

**PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS INFLUENCING PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING OF
SOUTH AFRICAN STATE SECURITY FORCES: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY**

BY

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

A study of the available literature on psychological wellbeing of South African state security forces revealed that a considerable gap exists for further research. The work environment of soldiers and police officers exposes them to conditions, which are known to generate negative job attitudes and various occupational stressors, which can influence their psychological wellbeing. Thus it is assumed that those psychosocial factors could negatively or positive influence psychological wellbeing. There is also a possibility that positive resources, such as hope, resilience, self-efficacy and optimism, could increase the capacity of members to manage the degree to which psychosocial factors influence psychological wellbeing. On this basis, it became clear that the relationship between psychosocial factors and psychological wellbeing, with psychological capital as a moderator could be researched.

Utilising the South African National Defence Force and the South African Police Service, the present study aimed to explore the relationship between the psychosocial factors (job satisfaction, job involvement, organisational commitment, general stress, role ambiguity, relationships, workload, autonomy, work–home interface, career advancement, job security, tools and equipment) and psychological wellbeing. Quantitative research was used to obtain more clarity about the identified psychosocial factors and psychological wellbeing. The research sample consisted of a combined sample of 178 soldiers and police officers.

Existing and reliable instruments measuring job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, occupational stressors, psychological capital and psychological wellbeing were completed by the participants. Correlation analysis was undertaken to determine the relationships between the different latent variables and psychological wellbeing. Partial least square analysis was undertaken to test the proposed model.

The results revealed significant positive relationships between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and psychological wellbeing. Significant negative relationships were found between the various latent variables of occupational stress, however negligible results were found between career advancement, tools and equipment and psychological wellbeing. Partial least square analysis results indicated that psychological capital moderated the relationship between occupational stress and psychological wellbeing.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late mother and father who did not live long enough to witness this victory: Thembi Michelle Kubheka and Funda Simon Mlangeni.

May their souls rest in peace

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND AND ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

“A hero is someone who has given his or her life to something bigger than oneself”

Joseph Campbell

The Department of Defence (DOD) Annual Report (2014/2015) and the South African Police (SAPS) Service Annual Report (2014/2015) have indicated the importance of greater accountability in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) and South African Police Service (SAPS). Soldiers and police officers are guided by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), which demands a strong security cluster to defend and protect South Africa and its interests at any given time. The DOD Annual Report (2014/2015) mentions the critical role played by the SANDF in terms of securing peace and stability in South Africa and Africa as a whole. In 2014/2015, 13 SANDF subunits were deployed for border safeguarding duties in South Africa. Furthermore, members were deployed in the Democratic Republic of Congo and Darfur Region of Sudan under United Nations and African Union-mandated missions. The SAPS Annual Report (2014/2015) highlights the premise that policing in South Africa needs to take a different trajectory. In 2015, the Department of Police played a key role in supporting the Southern African Development Community (SADC) by deploying 170 members on the SADC Troika intervention deployment in the Kingdom of Lesotho.

The commitment between the SANDF and SAPS to have all people in South Africa feel safe is evident in the number of joint operations within which both organisations partake. The SANDF and SAPS have worked and are still working together in a variety of joint operations, such as operation Intexo, Stipper, Corona, Pyramid, Rhino IV and Fiela just to name a few (<http://www.dod.mil.za/operations>).

It is evident in the annual reports that the SAPS and the SANDF share similar objectives, such as creating a better South Africa, a better Africa and a better world; nation building and social cohesion; and fighting corruption and crime. Moreover, the SANDF and SAPS are striving to ensure professionalism in the service that they deliver. The demand of deployment of SANDF and SAPS members continues to rise despite the diminishing resources in both organisations. The South African Defence Review (2014) highlighted the mismatch between resources that are allocated to the SANDF and the commitments that the organisation has in South Africa and the African continent as a whole.

The SANDF continuously faces a climate of declining resources (such as budget, training capabilities, medical supplies to name a few), which is coupled with increasing work demands (<https://www.pmg.org.za>). Similarly, the SAPS is faced with increasing work demands as South Africa is characterised by increasing crime rates, political instability, communal riots and protests. These activities require increased participation and equipment from the SAPS. All of these activities demand a psychological and physically healthy soldier and police officer (Louw & Viviers, 2010). With this in mind, the question is whether the SANDF and the SAPS will ever reach the desired objectives. Moreover, which effect do the presented challenges have on soldiers and police officers on the ground who are tasked with the execution of the organisational tasks?

The better world that the SANDF and SAPS envisage to create is characterised by various environmental changes, such as economic developments, legislation, policies, and technological innovation (Defenceweb, 2016). Furthermore, society is rapidly changing. This rapid change has an influence on organisations, which in turn has an influence on employees. Organisations, such as the SANDF and the SAPS, are not immune to these societal changes as they are most likely to affect soldiers and police officers. With this in mind, it is open to question whether soldiers and/or police officers who are tasked with the duty of executing operational duties can be affected by these organisational and societal changes.

The societal changes have led to a greater demand on the SANDF and the SAPS to be employed in a complex environment that is characterised by unpredictability. The increasing complexity of the operating environment and the unpredictable security situations place pressure on both organisations to increase their work performance at the various levels of command.

Central to the success of both organisations is the role played by the soldier or police officer in the achievement of the objectives that have been set by the organisation. Soldiers and police officers, in the process of interacting over a defined period, become increasingly comparable with respect to motivation about their jobs. In other words, when people interact, the result is usually an increased similarity among the interacting individuals. As South Africa police officers and soldiers interact in various joint operations over defined periods of time, it can be expected that they have similar job attitudes and experience similar operational and organisational stressors, which can be expected to have an influence on their psychological wellbeing.

Foxcroft and Roodt (2013) hold the view that literature shows no consensus on the fact that psychological wellbeing is a multidimensional construct with numerous domains. Within the different schools of thought, wellbeing is most at home with positive psychology. The emphasis of positive psychology is on helping people not merely to exist but to flourish. Furthermore, positive psychology does not deny challenging life circumstances (Snyder & Lopez, 2007). On these grounds, it can be proposed that organisations, such as the SANDF and SAPS, should apply the positive psychology phenomenon to operational soldiers and police officers.

Positive psychology acknowledges that people have the ability to cope with difficulties in ways that astound them. Foxcroft and Roodt (2013) mention that, in literature, scholars provide different approaches of wellbeing i.e. hedonistic (subjective wellbeing) or eudaimonic (psychological wellbeing). A hedonistic approach focuses on subjective experiences, such as happiness, whereas an eudaimonic approach is concerned with maximising one's full potential (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

The sustainability of the SANDF and SAPS is largely determined by the quality of soldiers and police officers in the organisations. For this reason, it is imperative that both organisations understand the importance of psychological wellbeing and the factors that could influence the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers. By understanding these factors, the SAPS and the SANDF will be better equipped to implement practices that favour the psychological wellbeing of its employees. It would make sense for the SANDF and the SAPS to prioritise the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers as this would contribute to more energy and goal achievement for both organisations. The management of psychological wellbeing should be geared towards actively promoting optimum psychological wellbeing.

1.2 INTRODUCTION

Soldiers and police officers are routinely exposed to unique and potentially unpleasant work circumstances (Karunanidhi & Chitra, 2015; Mikkelsen & Burke, 2004). While serving on operations, they are faced with prolonged exposure to stressful situations, which can be extremely detrimental to their wellbeing. According to Johnson (2012) and Pienaar, Rothmann and Van de Vijver (2007), the intense work circumstances of police officers and soldiers tend to be negative in the sense that they often see violence, cruelty and indifferences to the welfare of others in society. Bue, Taverniers, Mylle and Euwema (2013) acknowledge that combat and operational stressors could have an overwhelming effect on the physical health, mental health and the job performance of soldiers. Stressors in the police force include lack of supervisory and management skills, court verdicts that are seen as inappropriate by police officers, emotional detachment from families and lacking opportunities for career development and working conditions (Lanterman, Boyle, Pascarella & Furrer, 2010; Pienaar et al., 2007).

How a soldier or police officer appraises the negative or unpleasant work circumstances can have an impact on their level of psychological wellbeing. Adegoke (2014) mentions that mild stress is appropriate for motivating individuals; when stress becomes severe, however, it can be damaging. It is imperative to note that there is no single level of stress for all people, as what causes distress to one person may bring joy to the other person (Bliese & Jex, 1999; Khan, Ramzan & Butt, 2013).

According to Tucker, Sinclair and Thomas (2005), when a person in the work setting experiences stress (negative or positive), it influences his or her psychological wellbeing and also becomes part of that person's work context. The experiences that soldiers and police officers share in their work context could have a significant influence on their attitudes regarding the workplace and the job itself. Dick and Metcalfe (2001) mention that there is variability among people in the same work environment, which the authors attribute to an affective disposition, which has an influence on how people view their world, job and organisation. The manner in which soldiers and police officers view their jobs can be expected to have an influence on their job attitudes. Job attitude is "a psychological tendency that an individual expresses by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1).

How an individual views his or her profession is a good determinant of that person's job attitude and psychological wellbeing (Adegoke, 2014). Kaplan and Bickes (2013) mention that individuals have different affective and attitudinal tendencies; therefore it can be expected that their perceptions of organisational conditions and behaviours differ. Knoop (1995) mentions that an employee's response to the job, organisation, people and situations in a positive or negative manner reflects his or her attitude. The amount of satisfaction that an employee acquires from performing his or her duties, the emotional attachment that employees have towards their organisations and the level of engagement in their duty determine the attitude employees have towards their job.

It can be expected that soldiers and police officers have a variety of circumstances that contribute to their job attitude. The composition of the job attitudes of soldiers and police officers could include the pay they receive, their relationships with their subordinates and co-workers, commitment to the organisation, their level of engagement and the benefits that they receive from their organisations. The attitude that they have towards the organisation could indicate their commitment level to the organisation and their level of job involvement.

The attitudes that employees have towards their organisation or job indicate the way in which they think and feel about their job (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). The way soldiers and police officers think and feel could have an effect on their psychological wellbeing. A study by Karunanidhi and Chitra (2015) to ascertain whether job attitudes are related to psychological wellbeing yielded results that indicate positive relationships between job attitudes and psychological wellbeing.

The challenges posed by the work circumstances of soldiers and police officers and the attitudes that they have about their work environment require them to tap into their psychological resources in order to withstand the effect of their work circumstances on their psychological wellbeing. Baron, Franklin and Hmieleski (2013) put forward the view that psychological capital (hereafter PsyCap) seems to provide individuals with the mental ability to cope effectively with job-related demands. Peterson, Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa and Zhang (2011) propound the view that PsyCap provides individuals with self-confidence to embark on challenging tasks, persevere during performance, redirect efforts if and when necessary, make positive attributions about succeeding, and have the ability to bounce back after failure. Siu (2013) note that PsyCap as a personal resource provides employees with the ability to handle demands and stress at work.

In the last years, researchers have provided ample support for the assertion that there is a link between PsyCap and psychological wellbeing:

- Findings by Avey, Luthans, Smith and Palmer (2010) indicate that PsyCap as an employee's positive resource may lead to desirable outcomes such as psychology wellbeing over time;
- Azimi (2014) found that there is a positive significant correlation between psychological wellbeing and PsyCap; and
- Tripathi (2011) indicate that self-efficacy and resilience are significant predictors of employee psychological wellbeing.

These findings support the notion that PsyCap as a personal resource is powerful as it has the ability to enhance individual psychological wellbeing and success within the working environment.

A holistic view of psychological wellbeing requires consideration of a number of psychosocial factors. Given the circumstances surrounding operations within which soldiers and police officers partake and the possible challenges that arise from these operations, one may infer that PsyCap could play a major role in optimising the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers. Since the SANDF and SAPS play a critical role in regional peace security, the relationship between the psychosocial factors (job attitudes, occupational stress and PsyCap) and psychological wellbeing in the SANDF and SAPS is worth studying because these relationships may have an influence on the behaviour of soldiers and police officers. Gaining a better understanding of the relationship between job attitudes, occupational stress, PsyCap and psychological wellbeing could be beneficial for both soldiers and police officers and the organisations within which they serve. Figure 1.1 provides a conceptual model of the proposed relationships between job attitudes, occupational stress and psychological wellbeing with PsyCap moderating the relationship between occupational stress, job attitudes and psychological wellbeing.

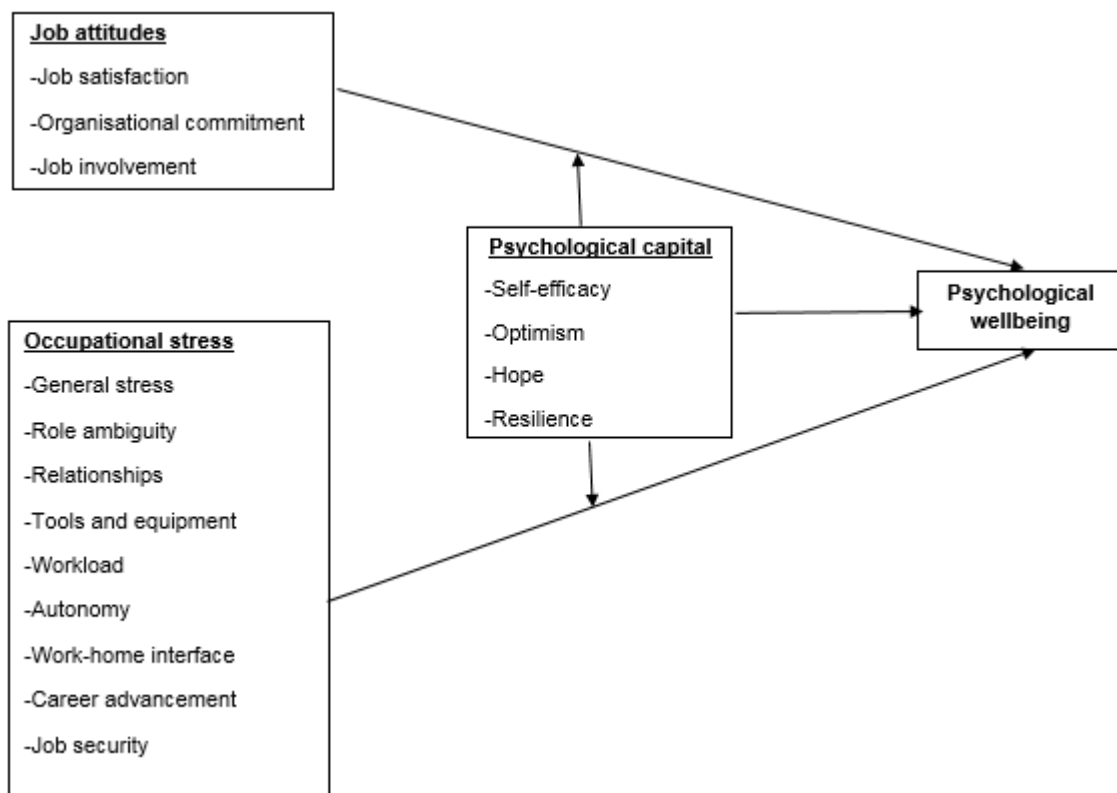


Figure 1.1. Conceptual model of job attitudes, occupational stress, psychological capital and psychological wellbeing

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Unlike many occupations, soldiers and police officers experience a variety of occupational, organisational and personal stressors, such as social-interpersonal relationships, the psychological environment, career advancement, physical work environment to name a few (Campbell & Nobel, 2009; Pasillas, Follette & Perumean-Chaney, 2006). It is evident from literature that occupational stress has an influence on the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers (Adegoke, 2014; Akintayo, 2012). Working under continuously stressful conditions could lead to work-related dissatisfaction. Work-related dissatisfaction reflects employees' attitude towards their job which could affect the level of involvement and commitment to organisational objectives (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010).

Bue et al. (2013) as well as Skomorovsky (2013) observed that many soldiers keep on performing their tasks despite their difficult working conditions. Similarly, Rothmann and Jorgensen (2007) observed that, in spite of the demanding working environment in which police officers find themselves, they are still productive. This can be attributed to the perceived positive relationships of soldiers and police officers with others, a purpose in life and motivations to perform their duties. Defenceweb (2016) emphasises the continued role played by the SANDF and SAPS in conflict prevention and peacekeeping on the continent. The DOD Annual Report (2014/2015) and the SAPS Annual Report (2014/2015) highlight the challenges and obligations that both organisations are experiencing. That said, one could argue that the soldier or police officer tasked with fulfilling operational goals should be psychologically well.

According to Wright (2010), 'psychologically well' individuals tend to be more creative, resilient, physically healthy and socially connected and they derive more meaning from their work. It can therefore be argued that a soldier or police officer with such characteristics will show high levels of self-acceptance, is able to develop close relationships with others, has self-determination, has a purpose in life, realises personal potential and is able to manage the environment and controls complex activities.

This begs the question whether the SANDF and the SAPS should focus on factors that influence psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers at operational level. Given that the primary responsibility of soldiers and police officers is the safety and security of South Africans, much focus should be placed on their psychological wellbeing, and the factors, which influence their psychological wellbeing, should be accurately quantified. Although there has been a relative increase in research interest on psychological wellbeing, very little is known and reported about the phenomenon within the SANDF and SAPS work context. Researchers have explored a number of psychosocial factors influencing psychological wellbeing; however, the moderating role of PsyCap is yet to be explored.

In view of limited research on the existence of the psychological wellbeing phenomenon within the SANDF and SAPS, given the nature of the work of soldiers and police officers and the joint operations within which they collaboratively partake, there is a need to determine the effect of psychosocial factors on psychological wellbeing and how PsyCap could be a moderator between job attitudes, occupational stress and psychological wellbeing. More research is however needed within the SANDF and SAPS context; therefore, the researcher identified a gap in literature that provides an opportunity to explore the influence of psychosocial factors on psychological wellbeing. The purpose of the present study was to create a body of knowledge of the influence of occupational stress, job attitudes and psychological wellbeing of state security forces in South Africa.

More specifically, the study sought to investigate how occupational stress and job attitudes may affect the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers. Furthermore, the role of PsyCap as a moderator between occupational stress, job attitudes and psychological wellbeing was evaluated. The findings of the study therefore provided answers to the following research questions:

- Is there a theoretical relationship between the job attitudes and psychological wellbeing of police officers and soldiers?
- Is there a theoretical relationship between occupational stress and psychological wellbeing of police officers and soldiers?
- Does job attitude influence psychological wellbeing?

- Do occupational stressors have an effect on psychological wellbeing?
- Is there a moderating role of PsyCap between occupational stress, job attitudes and psychological wellbeing?

Furthermore, this study could make a relevant contribution in assessing the level of the psychological wellbeing of the soldiers and police officers. The research was guided by theoretical and empirical objectives.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 Main objective

The main objective of the study was to explore psychosocial factors (i.e. job attitudes and occupational stress) that influence psychological wellbeing of uniform members of the SANDF and SAPS across different ranks and gender with PsyCap as a moderator given the growing participation in joint operations and their work environment.

1.4.2 Theoretical objectives

The following theoretical objectives were formulated, namely to –

- conceptualise job attitudes from a theoretical perspective;
- conceptualise occupational stress from a theoretical perspective;
- conceptualise PsyCap from a theoretical perspective;
- conceptualise psychological wellbeing from a theoretical perspective; and
- conceptualise the moderating effect of PsyCap on the relationship between occupational stress, job attitudes and psychological wellbeing.

1.4.3 Empirical objectives

The following empirical objectives were formulated, namely to –

- determine the level of job attitudes in a sample of SANDF and SAPS members;
- determine the level of general stress in a sample of SANDF and SAPS members;

- determine the level of psychological wellbeing in a sample of SANDF and SAPS members;
- determine the relationship between job attitudes, occupational stress and psychological wellbeing in a sample of SANDF and SAPS members; and
- determine the moderating effect of PsyCap on the relationship between occupational stress, job attitudes and psychological wellbeing in a sample of SANDF and SAPS members.

1.5 RESEARCH PROCESS OVERVIEW

The research was conducted in three phases, namely –

- a comprehensive literature review was undertaken,
- an empirical study was done, and
- the writing of the research report, which comprised
 - a discussion of the results;
 - the conclusion;
 - a discussion of the research limitations; and
 - recommendations derived from the research study.

1.5.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The focus of the literature review was to provide a description of the psychosocial factors that are said to influence the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers. The theoretical framework of the study is explained to provide a clear understanding of the factors of interest in the study, the way the factors relate to each other as well as to psychological wellbeing. Factors referred to in the study include:

- psychological wellbeing variables;
- job attitude variables;
- occupational stress variables; and
- PsyCap.

1.5.2 Phase 2: Empirical research

In the section on the empirical research phase, reference is made to the data gathering, the steps that were undertaken to gather the data as well as the instruments that were used to gather data. The study used standardised questionnaires. The questionnaires distributed were pen-and-pencil evaluation tools that were administered to a sample of 178 soldiers and police officers of all rank groups, all races and both gender in a diverse South African sample. Psychological capital was measured using the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) self-rater version, consisting of 24 items with acceptable Cronbach's alphas (see par 3.5.4). The scale comprised four subscales, namely self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism which were added together to obtain a total for PsyCap (Luthans, Avolio, Avey & Norman, 2007).

Occupational stress was measured with the Sources of Work Stress Inventory (SWSI) consisting of 59 items with acceptable Cronbach's alphas (see par 3.5.3). The scale comprised two sections, namely the General Work Stress Scale (GWSS) and the eight Sources of Stress Scale (SSS) (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005). Psychological wellbeing was measured with the Ryff Scales of Psychological Well-Being (RPWB) consisting of 42 items with acceptable Cronbach's alphas (see par 3.5.1). The scale comprises six subscales, namely autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance (Springer & Hauser, 2006).

Job attitudes were measured with the following scales:

- Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short version, which consists of 20 items with acceptable Cronbach's alphas (see par 3.5.2.2). The MSQ contains two subscales, which measure intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009);
- Job Involvement Questionnaire (JIQ) consisting of 10 items with acceptable Cronbach's alphas (see par 3.5.2.3) (Kanungo, 1982); and
- Employee Commitment Survey (ECS) consisting of 18 items with acceptable Cronbach's alphas (see par 3.5.2.1).

The scale consists of three subscales namely, affective, continuance and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

1.5.3 Phase 3: Reporting of results and writing of the research report

This section provides a discussion of the various statistical techniques that were used to analyse data gathered by means of various questionnaires.

1.5.3.1 Discussion of results

In this section, the results of the empirical research will be discussed.

1.5.3.2 Conclusion

This sections focuses on conclusions drawn with respect to the hypotheses tested in the study.

1.5.3.3 Limitations

This section focuses on the general limitations of the study.

1.5.3.4 Recommendations

This section focuses on the practical implications of the present study as well as recommendations for future research on the topic.

1.6 CHAPTER DIVISION

The chapters are presented in the following logical order:

- Chapter 1: Introduction to the study
- Chapter 2: Theoretical framework
- Chapter 3: Research design and methodology
- Chapter 4: Results

- Chapter 5: Discussion of results
- Chapter 6: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The rapid societal changes have contributed to the complexity and unpredictability of the operating environment of soldiers and police officers. In order to be effective during these operations, it is imperative that the influence of psychosocial factors on the psychological wellbeing of operational members of the SANDF and SAPS is fully understood. Failure to understand the psychosocial factors could threaten the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers. This in turn has a negative effect on their job performance during operations. The aim of the study was to investigate the relationships between job attitude variables, occupational stress variables and psychological wellbeing. Furthermore, the moderating effect of PsyCap on the relationship between occupational stresses, job attitudes and psychological wellbeing was investigated. This chapter reported on the background and motivation for the study, the research problem and objectives, and the layout of the thesis. Chapter 2 presents the literature review in which the main concepts of the study are discussed.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) outlines the duties of the SANDF and SAPS (see Chapter 11). The SANDF is utilised in various roles, such as supporting the SAPS, support in disaster management, United Nations operations (peacebuilding, peacekeeping and peace enforcement) and a variety of diplomatic tasks (Ditsela, 2012). Addressing various forms of violent protests, combating corruption, investigating crime, countering illegal immigration, protecting strategic resources as well as upholding and enforcing law are some of the roles of the SAPS (Ngobese, 2011).

Over the last two decades, there has been significant changes within the South Africa state security environment as security problems have become highly complex – to the extent that solutions to these complex security problems have required contributions of all stakeholders (DOD Annual Report (2014/2015); SAPS Service Annual Report (2014/2015)). The complex and dynamic context in which soldiers and police officers operate increases insecurity and lowers their perceived control of situations (Brough, 2005; Brusher, 2011).

According to Rusagara (2008), state security is susceptible to internal and external activities, armed attacks and subtle hazards. The internal environment of the SAPS and SANDF is determined by the external environment and this has an effect on the roles, tasks and leadership style of the organisations. The constantly changing and unpredictable environment in which the SANDF and SAPS operate forces the organisations to pre-empt challenges (although accuracy is difficult) and change internally as there are always new challenges in the security environment. Even though the organisations change internally, the vision of the organisation should guide the SANDF and SAPS.

The vision of the SAPS is to create a safe and secure environment for all people in South Africa (<http://www.gov.za>). The core mandate of the SANDF is the protection of the country, its territorial integrity and its people (<http://www.gov.za>). Defence Minister at the time, Nosiviwe Mapisa-Nqakula (2016) highlighted the fact that the SANDF would continue to support SAPS by partaking in joint operations. According to Burger (2012), joint operations between the military and police service in South Africa have been off existence since the mid-1990s. Partaking in the operations has its own challenges, as highlighted in the DOD Annual Report (2014/2015) and the SAPS Annual Report (2014/2015) which could affect the soldier or police officer who has been tasked with executing organisational objectives that have been set. One ponders on how the SANDF and SAPS are expected to sustain capabilities, as the budget continues to diminish and the demand keeps on increasing.

Identifying organisational key elements such as developing and retaining personnel could influence outcomes set by the SANDF and SAPS as a number of priorities are developing. According to Ditsela (2012), the inability to attract and retain competent and skilled personnel is a major area of weakness for any organisation. According to Drucker (as cited in Lynch, 2000, p. 438) -

“[N]o organisation can depend on genius’; the supply is scarce and always unpredictable. But it is a test of an organisation that it can make an ordinary human being perform better than they are capable of, that it brings out whatever potential there is in its members and use it to make all other members perform better”.

The job characteristics of soldiers and police officers vary in terms of the tasks when compared to other organisations. Soldiers and police officers are expected to be successful and dedicated regardless of any unfavourable condition (Dick & Metcalfe, 2001; Koprulu, 2013). Koprulu (2013) states that, in order for state security organisations to be successful, the organisation should support individuals so that they are able to withstand all the inconveniences associated with a career in state security. The SANDF and SAPS as employee organisations could be a source of meaning and growth for soldiers and police officers, which would enable them to develop a sense of purpose and belonging.

In the study on which this thesis reports, the issue under scrutiny was the identification of psychosocial factors that influence psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers in South Africa. Identification of these psychosocial factors provides an opportunity for the SAPS and SANDF to adopt operational policies that would enhance the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers. The primary aim of this study was to explore the psychosocial factors that influence the psychological wellbeing of uniform members of the SANDF and SAPS. The aim of this chapter is to provide a comprehensive theoretical discussion of psychological wellbeing and the factors influencing psychological wellbeing. The literature review begins with an overview of the current literature on psychological wellbeing. Thereafter the various job attitude constructs, occupational stressors and PsyCap constructs will be discussed

2.2 WELLBEING

Wellbeing has become a popular topic in scientific research as it is viewed by many authors as imperative to employee overall health and development due to the fact that it encompasses a holistic perspective of individual wellness (Schoeman, 2012). Various researchers mention that, for centuries, the nature and composition of wellbeing have been explored and researchers have generated several conceptualisations of the concept (Linley, Maltby, Wood, Osborne & Hurling, 2009; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Urry et al., 2004). Biswas-Diener, Kashdan and King (2009) acknowledge that the inconclusive debate about the multifaceted descriptions of the concept 'wellbeing' has resulted in researchers taking different perspectives and creating their own theories.

According to Deci and Ryan (2008) and Ryan and Deci (2001), the majority of researchers employ two common approaches of wellbeing, i.e. hedonia (subjective wellbeing) and eudaimonia (psychological wellbeing). Subjective wellbeing is related to short-term states whilst psychological wellbeing is related to long-term states (Biswas et al., 2009). Although most researchers view subjective and psychological wellbeing as two different perspectives, Deci and Ryan (2008) as well as Keyes, Shmotkin and Ryff (2002) note that to obtain optimal wellbeing, it is beneficial to view them together.

Foxcroft and Roodt (2013) put forth the notion that within the different schools of thought wellbeing is most at home with positive psychology. The main theoretical premise behind positive psychology is uncovering human strengths and promoting their positive functioning to live healthier and more productive lives. Positive psychology does not lessen the importance and pain that is associated with human suffering; it offers ways to nurture and sustain assets and resources of humankind (Snyder & Lopez, 2007).

According to Ryff and Singer (2008), the context surrounding people's lives influences their wellbeing. Bue (2015) maintains that the military affects soldiers physically and mentally; hence, it is imperative that family and work factors, which affect their wellbeing, are understood in order to maintain qualities that allow them to perform optimally despite the high demands they encounter in their place of work. Similarly Pasillas et al. (2006) highlight the physical and mental challenges that are synonymous with being a police officer and the effect thereof on the wellbeing of police officers.

Most operations in which soldiers and police officers partake require them to be proficient in a wide variety of skills, which demand physical and psychological strength. Missions in which police officers and soldiers partake are increasingly posing unusual psychosocial challenges; hence, Nkewu (2014) as well as Rani, Kumar, Rastogi and Garg (2012) state that it is imperative that soldiers and police officers have high levels of psychological wellbeing. The increasing demand for internal and external deployment of soldiers and police officers under uncertain circumstances requires them to be psychologically well as they are required to maintain high vigilance and respond continuously to threats which jeopardise their wellbeing (Chaturvedula & Joseph, 2007; Skomorovsky, 2013). The manner in which soldiers and police officers perceive their wellbeing determines their success in the operational environment and their combat readiness (Nkewu, 2014; Rani et al., 2012).

The following section elaborates on the two common approaches of wellbeing, i.e. subjective and psychological which have been identified in literature.

2.2.1 Subjective wellbeing

Tripathi (2011, p. 18) defines subjective wellbeing as “people’s evaluation of their own lives, the evaluations include both cognitive judgements and emotional responses”. Diener, Saptya and Suh (1998, p. 34) define subjective wellbeing as “individuals’ perception of their quality of life and their overall happiness with the various aspects of their life”. Diener (1994) describes subjective wellbeing as the full range of aspects that contribute to a person’s assessment of the quality of his or her life. Subjective wellbeing can be explored in three categories. Firstly, it resides within the total experience of the individual, i.e. it is subjective, secondly, it is not about all the absence of negative factors; rather it is inclusive of positive measures, and lastly, it includes a global assessment that spills over from various life domains (Dodge, Daly, Huyton & Sanders, 2012).

Determinates of subjective wellbeing include:

- happiness, which refers to the degree to which a person experiences emotions that are pleasant;
- life satisfaction, which refers to specific areas in a person’s life, such as finance, physical health and relationships;
- positive and negative effects, which refer to enjoyment, fun, depression or frustration;
- socio and economic determinants, which refer to an individual’s perceptions on the crime rate, income, unemployment and neighbourhood in which they reside (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2013).

2.2.2 Psychological wellbeing

Moe (2012) describes psychological wellbeing as the cornerstone of mental health. Wright (2010, p. 144) defines psychological wellbeing as “a subjective and global judgement that one is experiencing a good deal of positive and relatively little negative feelings or emotions”. Psychological wellbeing is the ability of a person to “feel good and function effectively despite negative or painful emotions which are normally part of life” (Huppert, 2009, p. 139).

Chaturvedula and Joseph (2007, p. 17) define psychological wellbeing as “a person’s judgement or evaluation of his or her life – either in terms of life satisfaction (cognitive evaluations) or affect (emotional reactions) which is further divided into pleasant affect (positive feelings) and unpleasant affect (negative feelings)”. It can therefore be said that psychological wellbeing encompasses the overall effectiveness of a person’s psychological functioning. Avey, Reichard, Luthans and Mhatre (2010) observed that where people feel good, achieve high performance and have high levels of wellbeing healthy work exists.

Psychological wellbeing consists of different views, for example:

- Flowers (2012) emphasises qualities such as justice, belonging and knowledge, which each individual should strive to attain and apply in his or her social setting;
- Delle Fave, Massimini and Bassi (2011) focus on flow and meaning, which require an individual to be deeply engaged in activities in order to grow so that he or she may function optimally;
- Huta and Ryan (2010) focus on the self, whereby an individual develops potential, which is in line with his or her values;
- The eudaimonic identity theory proposed by Waterman (2011) places emphasis on self-realisation, meaning and purpose in life and being authentic;
- Seligman (2002) emphasises the identification and development of character strength of an individual, which contributes to societal relations;
- Ryan and Deci (2001) interpret eudaimonia as having autonomy, developing relations with others, having good physical health and pursuing intrinsic goals which lead to personal growth; and
- Ryff (1989) focuses on optimising human potential with the emphasis on fulfilment and balance between personal and professional domains of life. Ryff (1989) view was the focus of this study and will be discussed later.

Ryff and Singer (2008) mention that Carol Ryff uses the term ‘eudaimonia’ to question the comprehension of subjective wellbeing. Moe (2012) argues that the different definitions that researchers use to define the construct ‘psychological wellbeing’ make it difficult to measure and interpret outcomes.

Ryff (1989) identified a discrepancy in terms of the various definitions of psychological wellbeing and embarked on a review of existing theories. Reviewing previous theories such as lifespan theories, clinical theories on growth and the criteria from positive mental health enabled Ryff (1989) to design a model of positive functioning, which incorporated six dimensions, namely self-acceptance, positive relationships, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery and autonomy. How one sees himself/herself completely functioning in these different dimensions of psychological wellbeing indicates the degree to which they thrive in life (Ryff, 1989). The main theoretical premise behind Ryff psychological theory is that the lifespan theories, clinical theories and criteria for positive mental health all contain similar and complementary criteria of positive psychological functioning. Table 2.1 indicates the definitions of theory-guided dimensions of psychological wellbeing.

Table 2.1***Definitions of theory-guided dimensions of psychological wellbeing***

Self-acceptance	
High scorer	Low scorer
Possesses a positive attitude toward the self; acknowledges and accepts multiple aspects of self, including good and bad qualities; feels positive about past life	Feels dissatisfied with self; is disappointed with what has occurred in past life; is troubled about certain personal qualities; wishes to be different from what he or she is
Positive relations with others	
High scorer	Low scorer
Has warm, satisfying, trusting relationships with others; is concerned about the welfare of other others; capable of strong empathy, affection, and intimacy; understands give and take of human relationships	Has few close, trusting relationships with others; finds it difficult to be warm, open and concerned about others; is isolated and frustrated in interpersonal relationships; not willing to make compromises to sustain important ties with others

Table 2.1 Continued

Personal growth	
High scorer	Low scorer
Has a feeling of continued development; sees self as growing and expanding; is open to new experiences; has sense of realising his or her potential; sees improvement in self and behaviour over time; is changing in ways that reflect more self-knowledge and effectiveness	Has a sense of personal stagnation; lacks sense of improvement or expansion overtime; feels bored and uninterested with life; feels unable to develop new attitudes or behaviours
Purpose in life	
High scorer	Low scorer
Has goals in life and a sense of directedness; feels there is meaning to present and past life; holds beliefs that give life purpose; has aims and objectives for living	Lacks a sense of meaning in life; has few goals or aims; lacks sense of direction; does not see purpose of past life; has no outlook or beliefs that give life meaning
Environmental mastery	
High scorer	Low scorer
Has a sense of mastery and competence in managing the environment; controls complex array of external activities; makes effective use of surrounding opportunities; able to choose or create contexts suitable to personal needs and values	Has difficulty managing everyday affairs; feels unable to change or improve surrounding context; is unaware of surrounding opportunities; lacks sense of control over external world
Autonomy	
High scorer	Low scorer
Is self-determining and independent; able to resist social pressures to think and act in certain ways; regulates social pressures to think and act in certain ways; regulates behaviour from within; evaluates self by personal standards	Is concerned about the expectations and evaluations of others; relies on judgements of others to make important decisions; conforms to social pressures to think and act in certain ways

(Ryff & Singer, 2008, p. 25–26)

Ryff developed a questionnaire, which measures the aforementioned dimensions, which was used in this study, see par (3.5.1) for a description. The different dimensions of psychological wellbeing determined by Ryff (1989) will be explored further.

2.2.2.1 Self-acceptance

Self-acceptance is described as the ability to know one's self, i.e. strive to perceive our own actions, motivations and feelings accurately, accepting all aspects of oneself, including good and bad qualities (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2013; Murthy, 2014; Ryff & Singer, 2008). Self-acceptance implies long-term self-evaluation, which involves awareness and acceptance of both strengths and weaknesses (Rani, Garg & Rastogi, 2012). According to Kin (2014), having a job has an effect on individuals as it contributes to valued aspects of self and other domains in life. Carson and Langer (2006) mention that self-acceptance is crucial for employees' mental health as the absence of self-acceptance could lead to a variety of emotional difficulties such as helplessness, passivity and frustration.

When individuals have unconditional self-acceptance they believe that they are worthy human beings despite the challenges that they encounter (Kin, 2014). Participating in various life domains by virtue of a job in state security enables soldiers and police officers to make sense of the self as they acquire a holistic identity. Soldiers and police officers gain their identity from various life domains, thus allowing their self-acceptance to be holistic with a set of values, purpose and meaning. When a soldier has high levels of self-acceptance, he or she will have a balanced outlook of both the self and the environment (Nkewu, 2014). Along the same line, Padhy, Chelli and Padiri (2015) propound the notion that police officers who understand their actions and motivations perceive the environment through a holistic lens.

Soldiers and police officers need to strive to have an attitude of self-acceptance as this could inspire them to face whatever they encounter in their work environment without collapsing inside. Being a soldier or a police officer serves the attainment of goals such as growth, autonomy and purpose, as being in service involves a meaningful contribution to society. Results of a study by Jones (2014) indicate that individuals who have high levels of self-acceptance, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth experience high levels of job satisfaction.

2.2.2.2 Positive relationships

Positive relationships are described as the interpersonal realm, which includes having strong feelings of empathy and affection for all human beings, the capacity to develop great love, deep friendship, close identification with others with the ability to give and take in relationships (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2013; Murthy, 2014; Ryff & Singer, 2008). Positive psychology highlights the crucial role of relationships, so Reis and Gable (2013) reaffirm the importance of relationships for an individual's psychological wellbeing.

Positive relationships with colleagues and supervisors afford employees the opportunity to discuss work-related challenges and involvement in decision-making. As soldiers and police officers spend much of their time in the workplace, positive relationships could have a positive influence on their behaviours. Emmons (2003) asserts the importance of close intimate relationships, which are based on trust and affection. According to Gaur and Ebrahimi (2013, p. 8), having positive relations with other could lead to:

- a more cohesive work group;
- more satisfied and committed employees;
- greater productivity;
- greater goal attainment;
- increased positive feelings about the organisation;
- better job performance; and
- prevention of employee turnover and employee desire to leave the company.

The above-mentioned implications of good relationships are desirable for the military and police service as they enable the achievement of organisational objectives. Good relationships with others increase understanding. Nkewu (2014) note that because military tasks depend on teamwork, soldiers who have good relationships with others may be expected to be good team players. Likewise police officers often work in teams; therefore, good relationships with others are essential.

Positive relationships with others will benefit soldiers and police officers as they will feel comfortable during interactions and this could also contribute to their level of job satisfaction. Soldiers and police officers need support from other people, especially co-workers as they experience similar stressors due to their work environment (Nkewu, 2014; Rani et al., 2012).

2.2.2.3 Autonomy

Autonomy refers to an individual's ability to function fully independently, have self-determination, have internal locus of control and evaluate one's self by personal standards (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2013; Murthy, 2014; Rani et al., 2012; Ryff & Singer, 2008). As the military and police service tend to be viewed as highly bureaucratic organisations, autonomy could be enable soldiers and police officers to feel that successful operational results are determined by their efforts and actions, thus contributing to their level of job satisfaction. According to Rani et al. (2012), when employees experience high levels of autonomy, they are motivated to use abilities and skills in their workplace to enhance their task engagement because they believe that they are trustworthy to do the job.

Autonomy at work has the potential to enhance the self-esteem of soldiers and police officers. In an operational environment, military commanders who display autonomy through independent thinking make good leaders (Nkewu, 2014). Rani et al. (2012) suggest that police officers' lives become meaningful and purposeful when they experience low job stress, autonomy and positive relationships with others. Autonomy is essential for soldiers and police officers because at times, the intensity of operations does not allow for consultation with seniors, and then it is up to a soldier or a police officer on the ground to exercise discretion with regard to operational matters.

2.2.2.4 Purpose in life

According to Ryff and Singer (2008), purpose in life creates meaning, direction and intentionality, and it characterises an individual's different life stages.

According to Kashdan and McKnight (2009), having a purpose in life motivates a person to dedicate resources in a particular direction as it provides a foundation that allows someone to be more resilient to obstacles, strain and stress. Soldiers are trained to work as teams with a common purpose, which enables them to have direction in life. This illustrates that they know the power of purpose when it comes to efficient individual effort (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009). Since soldiers and police officers partake in joint operations and work as teams, it is of the utmost importance that they too understand their purpose in life. This will give meaning to all their actions during operations. As soldiers and police officers are dedicated to a purpose, they ought to be more prone to purpose-consistent behaviour. According to Rani et al. (2012), people who are motivated by purpose take on tasks that they can do and do them better than others.

2.2.2.5 Environmental mastery

Environmental mastery refers to the ability to create an environment that suits one's personal needs (Murthy, 2014; Ryff & Singer, 2008). Foxcroft and Roodt (2013) mention that environmental mastery includes an individual's ability to manage the environment competently and control diverse and complex activities. The activity of partaking in joint operations and protecting the country has the potential to increase soldiers and police officers' sense of mastery and competency in managing the environment. According to Garcia, Al Nima and Kjell (2014) harmony in life is significantly predicted by environmental mastery and self-acceptance. Proyer et al. (2012) put forward the assumption that an employee with a good fit to the work environment could be expected to be able to experience meaning in his or her work thereby mastering his or her work environment.

The operational environment is characterised by many stressors; therefore, it is essential for soldiers and police officers to understand and master the environment so that they can control events and outcomes of that particular environment. Findings by Limbert (2004) indicated that the majority of soldiers appeared to make the best out of operational and combat situations by engaging in positive thinking, which was highly associated with job satisfaction.

Police officers who receive support and guidance and who are satisfied with their job, experience environmental mastery, which in turn ensures that they have the ability to command under difficult working conditions, at the same time experiencing low job stress and maintaining pleasant relationships with colleagues (Rani et al., 2012).

2.2.2.6 Personal growth

Personal growth is concerned with the realisation of personal potential. In essence personal growth is concerned with the development of an individual (Murthy, 2014; Ryff & Singer, 2008). Foxcroft and Roodt (2013) mention that when individuals feel that they are developing continuously they experience a sense of achieving their potential. According to Rani et al. (2012), personal growth leads to a fully functional person in family, work relationships and other relationships in society.

Ryff and Singer (2008) put forward the claim that when an individual is preoccupied with personal growth this can be crippling to the individual's social institutions, such as family and work. According to Proyer et al. (2012), customised training for military officers could assist them to improve their abilities to identify and use their own strengths. In turn, this could have a positive influence on their personal and vocational growth. By developing skills, talent and abilities, soldiers and police officers could become fully functioning and achieve all operational, tactical and strategic objectives.

Despite the benefits and significance associated with being in the state security environment, this is not void of challenges. These challenges are posed by the external environment and they tend to create a stressful work environment for soldiers and police officers. Being in a stressful work environment could have negative consequences for employees and could impair their psychological wellbeing (Avey et al., 2010). Duties during operations are characterised by multiple tasks, repetitive activities, high pressure and high degrees of control. These dynamic duties could lead to soldiers and police officers suffering from job dissatisfaction, low engagement, role ambiguity, unbalanced work–life, work overload and a lack of appropriate tools and equipment.

As psychological wellbeing is concerned with human development and promoting individual strength, it is arguable that it could protect soldiers and police officers from various psychosocial challenges. Ryff and Singer (1998) corroborate this argument as their study findings indicate that psychological wellbeing is a protective factor in terms of psychological and social stressors. According to Drakopoulos and Grimani (2015), understanding employee psychological wellbeing is vital as work is a substantial psychological dimension. Theron (as cited in Van Wyk, 2015) mentions two reasons, which highlight the promotion of individual psychological wellbeing. Firstly, there is a moral and ethical obligation to ensure that the quality of life of each and every employee is improved as some health issues (such as stress) can be attributed to unfavourable working conditions. Secondly, ensuring employee psychological wellbeing is beneficial for both the employee and the organisation.

It is arguable that high levels of psychological wellbeing are desirable for soldiers and police officers as high levels of –

- self-acceptance could enable them to have a balanced outlook life as they accept multiple aspects of themselves;
- positive relationships with others could enable them to establish meaningful relationships with colleagues, thereby contributing to adjustment in the workplace;
- personal growth could enable them continually to develop skills that allow them to be deployable for operations and to reflect increasingly on self-knowledge;
- purpose in life could give meaning to their actions;
- environmental mastery could enable them to manage the surrounding environment effectively; and
- autonomy could allow them to regulate behaviour from within.

This notion is corroborated by Nkewu (2014) and Rani et al. (2012) who emphasise that high levels of psychological wellbeing is desirable as missions on which soldiers and police officers embark pose psychosocial challenges. The increased demand to deploy soldiers and police officers highlights the need to examine psychological wellbeing in these distinct occupational groups in order to understand which psychosocial factors influence their psychological wellbeing.

The myriad of tasks, which are performed by soldiers and police officers concurrently make them more susceptible to various psychosocial factors that could influence their wellbeing. The next section presents a discussion on the various psychosocial factors in detail.

2.3 JOB ATTITUDES

Employees have viewpoints about many aspects of their jobs, career and organisation. The perspectives that employees have about their work environment or job lead to them having certain attitudes. Aggarwal-Gupta, Vohra and Bhatnager (2010) are of the opinion that employees develop certain attitudes in their workplace because of person and work-related interactions. In the workplace, attitudes have an influence on how employees view and judge their work. Knoop (1995) mentions that an employee's response to the job, organisation, people and situations in a positive or negative manner reflects his or her attitude. How an individual views his or her profession is a good determinant of his or her job attitude and psychological wellbeing (Adegoke, 2014).

Rizwan and Khan (2011, p. 79) describe an attitude as "a measurement of the degree that represents that level of liking or disliking of a person towards any item that can be a person, object, place or any event". According to Riketta (2008, p. 472), job attitude refers to "the evaluation or personal importance of job related targets (i.e. organisation, work group, job as a whole)". Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012, p. 343) define job attitudes as "evaluations of one's job that express one's feelings towards beliefs about their jobs and attachment to one's job". The above demonstrates that job attitude reflects an employee's feelings and belief, which largely determine how such employee perceive his or her environment, how he or she commits him or herself to intended actions and how he or she will ultimately behave.

Saari and Judge (2004) mention that work situations tend to be the cause of employee attitudes, and this in turn influences behaviour. To corroborate this notion, Landis, Vick and Novo (2015) state that employees' attitudes affect behaviour and organisational performance. In the state security environment, a psychologically well soldier or police officer is paramount.

It can be argued that the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers is critical for operational effectiveness. When comparing employees in the work environment, Ryff and Keyes (1995) conclude that employees with high levels of psychological wellbeing tend to show more positive job attitudes than employees with lower levels of psychological wellbeing. Positive experiences in the work environment influence the psychological wellbeing of employees (Ryff & Singer, 2008).

Understanding job attitudes is important for organisational and individual objectives (Lambert & Paoline, 2012; Riketta, 2008; Velnampy, 2008). According to Wicker (2011), employee job attitudes are multifaceted. In operationalising job attitudes, three established concepts are used in this thesis, i.e. job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and job involvement. The use of these three concepts facilitated the purpose of the research on which this thesis is based, namely to understand the psychosocial factors that have an influence on psychological wellbeing. The author understands that there are also other variables, which may contribute to employee job attitudes. Job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement were deemed important employee job attitudes in this study as minimal studies have been conducted in South Africa state security environment so far.

2.3.1 Job satisfaction

Soldiers and police officers are faced with continuous development in the operational environment (DOD Annual Report, 2014/2015; SAPS Annual Report, 2014/2015), which can be expected to influence their job satisfaction levels as they try to cope with these developments on a daily basis. According to Visser and Coetzee (2005), employees exhibit positive behaviour if they are satisfied with their job or they exhibit negative behaviour when they are dissatisfied with their job. Job satisfaction as an attitude may result in significant changes in an employee's behaviour (Hoole & Vermeulen, 2003).

According to Hirschfeld (2000), job satisfaction is the extent to which people like their jobs. Job satisfaction is defined as “an attitude that individuals have about their jobs” (Alam & Mohammed, 2010, p. 125). Wicker (2011, p. 3) defines job satisfaction “as a sense of inner fulfilment and pride achieved when performing a particular job”. Drakopoulos and Grimani (2015, p. 3) define job satisfaction as an “employee’s attitude towards the job and the job situation”. Examining the aforementioned definitions one can infer that job satisfaction is the extent to which one feels negatively or positively about the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of the job, i.e. an individual’s perception and evaluation of his or her job, which is influenced by the individual’s unique needs, values and expectations.

Buitendach and Rothmann (2009) put forward the view that an individual who has high levels of job satisfaction will have a positive attitude about his or her job whilst an individual with low levels of job satisfaction will have a negative attitude. The latter is desirable for organisations such as the SANDF and SAPS as low levels of job satisfaction may lead to serious problems in these organisations. Various theories of job satisfaction have been proposed by scholars:

- Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory postulates that people satisfy five specific needs (i.e. physiological, safety, belonging, esteem and self-actualisation);
- Herzberg’s theory postulates that an employee’s ability to attain personal and organisational goals determines his or her level of job satisfaction, whereas work environment conditions determine the employee’s level of job dissatisfaction; and
- Achievement theory postulates that people have a compelling drive to succeed therefore they strive for personal achievement (Johnson, 2012; Lopes, Chambel, Castanheira & Oliveira-Cruz, 2015; Saif, Nawaz, Jan & Khan, 2012).

In literature, job satisfaction has been conceptualised as a multidimensional construct. Literature on the concept ‘job satisfaction’ abounds with common aspects which influence it such as pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, co-workers, operational conditions, communication, contingent rewards and nature of work (Kelly, 2015; Saif et al., 2012; Spector, 1997).

It can be argued that job satisfaction is a recurring attitude as it is dependent on a variety of job aspects which are continuously changing. It is important to study the concept 'job satisfaction' constantly in the military and police service because intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics that characterise job satisfaction within these occupational groups are constantly evolving (Johnson, 2012; Yang et al., 2008). Current research indicates that the different aspects of job satisfaction can be arranged as two dimensions i.e. extrinsic and intrinsic. The intrinsic dimension depends on the characteristics of the employee such as creativity, whereas the extrinsic dimensions include working conditions, promotions, job safety and working hours.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) is a popular measure that is used to measure both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). In this study, the MSQ short form was used (see par 3.5.2.2). Job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. It is essential that organisations understand that job satisfaction is dynamic; therefore, consistent monitoring of conditions that increase job satisfaction is important. Sanchez, Bray, Vincus and Bann (2004) mention that job satisfaction in the military is unique due to the work circumstances and environment. It can be argued that job satisfaction in the police service is unique because of the inherent stressors and the compensation associated with the work environment. Although pressure is inherent in most military and policing jobs, it would be beneficial for members of the organisation to find ways of coping with the pressure (Johnson, 2012; Kelly, 2015).

Understanding the importance of job satisfaction enriches the organisation with a range of information pertaining to the employee which could assist in decision-making. This information could assist in improving the attitude of soldiers and police officers towards the job, inspire belonging and identify training and development needs. According to Johnson (2012), job satisfaction is multidimensional for police officers, i.e. they value training and development opportunities, supportive leadership, relationships with co-workers and sufficient pay. It is recommended that the work environment of soldiers and police officers be created in a manner that stimulates personal growth and development.

Saif et al. (2012) state that when psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances are amalgamated, the employee can truly express that he or she is satisfied with his or her job. Buitendach and Rothmann (2009) emphasise that job satisfaction is important to the mental and physical wellbeing of individuals as work is an important aspect of their lives. Job satisfaction of soldiers and police officers is of utmost importance because it has a direct influence on the security of the Republic of South Africa and Africa as a whole.

Gorenburg (2012) proposes that in order to increase job satisfaction, the military needs to focus on financing of units and ensuring proper, respectful relationships between commanders and subordinates. Gagne and Deci (2005) emphasise the importance of structuring the work environment so that effective performance may take place; moreover, this will lead to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards which would lead to total job satisfaction.

Evidence in support of the relationship between job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing in the state security environment is borne out of research that shows relationships among the different aspects of job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing. Study findings of Kelly (2015) indicate that South African navy officers were moderately satisfied with promotion and pay and had low levels of satisfaction with supervision, co-workers and work. Limbert's (2004) study results indicate that job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing of soldiers are significantly related. Similarly, Brough's (2005) findings indicate that job satisfaction had strong positive associations with psychological wellbeing for police officers in their work situation.

In their study, Rani et al. (2012) found that job satisfaction had a positive relationship with autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relationships with others, purpose in life and self-acceptance. The available evidence seems to suggest that employees who have fully accepted who they are may feel satisfied with their work as they will be able to control aspects of the work environment, find a purpose in their work and have the opportunity to develop and grow.

2.3.2 Employee organisational commitment

The world of work is highly competitive, and in order for organisations to perform at peak levels, employees must be committed to the goals of the organisation. Langkamer and Ervin (2008) assert that organisational commitment is linked to employee behaviour, such as performance and retention, which could be influenced by an employee's work experience. According to Rayton (2006), understanding employee commitment as an attitude is important as it such commitment has an effect on how the employee performs in the organisation.

An individual's favourable attitude towards the organisation will lead to greater acceptance of the goals of the organisation (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane & Ferreira, 2011). Organisational commitment is defined as "an individual's psychological bond with the organisation, as represented by an affective attachment to the organisation, a feeling of loyalty toward it and an intention to remain as part of it" (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012, p. 243). Organisational commitment reflects an employee's attitude towards the organisation as a whole, the acceptance of its goals and values, the willingness to expend efforts on behalf of the organisation and intention to remain in the organisation (Raina, 2013).

Hurter (2008) propounds the view that employee organisational commitment is complex and cannot be seen as a homogenous entity. Employee organisational commitment is complex because it can take different forms. Suliman and Al-Junaibi (2010) describe organisational commitment as a concept that implies that people who feel a strong degree of personal identification with an organisation will remain and work in the organisation. Bartlertt (1999) describes commitment as something that indicates an emotional link. Meyer and Allen (2007) advocate the notion that organisational commitment represents a global psychological state that characterises the relationship between an employee and the organisation.

Koprulu (2013) differentiates between two approaches to the concept of understanding commitment. According to the behavioural approach “the attitudinal consequences of a behaviour are believed to predictably lead to a reoccurrence of that behaviour in the future whereas in the attitudinal approach the behaviour as a result of commitment are supposed to influence the antecedent conditions of commitment” (Koprulu, 2013, p. 34). Many researchers have cited different approaches to understanding organisational commitment; however, the consensus view in literature seems to be that Meyer and Allen’s model of organisational commitment is the most developed and conceptualised model of organisational commitment (Demir et al., 2009; Dick & Metcalfe, 2001; Etebarian, Tavakoli & Abzari, 2012; Gade, 2003; Gagné, Boies, Koestner & Martens, 2004; Raina, 2013).

When conceptualising organisational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) used the tri-dimensional model, which describes the different ways employees develop organisational commitment and implications thereof. Meyer and Allen’s model of organisational commitment focuses on the attitudinal approach of the commitment construct, and is the focal point of the discussion in this thesis as it is the most developed and applied conceptualisation of commitment. Meyer and Allen’s model of organisational commitment proposes that organisational commitment is experienced by employees as three concurrent mind-sets, comprising affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment. Table 2.2 below illustrates the three components of organisational commitment.

Table 2.2***The three components of organisational commitment***

Dimensions	Definition	Motive for performance	Psychological state
Affective	Extent to which employees feel emotionally linked, identified and involved with the organisation	Want to stay	Desire
Continuance	Extent to which employees remain in the organisation due to the recognition of the cost associated with quitting, the lack of an alternative job, or the feeling that the personal sacrifices generated by quitting will be considerably high	Need to stay	Need
Normative	Extent to which employees have a moral duty to remain in the organisation	Must stay	Obligation

Balassiano & Salles (2012, p. 274)

Affective commitment is described as “a work related attitude with positive feelings towards the organisation” (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010, p. 252). According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2006), affective commitment reflects emotional ties, positive feelings of identification, attachment to and involvement in the organisation. Demir et al. (2009) argue that the strength of an employee’s level of commitment is influenced by the employee’s needs in relation to the organisation and his or her actual experience within the organisation. Affective commitment is influenced by factors such as cohesion within the group, role clarity and participation, to name a few. It is arguable that soldiers and police officers who have high levels of affective commitment can be expected to identify strongly with the vision and mission of the SANDF and SAPS. Applying Meyer and Allen’s model to student police officers, Currie and Dolley (2006) postulated that affective and normative commitment would positively relate to intentions to establish long-term careers in policing.

Findings by Tucker et al. (2005) show that soldiers in units reporting high collective working hours also reported high levels of affective commitment. It can be expected that the job characteristics of soldiers and police officers will lead to them developing affective commitment as this is rooted in employee identification with the organisation. Continuance commitment reflects the perceived cost of leaving the organisation (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). Correspondingly, continuance commitment would positively correlate with variables such as length of service and age (Currie & Dolley, 2006). Employees who experience an inability to transfer skills and education tend to have a high need to remain in their organisations (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). It is logical to assume that soldiers and police officers who experience a restriction of options for employment because their skills are not transferable will remain in their organisation. It is arguable that continuance commitment is calculative in nature as an individual has to weigh the cost and risks that are associated with leaving the organisation.

Normative commitment reflects perceived obligation to stay with the organisation (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). Allen (2003) and Gade (2003) state that the military is an ideal place to explore the concept 'normative commitment'. Normative commitment is important because national confidence in a country's defence force and police services goes beyond the weapons and the strength of a soldier or police officer. Obligation to the organisation is demonstrated in the way that the duties of the soldier or police officer are executed (Currie & Dolley, 2006; Gade, 2003). Normative commitment would be strong among police officers with a strong sense of obligation and loyalty.

According to Gade (2003), affective commitment represents a soldier's emotional attachment to military service, continuance commitment represents a soldier's need to continue being in the military, and normative commitment represents a soldier's felt obligation to remain in the military either as a moral obligation or as a calling. Similarly Koprulu (2013) is of the opinion that affective commitment represents a police officer's emotional attachment to the police service, continuance commitment represents a police officer's need to continue being in the police service, and normative commitment represents a police officer's felt obligation to remain in the police service.

Another central theme to understanding employee organisational commitment is autonomous motivation. In their study, Gagné et al. (2004) found that employees' autonomous motivation facilitates organisational commitment. Gagne and Deci (2005) postulate that autonomous motivation is central to enhancing employee commitment because when employees engage in work activities they find interesting, they excel. Furthermore, autonomous motivation is intentional i.e. if soldiers and police officers value the fact that they are protectors of nations and understand the importance of doing their share to protect inhabitants, they would feel autonomous while performing their various tasks.

Understanding commitment is crucial because of the complexity of the work of soldiers and police officers work. Being a member of the SANDF or the SAPS represents a unique public service that rests on high levels of employee dedication. Koprulu (2013) corroborates this notion as he or she maintains that organisational commitment is vital for the military and police service as countries need committed security forces that perform and serve better. Committed employees are likely to work hard in order to achieve the organisational objectives. Currie and Dolley (2006) hold the notion that the degree of commitment of individual police officers to their duties can be attributed to policing performance. Findings by Dick and Metcalfe (2001) indicate that how participants in their study felt they were managed and supported had a strong bearing on commitment for both groups of the study (civilians and police officers).

In the last years, research studies have been conducted to determine the level of commitment among police officers and soldiers. Metcalfe and Dick (2000) found that police officers' levels of commitment vary according to the individual's position in the hierarchy and this increases with tenure. Similarly, Dick and Metcalfe (2001) found that constables show an average level of commitment. Demir et al. (2009) findings indicate that increased organisational commitment is stimulated by professional commitment and positive opinions about organisational incentives amongst military doctors. Kelly (2015) found that South African navy officers have low levels of overall organisational commitment. Aggarwal-Gupta et al. (2010) state that contextual factors of the organisation (such as culture, size, goals and strategies) have an influence on employees' commitment, thus influencing their purpose in life and environmental mastery.

These research findings only indicate the level of commitment. There seems to be limited research studies that report relationships between employee commitment and psychological wellbeing. Raina (2013) acknowledges that little research has been conducted to explore the link between psychological wellbeing and organisational commitment. The limited research examining this relationship does not necessarily mean that such a relationship does not exist; it merely indicates the necessity of further theorising and engaging in empirical studies to examine the relationship between organisational commitment and psychological wellbeing.

2.3.3 Job involvement

According to Lambert and Paoline (2012), job involvement is dynamic and is affected by the quality of the work environment. Rotenberry and Moberg (2007) mention that job involvement is a stable attitude that was developed when the value of work became part of the individual's self-concept. According to Nazem and Mozaiini (2014, p. 107), "the concept of job involvement is more accurately defined when it is considered as a set of attitudes with emotional and behavioural components that can be influenced by the environment".

Kanungo (1982, p. 342) defines job involvement as "an individual's cognitive or belief state of psychological identification with the job". Kahn (1990, p. 694) defines job involvement as the "harnessing of organisations' members selves to their work roles i.e. people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively and emotional during role performance". Rizwan and Khan (2011, p. 78) describe job involvement as "the degree to which one is cognitively preoccupied with, engaged in and concerned with one's present job". Job involvement is described by Uygur and Kilic (2009, p. 114) as "motivation to carry out work and it is highly compatible with personal and organisational goals, which stimulates motivation among the employees to generate positive work outcomes". There are various theoretical models that have been mentioned in literature, which facilitate the understanding of job involvement; however, for this study, the motivational approach and the integrated model have been selected. Kanungo (1982) motivational approach incorporates different approaches to job involvement, as well as psychological and sociological factors.

According to Lubakaya (2014, p. 80), the underlying notion of Kanungo (1982) conceptualisation of job involvement is that “it is affected by the potential for personal socialisation experience and the likelihood that the work environment can satisfy personal demands”. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) integrated model of job involvement comprises three theoretical perspectives:

- according to the dispositional approach, job involvement is dependent on and influenced by personality characteristics such as age, gender, marital status and job seniority, which in turn determines employees’ attitudes towards the job;
- job involvement in the situation approach is the employee’s personal attitude towards the job and is affected by leadership style, participative decision-making and social factors; and
- the interaction approach is a combination of the dispositional and situation approaches, which integrates personal characteristics and environment to explain employees’ attitudes and behaviours in the workplace, which leads to employees developing high levels of job involvement. Figure 2.1 below illustrates the model.

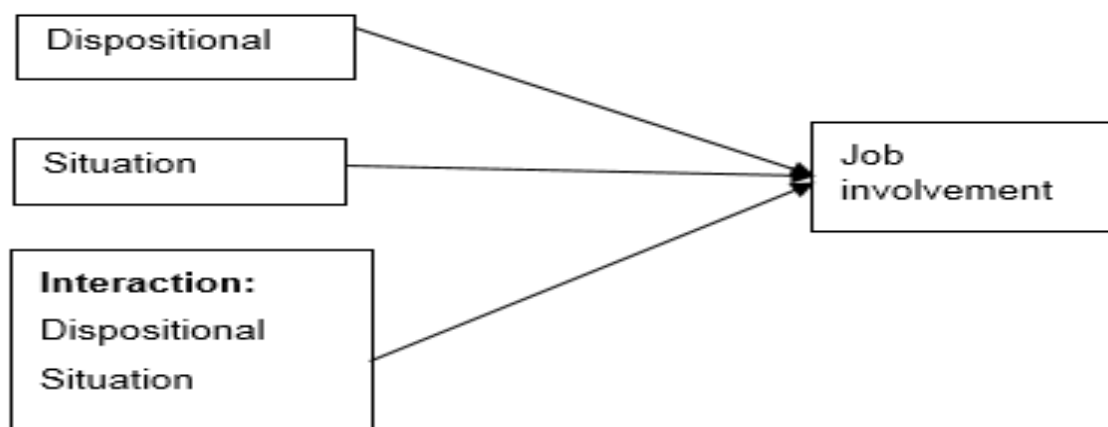


Figure 2.1. Rabinowitz and Hall job involvement theory model

(Adapted from Akhtar & Udham, 2010)

When individuals join organisations, they bring their own values, which they integrate into the work environment. Based on their experiences within the work environment, they make a choice whether they want to be involved in their job or not. According to Saeidi and Asgari (2016), job involvement affects individual outcomes (such as career goals, job satisfaction) and organisational outcomes (such as productivity, sense of belonging, reduced absenteeism). There are variations to the extent to which employees are involved in their jobs. An employee with a high degree of job involvement will put in considerable effort, which will lead to productivity. On the other hand, an employee who has a low degree of involvement is inclined to be unproductive (Rizwan & Khan, 2011; Rotenberry & Moberg, 2007).

The variations in the levels of job involvement amongst different employees are a result of the characteristics of the job and the employees' individual needs. Van der Walt and Swanepoel (2015) state that, in order for an employee to experience job involvement, he or she must firstly perceive the job as important; secondly they must psychologically identify with the job; and experience that the job itself satisfies his or her needs. When employees find significance and achievement in their jobs, it signifies the commitment and cooperation that are linked to their job involvement (Govender & Parumasur, 2010). It is arguable that, when soldiers and police officers are repeatedly engaged in their duties, it may lead to them experiencing sustainable positive effects which could facilitate their psychological wellbeing. Lambert and Paoline (2012) as well as Uygur and Kilic (2009) note that the importance of job involvement is the psychosocial bond between the employee and his or her job.

Aderibigbe, Igboanusi and Gwaison (2014) postulate that job involvement is a consequence of work situations and individual differences; thus, it can be affected or affect psychological variables. The relationships between Carol Ryff's psychological wellbeing variables and job involvement are explored further:

- **Autonomy:** The work environment has transformed to the extent that employees with a high level of job involvement are considered valuable assets as they understand everyday tasks and are able to execute them without much supervision by seniors (Saeidi & Asgari, 2016).

This indicates that employees who are involved in their jobs are able to make sound decisions regarding tasks, which reflects their ability to function independently in the workplace. The ability to function independently could facilitate the job involvement of soldiers and police officers as they may develop feelings of effectiveness towards results that are achieved in the organisations.

- Positive relations with others: Brown (1996) as well as Uygur and Kilic (2009) suggest that job involvement is deeply rooted in an individual's disposition and socialisation. Job involvement can be affected by relationships (between the leader, subordinates and co-workers) that an employee has in the workplace (Savell, Teague & Tremble, 1995). Positive relationships with others in the workplace symbolises teamwork, friendships and dependency. According to M.L. Lengnick-Hall and C.A. Lengnick-Hall (2003), positive relationships with others in the workplace could lead to guidance, feedback and recommendations with regard to performing tasks. This can provide soldiers and police officers with the necessary support that will allow them to commit energy and be involved in their jobs.
- Environmental mastery: The manner in which employees express their job involvement differs from person to person as it depends on their experiences in the workplace (Van der Walt & Swanepoel, 2015). Kanungo's approach advocates the notion that an employee's work environment can satisfy his or her personal demand. Brown (1996, p. 239) propounds the view that "work environments that (a) provide a sense of meaningfulness of one's work, (b) offer control over the methods by which work is accomplished, (c) maintain clear and consistent behavioural norms, (d) provide feedback about accomplished work, (e) include supportive relations with superiors and co-workers, and (f) offer opportunities for personal growth and development are conducive for job involvement". When soldiers and police officers have successful experiences, they gain mastery over their work environment.

- Purpose in life: Elements of being in state security service can be internalised to the extent that they provide direction and meaning to soldiers and police officers as they continuously engage in their duties. When soldiers and police officers understand their purpose in life they will be motivated to explore their life and work environment by engaging in a variety of activities, which allow them to grow as individuals (Lambert & Paoline, 2012).
- Personal growth: Job involvement is key to personal growth, as employees' engagements and experiences in the workplace make their job more meaningful and fulfilling (Brown, 1996; Khan et al., 2011). Van Wyk, Boshoff and Cilliers (2003) propound the view that positive personal results of goal-directed behaviour and personal growth can be attributed to an employee's positive state of intense psychological identification with his or her job. It is uncertain whether soldiers and police officers' growth need strength is likely to be positively related to job involvement because employees with substantial growth needs are more likely to engage themselves fully in job activities as a means of achieving satisfaction of psychological needs.
- Self-acceptance: Self-acceptance has the ability to facilitate soldiers and police officers' job involvement as they can have the confidence to perform tasks with sufficiency. This attitude will enable soldiers and police officers to make the best use of skills that they have in their job. As Rizwan and Khan (2011) and Rotenberry and Moberg (2007) have established a relationship between job involvement and performance, it is arguable that soldiers and police officers who have high levels of self-efficacy could be motivated to apply effort in their tasks and be successful. The applied effort may thereby be linked to their levels of job involvement.

Engaging in activities in the workplace may lead employees to experience positive effectiveness, which facilitates psychological wellbeing. Thus, being in the state security environment offers soldiers and police officers opportunities to renew sustainable personal resources, such as resilience and hope, which could enhance their psychological wellbeing.

These personal resources could protect them against the negative effect of the work environment. Under the assumption that aspects of psychological wellbeing associate closely with job involvement, this hints at a relationship between job involvement and psychological wellbeing.

2.4 OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

The uncertain and competitive work environment that characterises modern life has led to stress becoming an integral part of people's lives (Kang, 2005; Sharma, 2015). The origins of employee stress cannot be ascribed to one domain only as it can originate from an individual's work life, personal life or the interaction between the two (Luthans, 2002). According to Adegoke (2014), stress in the workplace occurs when employees are presented with job demands, which challenge their ability to cope as those demands might not match the knowledge, skills and capabilities that an employee has. Kang (2005) propounds the view that occupational stressors exist in every organisation, however the degree of their influence, varies from occupation to occupation and from individual to individual, as what causes distress to one person may bring joy to the other person. Tucker et al. (2005) note that when a person in the work setting experiences stress, it influences his or her wellbeing and also becomes part of that person's work context.

Various terms have been used interchangeably by researchers to describe stressful experiences encountered in the workplace, such as job stress, work stress and occupational stress. Literature shows no single definition of occupational stress as there are diverse perceptions of the nature of workplace stressors (Babatunde, 2013). Pienaar et al. (2007, p. 248) define occupational stress as the "mind-body arousal resulting from the physical and/or psychological job demands". Bokti and Talib (2009, p. 301) describe occupational stress as "anything regarding the working environment or the nature of work itself that causes individual perceived stress".

Occupational stress comprises environmental factors, such as poor working conditions, that are associated with a particular job, politics, economics and technology (Khan et al., 2013). Sharma (2015) describes occupational stress as a combination of various job-related stressors which could influence employee performance and wellbeing. The aforementioned definitions and descriptions indicate that occupational stress is an environmental and relational concept.

When an individual perceives stress as positive, it is termed eustress. When an employee interprets a stressor in a positive light, it drives behaviours and has positive implications in the workplace and employee psychological wellbeing (Simmons, 2000). According to Lu, Cooper, Kao and Zhou (2003), individuals who view stress in a positive light, are able to view the stressor as manageable, and they apply personal resources, such as hope and meaningfulness, to the situation. It can be argued that when a soldier or police officer experiences a particular stressor in the work environment, he or she may view it as manageable, and apply alternative methods to turn the negative stressor around; hence, may become successful in his or her work environment.

When an individual perceives stress as negative, it is termed distress. When an employee experiences negative stress, he or she tends to be ineffective at work as he or she will experience negative emotions and apply ineffective methods (such as drinking, smoking, taking drugs) to seek release (Harpold & Feemster, 2002). It is with doubt that soldiers and police officers who view a stressor negatively will be clouded with anxiety and worry in the work environment; hence, he or she will be unsuccessful. Although researchers have divided stress into positive and negative stress, Simmons (2000) holds the notion that these are not opposite ends of a continuum and cannot be separated.

Various occupational stress models have been explored in literature; however, in this study, only three are discussed:

- Job demand–control (JDC) model

Two distinct perspectives of the work environment are the focus of the JDC model i.e. job demand and job control. The basic premise that underlies the model is that the interaction between job control and job demand produces diverse psychosocial experiences for the employee; however, this is dependent on the degree of job demand and job control the employee experiences (De Bruin & Taylor, 2006; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). Job demands can be viewed as quantitative aspects of the job (such as role conflict and workload) and job control can be viewed as an employee's skills and ability to cope with specific tasks. Karasek (as cited in De Bruin & Taylor, 2006) categorised these work experiences into four types of jobs, namely high-strain jobs (high demands and low control), active jobs (high demands and high control), low-strain jobs (low demands and high control), and passive jobs (low demands and low control). The JDC model as an occupational stress model intends to predict undesirable outcomes of strain.

- The Lazarus transactional model

This model suggests that stress arises from an individual appraisal of environmental demands, which may be taxing on individual resources, consequently threatening their wellbeing (Holroyd & Lazarus, 1982). The model is based on the ideology that, when a potentially stressful event occurs, it triggers the primary appraisal process that is used by an individual to assess the degree of the threat. When an individual perceives the event as a threat or challenge, the secondary appraisal process enables the individual to decide whether he or she has the coping resources to deal with the threat. There is a possibility that the individual's cognitive judgement could lead to stress, which in turn could affect outcomes at the individual and organisational level (Holroyd & Lazarus, 1982). The appraisal steps in the model indicate that individuals perceive stress differently. The aim of this model is to show relationships between, work demands, stress response and outcomes.

- Person –environment fit

Another theoretical model, which has been extensively described in literature to understand stress, is the person–environment fit, which is based on the theory of an employee’s compatibility and adjustment in the work setting (Koprulu, 2013). The model portrays stress as a lack of fit between a person and the environment, which generates damaging psychological, behavioural and physiological outcomes. The model hypothesises that a lack of fit lead to some form of strain and good fit could lead to positive benefits. The underlying premise is that attitudes, behaviour and outcomes are a result of the interaction between the person and the environment (Edwards, 1996).

Occupational stress in the military and police service is multidimensional as it affects soldiers and police officers socially, mentally, emotionally and spiritually (Bartone, 1999; Koprulu, 2013). Various organisational challenges have been posed by the budget constraint in the SANDF, such as the inability of the DOD to rejuvenate the SANDF, the aging force, an increase in the SANDF skills gaps, an accelerated loss of expertise and its negative effect on training and operations (Mapisa-Nqakula, 2016). Organisational challenges in the SAPS include brutality, corruption, a lack of resources and a lack of unity amongst national leaders (Burger, 2014). Although these challenges are prevalent within the SANDF and SAPS, the demand to be operational ready to partake in operations is high.

These identified challenges have the potential to become stressors for soldiers and police officers who are partaking in operations. Military operations range from training, to peacekeeping missions, humanitarian missions and government missions. In all these missions, a soldier might be exposed to situations that could cause some level of stress (Skomorovsky, 2013). Table 2.2 below shows various stressors that may be relevant and active in a military operation.

Table 2.3
Stressors in military operations

Category	Specific potential stressors
Work	Task, load, pace, ability, ambiguity, confusion, responsibility, restriction, supervision, group climate, work policies, work goals, advancement
Social–interpersonal	Acceptance, friendship, respect, status, conflict, change, family separation, safety, missed milestones, guilt, usurpation, communication restrictions, change, loss, worry
Self-identity	Person–role conflict, role–role conflict
Psychological environment	Hostility, aggression, injury, death, maiming, fear, anxiety, responsibility (self), responsibility (others), disapproval, repugnance, uncertainty, boredom, insignificance, isolation, abandonment
Cultural environment	Unfamiliarity, value clash, discomfort, language, customs, misunderstanding
Physical environment	Deprivation, discomfort, extreme climate, extreme terrain, privacy loss, exhaustion, noxious, unhealthy, isolation

(Campbell & Nobel, 2009, p. 52)

Pienaar et al. (2007) note that policing in South Africa is stressful. This can be attributed to the fact that crimes, such as car hijacking, street, residential and business robberies, murder, sexual violence, riots, protests and gang violence are on the rise (Burger, 2014; Crime Statistics South Africa, 2014/2015). The crimes as stated above require visible policing. Adegoke (2014) highlights that police officers stationed in visible policing (such as crime prevention, patrol, and attending to various complaints in the station) tend to be more stressed than other police officers who are not in visible policing. According to Pasillas et al. (2006), police officers, in their line of duty, experience a variety of negative psychological and physical experiences.

The psychological and physical experiences that soldiers and police officers encounter may be stressful and could affect their psychological wellbeing. Adegoke (2014) and Akintayo (2012) mention that stressors experienced in the work environment could influence psychological wellbeing negatively. Bliese and Jex (1999) found that soldiers who are members of units that work long hours tend to report a number of negative psychological wellbeing outcomes.

Rani et al. (2012) study findings show that low levels of occupational stress, support and positive job experiences lead to wellbeing of police officers allowing them to feel empowered and to experience continued personal growth in the workplace. All things considered, it could be argued that occupational stress is resolute in the psychological and physiological demands in the workplace.

Work-related stress adversely influences employees within an organisation; hence, Colligan and Higgins (2006) suggest that sufficient focus should be placed on understanding stressors within the work environment. De Bruin and Taylor (2005) identified several categories of workplace stressors from various literature sources and interview feedback. The categories include: role ambiguity, relationships, working environment, tools and equipment, work-home interface, workload, autonomy and career advancement or job security. The stressors identified by De Bruin and Taylor (2005) are explored below as they are applicable to the work environment of soldiers and police officers.

2.4.1 Role ambiguity

According to De Bruin and Taylor (2005, p. 753), role ambiguity relates to “the amount of stress experienced by an individual due to vague specifications or constant change regarding the expectations, duties and constraints that define the individual’s job”. Choudhury (2013) is of the opinion that role ambiguity tends to arise in large diverse organisations. Since soldiers and police officers are part of large and diverse organisational groups, their perception of their role may differ from the expectations of their leaders.

SANDF and SAPS are populated with senior officials, while the operating units of the organisations are lean. This can create ambiguity in terms of the reporting line and the people who are responsible for giving direct orders during deployment. Since role ambiguity occurs when there is a lack of specificity and predictability regarding an employee’s role function, it could manifest in various ways in the defence and police sector as jobs are characterised by complexity.

Campbell and Nobel (2009) mention that, in military deployments, role ambiguity may manifest in duties, authority, relationships with multinational forces, local authority, international agencies and policies. According to Glissmeyer, Bishop and Fass (2007) role ambiguity for police officers include frequently entering situations where there, is no possibility for complete information. The military and police service entails complex work which may lead to increased levels of role ambiguity. High levels of role ambiguity should be a concern for the SANDF and SAPS, as Choudhury (2013) states that, when employees experience high levels of role ambiguity, they tend to seek damaging coping strategies.

2.4.2 Relationships

Relationships' refer to "the stress experienced as a result of having poor interpersonal relationships with colleagues and superiors as well as being subjected to interpersonal abuse" (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005, p. 753). According to Lu et al. (2003), relationships in the workplace are important as they affect wellbeing. This has implications for soldiers and police officers because most of their tasks require them to work in teams. Good relationships amongst soldiers and police officers could aid when performing tasks as they could provide tangible assistance and support each other thereby lowering frustrations. Campbell and Nobel (2009) note the critical importance of relationships amongst colleagues in the military as hostility with colleagues ('brothers in arms') may be a serious stressor during military operations.

According to Patterson (2003), good relationships with co-workers, friends, spouses and supervisors and interactions with police officers in other stations are essential as police officers experience a variety of stressful events. If the relationship is not good, it could be stressful to the police officer as he or she will not be able to talk, share ideas or strategies of coping in the workplace. Relationships with the community (locally and international), a lack of public support and media recognition of military efforts may create stress, as the media tends to emphasise difficulties and failures more than they report success (Campbell & Nobel, 2009). Morash, Haarr and Kwak (2006) note that informal relationships between police officers and community members could lead to lower stress levels for police officers.

2.4.3 Tools and equipment

Tools and equipment relates to the “stress experienced due to a lack of relevant tools and equipment needed to do a job properly, or working with inappropriate, broken, or complex machinery” (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005, p. 754). If relevant tools and equipment are provided insufficiently, soldiers and police officers will not be able to perform their duties sufficiently. Chandrasekar (2011) emphasises that it is important to ensure employees are always provided with the necessary tools and equipment to do their job as it contributes to their performance levels. Bartone (1999) mentions that the deteriorating equipment in the military could cause stress for soldiers in operations as they will be unable to perform their duties adequately. Organisational stressors experienced by police officers include inadequate and poor-quality equipment, role ambiguity and a lack of support (Adegoke, 2014; Lanterman et al., 2010; Pasillas et al., 2006).

It is arguable that a lack of relevant tools and equipment could increase negative stress level as it makes dealing with crisis situations and performing daily tasks difficult. A lack of relevant tools and equipment could have a negative effect on the ability of soldiers and police officers to master the environment in which they operate. Furthermore, soldiers and police officers might develop feelings of less control over their working environment, which could have a negative effect on their experiences in the workplace.

2.4.4 Workload

Workload refers to “the amount of stress experienced by individuals due to the perception that they are unable to cope or be productive with the amount of work allocated to them” (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005, p. 753). Soldiers and police officers have to deal with complex tasks, which at times, make it necessary for them to apply skills that they have not developed properly. This may lead to them being unable to cope with the amount of work. In the operational environment, workload stress could manifest as a result of the demands that have been placed on the soldier or police officer to adjust to new responsibilities without being given sufficient time to prepare for it.

Tucker et al. (2005) observe that soldiers face a climate of increasing work demands coupled with declining resources as the nature of military work has expanded with the addition of multiple new tasks and responsibilities, and these contribute to experiences of negative occupational stress. The demand for policing services has expanded, and the deteriorating public resources have led to the collaboration of the SAPS with other security sectors (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2007). Bliese and Castro (2000) deduce that in instances where employees are unable to cope with work demands, they experience high levels of negative stress.

2.4.5 Autonomy

Autonomy refers to “the amount of stress experienced by an individual due to a lack of empowerment in the workplace” (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005, p. 753). According to Kotze, Menon and Vos (2007), great emphasis has been placed by the state and private sector on empowerment. Wang (2014) argues that organisations benefit from employee empowerment; therefore, it is necessary for organisations to allow employees access to opportunities, information and resources, which facilitate employee empowerment. If opportunities, information and resources are insufficient, employees may feel inadequately valued and respected, and this can have a negative effect when performing roles. It is important that the SANDF and SAPS remove conditions that foster a lack of empowerment in the workplace.

In order for soldiers and police officers to feel empowered, high-ranking employees should share the appropriate information, delegate authority and provide low-ranking members with knowledge. This will energise soldiers and police officers to perform better and to allow for shared responsibility amongst all members of the organisation. According to Elnaga and Imran (2014) and Sahoo and Das (2011), organisations that emphasise autonomy, and individual participation and provide proper information to their employees attain organisational excellence. Kotze et al. (2007) assert that the SANDF has adjusted to societal changes and emphasised empowerment of soldiers.

Elnaga and Imran (2014) maintain that employees who are empowered tend to have high levels of self-efficacy. Having high levels of self-efficacy is beneficial to soldiers and police officers as this will lead to them mastering their work environment. The extra confidence that employees gain from being empowered results in low levels of stress and increases productivity (Sahoo & Das, 2011).

2.4.6 Work–home interface

Work–home interface refers to “the stress experienced by an individual as a result of a lack of social support at home or from friends and work–non work additivity, spill over and conflict with regard to stress within and outside the workplace” (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005, p. 754). Work–family issues have become increasingly important for employees, families and organisations with less time for family responsibilities and obligations creating stress on the home–work interface. According to Allen, Herst, Bruck and Sutton (2000), the importance that is placed on getting the job done has taken over most people’s lives, in turn causing a potential for work–family conflict. Although early researchers might have assumed that the worlds of work and home were separate, countless empirical studies and several review articles examining the work–home interface have documented that the two domains influence and are influenced by each other (Brotheridge & Lee, 2005).

Nikandrou, Panayotopoulou and Apospori (2008) mention that the culture and environment of an organisation determine the expectation around an employee’s role. Mikkelsen and Burke (2004) observed that organisational culture of the police force could interfere with satisfying marital relations and this has a negative effect on police officers’ psychological wellbeing. Similarly, Kgosana (2010) recognised that military culture interferes with family functioning. The work and family lives of a soldier or police officer are not stagnant, as there are constant changes within these domains, which bring about challenges. Sometimes commencement of military and police operations is sudden and unexpected. This conflicts with activities that need to take place in the family sphere.

Adler, Huffman, Bliese and Castro (2005) mention that the length of time spent in peacekeeping or combat deployments means time spent away from family, and this has an effect on family wellbeing. Similarly, Lanterman et al. (2010) note that the shift work that police officers go through has an effect on their ability to interact with family. According to Brough (2005), operational hassles are associated with increased levels of work–family conflict for police officers. Rantanen, Kinnunen, Fedt and Pulkkinen (2008) suggest that work–family conflict is an antecedent of high psychological strain and is thought to cause a state where an individual’s mental resources are threatened and depleted, leading to a possible decrease in wellbeing. On these grounds, one could argue that the inability of soldiers and police officers to strike a balance between their demanding work schedules and their family could have a negative effect on their psychological wellbeing.

It is imperative that interventions, such as support from both family and work, be developed to enhance soldiers and police officers’ harmony and satisfaction with life in order to balance work and family needs successfully. Siu (2013) mentions that work–family balance is an important factor in an individual’s psychological wellbeing. Reed and Segal (2000) noted that the health and wellbeing of military personnel are key to their efficiency in military operations, with the wellbeing of their families representing an integral component.

2.4.7 Career advancement

Career advancement refers to “the stress experienced by an individual as a result of a perceived lack of opportunity to further his or her career prospects within the organisation for which he or she works” (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005, p. 754). According to Ditsela (2012, p. 29), career advancement refers to “opportunities within the organisation that promote upward movement in terms of remuneration, training and career prospects”. Mabila, Dorasamy and Wallis (2014) are of the opinion that employees aspire to progress steadily in the organisation within which they serve. Ashton (2004) is of the view that an organisation’s structure plays a role in career advancement.

The organisational structures of the SAPS and SANDF are rigid in the sense that they provide very few job vacancies, which has a negative effect on career advancement of soldiers and police officers. For soldiers and police officers, career advancement entails a clearly marked path of progress through the various rank structures that are available in their organisations. When soldiers and police officers know that each one of them has an equal chance of making it to the top through training provided by the organisation within which they serve, it becomes easier for them to put in their best effort when executing their duties. The training and development opportunities that are available to soldiers and police officers enable them to experience personal growth and achievement. According to Mabila et al. (2014), organisations which ensure that employees advance in their careers, tend to perform well. Police officers regard growth and development as important because it enables organisational expectations to be met (Mathevani, 2012).

2.4.8 Job security

Job security relates to “an individual’s uncertainty about his or her future in the current workplace” (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005, p. 754). According to Mathevani (2012), police officers have high levels of job security; however, the degree of career advancement within the SAPS is not sufficient. A benefit to being in the military is job security, in the sense that a soldier does not have to worry about getting fired whereas in the civilian world, job security is not guaranteed (Tilley & Walker, 2004). This is not the case in the South African context, as the current SANDF employment terms have been changed to contractual basis. This has caused soldiers to be uncertain about their jobs (Ditsela, 2012). This uncertainty could cause soldiers and police officers to withdraw psychologically from their jobs.

Taking into consideration the various categories of occupational stressors, it is arguable that soldiers and police officers’ constant exposure to stressors can be destructive for them. Even though soldiers and police officers are trained to deal with different situations, certain circumstances create significant stressors. Harpold and Feemster (2002) findings indicate that work-related factors are significant sources of stressors within the state security environment.

Many research studies have shown that occupational stressors have negative effects on individual wellbeing as it is strongly related to job burnout, depressive symptoms, general psychological stress and physical health symptoms (Adegoke 2014; Eby et al., 2005; Karunanidhi & Chitra, 2015). The success of the SANDF and SAPS depends largely on the employees' ability to identify, understand and mitigate various stressors.

2.5 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

Hansen, Buitendach and Kanengoni (2015) are of the opinion that a demanding work environment could be taxing and has an effect on employees' internal resources. In order for organisations to be successful, there needs to be a paradigm shift from focusing exclusively on pathologies and what is wrong to a balanced approach, which considers correcting weaknesses and building employee strengths (Dawkins, 2014). The underlying argument is in favour of the use of a positive approach which focuses on the notion that certain positive capacities could aid in the developing and flourishing of employees (Hodges, 2010; Luthans, 2002; Simons & Buitendach, 2013; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). The development of positive psychology stems from Seligman (1999) who advocates for a new scientific approach which focuses on improving the lives of people. The main theoretical premise behind positive psychology is the focus on developing strengths and virtues of individuals. As much as positive psychology focuses on strengths, Snyder and Lopez (2007) acknowledge that it does not lessen the importance of human suffering and pain.

As an endorsement to this point, Luthans (2002) asserts that a more positive approach is needed in the workplace to assist employees and employers to deal with challenges and uncertainties that characterise the world of work today. Current research seems to validate the view that positive psychology as a phenomenon was developed to enable individuals to focus on the aspects that they possess (Snyder & Lopez, 2007). The phenomenon of positive psychology has been applied by researchers giving rise to the development of positive organisational behaviour. Luthans (2002, p. 59) defines positive organisational behaviour as "the study and application of positively orientated human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace".

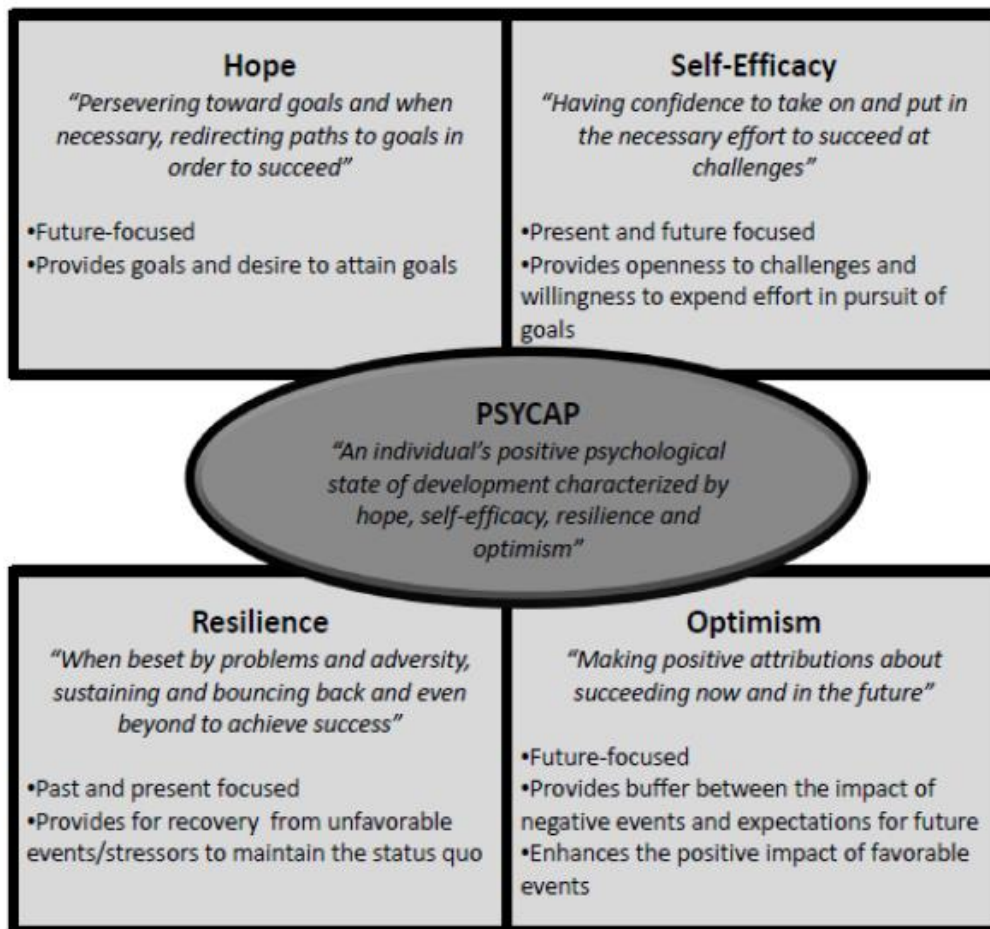
Lok (2011) states that, with the development of positive psychology, there has been a call for more positive organisational behaviour, specifically psychological capital (PsyCap) which means the investment in human resources to enhance employees' job performance. Over the last couple of years, researchers have provided ample support for the assertion that PsyCap emerged from the field of positive psychology (Dawkins, 2014; Rahimnia, Mazidi & Mohammaszadeh, 2013; Singh & Mansi, 2009; Siu, 2013). The theoretical foundation for PsyCap is based on the positive psychology and positive organisational behaviour phenomenon.

According to Luthans (2002), the focus of PsyCap is on positive qualities and personal strengths; thus, Luthans et al. (2006) study concluded that PsyCap has a positive influence on individual and organisational performance. There is overwhelming evidence corroborating the notion that positive psychological capacities have the ability to be developed and enhanced (Dawkins, 2014; Luthans et al., 2006; Sahoo & Sia, 2015). According to Sahoo and Sia (2015), research into the various dimensions of PsyCap has demonstrated that each component of PsyCap (i.e. hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism) is desirable in organisations and personal lives of employees.

Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007, p. 3) define psychological capital as

“an individual’s positive psychological state of development that is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success”.

Figure 2.2 below provides a summary of the individual contribution of each dimension to overall PsyCap.



Dawkins (2014, p. 9)

Figure 2.2. A summary of individual contributions to psychological capital

2.5.1 Self-efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy stems from Albert Bandura's social learning theory and social cognitive theory, which state that individuals can accomplish what they want by utilising skills that they have to respond to the environment (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is defined as "ones conviction or confidence about his/her abilities to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources of actions needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context" (Avey et al., 2010, p. 20).

Increased self-efficacy is inclusive of achieving success and processing and interpretation the success that one has achieved. According to Luthans et al. (2007), individuals with high levels of self-efficacy have five important characteristics: they (a) set high goals, (b) embrace challenges, (c) are self-motivated, (d) invest effort in order to accomplish goals and (e) persevere when faced with obstacles. In the work context, self-efficacy is developed through experience and mastering tasks (Setar, Buitendach & Kanengoni, 2015). Self-efficacy could help soldiers and police officers to be confident about their knowledge and skills when performing their assigned tasks.

2.5.2 Optimism

The concept of optimism stems from expectancy value theories which state that individuals are in active pursuit of their goals, which are of importance to the person, and the level of confidence in attaining the goal (Scheier & Carver, 2009). Optimism is defined as “the attributions one makes and explanatory style one uses in response to events” (Avey et al., 2010, p. 20). According to Dawkins (2014), optimism should be both realistic and flexible. When an individual has realistic optimism, he or she is able to perform a logic assessment in any given situation. When an individual possesses flexible optimism he or she is able to appraise situations better and he or she can choose an appropriate responding style. Optimistic soldiers and police officers can be expected to have positive expectations of outcomes in their work environment despite the constant change that characterises it.

2.5.3 Hope

The concept of hope stems from Snyder’s hope theory which states that human beings are goal-directed in their behaviour. Hope is defined as “a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful goal directed energy and pathways to meet goals” (Helland & Winston, 2005, p. 42). Individuals with high levels of hope are motivated to achieve their goals through their sense of agency, which in turn leads to their ability to develop techniques to get the things that they want.

If their original pathways are blocked, hopeful individuals generate alternative pathways to achieve their goals. Hopeful individuals who have generated alternative pathways also generate alternative strategies in instances where there are obstacles in their goal planning (Dawkins, 2014). According to Schoeman (2012), hope is rational, open-ended, sustained through moral dialogue and generative. Hope can facilitate soldiers and police officers' ability to recognise the operational, tactical and strategic goals of their organisations and translate their actions into achieving those goals.

2.5.4 Resilience

Masten and Reed (2002, p. 75) define resilience as “a class of phenomenon characterised by patterns of positive adaptation in the context of significant adversity or risk”. Resilience is defined as “one’s ability to ‘bounce back’ or rebound when faced with disappointing outcome, setback or failure or even positive events” (Avey et al., 2010, p. 20). The aforementioned definitions indicate that resilience can be viewed as a process that enables good outcomes in spite of adverse circumstances. According to Reivich and Shatte (2002), resilience is the confidence one has in believing that they can change the outcome; hence, Luthans (2002) and Schoeman (2012) maintain that it is a key success characteristic in overall satisfaction with life. Repeated exposure to difficult situations and learning from these situations increase an individual’s resilience (Setar et al., 2015).

Sahoo and Sia (2015) mention that in today’s turbulent work environment, the ability to bounce back from adversity is relevant. Resilience has the ability to assist soldiers and police officers overcome the adverse work circumstances with which they are faced with and which allow them to adapt to those circumstances. Table 2.3 shows the principles of resilience.

Table 2.4***Principles of resilience***

Principle	Putting the principle to work
Perceive experiences constructively	Even if the experience causes pain, find a positive angle and move forward.
Perform positive adaptive behaviour	Perceive change as an opportunity, not as a threat. Allow responses to adapt to the needs of the situation, rather than execute ineffective programmed responses.
Ensure adequate external resources	Ensure adequate external resources to allow positive adaption to approach a wide variety of possible events.
Expand decision-making boundaries	Provide greater decision-making authority to allow positive adaptive responses and the use of resources to achieve the objective.
Practice bricolage	Develop the ability to create solutions on the spot using materials on hand.
Develop tolerance for uncertainty	Develop the ability to make decisions with less than the desired amount of information.
Build virtual role systems	In a team, individuals have a shared understanding of the team's mission and can fill in wherever needed to ensure smooth functioning of the team.

Schoeman (2012, p. 73–74)

Although many studies have indicated that the dimensions of PsyCap are distinct from one another Luthans et al. (2007) maintain the four dimensions of PsyCap share a common factor, namely a positive expectation for the future and the perseverance and motivation to meet objectives. This suggests that the four dimensions are best represented together as a core construct of PsyCap. Baron et al. (2013) acknowledge that PsyCap represents personal resources that aid individuals to attain success in a wide variety of life activities.

2.5.5 Psychological capital and job attitudes

Kaplan and Bickes (2013) mention that individuals have different affective and attitudinal tendencies, so it can be expected that their perceptions of organisational conditions and behaviours differ. PsyCap improves an employee's strong positive aspects and contributes to employee performance and productivity. Furthermore, it has an important role to play in developing positive employee attitudes, which in turn can be beneficial to the organisation and the employee. A consistent link has been established between PsyCap and employee attitudes (Hodges, 2010).

Badran and Youssef-Morgan (2015) mention that PsyCap could contribute to employee job satisfaction, i.e. –

- efficacy can motivate the effort to pursue and achieve challenging goals, which can lead to satisfaction;
- hope can provide employees with a sense of control to address conflicting and uncertain demands;
- resilience enables processing of setbacks and builds coping mechanisms; and
- optimism can create a system of positive appraisals of job dimensions.

Badran and Youssef-Morgan (2015), Jung and Yoon (2015) and Luthans et al. (2007) conducted studies to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and PsyCap. Their findings indicate that PsyCap has a positive influence on job satisfaction. Similarly, Cetin's (2011) findings indicate that job satisfaction is positively related to three dimensions of PsyCap (i.e. resilience, hope and optimism). Etebarian et al. (2012) mention that the strength of any organisations lies in the commitment level that employees have towards the organisation. This attitude reflects the psychological bond between the employee and the organisation and it has the ability to affect the goals and efforts to achieve organisational goals and the desire to remain in the organisation. Sinha, Talwar and Rajpal (2002) found that a positive relationship exists between organisational commitment and PsyCap.

It is arguable that employees who have high levels of PsyCap use such capacities to develop commitment to their organisation because of their cognitions, motivation and behaviours. Since employees with high levels of hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism are past-, present- and future-focused, they can be expected to show consistent attachment to their organisation. According to Setar et al. (2015), individuals with high levels of PsyCap tend to display high levels of job involvement. Khan et al. (2011) mention that job involvement can be elaborated that it is engagement due to the fact that work is a significant value to the employee. According to Bakker and Demerouti (2008), engaged employees possess personal resources such as self-esteem, optimism and self-efficacy, which enable them to control their work environment successfully. It can be expected that when soldiers and police officers possess high levels of PsyCap, they also possess greater psychological resources which they can use to be highly involved in their jobs.

2.5.6 Psychological capital and occupational stress

The work environment of soldiers and police officers is often very unpredictable and subject to rapid change. Moreover, they face high levels of personal risk, intense workload and they frequently operate under severe financial constraints. According to Hansen et al. (2015), when individuals experience stress, they seek to retain their resources so that they can maintain equilibrium. Baron et al. (2013) hold the view that since individuals with high self-efficacy believe they can accomplish whatever they set out to do, they can in essence get the job done, and this could help to reduce any experienced stress. Individuals who are optimistic tend to develop and make use of more effective coping strategies under stressful conditions. Individuals with high optimism believe in positive outcomes in almost any situation. This too may help to moderate stress (Luthans, Youssef, Sweetman & Harms, 2013).

The ability of people with high levels of hope to imagine multiple pathways to overcome challenges could reduce the prospect of becoming overwhelmed with work-related stress (Naran, 2013). Under stressful conditions in the work setting, an employee identifies important and large goals and breaks it into sub-goals that are easier to reach using alternative pathways (Sahoo & Sia, 2015).

According to Avey, Wernsing and Luthans (2008), sustaining hope during times of crisis is important for the wellbeing of employees. The ability of people with high levels of resilience to bounce back from adversity through different experiences could assist in reducing stress levels (Avey et al., 2008). There is overwhelming evidence corroborating the notion that there is a relationship between PsyCap and occupational stress. Lok (2011) supports the claim that PsyCap is applicable to Hong Kong police officers, who are known to be in a very stressful occupation. Authors McMurray, Pirola-Merlo, Sarros and Islam (2010) and Baron et al. (2013) show that the relative low levels of stress experienced by entrepreneurs are due to their high levels of PsyCap. Abbas and Raja (2015) results indicate that employees with high PsyCap reported low levels of job stress as compared to those with low levels of PsyCap. On the basis of research evidence currently available, it would seem fair to suggest that PsyCap relates to employee wellbeing, as employees cognitively evaluate stressful situations. Both theory and empirical findings reported in this study suggest that PsyCap could provide an effective buffer against high levels of stress.

2.5.7 Psychological capital and psychological wellbeing

According to Tripathi (2011), employees' psychological wellbeing is not tied to any particular situation. This means that employees' psychological wellbeing is not only dependent on organisational factors but also on personal factors. Avey et al. (2010, p.19) state "psychological wellbeing is a primary resource that is preserved by secondary work relate resources but has reciprocal effect on these same resources".

Rahimnia et al. (2013) mention that factors influencing psychological wellbeing in the workplace include stress, constructive and destructive emotions, and PsyCap. Siu (2013) states that, due to the fact that PsyCap is a personal resource, it should exert influence on an employee's work wellbeing. Self-efficacy has the ability to enhance a person's accomplishment; therefore, a soldier or police officer with a high level of self-efficacy could be expected to view challenging operational duties as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Having confidence and putting in the necessary effort in the operational environment could lead to soldiers and police officers mastering their environment, developing a sense of purpose and autonomy and developing a positive attitude towards self and others.

According to Singh and Mansi (2009), optimists tend to cope effectively with stressors because they have extensive and supportive social networks. In the unpredictable environment within which soldiers and police officers find themselves, being optimistic could contribute to their ability to manage the environment. When faced with a crisis situation in the operational environment with little or no time to consult a senior, being optimistic would assist in decision-making, thereby contributing to soldiers and police officers' sense of autonomy. Being optimistic will be valuable for soldiers and police officers as having a strong social support network could positively influence their psychological wellbeing.

Hope has the ability to protect soldiers and police officers from their unpredictable work circumstances, thereby contributing to their psychological wellbeing. Will power and way power could lead to soldiers and police officers being able to manage their environment by making effective use of opportunities, which enable them to master the environment. Since hope enables individuals to be future-focused, it could assist soldiers and police officers to be open to new experiences and opportunities that lead to personal growth. As individuals who have high levels of hope persevere towards goals, they are most likely to develop purpose in life.

Resilience will enable soldiers and police officers to manage their environment successfully in order to protect themselves from negative consequences. As soldiers and police officers recover from unfavourable conditions they will experience personal growth and the ability to regulate behaviour, which will enable them to be autonomous. Overcoming the unfavourable condition could lead to self-acceptance and developing relationships with other soldiers and police officers by supporting them. Based on the above-mentioned findings and arguments, it seems fair to suggest that there is a relationship between PsyCap, job attitudes, occupational stress and psychological wellbeing.

2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The state security environment has been shown to comprise psychosocial factors that can influence psychological wellbeing. It can be said that psychological wellbeing is the product of an interaction between the individual and the environment. The state security environment constantly changes due to external factors that determine the work environment, which is most likely to influence operational members' psychological wellbeing. Chapter 2 provided the literature review for the study. This chapter reported on various psychosocial factors and their influence on psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers. All of the studies included in this chapter demonstrated that multiple factors influence psychological wellbeing. The interaction of the reported factors can be seen to influence psychological wellbeing and the findings reported in this chapter provide empirical support. The construct psychological wellbeing was discussed extensively. Subjective and psychological wellbeing were defined and the sub-factors of psychological wellbeing, as stated by Carol Ryff were discussed. The various job attitude dimensions, occupational stress together with various identified stressors and PsyCap were discussed.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 provided the theoretical foundation of the study leading to the identification of the psychosocial factors influencing psychological wellbeing in the specific context of the SANDF and SAPS. The literature review presented in Chapter 2 forms the theoretical foundation for the hypotheses in this chapter. The purpose of this study was to explore psychosocial factors that have an influence on the psychological wellbeing of state security forces. Extensive research has been conducted in terms of understanding these factors; however, limited research was found regarding the relationship between these factors and the influence thereof on psychological wellbeing of state security forces within the South African context.

This chapter describes the empirical phase of the study with the aim to outline the process followed in order to achieve the empirical objectives set out in this study. The aim was to test empirically whether a relationship exists between the dependent variable (psychological wellbeing) and the independent variables (job attitudes and occupational stress) that have been identified in the literature study. It is however unlikely that all the factors that have been identified in this exploratory study have an influence on the psychological wellbeing of the South African state security forces. The author deems the identified factors to be the most relevant. This chapter will be dedicated to explaining the methodology that was utilised in this research.

According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (2008), research is a scientific method (explicit and systematic), which is used to test preconceptions, make sense of the world, provide information and answer the questions that were raised. The importance of research is its ability to provide a fountain of knowledge and to be an aid in problem solving. The aim of research is to apply scientific procedures in order to discover answers to questions. In order to ensure that the research process is flawless, the researcher made use of a research design.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2012), a research design is a plan or blueprint, which is used by the researcher to conduct the research process in order to expand knowledge and understanding and to solve the research problem. The research design focuses on the logic of research as it allows the researcher to gather evidence about desired knowledge.

Research methodology refers to the “methods, techniques and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing the research plan, as well as the underlying principles and assumptions that underlie their use” (Babbie & Mouton, 2012, p. 75). In order for the researcher to arrive at a valid verdict, the appropriate methodology must be used to investigate established hypotheses. As research methodology is a strategy of enquiry, various approaches can be used. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2008), research could be qualitative, quantitative or a combination of both.

It is important to understand that neither of the approaches is better than the other. The suitability of the approach used is determined by the nature, context and purpose of the research study. The present study utilised the quantitative approach. According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (2008), the quantitative approach focuses on the analysis of variables and allows the researcher to use statistical analyses to determine the significance of results. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997, p. 22), in the case of quantitative studies, “findings are mainly the product of statistical analysis”. The implication of using the quantitative approach is that the researcher does not influence the results.

Given the lack of empirical evidence that could prove the existence of a relationship between the identified independent variables and the dependent variable in the SANDF and SAPS, this study was an exploratory type of study with the aim of generating specific research questions that could be addressed in consecutive studies. According to Babbie and Mouton (2012), an exploratory study is useful and appropriate when addressing phenomena which have very little existing research. The main purpose of exploratory research is to identify salient factors or variables of relevance within boundaries of a particular environment.

3.2 HYPOTHESES

With the understanding of the role played by soldiers and police officers within the South African state security environment, the need to determine which psychosocial factors influenced their psychological wellbeing is a relevant challenge for the SAPS and SANDF. Through the literature review, each identified factor was discussed and relationships were conceptualised. Based on the research question and stated objectives guiding this study, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- H1: There is a significant relationship between overall job attitudes and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H2: There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H3: There is a significant relationship between organisational commitment and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H4: There is a significant relationship between job involvement and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H5: There is a significant relationship between overall occupational stress and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H6: There is a significant relationship between general stress and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H7: There is a significant relationship between role ambiguity and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H8: There is a significant relationship between relationships and overall psychological wellbeing.

- H9: There is a significant relationship between workload and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H10: There is a significant relationship between autonomy and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H11: There is a significant relationship between the work–home interface and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H12: There is a significant relationship between career advancement and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H13: There is a significant relationship between tools and equipment and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H14: There is a significant relationship between job security and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H15: There is a significant relationship between PsyCap and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H16: PsyCap has a moderating effect on the relationship between overall job attitudes and overall psychological wellbeing.
- H17: PsyCap has a moderating effect on the relationship between overall occupational stress and overall psychological wellbeing.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2010), a research design is the overall structure that the researcher follows when conducting a study. A research design can be seen as the strategy which is used by the researcher to prove or disprove hypotheses. The research design chosen in this study was determined by the research problems and objectives.

This study made use of a non-experimental research design to explore relationships between variables. According to Kerlinger and Lee (2000), non-experimental research enables the researcher to observe the relationship between variables without manipulating them. Since this study sought to explore the psychosocial factors that influence psychological wellbeing and the relationship between variables, an *ex post facto* research approach was used to elicit the relevant evidence required to address questions in this study.

According to Kgosana (2010, p. 88), *ex post facto* research “is a form of systematic enquiry in which the researcher does not have direct control of independent variables because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulatable”. As the *ex post facto* design is mainly utilised when the researcher has no control over independent variables, it is differentiated from experimental designs as the manipulation of the independent variables is an integral core of experimental designs. According to Kerlinger and Lee (2000), one shortcoming of the *ex post facto* approach is the risk of improper interpretation. The *ex post facto* approach is useful when the researcher intends to examine relationships between independent and dependent variables (Babbie & Mouton, 2012).

Rosnow and Rosenthal (2008) describe the dependent variable as the outcome in which the researcher is interested in and the independent variable as the presumed ‘cause’, changes in which lead to or predict changes in the dependent variable. This study considered a dependent variable (psychological wellbeing) with independent variables (job attitudes, occupational stressors) and a moderator variable (PsyCap).

3.4 SAMPLING DESIGN

Rosnow and Rosenthal (2008, p. 421) describe a population as “the universe of elements from which sample elements are drawn or the universe of elements to which we want to generalize”. A sample is a subset of a population (Babbie & Mouton, 2012). The population for this study comprised SANDF and SAPS uniformed operational members. According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (2008), a ‘sample’ refers to a sub-set of the population. The sample of this study was the Vredenburg Cluster Police Stations and South African Army Engineering Corps Units. Researchers take a portion of the population (i.e. a sample) that is a representative of the population with the aim of obtaining opinions about the concept under study.

Two organisations were targets for this study (i.e. the SANDF and the SAPS). The participants in the research study were therefore uniformed members of the SANDF and SAPS. The study participants were from the South African Army Engineering Corps Units and Vredenburg Cluster Police Stations personnel of all ranks who have been involved in operations. The study participants comprised SANDF Officers (lieutenant colonels, majors, captains and lieutenants), Non-Commissioned Officers (sergeant majors, staff sergeants, sergeants, corporals and lance corporals) and privates, and SAPS Officers (majors, captains and lieutenants) and Non-Commissioned Officers (warrant officers, sergeants and constables) across race and genders in a diverse South African sample.

Before commencing the study, the researcher ensured that the research had been cleared with Stellenbosch University Ethics Committee. Since the study was conducted in the SANDF and SAPS environment, permission to commence the research was obtained from the various authorities by means of formal communication. After permission had been granted, participants were informed about the research visit by the respective unit communication officers and commanding officers. The communication officers of the various units were given an announcement document by the researcher, which stipulated the purpose of the research, that participation in the research study was voluntarily and that all members who wanted to participant had to meet the researcher at the venue chosen in that particular unit.

Participants were gathered at the centralised venue in order for the researcher to explain the purpose of the study and seek consent (by means of a consent form). The consent form provided the participants with the freedom to either participate or decline to participate in the research study. Once consent had been obtained from the participants, a questionnaire was distributed for completion and participants were assisted when they encountered problems in terms of understanding the items.

Completion time of the questionnaire varied amongst participants (40–90 minutes). Once the questionnaire had been completed it was checked for completeness (in the absence of the participants). Data was collected from a sample of 178 participants comprising police officers ($n=57$) and soldiers ($n=121$) using the convenient sampling method. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2008), the convenient sampling method is efficient, less expensive, easy to implement and the subjects are readily available.

3.5 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The research questionnaire consisted of two sections: section A (which focused on biographical information, i.e. age, gender, years of service, marital status, race, education level and rank group) and section B (which consisted of various measuring scales). There are different reports about the acceptable values of alphas ranging from 0.70 to 0.95 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; DeVellis, 2003). Tavakol and Dennick (2011) mention that a low value of alpha could be due to a low number of questions and poor inter-relatedness between items, and a high value of alpha may suggest that some items were redundant. Various researchers recommend a minimum alpha value of 0.70 and maximum alpha value of 0.90 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

3.5.1 Psychological wellbeing

The Ryff Scale of Psychological Well-Being (RPWB) was used to measure psychological wellbeing. The scale consists of six sub-scales, i.e. autonomy ($\alpha=0.83$), environmental mastery ($\alpha=0.86$), personal growth ($\alpha=0.85$), positive relations with others ($\alpha=0.88$), purpose in life ($\alpha=0.88$) and self-acceptance ($\alpha=0.91$) (Ryff, 1995). The internal consistency among items of the psychological wellbeing instrument is highly significant (above .80) (Springer & Hauser, 2006).

The instrument is easy to understand and the scale has high face validity. The scale is measured on a 6-point Likert-type scale, i.e. strongly disagree (1), moderately disagree (2), slightly disagree (3), slightly agree (4), moderately agree (5), strongly agree (6). The following reliabilities have been reported in studies that employed the scale: ($\alpha=0.70-0.74$) (Rani et al., 2012) and ($\alpha=0.83-0.89$) (Bhullar, Hine & Phillips, 2014).

3.5.2 Job attitudes

The various job attitudes identified in this study were measured by the following scales.

3.5.2.1 Employee commitment survey

Employee commitment survey (ECS) was designed to measure an employee's level of organisational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The survey consists of 18 items with certain items reverse-scored, with three facet scales pertaining to employees' perception of their relationship with the organisation. The three facets are affective ($\alpha=0.87$), continuance ($\alpha=0.75$) and normative commitment ($\alpha=0.79$), which are added together to obtain the total score of employee commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The scale is measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale: strongly disagree (1), slightly disagree (2), undecided (3), slightly agree (4), agree (5). The ECS was found to be highly reliable, affective commitment 6 items; ($\alpha=0.82$), continuance commitment 7 items; ($\alpha=0.74$) and normative commitment 6 items; ($\alpha=0.83$) (Sersic, 1999).

3.5.2.2 Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short version was used to measure job satisfaction (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). The questionnaire consists of 20 items that are measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging between 1 (very dissatisfied), 2 (dissatisfied), 3 (neutral), 4 (satisfied) and 5 (very satisfied). The MSQ contains two subscales, with 10 items each, i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Jones, 2014).

The following reliabilities have been reported in studies that employed the scale: total MSQ scale ($\alpha=0.90$) (Hancer & George, 2003) and extrinsic subscale ($\alpha=0.78$ 0.82), intrinsic subscale ($\alpha=0.79$), total MSQ scale ($\alpha=0.88$) (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009).

3.5.2.3 Job involvement questionnaire

The Job Involvement Questionnaire (JIQ) developed by Kanungo (1982) was used to measure job involvement. The survey consist of 10 items that are measured on a Likert-type scale ranging between strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), mildly disagree (3), mildly agree (4), agree (5) and strongly agree (6). The scale has a highly reliable ($\alpha=0.81$) (Kanungo, 1982). The JIQ is convenient for the South African context as Boshoff and Hoole (1998) found that it has high internal reliability and high construct validity. The following reliabilities have been reported in studies that employed the questionnaire: ($\alpha=0.84$) (Allen, 1999) and ($\alpha=0.89$) (Akinbobola, 2011).

3.5.3 Occupational Stress

Sources of work stress inventory (SWSI) version 2 was used to measure occupational stress (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005). SWSI was developed by De Bruin and Taylor (2005) with the aim of identifying possible sources of work stress. SWSI consists of two sections: the general work stress scale and the eight sources of stress scales. The general work stress scale consists of (9 items, $\alpha=0.91$) and is measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale, indicating the stress levels of participants, where the responses are (1) never, (2) rarely, (3) sometimes, (4) often and (5) always.

The eight sources of stress consists of fifty items and is measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from (1) none at all to (2) very little, (3) some, (4) quite a lot and (5) very much. The eight sources of stress scales are: role ambiguity (7 items, $\alpha=0.87$), relationships (8 items, $\alpha=0.94$), tools and equipment (5 items, $\alpha=0.90$), career advancement (5 items, $\alpha=0.89$), job security (4 items, $\alpha=0.92$), lack of autonomy (7 items, $\alpha=0.90$), work-home interface (8 items, $\alpha=0.86$) and workload (6 items, $\alpha=0.88$). The following reliabilities have been reported in studies that employed version 1 of the scale: ($\alpha=0.78$ to 0.94) (Brand, 2007) and ($\alpha=0.80$ –0.92) (Hopkins, 2014).

3.5.4 Psychological capital

Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) self-rater version obtained from Mind Garden, Inc. was used to measure PsyCap (Luthans et al., 2007). The questionnaire consists of 24 items ranked on a Likert-type scale of one to six with one indicating “Strongly disagree” and six indicating “Strongly agree”. Psychological Capital consists of four subscales, namely (a) self-efficacy or confidence, (b) hope, (c) resilience and (d) optimism, which are added together to obtain a total for PsyCap. The PCQ self-rater version questionnaire was found to be highly reliable (24 items; $\alpha=0.89$) (Luthans et al., 2007).

There is a general trend in literature where study findings indicate that the Cronbach alphas of two of the subscales (i.e. resilience and optimism) are below the recommended 0.70 value (Gorgens-Ekermans & Herbet, 2013; Luthans et al., 2007); however, the overall reliability of the PsyCap instrument meets the required measurement. The following reliabilities have been reported in studies that employed the questionnaire: ($\alpha=0.89$) (Avey, Paterson & West, 2006) and ($\alpha=0.90$) (Avey et al., 2008).

3.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The 23rd edition of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program was used to capture the data. SPSS was used because it is a sound and well-known statistical software program (Pallant, 2013). STATISTICA 12 and partial least square software Smart PLS 2 was used to analyse the data. Various statistical techniques were used to analyse and test the proposed conceptual model. These were descriptive analysis, internal reliability analysis, inferential statistics and partial least square path analysis. The descriptive analyses were done to summarise and describe important characteristics of the data. Reliability analyses were done with the purpose of evaluating whether the measures used in the research were reliable. Correlation analyses were conducted in order to determine the relationships and hypothesis testing. The correlation analysis aims to test the strength, direction and relatedness amongst constructs.

Partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was used as a statistical technique because it allows smaller sample sizes and centres on maximising the variance of the dependent variable.

3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the research design and methodology that was followed in this study. A convenient sampling method was used in this study. This chapter described the participants in the study and elucidated the questionnaires that were utilised by the researcher. Furthermore, the psychometric properties of each instrument that was utilised in the final questionnaire were reported. The hypotheses were presented and the method used for data analysis was explained. Chapter 4 presents the results of the statistical analyses and the interpretation thereof in detail.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 of this study dealt with the theoretical foundation, which led to the identification of psychosocial factors that influence psychological wellbeing. Chapter 3 outlined the various methods that were chosen to analyse the data in order to satisfy the objectives, and this chapter will discuss the results of all the statistical analysis that were performed in this study in four sections: descriptive statistics, internal reliability analyses, inferential statistics and partial least square results are presented.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SAMPLE

According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (2008), statistical analysis begins by examining the statistical computations, which describe the characteristics of the data. Gravetter and Wallnau (2008, p. 6) describe descriptive statistics as “statistical procedures which are used to summarise, organise and simplify data”.

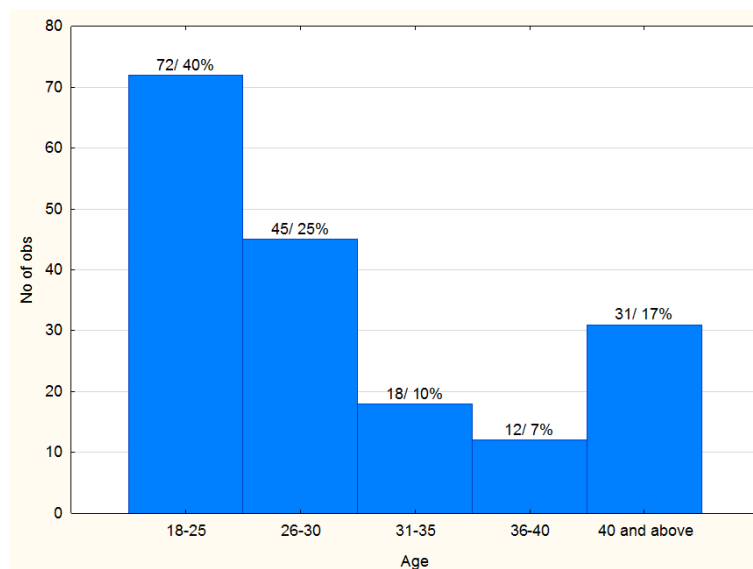


Figure 4.1. Histogram of age

The participants represented different age groups, arranged in five different age bands (18–25; 26–30; 31–35; 36–40; 40 and above in years) (see Figure 4.1). The majority of participants were in the age group 18–25 years, which comprised $n=72$ (40%) participants of the study sample. In the age group 25–30, there were $n=45$ (25%) participants, in the age group 40 and above there were $n=31$ (17%) participants, in the age group 31–35, there were $n=18$ (10%) participants and in the smallest group category, namely 36–40 there were only $n=12$ (7%) participants in the study sample.

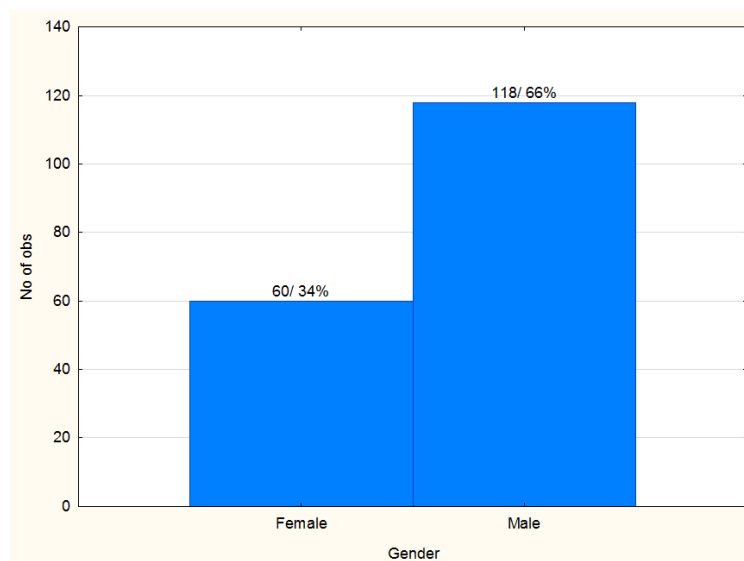


Figure 4.2. Histogram of gender

In terms of gender (see Figure 4.2), it is evident the males represented two thirds of the sample. The sample comprised $n=118$ (66%) males and $n=60$ (34%) females.

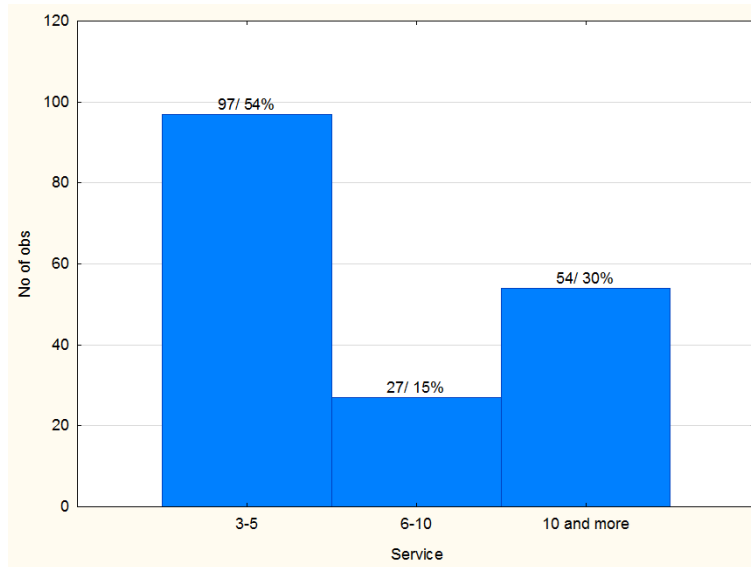


Figure 4.3. Histogram of years of service

The length of service for the sample was categorised into three band groups (3–5 years; 6–10 years; 10 and more years of service) (Figure 4.3). There were $n=97$ (54%) participants in the band 3–5 years, $n=27$ (15%) participants in the band 6–10 years and $n=54$ (30%) participants in the band 10 and more years of service.

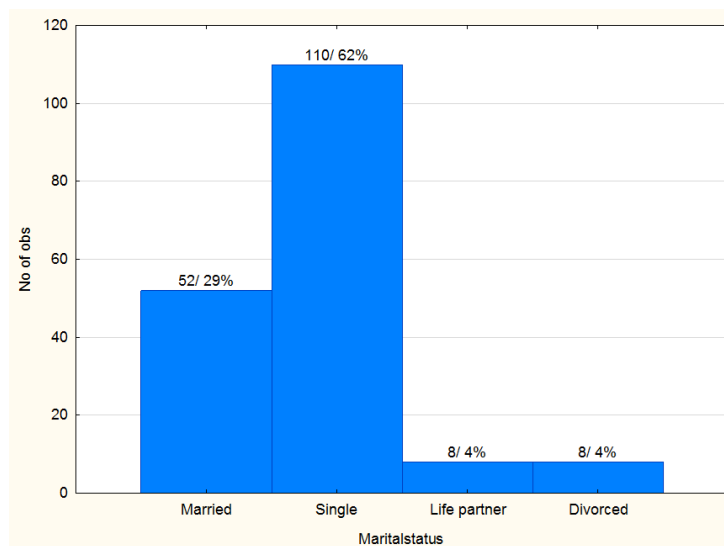


Figure 4.4. Histogram of marital status

Most of the participants in the study were single $n=110$ (62%), there were $n=52$ (29%) married participants, $n=8$ (4%) were living with a life partner and $n=8$ (4%) were divorced, as depicted in Figure 4.4.

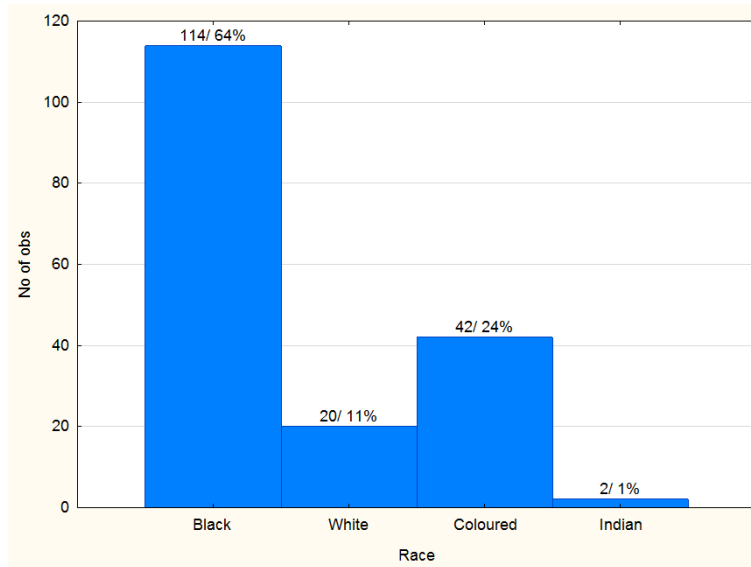


Figure 4.5. Histogram of race group

All the different SA races were represented (see Figure 4.5). The majority of the participants were African at $n=114$ (64%), coloured $n=42$ (24%), white $n=20$ (11%) and Indian $n=2$ (1%).

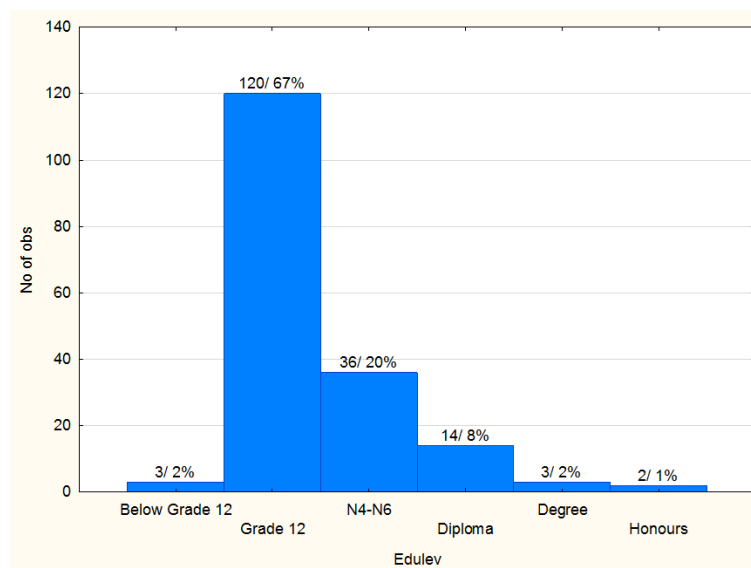


Figure 4.6. Histogram of educational levels

Figure 4.6 depicts the educational level of the participants. The majority of the participants were matriculants (Grade 12) $n=120$ (67%), $n=36$ (20%) of the participants had N4–N6 college certificates, $n=14$ (8%) had diplomas, $n=2$ (1%) had an honours degree and $n=2$ (1%) did not have a Grade 12 certificate.

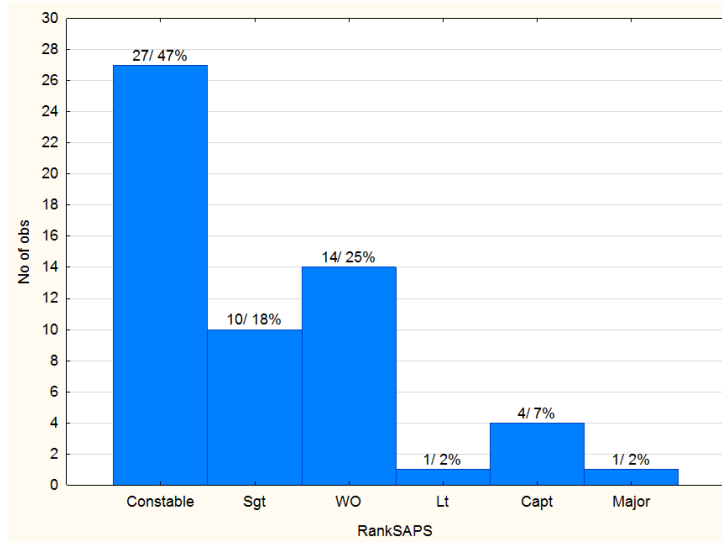


Figure 4.7. Histogram of rank groups (SAPS)

Figure 4.7 depicts the different categories of the rank groups for the SAPS: $n=27$ (47%) of participants were constables, $n=14$ (25%) warrant officers, $n=10$ (18%) sergeants, $n=4$ (7%), $n=1$ (2%) lieutenant and $n=1$ (2%) major.

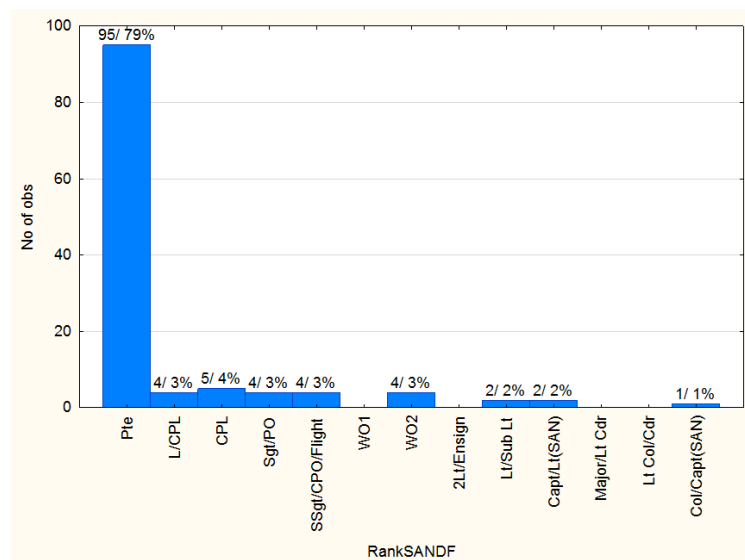


Figure 4.8. Histogram of rank groups (SANDF)

Figure 4.8 depicts the different categories of the rank groups for the SANDF: $n=95$ (79%) of the participants were privates, $n=4$ (3%) lance corporals, $n=5$ (4%) full corporals, $n=4$ (3%) sergeants, $n=4$ (3%) staff sergeants, lieutenant, $n=4$ (3%) warrant officers class two, $n=2$ (2%) lieutenants, $n=2$ (2%) captains and $n=1$ (1%) colonel.

Table 4.1
Measures of central tendency

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation (SD)
Job satisfaction	178	1.10	4.85	3.46	0.73
Organisational commitment	178	1.78	4.89	3.66	0.68
Job involvement	178	1.50	5.90	4.07	0.91
General stress	178	1.00	5.00	2.00	0.80
Psychological capital	178	3.04	6.00	4.61	0.63
Psychological wellbeing	178	3.02	5.81	4.70	0.57

Table 4.1 provided an overview of the mean scores. The job satisfaction survey had a maximum obtained score of 4.85, mean 3.46 with SD of .73. From the mean score variable (3.46 out of 5), one can thus derive that the participants showed above average levels of satisfaction with their jobs. The ECS had a maximum obtained score of 4.89, mean 3.66 with SD .68. From the mean score variable (3.66 out of 5), it can be deduced that participants showed moderate levels of organisational commitment. The JIQ had a maximum obtained score of 5.90, mean 4.07 with SD .91. From the mean score variable (4.07 out of 6), it can be deduced that participants showed moderate levels of being involved in their jobs.

The general stress survey had a maximum obtained score of 5.00, mean 2.00 with SD .80. From the mean score variable (2.00 out of 5), it can be deduced that participants did not find their jobs to be stressful. The PCQ had a maximum obtained score of 6.00, mean 4.61 with SD .63. From the mean score variable (4.61 out of 6), it can be deduced that participants showed high levels of PsyCap. The RPWB had a maximum obtained score of 5.81, mean 4.70 with SD .57. From the mean score variable (4.70 out of 6), it can be deduced that participants showed high levels of psychological wellbeing. The above results provided answers to the stated empirical objectives of the study (see par 1.4.3).

4.3 INTERNAL RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF SCALES

The six instruments (PCQ, SWSI, MSQ, ECS, JIQ and RPWB scale) which were used in this study were reported in literature as having acceptable Cronbach alpha levels. Item analysis was performed to test for the reliability of all the instruments that were used to test the variables of interest. According to Chikampa (2013), the importance of item analysis can be noted in its ability to assess the consistency between items in a particular scale.

According to Murphy and Davidshofer (2005), item analysis is valuable in improving items which will be used again in later tests and eliminates ambiguous or misleading items. Performing item analysis enables the researcher to identify and eliminate items which are not contributing to the internal consistency of the scale. It can therefore be stated that the purpose of item analysis is to identify any item that does not reflect the intended latent variable successfully. Items that did not contribute to the internal consistency of the latent variable were labelled 'poor items'.

According to Theron (2015), these items indicate a considerable increase in Cronbach alpha when deleted. There are different reports about the acceptable values of Cronbach alphas ranging from .70 to .95 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; DeVellis, 2003); however, an alpha value of .70 is deemed acceptable for research purposes. Pallant (2013) mentions that Cronbach alphas are sensitive to the number of items within a particular scale, especially if the scale has ten items or fewer. If the scale has fewer than ten items, a Cronbach alpha of .50 can be expected. The following results were found when item analysis was conducted:

- Item J2 and item J7 of the JIQ were flagged as problematic items as they showed characteristics of poor items with low item total correlations, low squared multiple correlations and a predicted increase in Cronbach alphas if the items would be deleted. By removing these items, there would be a marginal increase in the alpha level. A decision was made to retain these items as the purpose of the research was to use the scale in its entirety.

- Item 14 from the (RPWB) was flagged as a problematic item as it showed characteristics of a poor item with low item total correlation, low squared multiple correlation and a predicted increase in Cronbach alphas if the item would be deleted. By removing this item, there would be a marginal increase in the alpha level. A decision was made to retain this item as the purpose of the research was not to use the subscales of the instrument, but to use it in its entirety.
- Items 20 and 23 of the PCQ were flagged as problematic items as they showed characteristics of poor items with low item total correlations, low squared multiple correlations and a predicted increase in Cronbach alphas if the items would be deleted. By removing these items, there would be a marginal increase in the alpha level. A decision was made to retain these items as the purpose of the research was to use the scale in its entirety.

Table 4.2 below represents the Cronbach alphas and the average inter-item correlation for the subscales.

Table 4.2

Internal reliability of scales, subscales and average inter-item correlation for subscales

Scales	N	Cronbach's alpha (α)	Average inter-item correlation
Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire	178	.91	
Job involvement scale questionnaire	178	.81	
Organisational commitment:	178	.70	
Affective commitment	178	.64	.24
Continuance commitment	178	.66	.25
Normative commitment	178	.80	.42
Psychological wellbeing:	178	.84	
Autonomy	178	.59	.18
Environmental mastery	178	.40	.10
Personal growth	178	.52	.15
Positive relations	178	.63	.21
Purpose in life	178	.60	.22
Self-acceptance	178	.69	.24

Table 4.2 Continued

Scales	N	Cronbach's alpha (α)	Average inter-item correlation
Psychological capital:	178	.79	
Efficacy	178	.87	.56
Hope	178	.74	.33
Resilience	178	.65	.25
Optimism	178	.44	.14
Sources of work stress inventory:	178	.90	
General stress	178	.91	.53
Role ambiguity	178	.86	.47
Relationships	178	.92	.58
Tools and equipment	178	.92	.71
Career advancement	178	.85	.53
Job security	178	.90	.71
Lack of autonomy	178	.87	.51
Work-home interface	178	.86	.45
Workload	178	.90	.62

The Cronbach alphas for the composite scales were satisfactory with acceptable alpha levels: SWSI (.90), (MSQ) (.91), JIQ (.81), ECS (.70), RPWB (.84) and PsyCap (.79). The Cronbach alphas for the ECS subscales ranged from .64 to .80, RPWB subscales ranged from .40 to .69, PsyCap subscales from .44 to .87 and the SWSI ranged from .85 to .92. Although the Cronbach alphas for the subscales were respectively low, it was decided to keep all these results for further analysis. The inter-item correlations were shown to be positive in all the subscales except for subscales 'personal growth' and 'optimism' which showed negligible inter item correlations.

4.4 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Gravetter and Wallnau (2008, p. 7) describe inferential statistics as "a statistical technique which allows researchers to study samples and then make generalizations about the populations from which they were selected". According to McClave, Benson and Sincich (2008) inferential statistics allow the researcher to gain knowledge about the structural relationships among the variables of interest. In this study, Spearman correlation analysis was performed to test the hypotheses.

4.4.1 Correlation analysis

The underlying principle of a correlation is the change in one variable that predicts change in another variable. The parameters being measured is projected by the correlation coefficient r , which can range between -1 and +1 and indicates the strength as well as the direction (positive or negative) of the relationship. A value of 0 indicates that there is no correlation between the variables (Howell, 2008). There are guidelines which need to be adhered to when evaluating the direction (positive and negative) and strength of correlations coefficients: correlations below .20 are regarded as negligible, .20 to .39 are regarded as low, .40 to .59 are regarded as moderate, .60 to .79 as moderately high and .80 to 1.00 are regarded as high (Howell, 2008). Table 4.3 shows the results obtained from the correlation analysis. Scatter plots were generated in order to examine the linearity amongst the correlated variables.

Table 4.3

Correlations between the independent variables and dependent variable

Independent variables	Dependent variable	Spearman r	p
Overall job attitudes	Psychological wellbeing	.30	.00
Job satisfaction	Psychological wellbeing	.31	.00
Organisational commitment	Psychological wellbeing	.22	.00
Job involvement	Psychological wellbeing	.28	.00
Overall occupational stress	Psychological wellbeing	-.28	.00
General stress	Psychological wellbeing	-.45	.00
Role ambiguity	Psychological wellbeing	-.35	.00
Relationships	Psychological wellbeing	-.25	.00
Workload	Psychological wellbeing	-.36	.00
Autonomy	Psychological wellbeing	-.34	.00
Work–home interface	Psychological wellbeing	-.48	.00
Career advancement	Psychological wellbeing	-.19	.01
Tools and equipment	Psychological wellbeing	-.17	.02
Job security	Psychological wellbeing	-.21	.00
PsyCap	Psychological wellbeing	.63	.00

H1: There is a significant relationship between overall job attitudes and overall psychological wellbeing.

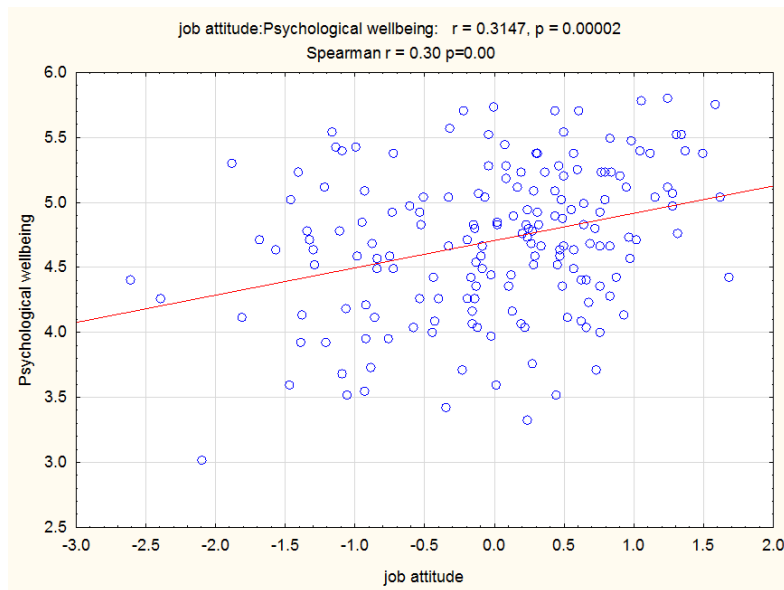


Figure 4.9. Scatter plot of overall job attitudes and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.9 show a weak linear but significant positive correlation between overall job attitudes and psychological wellbeing ($r=0.30$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 1 was accepted.

H2: There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and overall psychological wellbeing.

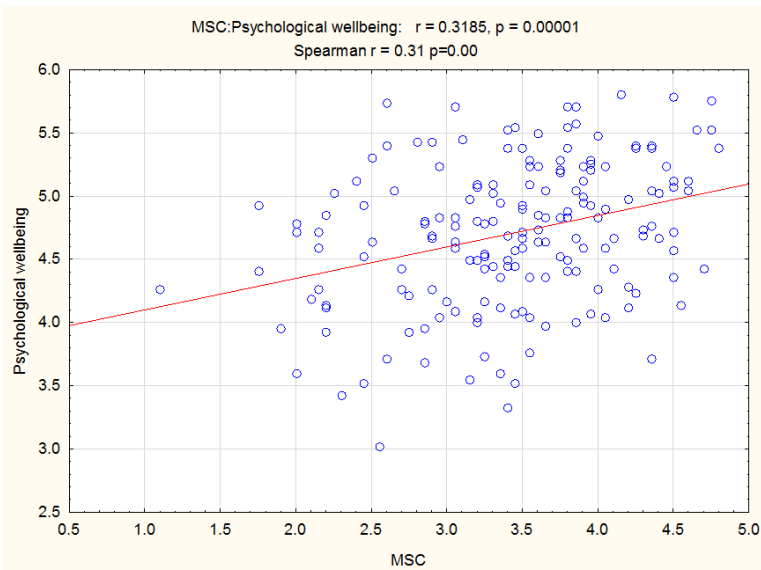


Figure 4.10. Scatter plot of job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.10 show a weak linear but significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing ($r=0.31$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 2 was accepted.

H3: There is a significant relationship between organisational commitment and overall psychological wellbeing.

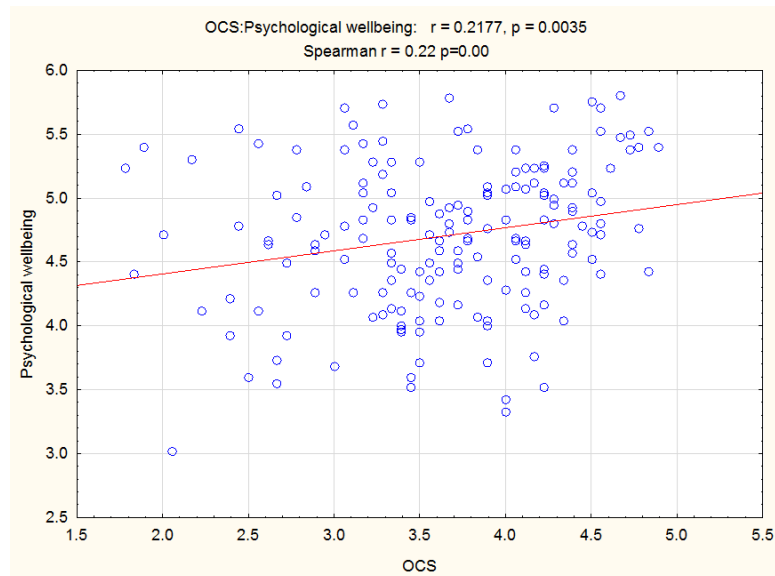


Figure 4.11. Scatter plot of organisational commitment and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.11 show a weak linear but significant positive correlation between organisational commitment and psychological wellbeing ($r=0.22$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 3 was accepted.

H4: There is a significant relationship between job involvement and overall psychological wellbeing.

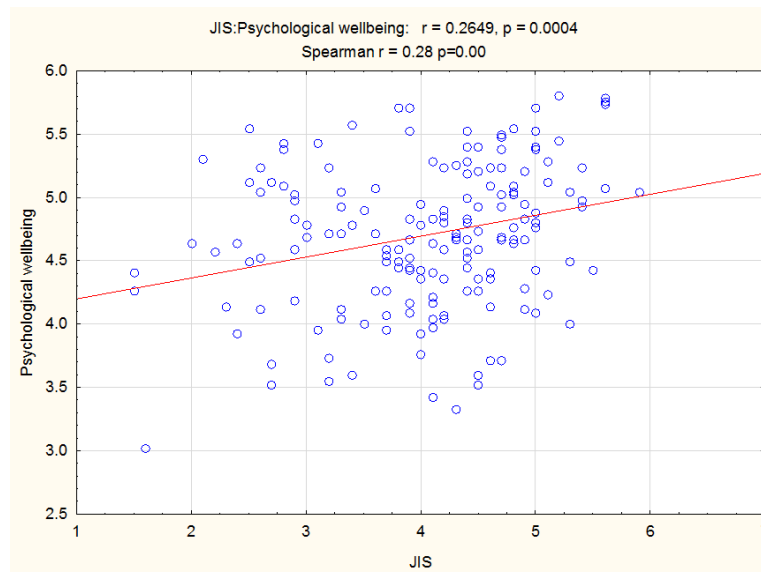


Figure 4.12. Scatter plot of job involvement and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.12 show a weak linear but significant positive correlation between overall job involvement and psychological wellbeing ($r=0.28$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 4 was accepted.

H5: There is a significant relationship between overall occupational stress and overall psychological wellbeing.

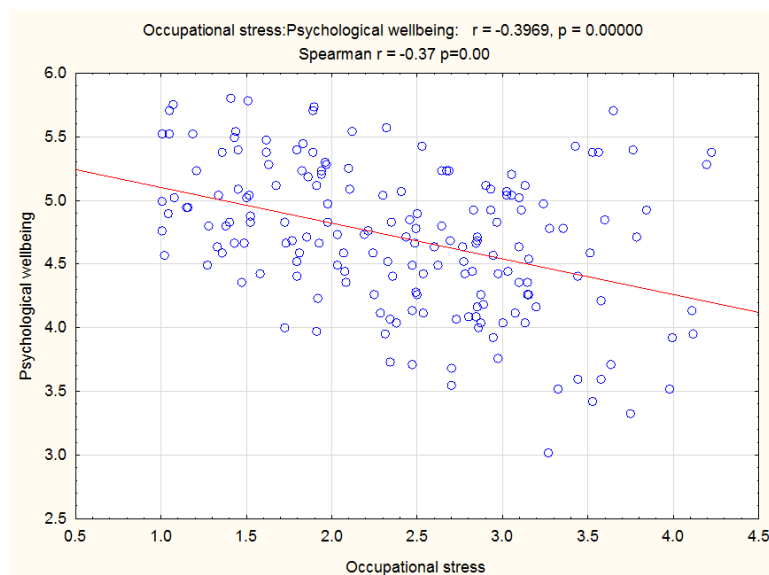


Figure 4.13. Scatter plot of occupational stress and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.13 show a weak linear but significant negative correlation between occupational stress and psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.37$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 5 was accepted.

H6: There is a significant relationship between general stress and overall psychological wellbeing.

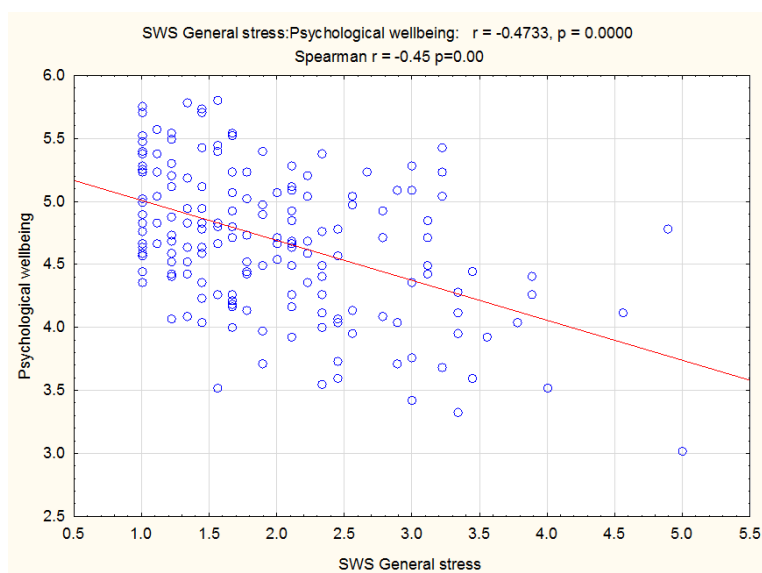


Figure 4.14. Scatter plot of general stress and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.14 show a moderate linear but significant negative correlation between general stress and psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.45$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 6 was accepted.

H7: There is a significant relationship between role ambiguity and overall psychological wellbeing.

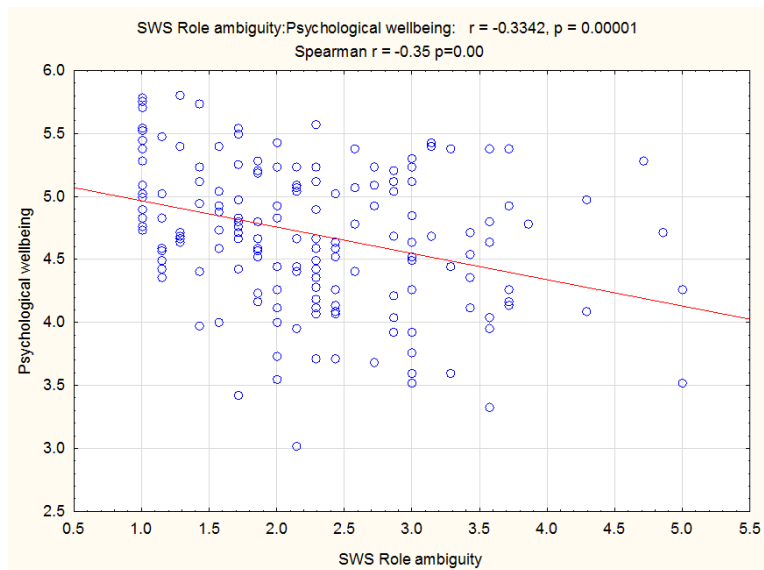


Figure 4.15. Scatter plot of role ambiguity and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.15 show a weak linear but significant negative correlation between role ambiguity and psychological wellbeing ($r = -0.35; p = 0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 7 was accepted.

H8: There is a significant relationship between relationships and overall psychological wellbeing.

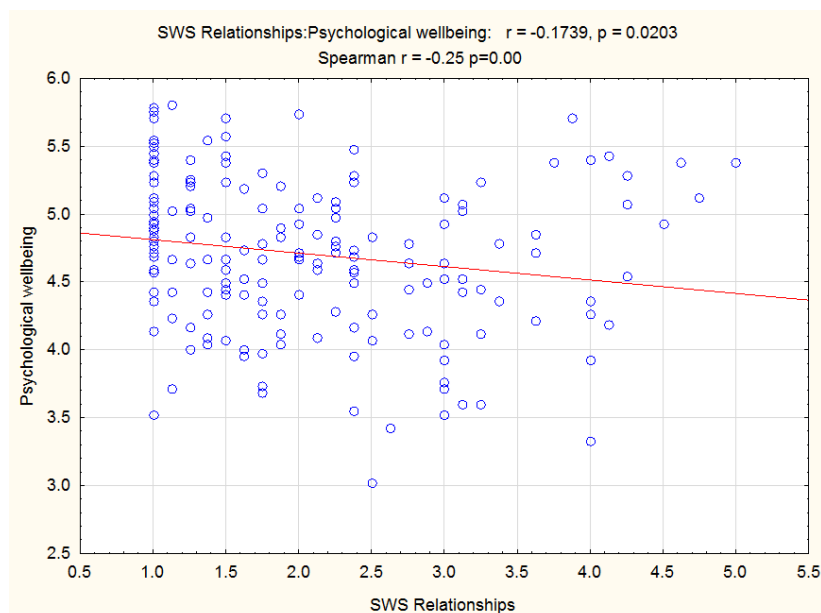


Figure 4.16. Scatter plot of relationships and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.16 show a weak linear but significant negative correlation between relationships and psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.25$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 8 was accepted.

H9: There is a significant relationship between workload and overall psychological wellbeing.

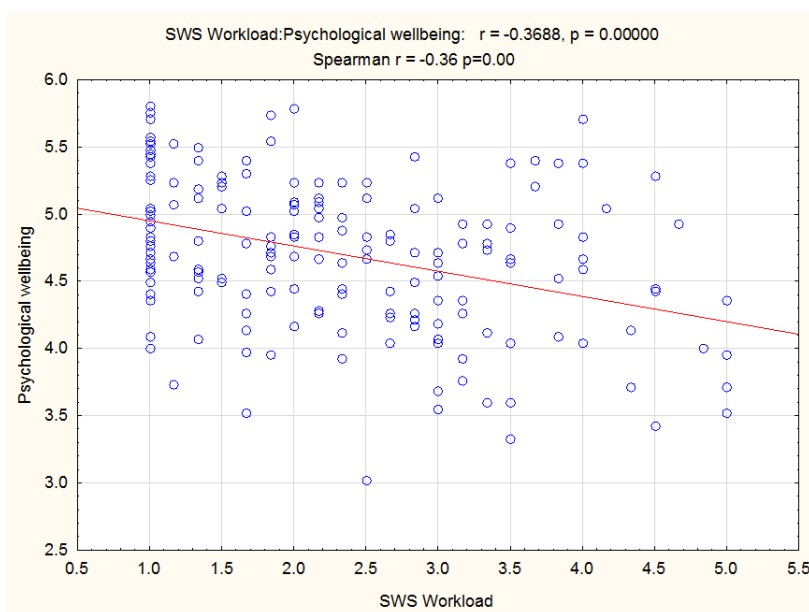


Figure 4.17. Scatter plot of workload and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.17 show a weak linear but significant negative correlation between workload and psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.36$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 9 was accepted.

H10: There is a significant relationship between autonomy and overall psychological wellbeing.

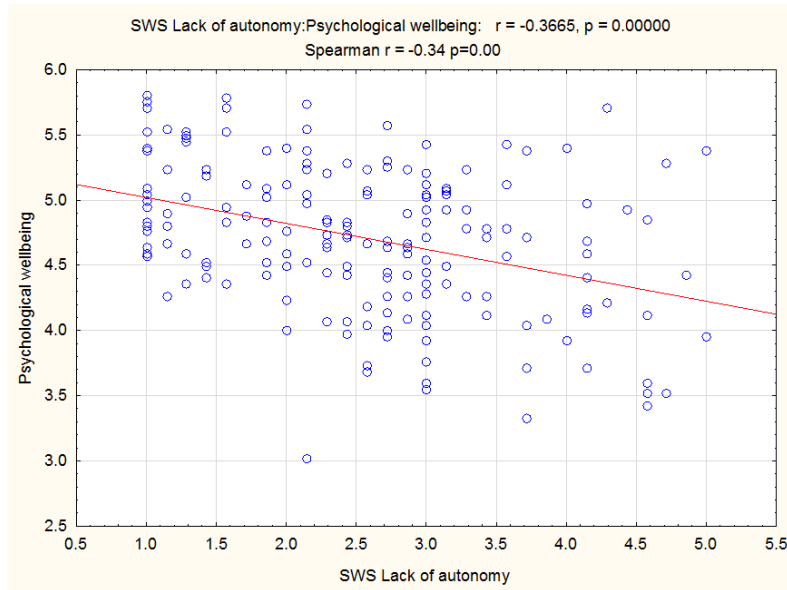


Figure 4.18. Scatter plot of autonomy and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.18 show a weak linear but significant negative correlation between lack of autonomy and psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.34$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 10 was accepted.

H11: There is a significant relationship between work–home interface and overall psychological wellbeing.

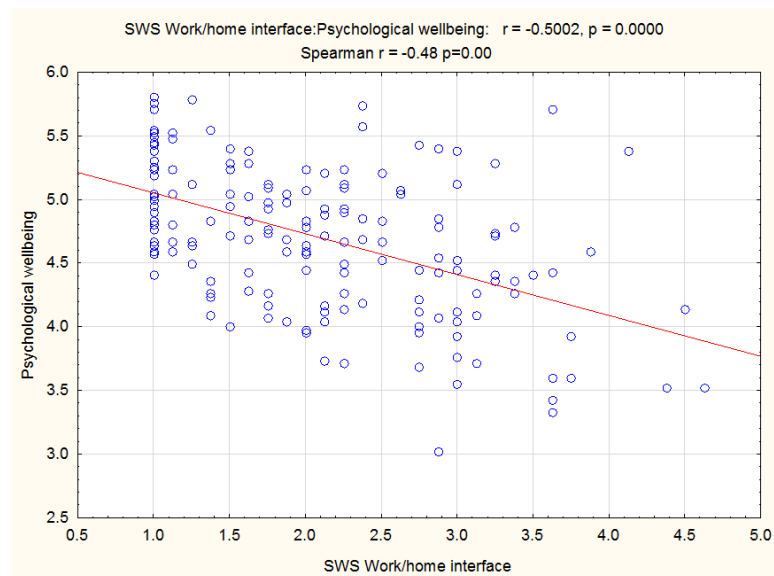


Figure 4.19. Scatter plot of work–home interface and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.19 show a moderate linear but significant negative correlation between work–home interface and psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.48$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 11 was accepted.

H12: There is a significant relationship between career advancement and overall psychological wellbeing.

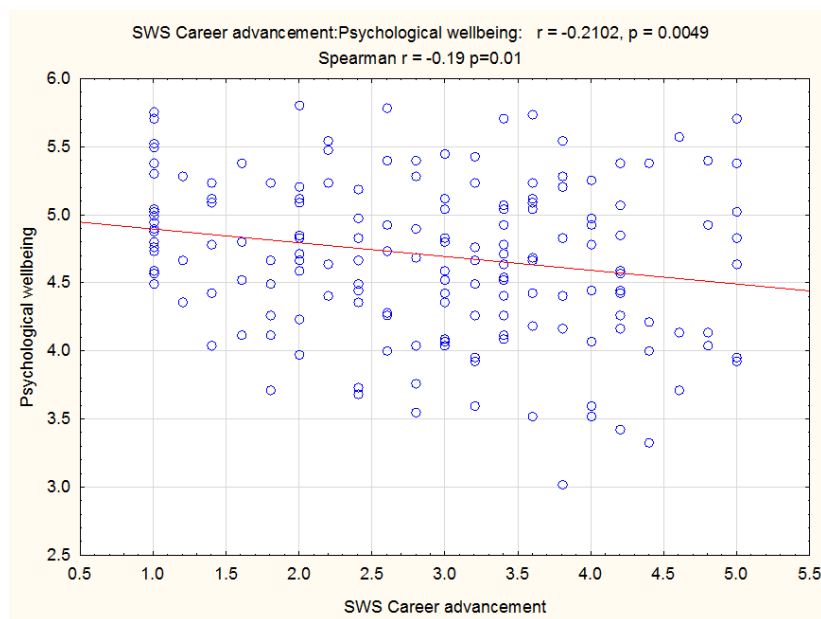


Figure 4.20. Scatter plot of career advancement and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.20 show a negligible correlation between career advancement and psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.19$; $p=0.01$). Based on the results, hypothesis 12 was rejected.

H13: There is a significant relationship between tools and equipment and overall psychological wellbeing.

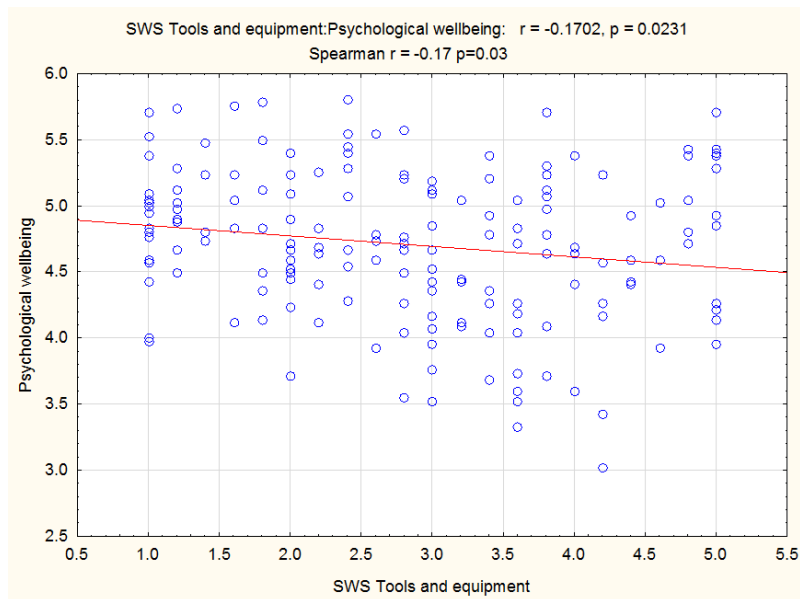


Figure 4.21. Scatter plot of tools and equipment and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.21 show a negligible correlation between tools and equipment and psychological wellbeing ($r = -0.17$; $p = 0.03$). Based on the results, hypothesis 13 was rejected.

H14: There is a significant relationship between job security and overall psychological wellbeing.

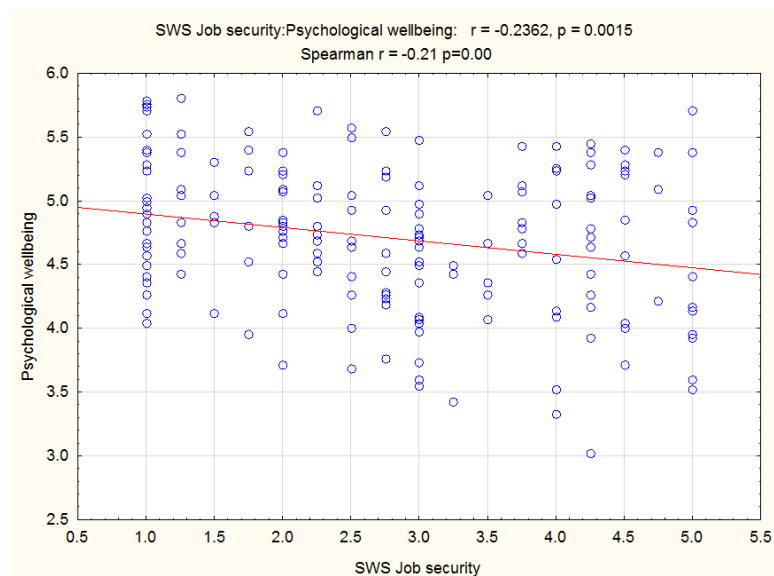


Figure 4.22. Scatter plot of job security and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.22 show a weak linear but significant negative correlation between lack of job security and psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.21$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 14 was accepted.

H15: There is a significant relationship between PsyCap and overall psychological wellbeing.

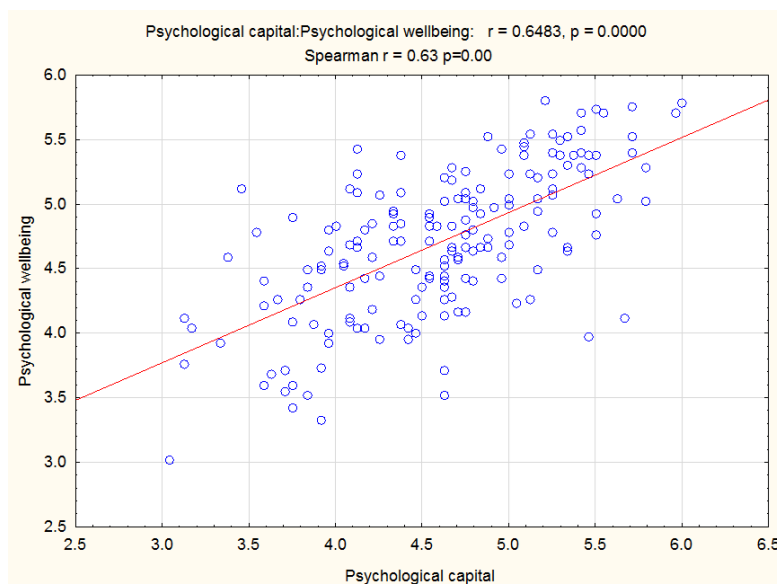


Figure 4.23. Scatter plot of psychological capital and psychological wellbeing

The correlation results in Figure 4.23 show a moderately high but significant positive correlation between PsyCap and psychological wellbeing ($r=0.63$; $p=0.00$). Based on the results, hypothesis 15 was accepted.

4.5 PARTIAL LEAST SQUARE STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING

PLS-SEM analysis was used to test the relationships amongst the variables (dependent and independent) and the moderating effect of PsyCap. Tobias (1997) is of the view that the PLS method is the most appropriate technique when the research process is exploratory in nature. According to Wong (2013), PLS-SEM can be used when the researcher encounters the following situations during the research process:

- when the sample size is small;
- when there is little theory about the phenomena;
- when predictive accuracy is paramount; and
- when the correct model specifications cannot be ensured.

According to Wong (2013), PLS-SEM as a statistical method enables the researcher to determine the reliability of measurement and structural models. Path analysis involves two steps, i.e. assessment of the outer model and assessment of the inner model. Figure 4.24 below illustrates the two-path process.

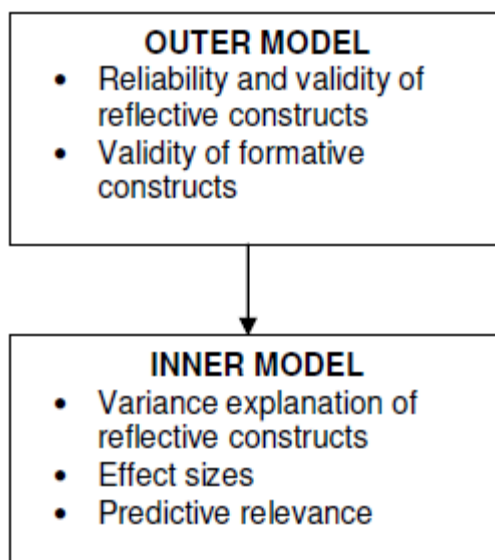


Figure 4.24. Two step process of PLS path modelling

Based on the conceptual framework designed in the study, the inner and outer models were built in PLS.

Table 4.4

Summary statistics for the PLS path model

Scale	R-squared	Average variance extracted	Composite reliability
Job attitudes		.77	.91
Occupational stress		.62	.94
Psychological capital		.68	.89
Psychological wellbeing	.49	.61	.91

Table 4.4 shows that the R-squared value for the endogenous variable psychological wellbeing was 0.49, meaning that about 49% of the variance in psychological wellbeing is explained by the model (i.e. jointly by job attitudes, occupational stress and PsyCap). According to Garson (2013), the recommended average variance extracted (AVE) value is 0.5 and the composite reliability value is 0.7.

The results of the AVE as shown in Table 4.4 exceed the recommended values as they range from .61 to .77. The composite reliability results as shown in Table 4.4 exceed the recommended values as they range from .89 to .94. Based on the results presented in Table 4.4, the measurement model of the job attitude scales, occupational stress, PsyCap and psychological wellbeing scales could be considered acceptable as the reliability and validity analysis had been achieved, which means that the model was good enough for analysis. A test for discriminant validity indicated that discriminant validity was achieved and all the latent exogenous variables were kept in the model.

Table 4.5***Measurement model***

Path	Estimate	Bootstrap lower	Bootstrap upper	Significant
Job attitudes>Job involvement	.84	.74	.90	Yes
Job attitudes>Job satisfaction	.87	.80	.93	Yes
Job attitudes>Organisational commitment	.83	.71	.89	Yes
Occupational stress>Career advancement	.72	.60	.80	Yes
Occupational stress>General stress	.70	.64	.77	Yes
Occupational stress>Job security	.74	.62	.82	Yes
Occupational stress>Lack of autonomy	.87	.82	.90	Yes
Occupational stress>Relationships	.70	.59	.77	Yes
Occupational stress>Role ambiguity	.72	.64	.80	Yes
Occupational stress>Tools and equipment	.73	.61	.81	Yes
Occupational stress>Work-home interface	.82	.77	.86	Yes
Occupational stress>Workload	.75	.65	.81	Yes
Psychological capital>Efficacy	.84	.80	.88	Yes
Psychological capital>Hope	.84	.78	.89	Yes
Psychological capital>Optimism	.81	.75	.86	Yes
Psychological capital>Resilience	.65	.53	.75	Yes
Psychological wellbeing>Autonomy	.73	.64	.81	Yes
Psychological wellbeing>Environmental mastery	.69	.59	.77	Yes
Psychological wellbeing>Personal growth	.72	.63	.80	Yes
Psychological wellbeing>Positive relations	.75	.66	.82	Yes
Psychological wellbeing>Purpose in life	.74	.64	.82	Yes
Psychological wellbeing>Self-acceptance	.83	.78	.87	Yes

According to Garson (2013), measurement loadings represent the standardised path weights, which connect the factors to the indicator variables. According to Hair, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt (2014, p. 103), when the “loadings are larger and significant the measurement model is viewed as stronger and reliable”. Loadings varied from 0 to 1. Loadings that were closer to 1.0 indicated that the latent variable was more reliable. Table 4.5 provides the results of the outer model fit, which was found to be satisfactory as all construct loadings were larger than .70 and significant. Multicollinearity analysis was conducted to test whether the independent variables were highly inter-correlated. According to Hair et al. (2014), a problematic multicollinearity exists when the variance inflation factors (VIF) are higher than 4.0. The VIF values found in this study ranged between 1.52 and 1.67. They were below the threshold 4.0, which means that the model was well fitted and there was no multicollinearity present in the study.

Table 4.6***PLS path modelling results***

Path	Path coefficient	Bootstrap lower	Bootstrap upper	Significant
JA_PC_PW > Psychological wellbeing	0.054	-0.07	0.18	No
JA_>Psychological wellbeing	-0.128	-0.261	0	No
OS_PC_PW moderator >Psychological wellbeing	0.116	-0.019	0.243	No
Occupational stress>Psychological wellbeing	-0.277	-0.414	-0.164	Yes
Psychological capital> Psychological wellbeing	0.593	0.47	0.703	Yes

JA=composite job attitudes; PC=PsyCap; OS= occupational stress; PW=psychological wellbeing

The bootstrap method was used to determine which paths between the different variables were significant. According to Garson (2013), the bootstrapping method provides confident intervals for all the parameter estimates and determines whether the coefficients are significant. PLS path coefficients indicate the strength of the hypothesised relationships between the different variables and they ranged between -1.00 and +1.00. The significance of the path coefficients was determined at a 95% bootstrap confidence interval. The PLS path analysis results depicted in Table 4.6 show that only two paths were found to be significant, i.e. path coefficient from occupational stress to psychological wellbeing (-0.277) and PsyCap to psychological wellbeing (0.593).

The path between job attitudes and psychological wellbeing was found to be negative and insignificant at an estimate of -0.128. The path between occupational stress and psychological wellbeing was found to be negative but significant with an estimate of -0.277. The path between PsyCap and psychological wellbeing was positive and significant at an estimate of 0.593. This means that PsyCap had a significant effect on psychological wellbeing but did not moderate the effect between (JA_PC_PW).

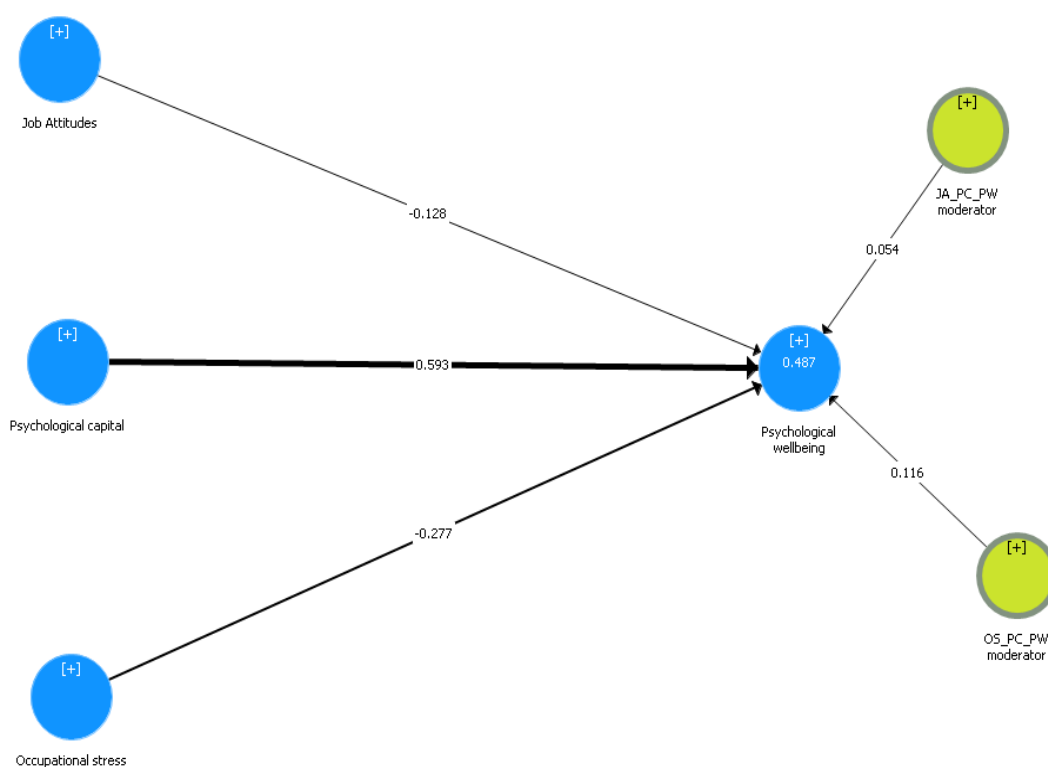


Figure 4.25. PLS path model

The path coefficients explain the strength of the effect of one variable to the other. Figure 4.25 depicts the total model fit. The inner model fit was found to be satisfactory as all the latent variables measured what they were supposed to measure (see Table 4.4).

As shown in Figure 4.25, it was found that only one exogenous variable (occupational stress) had a direct and significant relationship with psychological wellbeing. This means that occupational stress had a significant effect on psychological wellbeing without any moderation from PsyCap.

Table 4.7
Test for moderation

Independent variable	Moderator	Dependent variable	Interaction coefficient	R ² with interaction	R ² IDV interaction	R-square change	F- to remove	p-value
Job attitude	Psychological capital	Psychological wellbeing	0.66	0.42	0.42	-0.00	0.07	0.79
Occupational stress	Psychological capital	Psychological wellbeing	0.57	0.45	0.44	-0.00	2.75	0.09

The moderating effect of PsyCap among the exogenous and endogenous variable was tested. The results in Table 4.27 show that the moderating path (JA_PC_PW) between job attitudes and psychological wellbeing was not significant ($p=0.79$) thus H16 (PsyCap has a moderating effect on the relationship between overall job attitudes and overall psychological wellbeing) was rejected. The moderating path (OS_PC_PW) between occupational stress and psychological wellbeing was significant ($p=0.09$), which suggested that there might be a moderation effect, thus H17 (PsyCap has a moderating effect on the relationship between overall occupational stress and overall psychological wellbeing) was accepted. Figure 4.26 illustrates the moderating effect of PsyCap on occupational stress and psychological wellbeing by indicating that when PsyCap is high, psychological wellbeing and occupational stress are moderated.

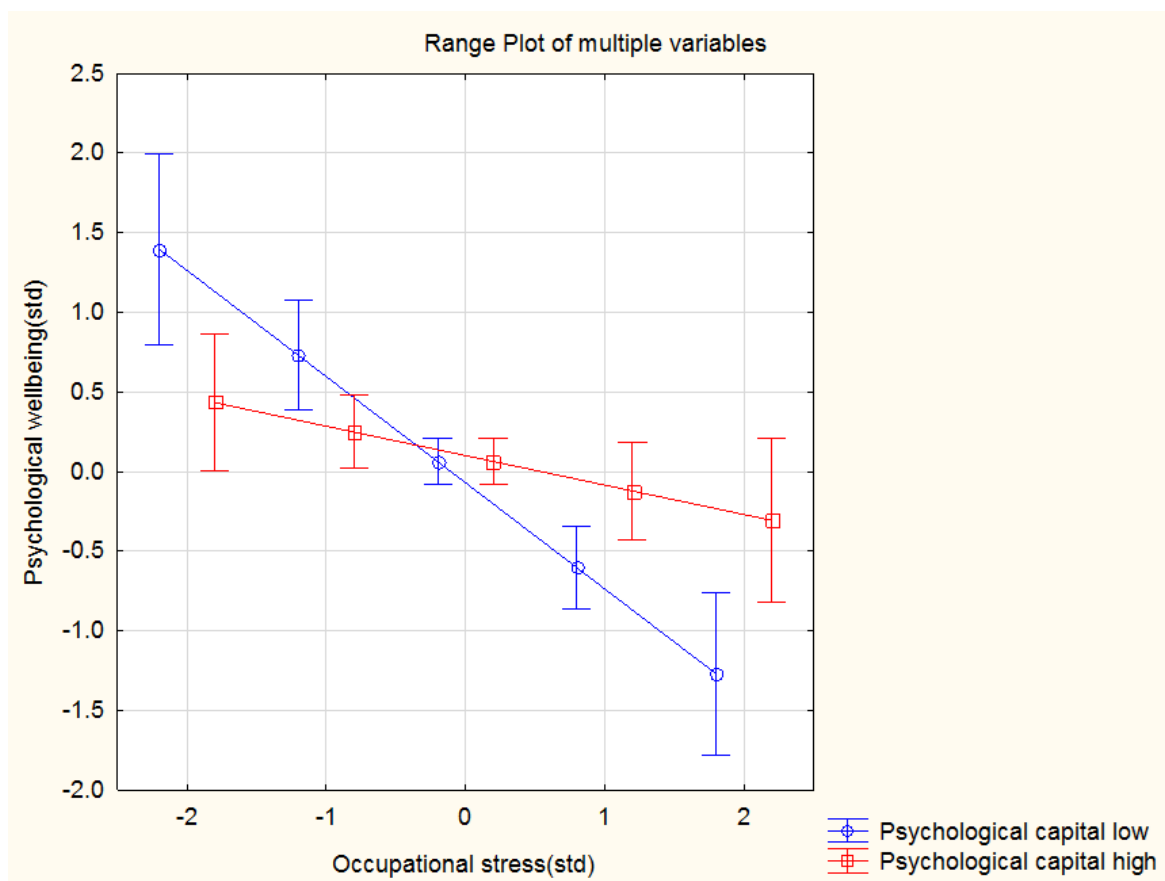


Figure 4.26. Regression of psychological wellbeing on occupational stress

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to report on the results obtained in this research study; hence, this chapter provided an overview of the analysis and procedures that were performed on the data. The analysis was preceded by descriptive statistics and the psychometric properties of the instruments that were used in this study. Correlations done using the Spearman correlation coefficient revealed significant negligible, low, moderate and high relationships of the different variables and psychological wellbeing. Following the inferential statistics further, PLS-SEM analysis was done to test the relationships among variables and the moderating effect of PsyCap. Only two paths were found to be significant. The results showed that PsyCap did not moderate the relationship between job attitudes and psychological wellbeing; it only moderated the relationship between occupational stress and psychological wellbeing.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to present a discussion of the results of the statistical analysis as reported in Chapter 4. The main purpose of this study was to explore which psychosocial factors influence soldiers and police officers' psychological wellbeing. In addition, the applicability of positive psychology in the workplace was examined by testing whether PsyCap would be a moderator between the various psychosocial factors (job attitudes and occupational stress) and psychological wellbeing. It is worthwhile to mention that no previous research had been conducted regarding the various factors discussed in this study with this kind of combined sample in the South African state security environment; however, studies have been conducted using different arms of service and different police clusters. In general, the findings of this study corroborate the findings of similar studies conducted earlier; therefore, it is worthwhile to acknowledge similarities and differences between this study and other studies. The chapter commences with a discussion of descriptive statistics analysis, particularly the measure of central tendency, inferential statistics in the form of correlation coefficient analysis and PLS–SEM analysis results.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY

5.2.1 Job satisfaction

The moderately high mean value (see Table 4.1) of job satisfaction indicates that soldiers and police officers are slightly satisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their jobs. These findings are of particular interest as they suggest areas in which the SANDF and SAPS could intervene to increase job satisfaction of soldiers and police officers. The results of this study have significant implications and it is suggested that more attention be paid to job satisfaction.

There are essential reasons why organisations should be concerned with job satisfaction:

- firstly, the humanitarian perspective postulates that employees should be treated fairly and with some respect; and
- secondly, the utilitarian perspective postulates that job satisfaction could lead to behaviour by employees that affect the functioning of the organisation (Abu Raddaha et al., 2012).

It is essential that the organisation develop policies that ensure the development of employee job satisfaction. The findings that soldiers and police officers are slightly satisfied with their jobs could be ascribed to the fact that they are assigned different duties, while others have privileges that are associated with their ranks. Kelly (2015) study was conducted within the South African Navy environment, and results showed that most participants were satisfied with their jobs. Makgala (2003) study results showed that police officers were moderately satisfied with their jobs. Studies conducted by Prevesto (2001) and Sanchez et al. (2004) show that soldiers who reported greater levels of job satisfaction were more likely to stay in the organisation, had greater organisational citizenship behaviour and produced high-quality work. Job satisfaction is positively related to leader and co-worker support (Nystedt, Sjoberg & Hagglund, 1999). Accordingly, Velnampy (2008) highlights that when employees are fully satisfied with their job, they will give their best, which in turn improves their performance. Similarly, Wright and Cropanzano (2000) established a link between job satisfaction and performance in the work environment.

Studies have also yielded evidence, which indicates that job satisfaction is significantly related to psychological wellbeing (Diener, 1994; Wright, 2010). In order to ensure that soldiers and police officers continuously experience high levels of job satisfaction, strong interventions by the SANDF and SAPS should be geared towards ensuring that policies and procedures are always in place to address any dissatisfaction which may arise. Leaders should also ensure that they establish supportive and personal interest in the job satisfaction of soldiers and police officers as a link has been established between job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing.

By providing a platform which encourages continuous feedback and allowing for participative decision-making, a true reflection of what is happening on the ground will be projected and soldiers and police officers will feel that they are able to control aspects of their work environment.

5.2.2 Organisational commitment

The observed mean value of 3.66 as depicted in Table 4.1 indicates that participating soldiers and police officers showed moderate levels of organisational commitment. The results show that soldiers and police officers had a positive attitude towards their organisations and they were likely to identify with goals and values. According to Metcalfe and Dick (2000), the level of organisational commitment that an employee exhibits could have either a negative or a positive effect on the organisation. Employees with low levels of organisational commitment tend to be unproductive whilst employees with high levels tend to contribute positively to their organisation. This implies that employees with high levels of commitment exert effort when performing duties and invest their resources in the organisation thereby contributing to a stable and productive workforce.

O'Shea et al. (2009) emphasise that characteristics such as a stimulating work environment, effective leadership and relations with co-workers contribute to increased levels of employee organisational commitment. Metcalfe and Dick (2000) findings indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between seniority of rank and organisational commitment for police officers. Research by Beck and Wilson (1997) showed that low levels of organisational commitment for police officers could indicate problems. Although there are limited research findings in the South African context, considering the unique culture within the police force and the military, it is arguable that low levels of organisational commitment in the SAPS and SANDF may lead to problems within the organisations. The results of the present study indicate that soldiers and police officers are adept at placing themselves in positive affective states, which are desirable in the work environment. The results signify the importance of developing a positive work attitude.

5.2.3 Job involvement

The moderately high mean value (see Table 4.1) of the job involvement results indicates that participating soldiers and police officers were involved in their jobs. The results indicate that participating soldiers and police officers show positive spirit, engagement and satisfaction with their jobs. This shows that the SANDF and SAPS have implemented activities, which contribute to the motivation of soldiers and police officers to perform at work and provide meaningful experiences in the workplace.

Although the mean value was moderately high, it is imperative that the SANDF and SAPS should continuously work towards improving job involvement by providing a healthy work environment, which contributes to the growth and development of soldiers and police officers. Further evidence, which is similar to the results in this study, can be found in the results by Cheng, Yen and Chen (2012) who studied Taiwan Army soldiers, and Tucker et al. (2005) who studied United States Army soldiers. The importance of these results to the state security environment is resolute in the notion that soldiers and police officers have the self-determination to make important contributions to the organisation if they are afforded the opportunity to contribute to decision-making. The results of the present study indicate that soldiers and police officers are positively affected by their jobs. As a result, their willingness and performance could be expected to increase automatically.

5.2.4 General stress

The low mean value (see Table 4.1) of the general stress survey indicates that participating soldiers and police officers did not view their jobs as too stressful while they were occasionally under stress at work. According to Lu et al. (2003), there are various factors in the workplace which relate to stress levels of employees. The results of the present study are contradictory to study results that have been found before. It is often suggested in literature that the conditions to which soldiers and police officers are exposed in the work environment may generate high levels of stress; consequently, they are expected to experience considerable stress.

The findings in the present study, however, indicate that soldiers and police officers in fact reported relatively low levels of stress, lower than those reported by other researchers. For example, Campbell and Noble (2009) found that being in the armed profession is stressful as the majority of participants in their study reported high levels of general stress. Pasillas et al. (2006) also reported that high levels of operational and organisational stress were related to higher levels of psychological stress among police officers.

Although the results of the present study are contrary to previous research, it is a fact that soldiers and police officers are selected based on organisational environment factors and self-select factors, which contributes to their ability to manage and tolerate stress. The results of the present study showed that participating soldiers and police officers indicated above average levels of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement. This indicates that they enjoyed their work, which led them to experiencing lower levels of general stress. This is possibly an indication of proper job fit of these members.

The high levels of PsyCap reported in this study may also contribute to the low levels of general stress, meaning soldiers and police officers have the confidence to work through challenges, are able to bounce back and learn from those challenges. Another interpretation of these relatively low levels of stress observed in the present study could be linked to the successes that are achieved during operations, indicating that performing well in operations mitigates any stressors which arise.

5.2.5 Psychological capital

The high mean value (see Table 4.1) of PsyCap indicates that participating soldiers and police officers had high levels of PsyCap. This means that participating soldiers and police officers persevere during challenging times, remain hopeful and develop alternative pathways, foresee events that occur in their way as positive, and they bounce back from difficult times. The results of this study are similar to those obtained by Siu, Cheung and Lui (2015) who found that police officers have high levels of PsyCap. Krasikova, Lester and Harms (2015) conducted a study to determine the effect of PsyCap on the mental health of soldiers.

The findings yielded evidence supporting their predictions as they found that soldiers with high levels of self-reported PsyCap prior to deployment were less likely to be diagnosed with health-related problems, such as anxiety and depression, than those with low levels of PsyCap. Padhy et al. (2015) study indicated that police officers showed high levels of optimism. Luthans et al. (2008) noted the importance of PsyCap as personal resource, which has the potential to increase employees' capacity for development.

Since soldiers and police officers in the present study showed high levels of PsyCap, it means that they had strong psychological resources to deal with stressful situations in effective ways. This will enable them to plan and perform better in their work environment, as Luthans et al. (2008) findings show that individuals with high levels of PsyCap tend to increase their performance. Soldiers and police officers undoubtedly encounter challenges in their work role; if they continue to experience these challenges, their individual resources are threatened. Literature has provided evidence, which indicates the added value which high levels of PsyCap have in the workplace, as studies have illustrated empirically the predictive role of PsyCap in terms of performance and satisfaction (Youssef & Luthans, 2010).

It can be expected that soldiers and police officers with high levels of PsyCap will most likely be more engaged in their work and perform better mainly through demonstrating effort and energy over extended periods of time. It can therefore be concluded that soldiers and police officers who have high levels of PsyCap are able to appraise their environment better than those with lower levels, and they are able to deal with occurrences in their work life.

5.2.6 Psychological wellbeing

The high mean value (see Table 4.1) of psychological wellbeing indicates that participating soldiers and police officers exhibited high levels of psychological wellbeing. This means that the participating soldiers and police officers had positive attitudes towards themselves, warm and trusting relationships with colleagues, were open to new experiences, had goals and a sense of direction in life, made effective use of surrounding opportunities and were self-determined and independent.

The results of the study are advantageous within the state security environment, as low levels of psychological wellbeing have been found to be related to negative psychological functioning, such as depression and anxiety (Akintayo, 2012). Military and police operations may involve a number of stressors, which could have a destructive influence on the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers. The strong need for high levels of psychological wellbeing amongst soldiers, which Nkewu (2014) found in his study has been reiterated in this study. The results of the present study also captured important implications for ensuring that soldiers and police officers function effectively within the three inter-related elements (i.e. workplace, workforce and what people do in their job). This aligns with Nkewu (2014) argument about the marked increase in employee and organisational health of the military if psychological wellbeing is high. Having high levels of psychological wellbeing is not only important for soldiers and police officers; it is also important for the organisations in which they serve. It is thus important to maintain high levels of psychological wellbeing by ensuring that processes and systems of the SANDF and SAPS are set in a sustainable manner.

Since high levels of psychological wellbeing are associated with highly desirable characteristics, it can be expected that the participating soldiers and police officers relate with others more positively, are enthusiastic and solve problems effectively. Literature shows that employees with high levels of psychological wellbeing contribute acceptably to the success of the organisation. Wright (2010) study results established correlations between psychological wellbeing and performance. Donald et al. (2010) study results showed that 25% of variance of productivity levels was predicted by psychological wellbeing.

5.3 DISCUSSION OF CORRELATION RESULTS

There is a shift in literature, which emphasises the promotion of employee psychological wellbeing, which has been described as a complex phenomenon due to the various theorisations of the concept. To ensure that psychological wellbeing is understood, all the latent variables, which characterise employees' behaviours' and the environment within which they work, should be understood in order to quantify accurately which factors are important for all work sectors.

The purpose of the present study was to explore which factors influence psychological wellbeing and the relationship amongst these factors. Hypotheses were formulated to show the possible relationships and correlation analysis was used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship.

5.3.1 Job attitudes and psychological wellbeing

The various job attitude latent variables that have been explored in this study had significant outcomes for both soldiers and police officers within the South African context, as Avey et al. (2011) correctly state that not much is known about how these variables are related to psychological wellbeing as a job variable. Bennet (1997, p. 296) mentions “with democratisation and human rights rapidly becoming international imperatives, knowledge about how to increase receptivity to change in traditional policies and operations, reduce costly turnover in personnel and increase the incidence of cooperative behaviour is necessary”.

It is without doubt that most police and military services in developing worlds operate with limited financial and personnel resources, so it is important to understand how to use those limited resources effectively and efficiently. Employee job attitudes represent a powerful source as they determine the way in which employees react to any factors related to the job. The correlation results in Figure 4.9 show a weak linear but significant positive correlation between overall job attitudes and psychological wellbeing ($r=0.30$; $p=0.00$). Wendong et al. (2008) found that job attitude variables (job satisfaction, affective commitment and job involvement) have significant effects on job skill importance. Aggarwal-Gupta et al. (2010) observe that supportive working conditions enhance employees' psychological wellbeing allowing them to develop positive job attitudes. In the present study, only weak and positive correlations were found between the various indicator variables of job attitudes and psychological wellbeing. H2, stating that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=0.31$; $p=0.00$), H3, stating that there is a significant relationship between organisational commitment and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=0.22$; $p=0.00$), H4, stating that there is a significant relationship between job involvement and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=0.28$; $p=0.00$). All the hypotheses were accepted.

The summary of statistics (see Table 4.3) indicated weak, significantly positive correlations. This means that when job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement increase, psychological wellbeing increases too. The theoretical integration of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement and psychological wellbeing indicates that there is a link between the variables as discussed in Chapter 2 (see par 2.3).

Olatunde and Odusanya (2015) conducted a study to ascertain the levels of psychological wellbeing, job satisfaction and the relationship between the two variables among mental health nurses. Their results showed a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing. These results validate Buitendach and Rothmann (2009) argument that job satisfaction is important for psychological wellbeing.

The results of the present study show that the participating soldiers and police officers who were fully satisfied with the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their job – acknowledged multiple aspects of self; understood the give and take in human relationships; were changing in ways that reflected self-knowledge; felt there was meaning to life; created contexts that were suitable for personal needs; and regulated behaviour from within.

Studies that have explored the various dimensions of organisational commitment and psychological wellbeing found that there were correlations between the various dimensions. Raina (2013) findings indicate that organisational commitment significantly and positively correlated with psychological wellbeing. Affective commitment has been found to correlate positively with autonomy and self-efficacy (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). In their study, Aggarwal-Gupta et al. (2010) found that normative commitment was moderately associated with psychological wellbeing.

According to Aggarwal-Gupta et al. (2010), psychological wellbeing in employees may influence their sense of obligation towards the organisation as it enables them to be able to respond better to normative pressures. The relevance of understanding the relationship between organisational commitment and psychological wellbeing stems from the need for the SANDF and SAPS to recruit top talent, which is able to apply full capabilities to their work and be able to retain them. This relationship indicates that there is a possibility that soldiers and police officers could be psychologically connected to their work, committed, proactive and willing to invest themselves fully in their roles as protectors of the inhabitants of South Africa.

Some of the studies investigating the relationship between psychological wellbeing and job involvement have yielded results that show relationships between the two variables (Riipinen, 1997). Love and Singer (1988) found positive correlations between police officers' psychological wellbeing and job involvement. This means that the more police officers were involved in their work, the more they experienced psychological wellbeing.

The results of the present study imply that the psychological identifications of participating soldiers and police officers with their jobs enabled them to function independently, develop workplace teamwork, which enabled them to commit energy to their jobs, applied effort to their jobs, which led them to grow personally and to engage in activities that provide direction and meaning.

5.3.2 Occupational stress and psychological wellbeing

H5, stating that there is a significant relationship between overall occupational stress and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.37$; $p=0.00$) was accepted, and H6, stating that there is a significant relationship between overall general stress and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.45$; $p=0.00$) was accepted. Both these hypotheses indicate a negative relationship with psychological wellbeing meaning that when occupational stress increases, psychological wellbeing decreases or when psychological wellbeing increases, occupational stress decreases. These results are similar to those of Karunanidhi and Chitra (2015) who found that occupational stress among police officers was negatively related to psychological wellbeing.

Adegoke (2014) results showed a significant effect of work stress on psychological wellbeing of police officers. Similar results were found in Akintayo (2012) study with a sample of industrial workers. In the military environment, the study results are similar to those of Bliese and Halverson (1996) who found that psychological wellbeing is negatively related to occupational stressors. It is arguable that a negative relationship is desirable between these two constructs, as Akintayo (2012) illustrates that when a relationship between these two constructs is positive, it could lead to deleterious consequences within organisations.

In literature, it is evident that increased levels of occupational stress amongst soldiers are not desirable as they have been linked to various negative outcomes, such as burnout, withdrawal, aggression, low morale, low performance and accidents (Tucker et al., 2005). It is without doubt that occupational stress could cause unusual and dysfunctional behaviour in the SANDF and SAPS. The results of the present study indicate that soldiers and police officers can cope with the stressors in their work environment to the extent that they are able to function effectively.

The various indicator variables of occupational stress were tested to determine their relationship with psychological wellbeing. The results show that the relationships between role ambiguity, relationships with colleagues, workload, autonomy, work-home interface, and job security are negatively related to psychological wellbeing. These negative results signify that when the indicator variables stated above increase, psychological wellbeing decreases, or when the indicator variables decrease, psychological wellbeing increases. The correlation analysis yielded the following results:

- H7, stating that there is a significant relationship between role ambiguity and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.35$; $p=0.00$), means that when a soldier or police officer knows what is expected of him or her, his or her psychological wellbeing will increase;

- H8, stating that there is a significant relationship between relationships and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.25$; $p=0.00$), means that these results can be interpreted to imply that, if soldiers or police officers do not experience stress due to poor interpersonal relationships at work, their psychological wellbeing will increase.;
- H9, stating that there is a significant relationship between workload and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.36$; $p=0.00$), means that when soldiers and police officers are able to handle their workload, their psychological wellbeing increases;
- H10, stating that there is a significant relationship between autonomy and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.34$; $p=0.00$), means that soldiers and police officers who are given the liberty to make decisions, experience psychological wellbeing;
- H11, stating that there is a significant relationship between work–home interface and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.48$; $p=0.00$), means that a good work–family balance increases the psychological wellbeing of the participating soldiers and police officers;
- H14, stating that there is a significant relationship between job security and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.21$; $p=0.00$), means that when soldiers and police officers' feelings of job insecurity decreases their psychological wellbeing increase.

The influence of the participating soldiers and police officers occupational stressors level could affect multiple levels (i.e. the individual, family, organisation and community). Multiple symptoms could be expected if there is an increase in the various stressors, such as burnout, which could be a feature of a combination of role ambiguity, excessive workload and lack of support (Babatunde, 2013). Langkamer and Ervin (2008) mention the additional exacerbating effect of work–family conflict, which contributes to the impairment of psychological wellbeing. The results above show that a negative relationship between the various occupational stressors and psychological wellbeing ameliorating the undesirable outcomes.

H12, stating that there is an insignificant relationship between career advancement and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.19$; $p=0.01$), was not accepted. These negligible results can be associated with the sample age and years of service within the organisations. Most of the participants in this study had 3–5 years' service, meaning that they are were relatively new in the organisations and they had not experienced any lack of advancement opportunities yet.

Young et al. (2013) results show that younger employees do not perceive career advancement as a stressor differently when compared to older employees. H13, stating that there is an insignificant relationship between tools and equipment and overall psychological wellbeing ($r=-0.17$; $p=0.03$) was not accepted. These results could be due to the fact that, although soldiers and police officers have been trained to use the tools and equipment, they have not used it due to lack of availability, unserviceable equipment or the nature of the operations within which they partook did not require them to use specialised equipment.

5.3.3 Psychological capital and psychological wellbeing

H15, stating that there is a significant relationship between PsyCap and overall psychological wellbeing ($r= 0.63$; $p=0.00$), was accepted. The results indicate the statistically significant relationship between PsyCap and psychological wellbeing. These results mean that soldiers and police officers show enhanced levels of accomplishment, in the sense that they have deep engrossment in their work activities and that they maintain and sustain commitment and effort in the face of challenges. When they are faced with challenging circumstances in their environment, they do not dwell on their personal deficiencies, but they exhibit control because they know that they have supportive social networks in the workplace. The participation of soldiers and police officers in multiple productive operations could be expected to increase their psychological wellbeing because these operations allow for social integration and provide meaningfulness.

The results of the study by Hasnain, Wazid and Hasan (2014) indicate that PsyCap constructs (optimism and hope) emerged as significant predictors of psychological wellbeing in a sample of Assamese adults. Hasnain et al. (2014) mention that hope can be experienced even when a person has very little personal control over a situation. It can be deduced that hope in its nature could change the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers and make their behaviour positive towards any adversities, which they experience in the work environment. In the centre of all mayhem in the work environment, the capacity of soldiers and police officers to hope for better things places an unrestricted limit on their power. When soldiers and police officers encounter barriers in the work environment, which hinder goal pursuits, they are more likely to utilise their positive attitude to deal with those barriers.

Bressler (2010) reiterates the notion that an optimistic soldier is most likely to make efforts to ensure his or her psychological wellbeing. Given the constantly changing and complex environment of soldiers and police officers, there is a need to develop multiple skills and abilities to be effective. Self-efficacy could assist in this, if soldiers and police officers are provided the opportunity to master their environment through experience and positive feedback. Having positive relationships with colleagues and receiving feedback could instil confidence and transform self-doubting beliefs. The ability to be robust under stressful conditions could allow soldiers and police officers to maintain hope, optimism and self-efficacy.

5.4 DISCUSSION OF PARTIAL LEAST SQUARE ANALYSIS RESULTS

The PLS analysis results obtained in this study are discussed below. The two-step analytical procedure as indicated by Wong (2013), was evaluated. Both the measurement model (reliability and validity of measures) and the structural model (hypothesised relationships) were tested simultaneously.

5.4.1 Measurement model analysis

The bootstrapping technique was used to test the significance of the path coefficients and the loadings. Parameters were set at the 95% confidence level. According to M Kidd (personal communication, August 16, 2016), the purpose of the measurement model analysis is to determine the extent of which items of the indicator variables measure what they are supposed to measure and their relationship with the observed variable. Table 4.5 illustrates the positive and significant results that were obtained for all the indicator variables of the different constructs. Overall job attitudes consisting of three indicator variables produced significant coefficients with estimates ranging from .83 to .87.

Overall, occupational stress consisting of nine indicator variables produced significant coefficients with estimates ranging from .70 to .87. PsyCap consisting of four indicator variables produced significant coefficients with estimates ranging from .65 to .84. Psychological wellbeing consisting of six indicator variables produced significant coefficients with estimates ranging from .69 to .83. It can therefore be concluded that the paths between the indicator and latent variables were significant (as illustrated by yes in Table 4.5). These results confirm that all indicators had positive and significant reliability and validity in measuring the latent variables used in this study.

5.4.2 Structural model analysis

The quality of the relationships between the latent variables was tested using structural model analysis. The purpose of the structural model analysis was to determine the relationship and influence of the exogenous variables on the endogenous variables. The rule of thumb is that a value close to zero indicates that no relationship exists between the latent variables. The bootstrap confidence level of 95% was used to determine the significance of the various path coefficients. The inner model indicated that three paths were not statistically significant (see Table 4.6). Further analysis was done to test the moderating effect of PsyCap on the exogenous and endogenous variables. Based on the results of the moderation test, H16, stating that PsyCap has a moderating effect on the relationship between overall job attitudes and overall psychological wellbeing, was rejected.

Various studies have shown that PsyCap enhances performance through influencing job attitudes (Luthans, 2002; Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans et al., 2013). Since the moderating effect of PsyCap (between overall job attitudes and psychological wellbeing) could not be achieved in this study, a possible explanation is that the sample in this study reported above average levels of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement, which are indicator variables of the latent variable job attitudes, high levels of PsyCap and above average levels of psychological wellbeing.

Because the participating soldiers and police officers showed above average levels of job involvement, it implied that they had mastered the skills needed to fulfil their task and they had the confidence to use these skills in their work environment thus they had mastered their work environment and they had achieved some level of personal growth. Study results by Avey et al. (2011) indicated that PsyCap is related to organisational commitment. This indicates that the organisation fulfils needs of accomplishment, in other words, soldiers and police officers are more likely to embed themselves in their work. Although this study did not test the relationship between the various job attitudes and PsyCap empirically, previous studies have suggested that PsyCap is positively related to employee job attitudes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement) (Avey et al., 2011). With this in mind, it is arguable that PsyCap could possibly moderate the relationship between job attitudes and psychological wellbeing if a negative relationship was found.

H17, stating that PsyCap has a moderating effect on the relationship between overall occupational stress and overall psychological wellbeing, was accepted. Avey et al. (2008) identified PsyCap as a key resource, which could assist employees to resist the effect of stress. These results show that PsyCap indeed enhances the capability of soldiers and police officers to manage stressful circumstances, which could have a negative influence on their psychological wellbeing. The participating soldiers and police officers were able to substitute resources in dealing with stressful circumstances, which could threaten their psychological wellbeing.

A possible explanation of the moderating role of PsyCap may be due to the ability of soldiers and police officers to utilise cognitive processes to promote contingency planning, prioritisation of goals and using personal resources within the work environment. This indeed shows that the negative effect of occupational stress on psychological wellbeing could be mitigated by above average levels of PsyCap. Soldiers and police officers employ their agentic thinking when faced with challenging endeavours associated with their work environment.

5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Studying psychosocial factors and its relationship with psychological wellbeing within SA state security forces is an important pursuit. The present study confirmed the levels of the various identified psychosocial factors. The correlations established in the present study contribute to the understanding of the psychosocial dimensions. The results of the study suggest that by ensuring that occupational stressors are decreased in the work environment, psychological wellbeing is affected in a positive way. The inclusion of PsyCap as a moderator between the various job attitudes, occupational stress and psychological wellbeing has extended the applicability of positive psychology in the military and police service work setting. Thus, the current study has provided some support for the application of the concept 'PsyCap' in a sample of soldiers and police officers. The study provided empirical evidence suggesting that the function of PsyCap might not end with the development of personal resources, which promote desirable attitudes in the workplace, but it helps in reducing unfavourable work outcomes such as occupational stressors.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 CONCLUSIONS

In an endeavour to determine which psychosocial factors influence the psychological wellbeing of soldiers and police officers, the present study focused on the relationship between job attitudes, occupational stressors and psychological wellbeing. Furthermore, the moderating role of PsyCap was also explored. Three attitudes were identified in the study, i.e. job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement. An analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the three identified attitudes and psychological wellbeing. The results showed that there were significant correlations as hypothesised. Analysis of the model indicated that PsyCap did not moderate the relationship between overall job attitudes and psychological wellbeing.

The logic, which can be drawn from these results, is that positive job attitudes lead to increased levels of psychological wellbeing. It is so that there will always be a dilemma in terms of understating what constitutes job attitudes of employees, as they are not satisfied by the same things in the workplace. It is therefore vital for the SANDF and SAPS to integrate all soldiers and police officers properly into the organisational value system and culture, because in the end, it is all about ensuring that all soldiers and police officers are highly satisfied with all intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their jobs and that they are committed to the extent that they feel an obligation to stay and succeed in their job and are engaged.

The various occupational stressors identified in this study have been referred to as the biggest threat in the work environment of soldiers and police officers, due to the detrimental effect they could have on soldiers and police officers. Understanding the various occupational stressors within the state security environment is a continuous exercise as the work environment is continuously changing due to the various complexities in the country or region within which they arise.

Campbell and Nobel (2009) note the various circumstances that contribute to stressors within the defence force. Their results showed that there are negative significant correlations between role ambiguity, relationships, workload, autonomy, work–home interface, job security and psychological wellbeing. However, career advancement, tools and equipment showed negligible results when correlated with psychological wellbeing.

The present study is one of the very few research studies assessing the influence of psychosocial factors on psychological wellbeing, with the application of positive psychology, particularly PsyCap. In this study, the strong significant relationship between PsyCap and psychological wellbeing provided support to the applicability of positive organisational behaviour in the state security environment in building resources aimed at employee development. In addition, PsyCap was found to moderate the relationship between occupational stress and psychological wellbeing. This may bring insight to the psychological wellbeing literature in further exploring possible ways to reduce the effect of occupational stressors on psychological wellbeing.

Although there are researchers who have studied the effectiveness of PsyCap as a whole within the workplace, this study is one of the very few that have examined the moderating role of PsyCap and specifically focusing on the occupational group of SA state security forces. It can be concluded tentatively that PsyCap is functional within the state security environment, therefore further studies should be carried out among different arms of services and mastering's within state security forces.

6.2 LIMITATIONS

Since this study was not funded, it limited the sampling to the Western Cape and Free State geographical areas.

- The sample group: The sample only consisted of soldiers who were in engineering units at the time of the study, which means the majority of respondents were from the engineering corps and a few infantry soldiers who were assault pioneers.

A replica of this study focusing on a combined sample of 50% combat engineers and 50% infantry soldiers would be more beneficial. The sample consisted of mostly single (n=110; 62%) participants, which had an effect on responses on items regarding work–home interface as a stressor.

- Nature of research: Data in this study was collected by means of self-report measures, which means it could have been contaminated by social desirable responses; thus, the results were interpreted in terms of this limitation.
- Sampling method: Since the data was collected using the convenient sampling method, there is a possibility that the results are unrepresentative of soldiers and police officers, as some were not afforded the opportunity to participate by virtue of the fact that they were on patrolling duties or deployment and it was impossible for them to participate in the study as it was conducted in a centralised venue.
- Given that the majority of participants were between the ages 18 and 25 (n=72; 40%) and with 3–5 years of service, there might be a possibility that they have not been exposed to many operations.
- The lack of consensus in literature of what constitutes psychological wellbeing (i.e. definition, antecedents and outcomes) by which to study it posed a challenge as not all studies examining psychological wellbeing use the same variables, which often lead to contradicting or inconclusive support for previous studies.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

It has been shown in literature that in order to improve psychological wellbeing, psychosocial factors need to be identified. According to Ryan and Deci (2001), psychological wellbeing embraces several different elements. It is therefore evident that there is a need for continued research in the SA state security environment. From the literature, it was evident that there are more psychosocial factors that need to be explored and identified; therefore, more qualitative and rigorous quantitative research is needed in order to further knowledge within the state security environment.

In the present study, the various identified psychosocial factors obtained significant relationships with psychological wellbeing. It is therefore possible that those relationships may hold true for future studies using various arms of service and police clusters across South Africa, which could provide valuable insight into understanding the psychosocial factors that influence wellbeing and refute or reinforce the results obtained in the present study. The present study found negligible relationships between two dimensions of occupational stress (i.e. career advancement and tools and equipment) and psychological wellbeing. Future studies could examine these relationships.

The findings of the present study contribute to the understanding that soldiers and police officers need to draw from unrecognised and untapped positive resources (such as PsyCap) to assist them in combating the unfavourable effects of their psychological, physical and personal life. The study suggests the need to focus research and practice to develop psycho-educational programmes on PsyCap in order to train soldiers and police officers to recognise and enhance their hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience.

The multi-professional team (consisting of medical doctor, psychologist, social worker, chaplain) in the different units should develop interventions which are geared towards creating a supportive environment, which reinforces social relationships in the workplace.

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