
Communication	-0.25	0.80
OCQ sub-scales	t	Significance (p-value)
Affective	-3.65	0.00**
Continuance	0.86	0.39
Normative	-0.78	0.44
Total commitment	-1.55	0.12

***p≤0.000; **p≤0.01; *p ≤ 0.05

In terms of organisational commitment, Table 6.24 indicates that supervisors and staff differ significantly in terms of affective commitment ($p \leq 0.01$). Table 6.25 shows that supervisors obtained a significantly higher score ($m=5.14$; $SD=1.01$) than staff on the affective commitment sub-scale.

TABLE 6. 25 - DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POSITION GROUPS ON COI, JSS AND OCQ SCALES BASED ON SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES (N=86).

Career Orientation Inventory sub-scales	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
General managerial competence	Staff	51	2.85	0.98
	Supervisory	35	3.37	1.16
Autonomy/ Independence	Staff	51	3.51	1.00
	Supervisory	35	4.32	1.16
Security/Stability	Staff	51	4.70	1.43
	Supervisory	35	3.78	1.10
Job satisfaction Survey sub-scales	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pay	Staff	51	15.59	4.77
	Supervisory	35	12.90	4.54
Promotion	Staff	51	18.03	2.92
	Supervisory	35	15.17	3.68
Organisational commitment scales	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Affective commitment	Staff	51	4.30	1.07
	Supervisory	35	5.14	1.01

6.3.7 Interpretation of significant differences in mean scores for position groups

The results shown in Table 6.24 and 6.25 suggest that participants who occupy positions of staff and supervisor differ significantly regarding their career orientations. It appears that staff generally prefer stable and predictable work, but are concerned about the context of the work and the nature of the work itself. The fact that participants at a staff level indicate a preference towards pay and promotion is not surprising as these individuals like to be rewarded in terms of promotion based systems and paid in steady increments (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Supervisors indicate a preference towards general managerial competence. This is consistent with other research (Danziger & Valency, 2006), which indicates that supervisors generally want to remain with their respective organisations, potentially based on their need for general managerial competence and autonomy/independence being greater than staff.

6.3.8 Reporting significant differences in mean scores for age groups (COI, JSS and OCQ)

In the case of the age groups, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was carried out to investigate whether the four age groups (younger than 30 years; 30-34 years; 35-39 years; older than 40 years) significantly differed regarding their mean scores obtained on the COI, JSS and OCQ.

Table 6.26 shows that the age groups only differed in terms of the COI autonomy/independence career anchor ($p \leq 0.01$), the JSS variable communication ($p \leq 0.05$) and the OCQ variable affective commitment ($p \leq 0.05$). As shown in Table 6.27, the results of the post-hoc Duncan test revealed that the age group of 35-39 years obtained a significantly higher score than the other age groups on the autonomy/independence career anchor ($m=4.51;SD=1.16$), the JSS communication ($m=16.88;SD=3.95$) and OCQ affective commitment ($m=5.26;SD=0.85$) sub-scales.

**TABLE 6. 26 - SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN MEAN SCORES FOR AGE GROUPS:
COI, JSS, OCQ**

COI sub-scales	F	Significance (p-value)
Technical/ Functional competence	0.58	0.63
General managerial competence	1.08	0.36
Autonomy/ Independence	5.55	0.00**
Security/ Stability	0.08	0.97
Entrepreneurial Creativity	0.22	0.88
Service/ Dedication to a Cause	0.36	0.78
Pure challenge	1.03	0.38
Lifestyle	2.06	0.11
JSS sub-scales	F	Significance (p-value)
Pay	0.72	0.55
Promotion	0.71	0.55
Supervision	0.54	0.66
Fringe benefits	1.16	0.33
Contingent rewards	0.35	0.79
Operating conditions	0.63	0.60
Co-workers	2.32	0.08
Nature of work	2.37	0.08
Communication	3.18	0.03*

Organisational commitment sub-scale	F	Significance (p-value)
Affective	3.37	0.02*
Continuance	2.00	0.12
Normative	0.89	0.45

**p≤0.01; *p ≤ 0.05

TABLE 6. 27 - POST-HOC DUNCAN TEST FOR DIFFERENCES IN MEAN SCORES BETWEEN AGE GROUPS ON COI, JSS AND OCQ

COI sub-scales	Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Autonomy/Independence	Younger than 30	33	3.30	0.98
	30-34	17	4.01	0.90
	Older than 40	19	4.04	1.20
	35-39	17	4.51	1.16
COI sub-scales	Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Communication	30-34	17	13.65	3.74
	Older than 40	19	13.79	3.95
	Younger than 30	33	16.18	4.12
	35-39	17	16.88	3.95
COI sub-scales	Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Affective commitment	30-34	17	4.13	1.26
	Older than 40	19	4.47	1.36
	Younger than 30	33	4.69	0.87
	35-39	17	5.26	0.85

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

6.3.9 Interpretation of significant differences in mean scores for age groups

The significant differences observed between the age groups suggest that participants who are aged between 34-39 years (establishment stage) have a higher preference towards autonomy/ independence, meaning that these participants seem to desire full control over their work-life balance and do not wish to be ruled by company bureaucracy.

The results suggest that participants aged between 34-39 years are more satisfied with communication. According to Westlund and Hannon (2008), research found that the relationship between an employee's intentions to leave correlated closely to their levels of satisfaction with communication within their employing organisation. This would also mean that pay and nature of work are related to total organisational commitment and communication around these job satisfaction variables need to be clear and transparent.

The results suggest that participants aged between 34-39 years are more emotionally attached to, identify with and are involved in their employing organisation. A large proportion of participants aged 34-39 are employed at a supervisory level and found to have a significantly higher score than staff on affective commitment. Participants younger than 30 (explorative stage) also scored high on affective commitment, which suggests that participants younger than the age of 39 years have a strong intention to stay with their employing organisation. According to Döckel et al. (2006), older employees generally become more attitudinally committed to an organisation for a variety of reasons, including greater job satisfaction with their jobs, possible promotions, and having "cognitively justified" their continuance in an organisation.

The strong affective commitment in the age groups of 35–39 and younger than 30, could be because they are both entering establishing career stages. The latter is trying to form a personally meaningful career identity which is clear and stable, and the former is developing commitment and involvement (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007) and therefore wants to be affectively attached to an organisation.

6.4 SUMMARY AND INTEGRATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

The biographical profile of the sample showed that it was predominantly represented by males (52%), with the greatest portion of respondents being white (69%), employed at staff level (59%) and younger than the age of 30 (38%).

The first empirical objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment as manifested within a sample of respondents from the South African organisational work context. A summary of the integrated findings of this study are discussed and indicated in Figure 6.1 and 6.2 below. The second objective was to investigate whether gender, race, position, and age groups differ regarding their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. A summary of the integrated findings of this objective are discussed and indicated in Table 6.30.

6.4.1 Relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment

6.4.1.1 Career anchors and organisational commitment

Figure 6.1 depicts that career anchors are significantly and strongly associated with organisational commitment. The COI sub-scale of security/stability is positively correlated with continuance commitment. This suggests that participants who value security/stability are more likely to stay with an organisation because of the cost reasons should they decide to leave. No other significant relationship was detected between the COI and OCQ sub-scales.

In terms of the multiple regression analysis results, Figure 6.2 shows that participants who value secure and steady employment environments appear to prefer intent to stay with their employing organisations. Such participants seem to have a lower need for career venturing and exposure to new, different and challenging job opportunities and value the “job for life” concept. No significant relationships between job satisfaction and career anchor sub-scales were detected. However, participants anchored by

autonomy/independence appear to generally feel less satisfied with supervision and participants who prefer an environment which requires new and creative challenges seem to feel less satisfied with promotional opportunities. The positive association suggests that participants anchored by security/stability and pure challenge appear to generally feel more satisfied with nature, of work therefore requiring organisations to ensure job enrichment and job challenges exist in order to enhance work performance.

Due to the sample being predominantly that of professional workers in the Information Technology industry, participants showed a high propensity towards functional competence and lifestyle where skills and work-life balance are important factors to be considered. This could pose difficulties to organisations developing career management systems. According to Schein (1990b), most organisational career systems are built around the security/stability type and the general managerial type, and therefore attracting and retaining technically/functionally and lifestyle-anchored people may become challenging. Organisations and employees need to start focusing on developing employability skills in order to overcome this potential obstacle.

6.4.1.2 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Figure 6.1 indicates a significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Participants that indicated job satisfaction in pay, nature of work, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent reward, co-worker and communication are more inclined to stay or feel obliged to stay with their employing organisations. The results suggest that JSS operating procedures are not significantly associated with any organisational commitment scales.

In terms of the multiple regression analysis results, Figure 6.2 shows that participants who are most satisfied with pay and nature of work seem to have strong total organisational commitment and more specifically feel either emotionally attached (affective commitment) or obliged to stay (normative commitment) with their employer. The results also suggest that participant relationships with co-workers seem to have a significant association with feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation. According to Morrison (2004), co-worker relationships have an effect on an individual's commitment to an organisation.

6.4.1.3 Career anchors and job satisfaction

Figure 6.1 indicates the most significant relationship between job satisfaction and career anchor. This shows that the higher the preferences towards security/ stability, the more satisfied participants are with the nature of their work.

This is also true for the relationship between pure challenge and nature of work, where participants with a higher preference towards pure challenge appear to be more satisfied with their nature of work. The negative correlation between entrepreneurial/creativity and promotion suggests that participants with a higher preference towards entrepreneurial/creativity, seem to have lower satisfaction with promotion. Likewise, the higher a participant's preference is towards autonomy/independence, the lower their satisfaction with their supervisors.

In terms of the multiple regression analysis results, in Figure 6.2 no significant associations were detected between career anchors and job satisfaction.

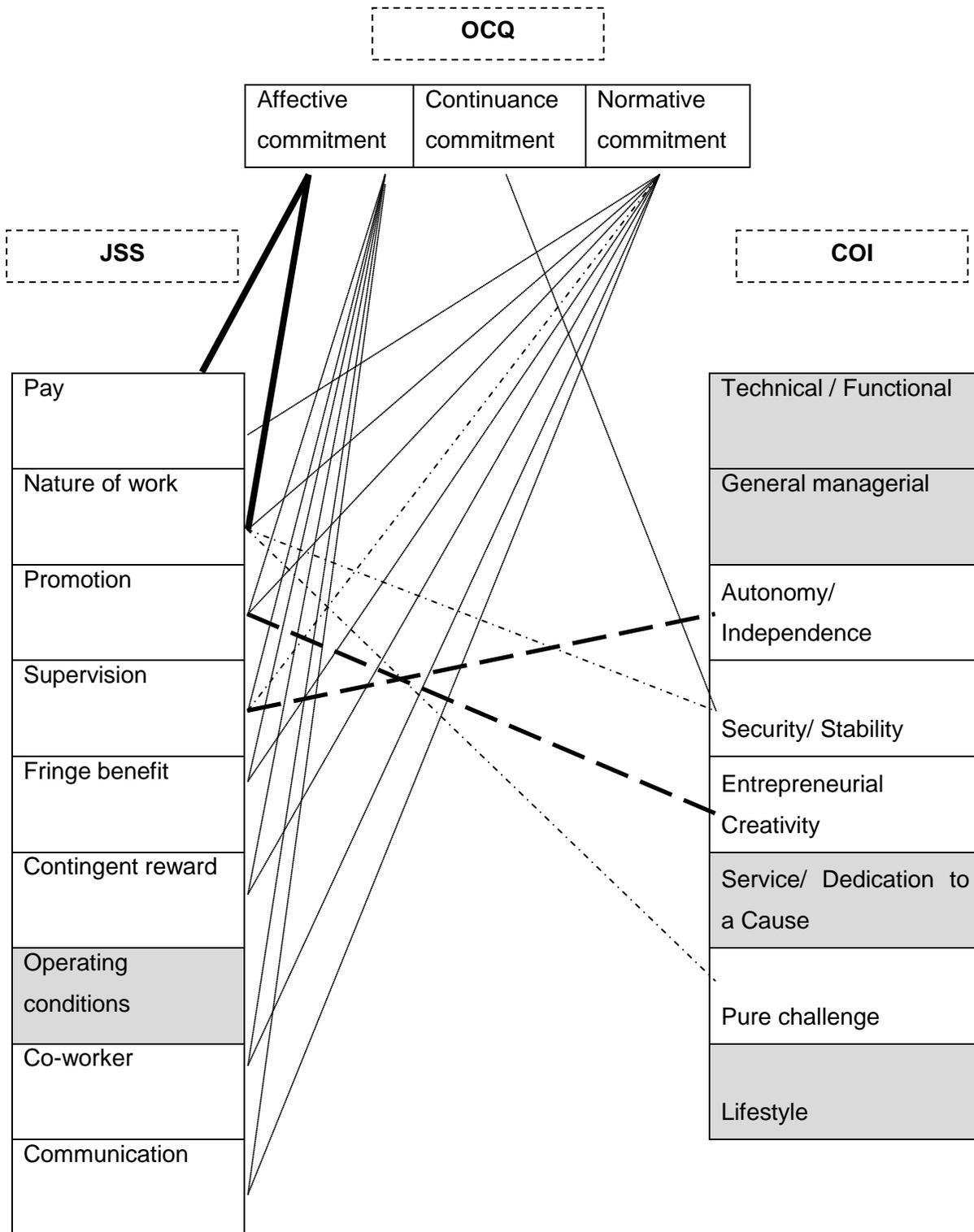


Figure 6. 1 - Key significant associations between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Large effect (————)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Positive correlation exists between job satisfaction variables (pay and nature of work) and affective commitment.
Medium effect (———)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Positive correlation exists between job satisfaction variables (promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent reward, co-workers and communication) and affective commitment. ➤ Positive correlation exists between job satisfaction variables (pay, promotion, fringe benefits, contingent reward, co-workers, nature of work and communication) and normative commitment.
Small effect (.....)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Positive correlation exists between job satisfaction variable (supervision) and normative commitment. ➤ Positive correlation exists between job satisfaction variable (nature of work) and career anchors (security/ stability and pure challenge).
Small effect (— —)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Negative correlation exists between job satisfaction variables (promotion and supervision) and career anchors (autonomy/ independence and entrepreneurial creativity).
Grey area	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ No correlations exist between variables of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

In terms of the multiple regression analyses Figure 6.2 shows a summary of the multiple regression analyses results.

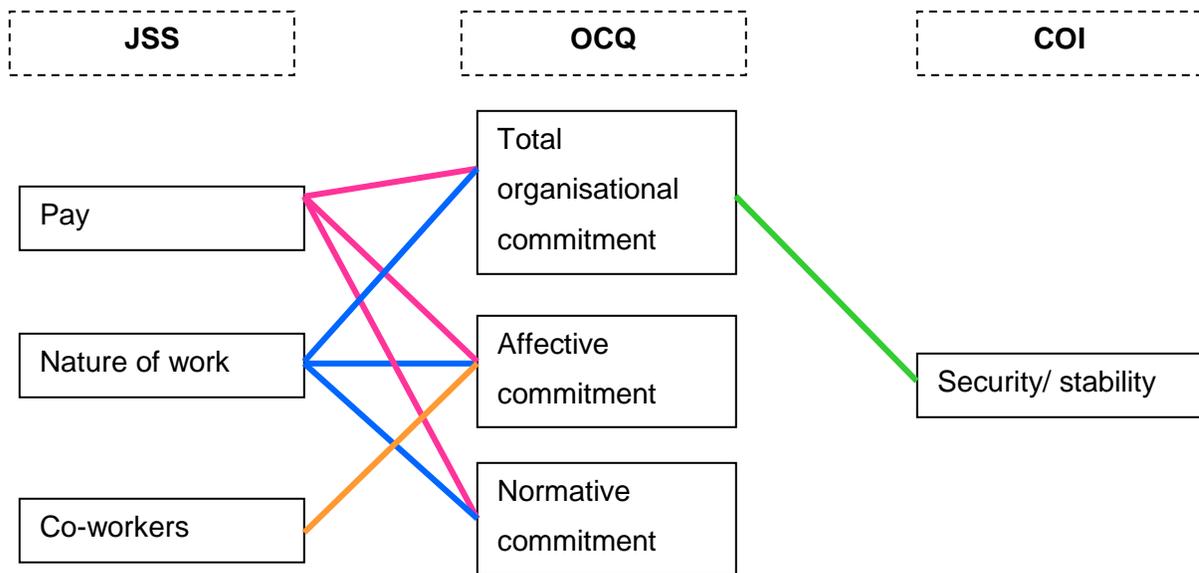


Figure 6. 2 - Summary of the multiple regression analyses between COI, JSS and OCQ.

6.4.2 Differences between biographical groups

The relationship between the different instruments (COI, JSS and OCQ) and the demographic variables (gender, race, position and age) suggest that participants do differ in their preferences, areas of satisfaction and type of organisational commitment. Table 6.28 indicates a summary of the key significant differences by sub-scale/ scales and biographical groups for COI, JSS and OCQ.

The results suggest that male participants have significantly stronger preferences towards technical/functional competence and appear to be most satisfied with operational conditions. The female participants showed a significantly stronger preference towards secure work environments which provide them with stable work and opportunities, where they can serve and help others in need. Female participants scored higher than males for continuance commitment. This suggests that they perceive it to be more costly to leave an organisation and rather than relinquishing a secure/ stable environment they would prefer to continue to help others and stay within an organisation. Research indicates that participants anchored in security/stability and technical/functional competence generally

relate better to traditional, organisationally managed, career processes and are perceived to be less active in their own career planning (Yarnall, 1998).

The results indicated statistical differences in race, where both Indian and white participants appeared to be most satisfied with their co-worker relationships and least satisfied with promotions. The results suggest that overall white participants seem to be more satisfied with their pay, promotions, fringe benefits, contingent rewards and co-workers. Indian participants appear to have a stronger preference towards environments providing them with security and stability needs.

Interestingly, both staff and supervisory positions showed a strong preference for need-based career anchors. The results suggest that the majority of participants in a staff level position seem to value security/stability and supervisors valued autonomy/independence. Overall, participants at staff level appear to be more satisfied with pay and promotion than those participants in supervisory positions. Participants in supervisory positions appear to be more emotionally attached to their organisation, with stronger identification and involvement. This may be as a result of the supervisors showing a strong preference for autonomy/independence, where they can make their own decisions in order to achieve organisational set goals and targets.

The results suggest that participants aged 35-39 years have a significantly stronger preference towards roles which would provide them with autonomy/independence, giving them the freedom to work on project tasks and make decisions without close supervision. These participants seem to be satisfied with communication which is clear and open. The results suggest participants aged 35-39 years may be more emotionally attached to their employing organisations and they want to stay employed with them. According to Spector (1985), age was found to be related to total job satisfaction and was most highly related to nature of work and pay.

In summary, the research mostly confirmed previous research findings. The research results provided interesting knowledge in that:

- Females showed a significantly stronger preference for the needs-based (security/stability) and values-based (service/dedication to a cause) career anchors, as opposed to males who showed a stronger preference for the talent-based anchor (technical/ functional competence). Female participants also seem more likely to remain with their organisations based on the cost of leaving.
- Furthermore, Indian females, employed at a staff level appear to have greater preference towards being employed in an environment which can offer them security and stability.
- The white participants showed significantly higher levels of job satisfaction with regard to the motivational factors of pay, promotion, fringe benefits, contingent rewards and their co-worker relationships.
- Participants in supervisory roles, predominantly in the establishment career life stage (age 35-39), showed a significantly stronger preference towards leading teams and being left to make decisions related to the achievement of organisational goals. However, effective communication about the organisation and job function seem to be critical for motivation to be achieved. These participants are also most likely to remain with the organisation because of their emotional attachment, involvement and identification with the organisation.

TABLE 6. 28 - SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BY SUB-SCALE/ SCALES AND BIOGRAPHICAL GROUPS FOR COI, JSS AND OCQ.

Measuring instrument	Sub-scale/ sub-scale/ scale	Demographic variable	Total mean score
COI	Technical/functional	Female	Low
		Male	High
	Security/stability	Female	High
		Male	Low
		Indian	High
		White	Low
		Staff	High
		Supervisor	Low
	Service/Dedication to a cause	Female	High
		Male	Low
	General managerial	Staff	Low
		Supervisor	High
	Autonomy/independence	Staff	Low
		Supervisor	High
		<30	Low
		30 -34	Low
35 -39		High	
>40		Low	

JSS	Operating Procedures	Female	Low
		Male	High
	Pay	Indian	Low
		White	High
		Staff	High
		Supervisor	Low
	Promotion	Indian	Low
		White	High
		Staff	High
		Supervisor	Low
	Fringe benefits	Indian	Low
		White	High
	Contingent rewards	Indian	Low
		White	High
	Co-worker	Indian	Low
		White	High
Communication	<30	Low	
	30 -34	Low	
	35 -39	High	
	>40	Low	
OCQ	Continuance commitment	Female	High
		Male	Low
	Affective commitment	Staff	Low
		Supervisor	High
		<30	Low
		30 -34	Low
		35 -39	High
>40	Low		

There were four hypotheses proposed for the purposes of this study. When testing the hypotheses, the significance level of $p \leq 0.05$ (5% level) was used as a criterion for accepting or rejecting the null hypotheses. If the probability is less than or equal to the chosen significance level, then the null hypotheses are rejected or alternatively the hypotheses is accepted.

In conclusion, Table 6.29 summarises the overview of decisions regarding the research hypotheses, based on the findings of the descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics. Based on the findings, the null hypothesis regarding the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment is partially rejected, and in terms of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, fully rejected. The null hypothesis regarding the differences between the demographic groups (gender, race, position and age) and the three variables (COI, JSS & OCQ) is rejected.

TABLE 6. 29 - OVERVIEW OF DECISIONS REGARDING THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES.

HYPOTHESES	DECISION
HO1: There are no significant relationships between the career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables.	Rejected
<p>H1: There are significant relationships between the career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables.</p> <p><i>a) Individuals' career anchors are only partially related to their job satisfaction and organisational commitment.</i></p> <p><i>b) Individuals job satisfaction is significantly related to their organisational commitment</i></p>	<p>Accepted</p> <p><i>Partially accepted</i></p> <p><i>Fully accepted</i></p>
HO2: There are no significant differences between the gender, race, position and age groups regarding their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.	Rejected
H2: There are significant differences between the gender, race, position and age groups regarding their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.	Accepted

6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The descriptive, correlation and inferential statistics that are of relevance to this research were reported and interpreted to enable the researcher to integrate the findings of the literature research with the empirical research findings. The hypotheses as formulated in chapter 5 were accepted or rejected according to the results of the empirical study.

Chapter 7 will address the final step of the empirical study, namely the formulation of conclusions, limitations and recommendations regarding the research project.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter covers the conclusions of the study, discusses its limitations and makes recommendations for career decision making and retention practices, including further research.

7.1 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions were drawn regarding the literature review and the empirical investigation.

7.1.1 Conclusions regarding the literature review

The general aim of this study was to explore the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and to determine whether individuals from different gender, race, job positions and age groups differ significantly regarding these three variables. The general aim was achieved by addressing and achieving the specific aims of the research.

Conclusions were drawn about each of the specific objectives regarding the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

7.1.1.1 The first objective: Conceptualising career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and explaining their relationship theoretically

The first objective, namely to conceptualise career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and explain their relationship theoretically, was achieved in chapter 2 (career anchors), chapter 3 (job satisfaction) and chapter 4 (organisational commitment).

Regarding the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the following conclusions were made:

Career anchors are conceptualised as the self-awareness in which individuals gain an understanding of their own talents, motives, and abilities and how they help to make effective career decisions. Career anchors may be viewed as a function of organising individuals' experiences, identifying individuals' long-term contributions, and establishing criteria for success, by which individuals can measure themselves. Enhanced self-awareness is useful when matching persons and organisations to each other. Job satisfaction is conceptualised as an attitude that individuals have towards their overall jobs and the various facets of their jobs. It is a result of an individual's perception towards their job, which is influenced by the importance of their own unique needs, values and expectations. Various definitions of organisational commitment were presented. For the purposes of this study, organisational commitment was conceptualised according to Meyer and Allen's (1997) definition, in that it is a psychological state that characterises the employee's relationship with the organisation and has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organisation.

The 21st century is perpetually in a state of change and it is imperative that initiatives be implemented in organisations and individuals in order to manage employee commitment and the context of a competitive environment (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007; Schein, 1996). By gaining knowledge and insight into how an individual's career anchors and job satisfaction preferences interact with organisational commitment, change initiatives can be devised and may potentially be instrumental in managing the effects on productivity, retention and employee well-being and job satisfaction. Effective career choices and decisions can be made through individuals having increased self-awareness.

The psychological contract between the individual and organisation can be strengthened, based on the relationship that exists between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Research indicates that individuals' career motives and values have an impact on their career decision-making and their psychological attachment to an occupation or organisation (Feldman & Bolino 2000; Kniveton 2004; Schein 1996). Organisational commitment is viewed as an outcome of the career choices that are determined by an individual's career anchors. Both career anchors and job satisfaction

were found to be instrumental in affecting an employee's commitment towards the organisation.

Based on the literature study, it was found that a theoretical relationship existed between different biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, position and working experience) and career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The most consistent theoretical relationship exists between career anchors and age, gender, race, marital status and position. A positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and age and tenure.

Literature findings were inconsistent when determining the relationship that exists between the biographical variables of gender, race, marital status and position with job satisfaction. There appeared to be a lack of literature research when determining the relationship that exists between job satisfaction and age and years of experience. A theoretical relationship exists between organisational commitment and marital status and tenure. However, the theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and age, gender, race and position were found to be inconsistent.

7.1.1.2 The second objective: Conceptualising the implications of the theoretical relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables for career decision making and retention practices.

The second objective, namely to conceptualise the implications of the theoretical relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables for career decision making and retention practices was achieved in chapters 2,3 and 4.

The literature review elaborated on how career decision making and retention strategies were influenced by the relationship that existed between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The following conclusions were made:

- To retain valuable employees managers should focus on providing incentives and career paths that are consistent with their career values, expectations and aspirations that underlie the organisational commitment of these employees (Coetzee et al, 2007; Spector, 1997).
- The understanding of the relationship that existed between an individual's career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment can be useful in organisational interventions such as selection, placement, development and reward structuring.
- Individuals who identify with their job environment experiences less anxiety, stress, job dissatisfaction and intent to leave their employing organisation, therefore allowing for successful career behaviour adaptability to take place (Griffin & Hesketh, 2003).
- To enhance individuals' experiences of psychological career success and career decision making abilities that influence commitment and job satisfaction, both organisational and individual perspectives should be taken into account when developing and delivering a 21st century talent management strategy.

7.1.2 Conclusions regarding the empirical study

The study was designed to perform three major tasks, namely:

- (1) To investigate the relationship dynamics between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment as manifested in a sample of participants employed in the South African work context.
- (2) To determine whether gender, race, position, and age groups differ regarding their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment as manifested in the sample.
- (3) To formulate recommendations for the discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, particularly with regard to career decision making and retention practices and further research.

Based on the findings, hypothesis H01 was rejected in terms of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and partially rejected regarding the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. H02 was rejected. Findings for each of the research objectives and the hypotheses that deserve discussion will be presented as empirical study conclusions:

7.1.2.1 The first objective: Investigate the relationship dynamics between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment as manifested in a sample of participants employed in the South African work context.

The following two conclusions were reached in this regard:

a) Conclusion 1: Individuals' career anchors were only partially related to their job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

- Participants' indicated a higher preference towards security and stability and appear to feel that the cost of leaving the organisation is greater than staying (continuance commitment). It seems that these participants' were committed to their organisations based on their desire and motive of working in a secure and stable environment are being met.
- Participants most satisfied with their nature of work appeared to have a strong preference towards working environments which provide them secure work and stable employment opportunities (security/stability) and work which is sufficiently meaningful and enjoyable (nature of work).
- By knowing the characteristics of the career anchor preferences (independent variable) and facets affecting job satisfaction (independent variable) informed assumptions might be made as to which organisational commitment (dependent variable) are most likely to be displayed. Such as those participants that displayed a strong preference toward security/stability (needs-based anchor), appear to be most satisfied with the type of work they do (nature of work) and therefore the perceived costs of leaving the organisation are greater (continuance commitment).

b) Conclusion 2: Individuals' job satisfaction was significantly related to their organisational commitment.

- Participants most satisfied with pay and nature of work appeared to have strong total organisational commitment and more specifically appeared to feel either emotionally attached (affective commitment) or obliged to stay (normative commitment) with their employer.
- Participant relationships with co-workers seemed to have an effect on their feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation.
- Understanding the characteristics of the job satisfaction preferences (independent variable), informed assumptions can be made as to what type organisational commitment (dependent variable) are most likely to be displayed.

7.1.2.2 The second objective: Determine whether gender, race, position, and age groups differ regarding their career anchor, job satisfaction and organisational commitment as manifested in the sample.

The following conclusion was reached in this regard:

Participants from various gender, race, position and age groups tend to differ significantly in terms of their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The results indicated significant differences such as:

- Males showed a stronger preference towards the talent based anchor (technical/functional competence), whilst females showed a stronger preference towards need-based and value-based anchors (security/ stability and dedication to a cause).
- Female participants indicated a significantly higher level of continuance commitment than male participants. Female participants showed a stronger preference towards working in a stable/secure work environments and being able to have careers that offer service or assistance to others than male participants.

The results suggest that female participants would find it hard to give up their security/stability and opportunity to work in a career which helps others, than leave their organisation.

- Compared to Indians, white participants indicated higher levels of satisfaction with their pay, promotions, fringe benefits, contingent rewards and co-workers.
- Indian participants indicated a stronger preference towards needs-based anchor security and stability.
- The results suggested staff valued secure and stable work environments and appear to be most satisfied with their pay and promotional opportunities.
- Supervisors appeared to value autonomy/ independence and general management, where they are left to make decisions based on organisational goals and have the opportunity to lead teams.
- Individuals employed at staff level appeared to be more satisfied with pay and promotion than supervisory levels.
- Indian female participants at staff level obtained a significantly higher preference towards jobs that offer a secure and stable environment.
- Participants aged 35-39 years showed a preference towards roles which provide them with autonomy/ independence, high levels of satisfaction with organisational and job related communication and appeared to be affectively committed to their respective organisations.

7.1.3 Conclusions regarding the central hypothesis

The central hypothesis of this study was formulated to conclude that a relationship exists between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Furthermore, that people from different gender, race, position and age groups differ significantly in terms of their career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The empirical study provided statistically significant evidence to support the central hypothesis regarding the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and as such it is therefore accepted.

7.1.4 Conclusions about contributions to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology

The findings of the literature survey and the empirical results contributed to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, and in particular to career decision making and retention practices. The literature review shed new light on how individuals' career anchors are related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and how job satisfaction is related to organisational commitment. In particular, the literature review provided insight into the different concepts and theoretical models that lead to the development of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The empirical findings contributed new knowledge on the relationship dynamics between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The new insights derived from the findings may help to add a broader perspective on how individuals' career anchors and job satisfaction drive or explain their organisational commitment. Furthermore, the findings may be used to help participants develop greater self-awareness, which may, in turn improve career decision making. Based on the findings, organisations gain a deeper understanding of the preferences and attitudes that individuals have towards remaining in an organisation, and in return can tailor their employee retention strategies accordingly.

The conclusions of the research tend to indicate that managers and industrial psychologists should be aware of the different concepts and theoretical models that influence the variables of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment when working in the field of career psychology, and should take cognisance of the strengths and weaknesses of the three measuring instruments used in this study.

Managers and industrial psychologists should be mindful of the psychometric properties of the different measuring instruments (COI, JSS and OCQ) prior to utilisation in organisational initiatives. The instruments used must be supported by sufficient reliability and validity data to support its use particularly in the South African context. Integrity in selecting, administering and interpreting instruments and providing individual feedback is

fundamental to ensuring career decision making and retention strategies are fair and unbiased.

The primary focus of a manager and industrial psychologist filling the role of career counsellor is to assist individuals seeking career advice, by removing as much uncertainty, within them as possible about their career choice and environment. This enables the individual to be able to apply a career decision making strategy that meets their different career and life stage developmental needs and prevent as much career indecisiveness as possible.

Finally, organisations can increase job satisfaction and organisational commitment by conducting job analysis and job evaluation initiatives. The conducting of job analysis for each role within the organisation can help identify the nature of work for each role by identifying the core activities and functions. Career anchors can also be used to match individuals to job roles that would meet the characteristics of nature of work, based on the job analysis information. A fair and unbiased job evaluation method can assist organisations with determining competitive and fair pay with standardised pay policies. Organisations need to focus on creating a secure and stable work environment which will address the motives and desires indicated by individuals showing a strong preference towards a needs-based career anchor, and security/stability. The psychological contract which exists between employer and employee, would need to focus on the extrinsic motivators of providing job security and fair pay, in order for job satisfaction and organisational commitment to be retained.

7.2 LIMITATIONS

The limitations for the literature study and empirical investigation are outlined below.

7.2.1 Limitations of literature review

With regards to the literature review, the following limitations were encountered:

The exploratory research with respect to career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment within the South African context was limited based on the following:

- Only three variables (career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment) were used in the study and therefore it cannot give a holistic indication of factors or variables that may potentially impact career decision making and retention strategies.
- Limited paradigms within the study (humanistic-existential and functionalistic) which focused on the sub-fields of the discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

7.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study

The findings of this study may be limited in terms of generalising the findings to other populations and designing practical recommendations due to a number of factors which include both the size and characteristics of the sample, as well as the psychometric properties of the COI, JSS and OCQ. The following limitations of the empirical research should be taken into account:

- The main limitation of the study was the relatively small sample size that was used.
- A larger sample, particularly with the inclusion of populations with higher balanced proportions of demographics, as the vast majority of respondents in this study were Indian and white. Although this was representative of the demographics of the sample, it has an impact on the generalisation of results to the broader, multi-cultural South African population.

- A sample of 86 does not appear to be large enough to conclusively establish whether there is definitely a true relationship between the variables of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.
- A non-probability sample was used, which reduced the sample size, and also further minimised the generalisation of findings.
- The COI (Schein, 1990a), JSS (Spector, 1997) and OCQ (Allen & Meyer, 1997) were dependent on the respondent's self-awareness and personal perceptions which could have potentially affected the validity of the results.
- The JSS (Spector, 1997) has limited reliability and validity data available in the South African context which also limited the possibility of comparing the findings with other populations.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, conclusions and limitations of this study, recommendations for Industrial and Organisational Psychology and further research in the field are outlined below:

7.3.1 Recommendations regarding career decision making and retention

The main aim was to identify the implications of the theoretical relationship between the career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables for career decision making and retention practices. Based on the research findings and relationships found, the following organisational interventions in terms of career decision making and retention strategies can be recommended:

- Organisations that are endeavouring to retain valuable employees should attempt to provide incentives and career paths that are consistent with underlying the employees' dominant career anchors.
- Organisations should ensure pay structures are not only competitive, but fair pay policies and procedures are consistent with both internal and external roles of similarity.

- Organisations should ensure that the nature of work offered to employees is challenging and provides employees with the level of skills and experience aligned with their own personal and professional growth needs.
- Organisations could develop a career development counseling framework that can be used to aid employees with developing their career decision making competencies. This would help them develop self-awareness by identifying the relationship that exists between their own career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment variables
- Organisations could use the Career Orientation Inventory (COI) in career counseling to assist individuals with identifying talents, needs and values that crystallise the self-concepts that affect their career choices during individual career life stages.
- In order to create a working environment which encourages people to stay with their respective organisations, managers need to provide fair pay by reviewing existing pay practices, provide challenging and meaningful work tasks and foster positive co-worker relationships through social interactions and group dynamics.
- Organisations should consider reviewing their leadership succession plans by identifying talent within the age group 35-39 years at a supervisory level. These participants are in the establishment stage of their careers and want to remain with their organisations.
- Organisations should consider providing women with the work-life balance opportunities and benefits that meet their security and stability needs, whilst remaining productive towards meeting the organisation's goals.
- Organisations should consider reviewing their communication policies and practices to ensure that effective, open and transparent communication with employees (aged 35–39). Organisations could channel communication towards setting clearly defined goals, allowing the employees to feel empowered to achieve work within their area of expertise without close supervision, whilst ensuring reward is based on fair pay, performance bonuses and promotional opportunities.

7.3.2 Recommendations for industrial psychologists working in the field of careers and retention

The empirical study confirmed that individuals' career anchors are only partially related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment, whilst an individual's job satisfaction is significantly related to their organisational commitment. The literature review of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment can potentially provide a useful framework for career decision making and retention factors that influence both individuals and organisations.

The role of both manager and industrial psychologist is that of a career counselor. To successfully fill this role as a career counselor, one should gain a holistic image of an individual's self-concept and understand that which motivates them in the workplace. This enables the career counselor to guide a person into making a successful career choice in order to strengthen the psychological contract and further commit to their employer.

The findings suggest that people in an IT environment appear to prefer predominantly secure and stable working environments that provide them with the intrinsic and extrinsic needs of pay fairness, meaningful work tasks and positive co-worker relationships. According to Kniveton (2003), females with a stronger preference towards security/stability put more emphasis on factors such as working conditions, childcare facilities, career certainty and working hours.

Job satisfaction highlights a person's organisational commitment to a greater degree than their career anchors. Career anchors form a part of developing an individual's self-concept which influences their career choices. Whilst job satisfaction factors such as pay, nature of work and potentially co-workers have a greater influence on a person's organisational commitment. This is possibly because organisational commitment and job satisfaction are both related to the way in which individuals feel about their work and organisation.

7.3.3 Recommendations for further research

These recommendations are intended for populations working with individuals in organisational settings, such as industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners. Based on the conclusions and limitations, recommendations for further research in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology are outlined below.

To enhance external validity, future research efforts should focus on obtaining a larger and more representative sample. This study was limited by the choice of the sample. The sample could be expanded to represent a broader representation of demographic variables, indicating a balanced spread of representation of different career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

There is a need for more research on career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, specifically within the context of South Africa. Further studies would be helpful for career counselling purposes, as it would assist career counsellors with providing guidance to individuals when making career choices, based on being able to translate their career self-concept and motivators into occupations that would meet their personal needs (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007).

This study only provides limited insight into various facets of job satisfaction that are significantly associated with organisational commitment. Further research into the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment should be conducted by Industrial and Organisational psychologists, researchers and business leaders in order to aid with the development of meaningful employee retention strategies within organisations.

Different career and life stages have had an effect on the relationship that exists between an individual's career anchor, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It is recommended that future longitudinal studies take place to test the consistency of the relationship that exists between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment during an individual's career and life span (early, middle and late adulthood). Such findings may assist individuals with crystallising their self-concept and aid with

improved career decision making. Consistent findings, over a period of time, may assist industrial psychologists in interpreting information, and create a practical and reliable framework that would help individuals with career decision making, and organisations with retention strategies.

7.4 INTEGRATION OF RESEARCH

This dissertation focused on the exploration of the relationship that exists between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It can be acknowledged that these variables play a critical role in building career decision making competencies of individuals and the retention strategies of organisations in the 21st century working environment.

The literature review indicated that the variables of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment do relate. The contemporary world of work has shown that individuals need to develop their self-awareness. By understanding career competencies, an individual can develop career maturity which leads to effective career decision making and career success.

By cultivating an understanding of what preferences lead individuals to high levels of job satisfaction, this also allows individuals to understand what motivates them in the workplace. The exploration of personal career anchors and job satisfaction preferences over time ensures that individuals and organisations have a psychological contract which is meaningful and productive. It is important for organisations to understand that individuals have unique preferences that drive them towards feeling engaged with their employing company. Such insight is beneficial to organisations because it can add value to their talent management processes, by improving employee retention and minimising employee turnover, which in turn increases productivity.

The empirical study explored the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The empirical study provided statistically significant evidence that supports the central hypothesis that a relationship does exist between career anchors,

job satisfaction and organisational commitment, as well as the fact that these groups (gender, race, position and age) differ significantly.

In conclusion, it is trusted that the findings of this study provided insight into the relationship that exists between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and that industrial psychologists and managers might be able to effectively utilise the insights towards enhancing career decision making and retention strategies within the workplace. Recommendations have been made for further research, and this study should be seen as a step towards making a positive contribution to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in the South African context.

7.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the conclusions with regard to the study, in terms of both theoretical and empirical objectives. Possible limitations of the study were discussed with reference to both the theoretical and the empirical study of the research. The recommendations for future research to explore the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment were discussed. Finally, an integration of the research was presented, emphasizing the extent to which the study's results provided support for the relationship which exists between the variables of career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

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