FACTORS INFLUENCING TURNOVER INTENTION WITH HARDINESS AS A MODERATOR AMONG MEMBERS OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN ARMY GYMNASIUM: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

BY

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

SAAG relies heavily on it staff members for the success of the unit. Studies state that there are factors that can negatively or positively affect employees' turnover intention. Furthermore, it is assumed that hardiness has a moderating effect on most organisational outcome. Therefore the relationship between the independent and dependent variables and hardiness as a moderator can be explored. Using SAAG, the current study aimed to explore the relationship between organisational climate (autonomy, involvement, welfare, effort, supervisory support and performance feedback), job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision and the work itself), work-family conflict, turnover intention and hardiness.

The study consisted of 280 members of the SAAG. A survey method was used to collect data in the study. Existing reliable instrument measuring organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, turnover intention and hardiness was used to collect data. Job satisfaction was found to be a formative measure and its loadings and weight were significant, except for the promotion subscale which was significant but negative in relation to other subscales measuring job satisfaction. Correlation analysis (Spearman) was performed to measure the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Positive and negative significant relationships were found. PLS was performed to test the proposed model of the study. The PLS results yielded that hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention. However, it did not have a moderating effect on other paths between other dependent and independent variables.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my kids Rorisang and Remoakantse for always putting a smile on my face even when faced with difficulties.

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LIST OF ACCRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

South African Army Gymnasium (SAAG).

South African National Defence Force (SANDF).

Turnover Intention Questionnaire (TIQ).

Job Description Index (JDI).

Military Hardiness Scale (MHS).

Work-family Conflict Questionnaire (WFCQ).

Social Exchange Theory (SET).

Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

Partial Least Square (PLS).

Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM).

Average Variance Extracted (AVE).

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1   INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

South African Army Gymnasium (SAAG) is one of South African National Defence Force (SANDF) training units. It is responsible for providing training to future leaders of the SANDF. The SAAG is divided into twelve different sections, in which two sections are responsible for training and ten sections are responsible for providing support to those two training sections. The SAAG is solely responsible for the training and development of future officers and non-commissioned officers of the South African Army in the SANDF. It therefore relies heavily on its staff members to provide high standards of training to future leaders of SANDF and for the success of the unit.

SAAG requires highly skilled staff members to provide high level of training. This means that SAAG does not only need to acquire and train the right staff members to carry out their roles effectively but it should also be able to retain them. According to Yazinski (2009) having and being able to retain competent employees significantly contributes towards organisations success. The author further stated that turnover is increasingly becoming a major challenge for human resources in most organisations. High staff turnover might be a good indication that members are not satisfied with their work environment, the work itself, the compensation system or other work related factors.

Research on organisational behaviour has found many reasons for turnover intentions, organisational climate, job satisfaction, and work-family conflict have been mentioned as some of the reasons. (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee & Eberly, 2008). Ohly and Fritz (2010) proposed that work environment plays a significant role in influencing the behaviour of employees. Therefore, organisational climate, job satisfaction and work-family conflict could influence an employee's work based outcome.

Organisational climate can be defined in several ways. Litwin and Stringer (as cited in Castro, 2008, p. 80) defined organisational climate as "a set of measurable properties of the work environment that is directly or indirectly perceived by the people who live and work in a particular environment and is assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour". Theorganisational climate is dependent on its employees' feelings and perception of the organisation's practices and procedures.

Organisational climate measures many dimensions but for the relevancy of this study, six dimensions will be used which are autonomy, involvement, supervisory support, welfare, and effort and performance feedback. Studies on organisational climate found that it is becoming more important than before because organisations need to ensure that those individuals who add value to their bottom line want to stay with the organisation (Castro, 2008). Organisations need to ensure that those individuals who add value to the bottom line stay in the organisation and they continue pouring their full effort into their work for the benefit of the organisation.

Studies found that when the organisation gives some level of autonomy and involve their employees in making decisions as well as providing supervisory support, employees are more likely to remain with the organisation (Gray, 2007). Other studies indicate that when employees receive feedback on their performance and being taken care of they are more likely to put in an extra effort to their work and remain with the organisation (Suliman & Abdullah, 2005).

Organisational climate on its own is not enough to influence members' intention to leave the organisation. Studies on job satisfaction found that job satisfaction has a huge influence on members' intention to leave the organisation. Job satisfaction is defined "as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job experiences as fulfilling important job values" (Steinhardt, Dolbier, Gottlieb, & Mc Calister, 2003, p. 382). Job satisfaction is the positive and negative feelings and attitudes that people hold about the job. Job satisfaction is influenced by many work related factors and it depends on the workers' sense of fulfilment that they get from their daily work.

The work itself, co-workers, supervision and the rewards mostly influence the job satisfaction of the workers. Studies on job satisfaction and turnover intentions show that an individual who experiences relatively low job satisfaction has an intention to change their job (Lawler as cited in Masri, 2009).

Work-family conflict is commonly defined as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect, whereby participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the other" (Greehaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). A study by Ngo and Lui (1999) found that work-family conflict have an impact on employees' turnover intentions. Work-family conflict is an important concept, it denotes the competing demands on time, energy and commitment of the two life domains. In particular, participation in the work role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family role. Research also shows that work-family conflict has a negative effect on individual's work attitude such as job satisfaction (Ngo & Lui, 1999).

In prior studies, gender has been treated as a personal characteristic, which was supposed to have a direct impact on work-family conflict, aside from other predictors such as hours of work, job demands and family life cycle. Additionally gender affects employees' perceptions of the workplace and their attitudinal reactions to the employing organisation (Ngo & Lui, 1999).

Women develop ideas about themselves, their lives and the world around them differently from men, due to different sex-roles socialisation (Ngo & Lui, 1999). If so, men and women may have different responses to work-family conflict. A study by Lee, Gerhart, Weller, and Trevor (2008) found that women are more likely to quit their jobs for personal or family-related reasons such as looking after the children.

Other studies indicate that individual differences or personality traits are often described as moderators that help people to respond positively or negatively to certain events or situations (Johnsen, Espevik, Saus, Saden, Olsen, & Hystad, 2017). Such personality traits include hardiness, which in this study moderates the relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and turnover intentions.

Hardiness is "a constellation of personality characteristics that function as resistance resource in the encounter with stressful life event" (Steinhardt, 2003, p. 383). The three basic elements comprising hardiness includes challenge, which is the perception of change as normal and natural, as well as an opportunity for personal growth; the second element is commitment, which is a sense of opportunity or meaningless in one's life and strong involvement in directing one's life course; the third element is control, which is the believe that one is capable of impacting one's circumstances; and last element is existential courage, which has long defined major motivation in human functioning as an ongoing quest for life's meaning and purpose.

The work environment can be the source of many negative organisational outcomes such as turnover intentions. The military environment is a workplace with full a range of occupational stressors, as well as additional stressors specific to the military environment. There are certain individuals that are more tolerant and endure a negative work environment, such individuals are hardy or have the characteristics of a hardy individual. Therefore, one can argue that some individual differences like hardiness can act as a moderator to help some people respond to a situation positively, while others respond negatively (Johnsen et al., 2017).

1.2   RESEARCH PROBLEM

Increased turnover rates have been a challenge for many organisations. The detrimental effect of high turnover intention in SAAG can be a challenge for the success of the unit. Research on organisational behaviour has found many reasons for turnover intention among them organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and hardiness (Holtom et al., 2008).

Many studies on organisational climate, job satisfaction, work- family conflict and hardiness have been conducted across a range of organisations. However there is no specific academic study done in SAAG to understand what effect these constructs have on turnover intentions of staff members.

1.2.1 General research question

The general research question is as follows:

Is there a relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and turnover intentions among members of SAAG, and what is the role of hardiness as a moderating variable?

1.2.2 Specific research questions

Specific research questions to be addressed by this study are:

a. Is there a theoretical relationship between organisational climate and turnover intentions of members of SAAG?

b. Is there a theoretical relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions of members of SAAG?

c. Is there a theoretical relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intentions of members of SAAG?

d. Is there a theoretical relationship between hardiness and turnover intentions members of SAAG?

e. Are there conceptually theoretical relationships between organisational climate job satisfaction, work family conflict and turnover intentions of members of SAAG?

f. Is there a moderating role of hardiness between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and turnover intentions of members of SAAG?

The statistical package of social science (SPSS) and partial least square (PLS) was used to calculate and conduct statistical analysis. The different subscales contained in the different dimensions of the measuring instruments are expected to prove the underlying correlations and/or relationships as hypothesised by the researcher. The empirical results can be used to guide the formulation of recommendations inclusive of the relevant intervention strategies for SAAG to minimise turnover intentions of its members.

1.3   RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The aim of the study is to evaluate the influence of organisational climate, job satisfaction and work-family conflict on turnover intentions among members of SAAG and hardiness as possible moderator variable to turnover intentions among members of SAAG.

1.3.1 Main objective

The main objective of the study is to conduct research and explore empirically the factors that cause turnover intentions among members of the SAAG, and how hardiness moderates the relationship between the dependant and independent variables. Figure 1.1 illustrates the hypothesised relationships among variables.

1.3.2 Theoretical objectives

Theoretical objectives of this study were to conduct a broad literature review on the variables of interest of this research and determine their relationships. In terms of the literature review, the theoretical objectives are:

a. To conceptualise turnover intentions from a theoretical perspective.

b. To conceptualise organisational climate from a theoretical perspective.

c. To conceptualise job satisfaction from a theoretical perspective.

d. To conceptualise work-family conflict from a theoretical perspective.

e. To conceptualise hardiness from a theoretical perspective.

f. To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, hardiness and turnover intentions.

g. To conceptualise the moderating effect of hardiness on the relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and turnover intentions.
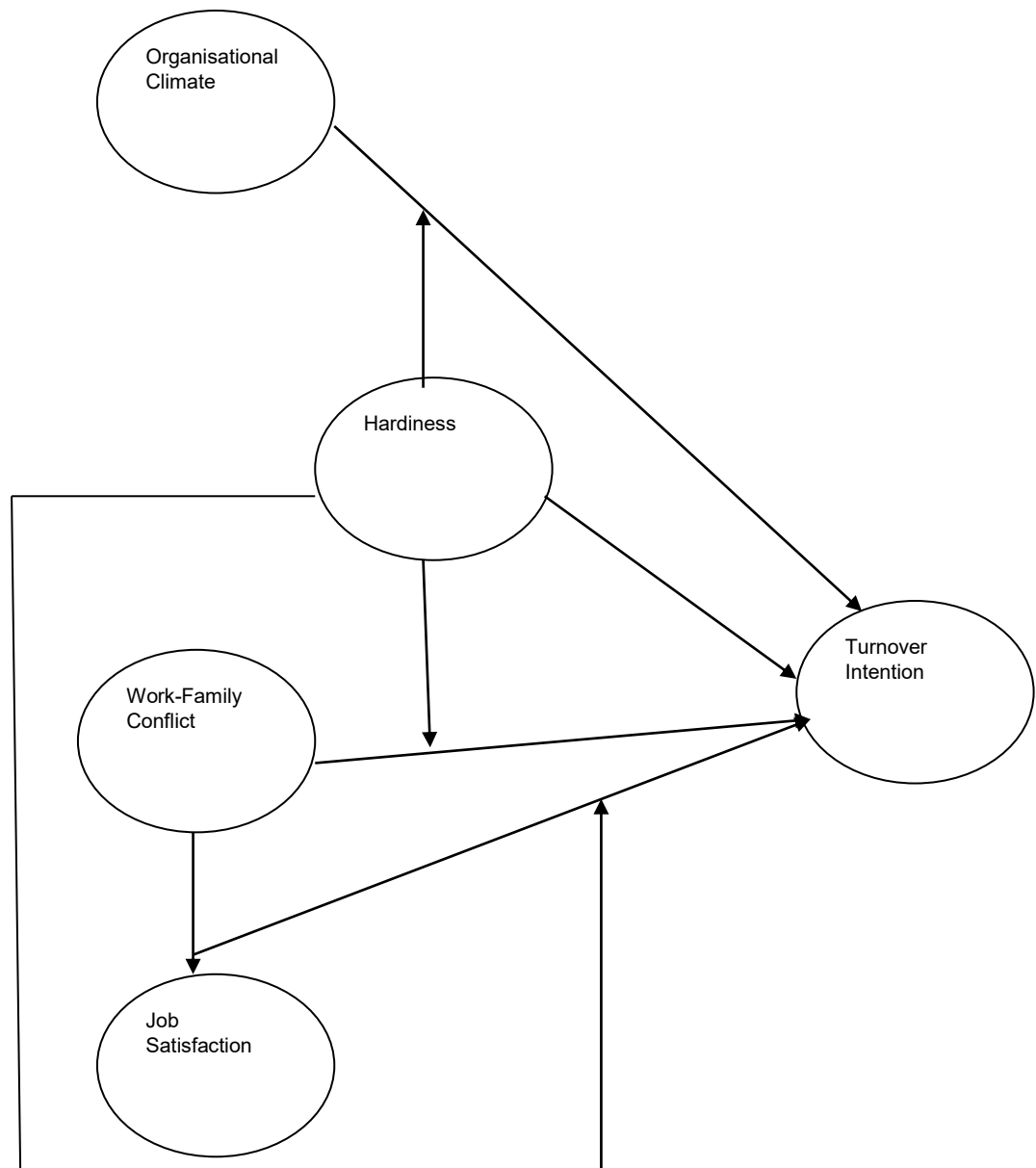
***Figure 1. 1* A proposed model of turnover intentions**

1.3.3 Empirical objectives

These are used in an exploratory research methodology to determine the relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, and turnover intentions. The objective is to reflect the moderating effect of hardiness on turnover intentions. In terms of the empirical study, the empirical objectives of this study are:

    a. To determine the level of turnover intention in a sample of SAAG members.

b. To determine the level of organisational climate in a sample of SAAG members.

c. To determine the level of job satisfaction in a sample of SAAG members.

d. To determine the level of work-family conflict in a sample of SAAG members.

e. To determine the level of hardiness in a sample of SAAG members.

f. To determine the influence of organisational climate, job satisfaction and work-family conflict on turnover intention

g. To determine the moderating effect of hardiness on the relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family and turnover intentions in a sample of SAAG members.

h. To determine the influence of hardiness on turnover intention.

1.4   RESEARCH PROCESS OVERVIEW

The research was carried out in seven stages which are, firstly is the literature review, secondly the research design and methodology for the empirical research, thirdly the presentation of results, and fourthly the discussion of results, fifthly the conclusion, then sixthly the research limitations and lastly the research recommendations.

1.4.1 Phase1: Literature review

The aim of literature review was to provide a critical written account on the variables of interest of the study (organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, turnover intentions and hardiness). Literature review will describe the relationship between the variables of interest of the study and the moderating effect of hardiness on organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and turnover intention. Furthermore, literature review will shed some light on any gaps in previous research and point the way forward for further research.

Specific areas of the study include:

a.   Social exchange theory

    b.   Turnover intentions

    c.   Organisational climate

    d.   Job satisfaction

    e.   Work-family conflict

    f.   Hardiness

    g.   Conceptualising the relationship between constructs

1.4.2 Phase 2: Empirical research

Questionnaires were used to gather data on the different variables of interest in this study. All questionnaires were paper-and-pencil evaluation tools administered to members of the SAAG and were encoded in SPSS to provide a scientific explanation of the members' responses.

The questionnaires were administered to a sample of 280 members of SAAG. A non-random sampling method was used to select the participants of the study. The following is a brief discussion of questionnaires that are used in the study. Further discussion of questionnaires was done in chapter three.

Turnover intention was measured using 12-items adapted from 15-items turnover intention questionnaire (TIQ) developed by Roodt (2004), with an acceptable Cronbach's alpha (see par 3.6.1).

Organisational climate was measured using organisational climate questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Patterson et al., (2005) The original scale consist of seventeen subscales, that is, autonomy, integration, involvement, supervisory support, training, welfare, formalisation, tradition, innovation and flexibility, outward focus, flexibility, clarity of organisational goals, efficiency, effort, performance feedback, pressure to produce, and quality. For the relevancy of the study, only six subscales will be used, which is autonomy, involvement, supervisory support, welfare, effort and performance feedback, to measure organisational climate, with an acceptable Cronbach's alpha (see par 3.6.2).

Job satisfaction was measured using job description index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). It consists of 32 items scale measuring job satisfaction with five different job areas: pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision and the work itself, with an acceptable Cronbach's alpha (see par 3.6.3).

Work-family conflict questionnaire consisted of 18 items assessing the six conceptually and empirically distinct dimensions: Time-based (work interference to family), time-based (family interference to work), strain-based (work interference to family), strain-based (family interference to work), behaviour-based (work interference to family), and behaviour-based (family interference to work), with an acceptable Cronbach's alpha (see par 3.6.4).

A Military hardiness scale (MHS) developed by Carol and Adler (2006), was used to measure hardiness. The questionnaire consists of three subscales, namely commitment, challenge and control, with an acceptable Cronbach's alpha (see par 3.6.5).

1.4.3 Phase 3: Reporting of results

Each questionnaire response was captured in a survey analysis software programme for the purpose of analysis and control. The SPSS and PLS was used to calculate and conduct statistical analysis. The statistical procedures relevant to this research include the following: Descriptive statistics were calculated using maximum, minimum, mean and standard deviations; reliability analyses were conducted using Cronbach's alpha. Spearman correlations of factors derived from turnover intention, organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and hardiness were calculated. A five per cent level ($p > 0.05$) was used as a parameter for significant relationships. PLS analysis was used for further analysis to test significance of the proposed model of turnover intention (see Fig 1.1). The different statistics are further discussed in chapter three and the output thereof in chapter four and five.

1.4.4 Phase 4: Discussion of results

The results of the empirical research are discussed in this section and the explanations are provided.

1.4.5 Phase 5: Conclusion

The conclusion of the study will be provided with in this section.

1.4.6 Phase 6: Limitations

The measuring instruments and the limitations of the study will be provided in this section.

1.4.7 Phase 7: Recommendations

The recommendations for future research on the topic, further use of the study results and discussion on intervention strategies are discussed in this section.

1.5   CHAPTER DIVISION

The chapters in the study are presented in the following 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: Conclusion, limitations, and recommendations

1.6   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter gives an insight of SAAG in providing training to future leaders of the SANDF and the factors that influence turnover intentions of members of SAAG, as well as how hardiness plays a moderating role between these factors and members turnover intentions. This study also provides the problem that there has been an increased rate of turnover intention among the members of SAAG. The detrimental effect of this high turnover intention is a challenge for the success of the unit.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a comprehensive theoretical discussion of turnover intentions and factors affecting it. The purpose of this study is to explore the factors that influence turnover intentions among members of the SAAG, and how hardiness moderates the relationship between these factors and turnover intentions. In order to meet these objectives, this chapter provide an in-depth review on social exchange theory, turnover intentions, organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, hardiness, with a theoretical conceptual framework for this study to conclude.

2.2 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

The workplace social exchange relationship is of paramount importance in understanding organisational behaviour. It is used as a framework for predicting three outcomes of human resource practices, namely employee commitment, employee motivation and the desire to remain with the organisation (Williams & Davies, 2007). Employees are known to respond both behaviourally and cognitively to their perceptions of the workplace relationships (Jepsen & John, 2007). Benefits such as increased performance, satisfaction with the job and commitment to the organisation may flow from the identifying condition, the circumstances and the manner of employees' responses to their perception of the workplace relationship.

The Social exchange theory (SET) is a set of ideas derived from several theories (such as equity theory, interdependence theory and resource theory) focused on the manner by which humans acquire resources. The roots of the aforementioned theories are located in several disciplines including anthropology, economics, psychology and sociology. Consequently, they differ with regard to their characterisation (Littlejohn & Foss, 2017).

A set of assumptions are ascribed to SET. The central assumption to SET is that humans need resources to survive. To facilitate meeting their needs, humans learnt to directly exchange resources or distribute a pool of resources among members of a social system. When acquiring resources, individuals enact behaviours that have proved successful in the past and which they expect will result in benefit in the current context or in the future. Hence, they are self-interested (Littlejohn & Foss, 2017).

In order to lessen the likelihood of exploitation, social systems develop norms or rules that prescribe how resources should be distributed or exchanged. Direct exchange are guided by a norm of reciprocity which dictates that receiving a resource obligates one to return a benefit and until reciprocity occurs, the receiver of reciprocity of the resource is obliged to be respectful and supportive to the giver (Littlejohn & Foss, 2017). Hence in this study it is proposed that if SAAG does not ensure that their employees are satisfied with the work itself, working conditions, rewards, supervisory support and the relationship with co-workers they might feel not obliged to remain with the unit. This is supported by Jepsen and John (2007). They also found that for some employees' satisfactory working relationship with colleagues are essential to remaining with the employer.

Allocation of resources within a social system (for example salaries) is governed by rules that identify the basis upon which the resource should be allocated (for example status, equality), the procedure used to determine the distribution, and how the distribution is announced (decision makers explaining their actions in a sensitive fashion).These conventions increase feeling of deservingness, and when they are violated, individuals perceive that they have been treated unfairly and try to resort fairness or seek resources elsewhere. In social exchanges, meaningful actions between two parties are referred to as transfers. Transfers may be a favour, benefits, resources or rewards. The exchange between parties must be fair and just. When exchanges have been successful, stable exchange relationships and social networks are formed (Littlejohn & Foss, 2017).

SET is the most powerful tools for understanding workplace behaviour (Cropanzano & Mitchel, 2005). SET is based on the norm of reciprocity, where if an employee receiving a benefit, the employee should grow to be morally obliged to recompense their employer. Hence social exchange is used to describe the interactions that employees encounter with their employing organisation. These relationships of give and take, between the employee and employer, are fundamentally important to test because failure to experience reciprocity may lead an employer to reduce or remove the giving of work benefits for example work-family-practices (Haar & Roche, 2010) or the employee resorting to negative outcomes. However, social exchange is built on mutual exchanges in which the precise reciprocity for service gained by the employees is not specified in advance. Consequently, the employer might provide employee benefits, for example work-family practices, but would not be assured of any re-compensation or reciprocity from their employees (Haar & Roche, 2010).

Social exchange theorists propose that employees evaluate these social interactions and that the satisfactory exchanges will result in employee reciprocation in future. Therefore, SET result in the information and maintenance of relationships within the organisation and is developed in terms of reciprocation of valued resources between interacting parties (Chen, Aryee & Lee, 2005). As such, the currencies of social exchange are those that are valued by both parties and exchanged, as they are exchange, trust is formed and developed, and social exchange relationship evolves (Haar & Roche, 2010).

SET proposes that positive social exchange has an impact on positive attitudes that are redirected towards the organisation. Hence the study propose that if SAAG takes care of their employees, by giving them autonomy, caring about their wellbeing in order to avoid work-family conflict, the employees in turn will be more committed to the unit and they will have no intentions to quit. SET is relevant to employee perception of the work environment, because when employees believe that the work environment is favourable to them, they will in turn feel the need to work hard, to achieve organisational goals and remain with the organisation (Tornblom & Kazemi, 2012).

SET argues that when employees and supervisors or managers deliver good workplace relationships, a reciprocal arrangement develops which not only benefit the individual, but also benefit the organisation as a whole (Tornblom & Kazemi, 2012). SET rests on the assumption of perceived equivalence in mutuality and reciprocity, in turn leading to increased stability in the workplace. These same conditions are also likely to optimise employee's perception of autonomy (Cropanzano & Mitchel, 2005).

The benefit to the individual is that when supervisor-subordinate relations are effective, they have greater access to information (such as performance feedback), emotional support, trust and goodwill, therefore employees can solve their work related problems effectively and efficiently (Tornblom & Kazemi, 2012). The benefit for the organisation is that, when employees are effective, their productivity rise and they may feel more satisfied with their job. This in turn reduces their turnover intentions and hence they would be committed to staying with the organisation. Hence in this study the researcher propose that turnover intentions in SAAG can be combated by ensuring that the members of SAAG are satisfied with their job, there is less work-family related stress and that employees perceive their internal work environment as conducive to them.

2.3   TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Turnover is one of the most researched phenomena in organisational behaviour. In this study turnover intentions rather than turnover was used as a dependent variable. To understand the concept turnover intentions, it is necessary to first provide a brief review of turnover so that one can be able to differentiate between the two. Turnover is the percentage of staff members that have left the organisation and can be measured as an indicator of organisational stability. According to Phillips and Connell (2003, p. 3) turnover is defined as "leaving the organisation for whatever particular reason".

It is further defined as "a movement of a worker in and out of employment with respect to a given company, this movement is usually considered voluntary" (Armstrong, 2010, p. 249). Price (2001, p. 10) also defines turnover "as the individual movement across the membership boundary of an organisation". According to Hom, Mitchell, Lee and Grifeth (2012, p. 831) everyone eventually leaves, no one stays with the organisation forever. This is true and implies that employee turnover is part of employment space that is inevitable in any work environment, irrespective of how and when it happens.

There are two categories of turnover. First is involuntary turnover. Involuntary turnover is the result of retirement and death which is uncontrollable, is also a concern but will not be the focus of this study (Abassi & Hollman, 2000). Secondly is voluntary turnover. Voluntary employee turnover is "the rotation of workers around the labour market, between firms, jobs and occupation" (Abassi & Hollman, 2000, p. 333). Voluntary turnover is an employee initiated withdrawal or departure from an organisation. This is true because the word voluntary suggest that an employee deliberately chooses to leave (Mohr, Young & Burgess, 2012).

Employees entering and leaving the organisation are regarded as employee turnover, it has been categorised in different ways by different researchers. According to Shim (2010) turnover can be categorised as unavoidable turnover, desirable turnover, and undesirable turnover. Retirement, sickness, or death can be the reason for unavoidable turnover and employee's ineffectiveness can be desirable employee turnover (Gill, Ahmed, Rizwan, Farid, Mustafa, Saher, Bashir, & Tanveer, 2013).

Smith (2003) states that not all quits are undesirable; in fact, turnover can have positive organisational effects such as the removal of poor performers, advancement opportunity for talented replacements and decreases in pre-turnover withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism, sabotage and poor work quality. Pre-turnover withdrawals, such as the later, can have a negative effect on the organisation.

It is therefore important for commanders of SAAG to understand the concept turnover and what leads employees to developing behaviours that lead to negative organisational outcomes such as turnover intentions. On the other hand turnover can be seen as undesirable when capable and skilled employees leave the organisation due to organisational issues such as job satisfaction, work-family conflict, and organisational climate (Gill et al., 2013).

It requires a lot of money and resources for SAAG to train its instructors/members to deliver high standard of training to future leaders of the SANDF. Therefore it is important for SAAG to ensure that its members do not leave the unit to other training units due to issues such as job satisfaction, organisational climate and work-family conflict. Hence it is the objective of this study to measure the level of turnover intentions of members of SAAG by investigating the relationship between their level of job satisfaction, organisational climate, work-family conflict and turnover intentions.

High turnover often means that employees are not happy with their work or compensation, but it can also indicate unsafe and unhealthy working conditions, or that few employees give satisfactory performance. Low turnover indicates that none of the above is true, employees are satisfied and their performance is satisfactory (Mohammed, Gerry & Michele, 2012). However, in this study turnover intentions rather than turnover was used as a dependent variable, because it is a good predictor of the actual turnover.

Turnover intention, which is the focus of this study, is defined as "employees own estimates (subjective) probability, which are permanently leaving the organisation at some point, in the near future" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). Sousa-Poza and Hennerberg (2002, p.1) further define turnover intentions "as the reflection of the (subjective) probability that an individual will change his or her job within a certain period and is an immediate originator to actual turnover".

Most definitions refer to a similar factor that is the employee intention to leave the organisation. For the purpose of the study the following definition will be used: Turnover intention is defined as a "subjective perceptions of an organisational member to quit the current job for other opportunities" (Subramanian & Shin, 2013, p. 2). Previous studies also demonstrated that behavioural intentions to leave are consistently correlated with actual turnover (Fox & Fallon, 2003; Redelinghuys & Botha, 2016).

Unlike actual turnover, turnover intent is not explicit. Intentions are not a statement about a specific behaviour of interest. However, intention to leave and actual turnover are highly correlated. For this reason, researchers often use intent to leave as proxy for turnover (Subramanian & Shin, 2013). Mohammed et al. (2012) noted that turnover intention is an appropriate dependent variable because it is linked with actual turnover. They also recommended the use of turnover intentions over actual turnover because actual turnover is more difficult to predict than intentions and there are many external factors that can affect person's turnover behaviour. Research by Subramanian and Shin (2013) found that turnover intentions or intentions to quite a job have been found to be one of the best predictors of actual quitting. In the current study turnover intention questionnaire developed by Roodt (2004b) with an acceptable alpha was used to measure turnover intention. The scale consist of 12 items (see par. 3.6.1).

2.4   ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

According to Gelfand, Gray and Matulovich (as cited in Castro, 2010) the term climate is most commonly associated with the study of meteorology, and more specifically aims to observe, describe and measure the various physical characteristics of the atmosphere such as rainfall, temperature, changes in season and so on. When the term climate is transplanted into the context of the organisation, it becomes more complex because it is not so easy to observe and measure and is constantly changing and as such is not necessarily enduring. Various researchers define organisational climate on the basis of their viewpoint on how climates are formed (Castro, 2008).

There is a clear difference between those who highlight objective characteristics and those who emphasise subjective elements. According to Johannsson (as cited in Castro, 2008), researchers with an objective frame of reference approach the definition and measurement of organisational climate in terms of actual, objective indices such as levels of authority, organisational rules and employee ratios, whilst the majority of researchers operationalise the concept in terms of participant perceptions, where participants indicate the extent to which specific items characterise their work situation. According to James and Jones (as cited Castro, 2008) defining organisational climate will guide the way the concept is examined and measured.

2.4.1   Defining organisational climate

Castro (2008) provides various definitions of organisational climate from varied approaches (objective and subjective) according to various researchers. One of the earliest and most widely accepted definitions based on citations of organisational climate (James & Jones, 1974; Johannsson, 1973; Moran & Volkwein, 1992) is that of Forehand and Gilmer (1964) who describe organisational climate as a set of characteristics that describe an organisation, distinguishes it from other organisations, is relatively enduring over time and can influence the behaviour of people in it.Gregopoulos (as cited in Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler & Weick, 1970, p.50) defines organisational climate as a normative structure of attitudes and behavioural standards which provide a basis for interpreting the situation and act as a source of pressure for directing activity".

According to Litwin and Stringer (1968), the concept of organisational climate developed through the application of motivation theories to behaviour in organisations. The purpose was to describe the effects of organisations and organisational life on the motivation of individuals in organisations in order to ultimately describe and explain behaviour.

The perceptions of individual's expectancy to achieve the goal and the incentive attached to the achievement of the goal are significant in the motivation of individuals. According to Litwin and Stringer (1968), the previous definitions do not consider the role of individuals' perceptions of these properties and define organisational climate as "a set of measurable properties of the work environment that is perceived directly or indirectly by the people who influence their motivation and behaviour".

Tagiuri and Litwin (1968, p. 8) emphasised the importance of perceptions in defining organisational climate, because according to them, organisational climate is interpreted by members of the organisation and impacts on their attitudes and motivation. They have defined the concept as a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organisation that (1) is experienced by its members, (2) influences their behaviour, and (3) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the organization.

Friedlander and Margulies (1969, p.172) define organisational climate as "a dynamic phenomenon that may release, channel, facilitate or constrain the organisation's technical or human resources". This dynamic phenomenon can be defined as being primarily social and interpersonal, which has an effect on the employee's sense of involvement with the technical task at hand.

In order to gain a better understanding of organisational climate and to move towards a definition of the concept, Campbell et al. (1970, p. 50) suggest considering certain properties of organisational climate. They indicate that organisational climate refers to "a set of attributes that is specific to an organisation, and may be induced from the way the organisation deals with its members and environment". For them, climate describes the organisation in terms of static and behaviour-outcome contingencies.

Schneider and Hall (1972,p. 638) indicated that organisational climate exists in individuals' perceptions of their organisational environment. These perceptions are formed by the individual using inputs of objective events in and characteristics of the organisation, as well as characteristics of the individual.

Combining a number of definitions of organisational climate by previous authors, Pritchard and Karasick (1973, p. 110) define organisational climate as "a relatively enduring quality of an organisation's internal environment, distinguishable from other organisations, which results from the behaviour and policies of members of the organisation, especially top management, which is perceived by the members, serves as a basis for interpreting situations and acts as a source of pressure for directing activity".

Hellriegel and Slocum (1974, p. 260) definition of organisational climate is representative of the combination of concepts of various authors. According to their definition, organisational climate is "a set of attributes that is perceived about a particular organisation and/or its subsystems, and that may be induced from the way in which the organisation and/or its subsystems deals with its members and environment". From this definition, the following themes emerge:

• Perceptual responses are primarily descriptive rather than evaluative.

• Items, scales and constructs relate to the macro as opposed to the micro level.

• Units of analysis refer to the organisation and/or subsystem and not the individual.

• Perceptions have potential behavioural consequences.

In harmony with the above, Schneider and Snyder (1975, p. 320) define organisational climate as "the summary or global perception that people have about an organisation". According to the authors, individuals perceive the organisation in various ways, depending on their specific situation and the information available to them. Along these lines, organisational climate can be described as personalistic (Schneider, 1975) whereby what is important to the individual is the way in which he/she perceive the organisation and not how others describe it.

Ash (1983, p. 280) defines this as "an organisational phenomenon". Each organisation has a unique climate which constitutes more than just the collection of individuals' perceptions. Schein (1990) and Reichers and Schneider (1990) believe that organisational climate is a surface manifestation of culture, and it is only through delving deeper and exploring other concepts that one will be able to understand and explain variations in organisational climates. In the same vein, Moran and Volkvein (1992) state that the above definitions omit the role that organisational culture plays in influencing individuals' perceptions and interactions.

Moran and Volkwein (1992, p. 20), incorporating definitions of Forehard and Gilmer (1964) and Pritchard and Karasick (1973) defined organisational climate as "the relatively enduring characteristic of an organisation which distinguishes it from other organisations and (a) embodies members collective perceptions about their organisations with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation and fairness; (b) is produced by member interaction; (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the organisation's culture; and (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behaviour".

Boeyens and Hutchinson (as cited in Sempane, Rieger & Roodt, 2002, p. 25) define organisational climate as "the employees' description of organisational variables such as size, structure, policies and leadership styles". Coetsee (as cited in Gerber, 2003) suggests that organisational climate is typical of organisational associates' mutual perceptions and/or feelings (attitudes) about the organisation. Coetsee (as cited in Gerber, 2003) goes on to say that the organisation's climate reflects members' subjective attitudes and perceptions, regardless of whether it is an accurate description of reality in the organisation.

According to Gerber (2003, p. 56), organisational climate is "the surface manifestation of organisational culture that consists of the conscious behaviour, such as the feelings or perceptions and attitudes, that is shared by individuals in an organisation at a particular time regarding the fundamental elements of the organisation and that can positively or negatively influence the behaviour of organisational members in terms of organisational effectiveness".

McMurray (2003, p. 2) defines organisational climate as "a descriptive construct that reflects consensual agreement among members regarding the key elements of the organisation in terms of its systems, practices and leadership style". Garg and Rastogi (2006 p. 530) define the concept as "a feeling that is the result of the physical layout of the organisation, the way in which participants interact with one another and how they conduct themselves with other organisational members or outsiders".

Haakonsson, Burton, Obel and Lauridsen (2008, p.422) define organisational climate as "affective events that influences employees' emotions and consequent information-processing behaviours". Moran and Volkwein (1992, p. 20) and Gerber (2003, p.56) definitions were integrated for the purposes of this research. Organisational climate is therefore the shared perceptions, feelings and attitudes organisational members have about the fundamental elements of the organisation which reflect the established norms, values and attitudes of the organisation's culture and influence individuals' behaviour either positively or negatively.

Organisational climate is a meaningful construct with significant implications for understanding human behaviour in the workplace (Castro, 2008).This is evident from all research conducted and published on the role and values of organisational climate in organisations and its impact on various organisational outcomes over the past 50 years (Castro, 2008). Although a precise and unitary definition of climate does not exist, researchers agree that certain characteristics describe the concept and differentiate it from other concepts. These characteristics are as follows (Castro & Martins, 2010, p. 2):

- Climate is considered to be a molar construct that can change over time.
- It is perceived by and shared among organisational members, which can result in consensus among individuals.
- Climate constitutes of general impression of the organisation that members form through interacting with each other and organisational policies, structure and processes.
- Its perceptions are the description of environmental events and conditions rather than evaluation of them.

- It can impact a person's behaviour.

2.4.2 The etiology of organisational climate

According to Moran and Volkwein (as cited in Castro, 2008), there is a lack of understanding of how climates emerge or are formed in an organisation. Schneider and Reichers (as cited in Castro, 2008) contend that an explanation of how climates are formed will provide a deeper understanding of the concept, but will in addition, lead to further conceptual and methodological progress. A key question posed by Schneider and Reichers (1983) is how does it happens that individuals who are "presented with numerous stimuli at work develop relatively homogenous perceptions of these stimuli, and in addition, attach similar meanings to aspects of organisational life.

In order to answer this question, four approaches to the formation of climate will be discussed; the structural approach, the perceptual approach, the interactive approach and the cultural approach (Castro, 2008).

2.4.2.1   The structural approach

This approach views organisational climate as a characteristic or attribute of the organisation. These attributes are considered to be owned by the organisation and existing independently of the perceptions of the individual members (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). In their comprehensive analysis, Payne and Pugh (as cited in Castro, 2008) suggest that it is the actual conditions in the organisation that play a primary role in determining the people's attitudes, values and perceptions of organisational events. Hence, organisational climate is the result of the objective aspects of the work environment, namely the organisation's size, a centralised or decentralised authority structure, number of hierarchical levels, advancement of technology as well as the extent to which organisational rules and policies influence members' behaviour.

This approach is equivalent to the perceptual measurement-organisational attribute approach proposed by James and Jones (as cited in Castro, 2008) and to what Schneider and Reicher's (as cited in Castro, 2008) refers to as the structural argument.

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┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐
│  Individual  │ ───> │Organisational│ <─── │Organisational│
│  Perceiver   │      │   Climate    │      │  Structure   │
└──────────────┘      └──────────────┘      └──────────────┘
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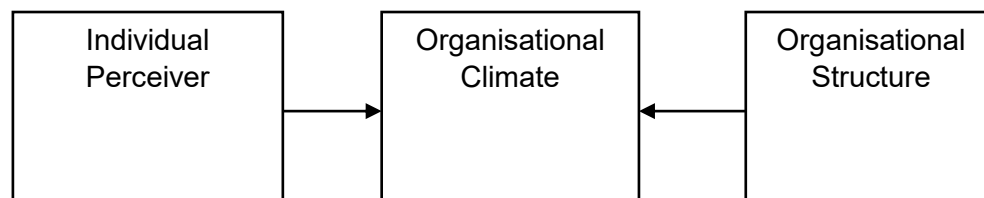
Figure 2.1 A visual representation of the structural approach**

(Moran & Volkwein, 1992, p. 24)

As shown in Figure 2.1, Moran and Volkwein (as cited in Castro, 2008) offer a visual representation of the structural approach. From the figure, it is evident that the organisation's structure gives rise to the organisational climate, which is then perceived by the members of the organisation. Hence, organisational climate is formed as a result of the common perceptions members have of exposure to common organisational structure.

However, there are certain problems with this approach (Castro, 2008). The first one is that the approach does not unpack why studies have found different work group climates in one organisation where the structural factors are common throughout the organisation. A second criticism of the structural approach is "with regards to an organisation's climate demonstrating a significant and consistent relationship with its structural characteristic. However, similar studies have revealed more inconsistency between the factors. The final criticism is that there is little consideration to the subjective role that structural variables have on individuals' reaction to a situation, and discards the interpretive processes involving individuals in groups.

2.4.2.2   The perceptual approach

This approach has similarities with to the perceptual measurement-individual attribute approach of James and Jones (Castro, 2008). This approach postulates that organisational climate originates in the individual, which is in direct contrast to the aforementioned approach which views organisational structure as the basis of organisational climate. According to this approach, the individual interprets and responds to the situation in a way that is psychologically meaningful to him/her.

Figure 2.2 demonstrates how in this approach, the individual perceives the organisational conditions and then creates a psychological representation of the climate. According to Moran and Volkwein (as cited in Castro, 2008) the term organisational conditions refer to the structural characteristics highlighted in the previous approach but is more encompassing in the sense that it includes organisational processes such as communication, influence, leadership and decision-making patterns.

This is similar to what Schneider and Hall (as cited in Castro, 2008) refer to as summary or global perceptions. According to them, global perceptions of an organisation emerge as the result of activities, interactions, reactions and a range of daily encounters the person has with the organisation. Hence, climate is reflective of personal and organisational interaction.
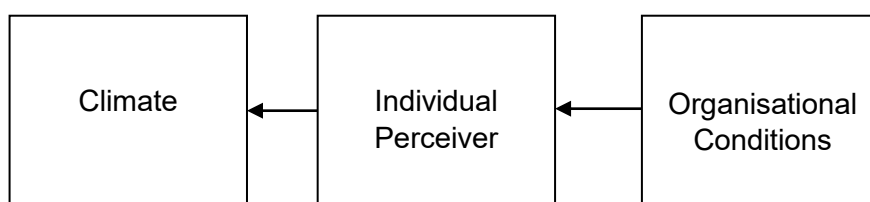
Figure 2.2 **A visual representation of the perceptual approach**

(Moran & Volkwein, 1992, p. 25)

The perceptual approach can yield aggregate climates in two ways. In both instances, psychological traits form the basis of climate. According to Schneider and Reichers (as cited in Castro, 2008) the first way in which aggregate climates can develop is referred to as the selection-attraction- attrition (SAA) approach. According to this perspective, the authors postulate that the combination of organisational selection processes and individual processes of attraction to the organisation and attrition from the organisation leads to the development of a relatively homogenous membership in the organisation. This similarity in membership results in similar climate perceptions. Joyce and Slocum (as cited in Castro, 2008) proposed the term collective climate which is the second way in which the perceptual approach can be used to produce aggregate climate. Collective climates are created by grouping together organisational members on the basis of their agreement of psychological climate perceptions. These groupings are made post hoc, and include members from the total organisation, but do not take into account the formal subunits in the organisation.

Moran and Volkwein (as cited in Castro, 2008) identify two key criticisms of the perceptual approach. First criticism is that by placing the source of climate mainly in individuals, the perceptual approach denounces the possibility of a composition theory, and as such, cannot be regarded as an organisational attribute. The second criticism is that it assumes that meaning is something that individuals bring to and force on organisational processes and events rather than as a result of the interaction of organisational members.

2.4.2.3   The interactive approach

This approach comes from the above-mentioned approaches and integrates the objectivism of the structural approach and the subjectivism of the perceptual approach (Ashforth, 1985). The underlying assumption of the interactive approach is that organisational climate is the result of the interaction of individuals in response to their situation which results in the shared agreement of organisational members (Castro, 2008).This approach identifies communication as a key contributor of organisational climate. Gerber (as cited in Castro, 2008) verify as communication as a central element contributing to climate.

Figure 3.1 illustrates the relationship between organisational conditions, the individual perceiver, the interactions of the group members and organisational climate. From this diagram it is evident that organisational climate is the result of the members' interaction. This approach provides a link between the structural and the perceptual approaches because it acknowledges that meaning is generated by the individual intentionally interacting with objects and people because it provides meaning for them.

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        ┌──────────────┐
        │  Individual  │
        │  Perceiver   │
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               ▼
  ┌──────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────┐
  │ Interaction among│───────▶│  Organisational  │
  │     Members      │        │     Climate      │
  └────────▲─────────┘        └──────────────────┘
           │
  ┌────────┴─────────┐
  │  Organisational  │
  │    Conditions    │
  └──────────────────┘
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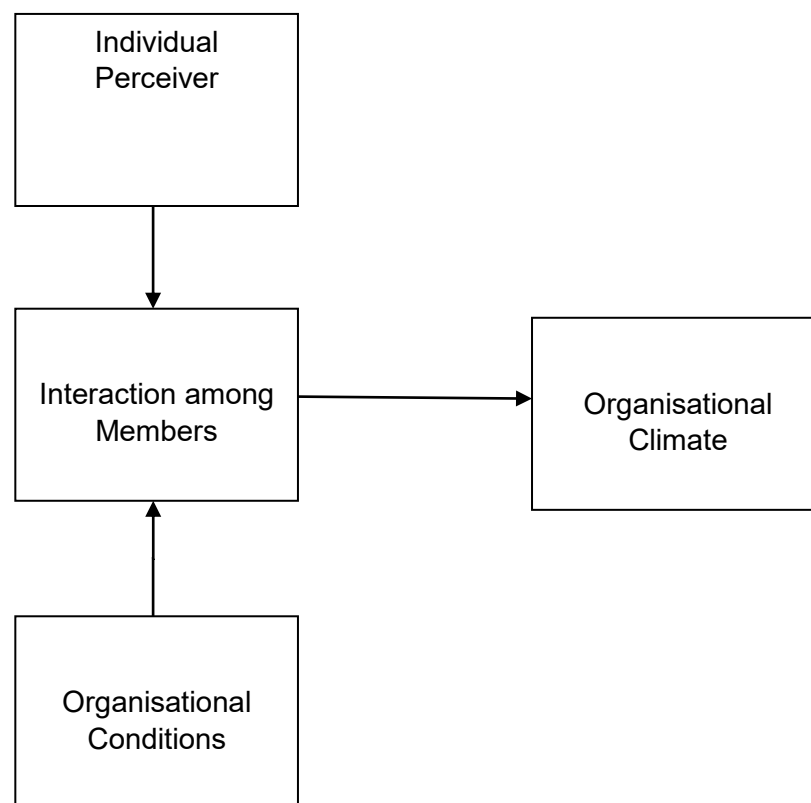
Figure 2.3 A visual representation of the interactive approach

(Moran & Volkwein, 1992, p. 28)

Two sources explain the interactive approach to climate, namely intersubjectivity and interactionism. Intersubjectivity refers to the process whereby organisational members' perceptions, interpretations, values, beliefs and so on are mutually interlinked and in concurrence. Individuals become aware of others with similar experiences and then use these people as role models to establish themselves.

Through awareness of others and by incorporating themselves into the "self", the experiences of others become part of the individual's consciousness (Moran & Volkwein, as cited in Castro, 2008).

Symbolic interactionism stresses that meaning arises from interactions between people (Schneider & Reichers, as cited in Castro, 2008). According to this view, primary importance is placed on the interactions that take place during the new comers' socialisation period and the vital role that group membership plays as a determinant of climate is highlighted. It is clear from this approach that the climate emerges through the social interactions of individuals in a specific work context and the exposure to the same processes.

A criticism of the interactive approach is it does not explain the role that the social context or organisational culture plays in shaping interaction and only takes cognisance of the interactions of individuals.

2.4.2.4   The cultural approach

The above mentioned approaches do not consider the influence organisational culture has on individuals' perceptions and on exactly how they interact. The cultural approach does not focus on the formal properties of organisations or concern itself with the subjective psychological characteristics of individuals, nor with how individuals combine these two approaches. According to Moran and Volkwein (as cited in Castro, 2008) the cultural approach, organisational climate is shaped by individuals in a group who interact and who share the same abstract frame of reference, organisational culture, as they learn to deal with the organisation's demands. This approach emphasises the interaction of individuals as a source of climate, a view it shares with the interactive approach above. However, the cultural approach includes the role of organisational culture as a key factor in the development of organisational climate.
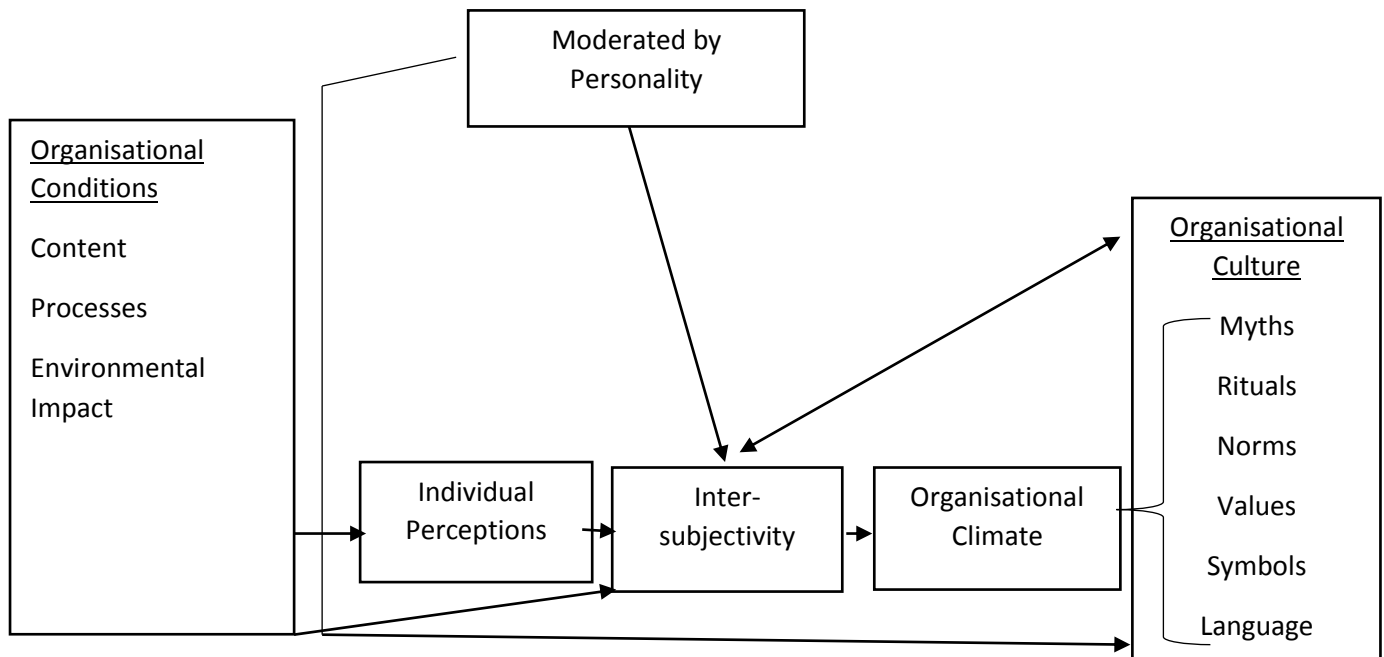
Figure 2.4 **The cultural approach to organisational climate**

(Moran & Volkwein, 1992, p. 32)

Figure 2.4 makes it clear that organisational climate forms part of organisational culture. The model illustrates how the individual perceives organisational conditions, which is moderated by his/her personality, cognition and inter-subjectivity owing to interactions with other individuals. These impact the organisational climate. Organisational climate, in turn, is influenced by the culture in the organisation, which influences the perceptions of individuals and inter-subjective processes. Hence, while climate has an influence on the interaction in an organisation, the interaction shapes the organisation's climate and can influence its culture (Castro, 2008). The cultural approach moves away from the structural approach of linking climate to formal organisational properties as well as the perceptual and interactive approaches that examine the subjective psychological processes. Instead, it emphasises the social arrangements in which cultural features become meaningful.

In a nutshell, stemming from the cultural approach, organisational climate is the result of the interaction of individuals who have a common frame of reference (culture) based on their exposure to similar environmental situations (organisational conditions). Emphasis is no longer placed on the perceptions of individuals but on the interactions of members as well as on the role organisational culture plays in the formation of organisational climate.

2.4.3 Dimensions of organisational climate

The components of organisational climate can be seen as characteristics that defines an organisation and differentiates it from other organisations and which can be measured and controlled (Patterson, Luthans, & Jeung, 2005). From the above discussion it is clear that the definitions and approaches to organisational climate are diverse. In literature it is evident that the same applies to dimensions and measurements of organisational climate because a wide variety of dimensions are used by various researchers to assess organisational climate (Castro, 2008). Despite general agreements on the definition of organisational climate, there are disagreements among researchers about which dimension constitute the concept. According to Castro (2008) the following reasons explains why this is the case:

- Organisational climate has been researched in diverse situations, such as business, schools, laboratories and government making it difficult to determine which key dimensions are relevant to all of above environments.
- New scales are being constantly developed without consideration of how these compare to existing scales of organisational climate, resulting in an increase in scales claiming to measure organisational climate, in addition validity and reliability do not receive required attention.

On the basis of a thorough literature review, the following six dimensions of organisational climate have been identified with the help of an organisational climate questionnaire of Patterson et al., (2005):

- Autonomy: Is based on factors of individual responsibility, agent independence, rule orientation and opportunities for exercising individual initiative. This is the extent to which an employee has freedom to be his/her boss and has power to make decisions without constantly having to obtain managerial approval (Ovadia, Oren, & Lavy, 2013).

- Involvement: Refers to creating an environment in which people have an impact on decisions and actions that affects their job (Boxall & Macky, 2014).

- Supervisory support: This is the extent to which employees experience support and understanding from their immediate supervisor (Paterson, Luthans & Jeung, 2013).

- Welfare: This is the extent to which the organisation values and cares for employees. (Nyakwara, Shiundu, & Gongera, 2014).

- Effort: Refers to how hard the employees in the organisation work to achieve goals (Beckmann, & Cornelissen, 2014).

- Performance feedback: This is the extent to which managers inform their employees about what they think of their work. It is the measurement and feedback of job performance (Agrusa & Lema, 2007).

Since organisational climate refers to the perceptions that employees hold about their organisation, it is important that SAAG take into consideration the perceptions that their employees have about the unit since it can affect their behaviour. It has been mentioned in etiology of organisational climate that the structure of the organisation, the interaction among members as well as the culture of the organisation plays a role in how the members perceive the organisational climate. Therefore it is important that SAAG adjust its culture and structure to accommodate its members.

Research shows that the perceptions that employees holds about their work environment can affect the organisation in a positive or negative way (Karim, 2010). Employees who perceive their supervisor as supportive, who perceive the organisation as caring toward their welfare, who perceive that they have the freedom to make their own decision as to how and when to do their job, who are involved in decision making and who receive feedback on time tend to hold good perceptions of their work environment.

They are also less likely to develop behaviours that are associated with pre-turnover, which can lead to actual turnover. In the current study organisational climate was measured using the organisational climate questionnaire developed Patterson et al., (2005) with acceptable alphas. The questionnaire consisted of six subscales, namely autonomy; involvement, supervisory support, welfare, effort, and performance feedback (see par. 3.6.2).

2.5   JOB SATISFACTION

The domain of job satisfaction is a widely researched topic in disciplines such as industrial and organizational psychology, social psychology, organizational behaviour and personnel and human resource management (Castro, 2008). The popularity of job satisfaction stems from the fact that it affects so many people that as most of their time spent at work. Job satisfaction refers to the extent to which employees experience a sense of enjoyment from their job (Spector, 1997, p. 32). In literature it is evident that there is no agreed definition of job satisfaction. According to Castro (2008) researchers develop operational definitions of the concept and define job satisfaction as whatever the researcher's measurement measures.

2.5.1   Defining job satisfaction

A review of the literature pertaining to job satisfaction suggests a numerous definitions of the concept, with no one agreed upon a definition. Conceptual and operational definitions of job satisfaction include general or overall job satisfaction and the aspects of job satisfaction such as pay, the work itself, working conditions and supervision. Castro (2008) provides different operational definitions of job satisfaction, all based on different orientations and resulting in different measures. The difference between these definitions stems from the different aspects or facets of job satisfaction included in the definition as well as the different ways these aspects are combined to measure the overall job satisfaction.

Even though job satisfaction is defined in various ways, there is general consensus on the definition of job satisfaction as an emotional reaction. Researchers define job satisfaction as one's affective or emotional reaction to a job that is the result of one's comparison of actual outcomes with the expected outcomes (Castro, 2008). Several authors define job satisfaction along the same line.

Lofquist and Dawis (1969, p. 150) define job satisfaction as "the function of the interaction between the reinforcement system in the work environment and the individual's needs". Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969, p. 30) consider job satisfaction as "the feeling or affective response one has to the aspects of a work situation".

Locke (1969, p. 32) defines job satisfaction as "the pleasurable emotional state that result from the evaluation of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's job values". According to Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1979) people evaluate most things on the basis of whether or not they like or dislike them. They characterize the concept by stating that it is a feeling one has about a job that is determined by the disparity between the amounts of the valued outcome that he or she feels should be received. The grater the discrepancy, the more dissatisfied the individual will be. Locke (1979, p. 33) states that job satisfaction refer to "the pleasurable or emotional state that result from the evaluation of one's job experience relating to one's job". Locke and Henne (1986, p.44) define job satisfaction as "a pleasurable emotional state an individual feels when work achieving his/her job values at work".

According to Brief (1998, p. 50) job satisfaction is "an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognately evaluating an experienced job with a degree of favour or disfavour". According to the definition framed by McKennna (2000, p.88) job satisfaction refers to "how well personal expectations at work are in line with outcomes". To illustrate this point, an individual who expects that the hard work will lead to fair rewards will be satisfied if this is indeed the case. However, in the event that individuals feel that they worked hard, but did not receive a fair reward, job dissatisfaction may result.

Weiss (2002) highlight the prevalence of job satisfaction as an attitude. Weiss (2002, p. 180) defines job satisfaction as "a positive or negative evaluative judgment that one makes about one's job or the job situation". It has been defined in terms of attitudes that individuals have about their jobs. Sempane et al. (2002, p. 25) state that job satisfaction refer to "the individual's perception and evaluation of the job. According to them, the individual's perception is influenced by his/her unique circumstances such as needs, values and expectations".

Langton and Robbins (2007, p. 50) define job satisfaction as "the general attitude that people have towards their jobs". Furthermore they say that people who enjoy high level of job satisfaction have positive attitudes about their jobs, whereas those who are dissatisfied tend to be negative.

Robbins and DeCenzo (2008, p. 58) consider job satisfaction to be "an attitude, an outcome that managers concern themselves with because it has possible links to productivity, absenteeism and turnover. They define job satisfaction as the general attitude that an employee has towards his/her job". From the definitions above job satisfaction can be defined as the attitude or feelings that one has about one's job that is either positive or negative. Hence someone who has a high level of job satisfaction will have a positive feeling about his/her job, while someone who is dissatisfied will have negative feelings.

2.5.2 Dimensions of job satisfaction

In order to gain more understanding of job satisfaction, it is necessary to discuss dimensions of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon that consists of the interrelationship of various dimensions such as tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives and rewards. It is important for the researcher to have a clear understanding of job attitude if the job is to be analysed in terms of the constituent elements. Typical dimensions that have been included in the studies by previous researchers include work, pay, promotion, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision and co-workers (Castro, 2008).

This study focuses on the dimensions of the events or condition (work itself, rewards, working conditions) and the agents (co-workers and supervisors). Research indicates that the various aspects of the job can be divided into two distinct dimensions, namely extrinsic and intrinsic factors and this study focus on extrinsic factors of job (Castro, 2008). The intrinsic factors are the rewards that an individual receives as a direct result of his/ her performance and they satisfy the higher-order needs such as feeling of accomplishment and achievement. According to Castro (2008) intrinsic factors such as advancement, recognition, responsibility and achievement appear to be related to job satisfaction.

Extrinsic factors on the other hand form part of the job situation. These dimensions are external to the individual and are likely to satisfy lower-order needs. The extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction are therefore beyond employee's control and include factors such as work itself, pay promotion, opportunities, working conditions, supervision and co-workers. The factors discussed below are considered to be the primary dimensions influencing job satisfaction (Luthans, 2005; Robbins & Judge, 2007). The dimensions which can describe the most predictable variables in job satisfaction are shown in table 2.1.

2.5.2.1   The work itself

Research indicates that this correlates most highly with the overall job satisfaction and that feedback from the job itself and autonomy are two of the major job-related motivational factors. (Robbins & Judge, 2007). According to Herzberg (as cited in Castro, 2008) the contents of the work performed by an individual is a vital determinant of whether employees believe that satisfactory performance will result in feelings of accomplishment, growth and self-esteem, which are likely to lead to job satisfaction. From the literature it is evident that people prefer jobs that afford them opportunities to utilize their skills and abilities, offer a variety of tasks, allow them freedom to do things in their own way and their own space and give them feedback on how they are performing (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

2.5.2.2   Pay

Pay can be regarded as a key source of satisfaction because it not only provides employees with a salary to buy whatever they want, but it is also a source of self-esteem (Luthans, 2005). However there is a small correlation between pay and job satisfaction, which suggests that pay does not have a strong influence on job satisfaction (Castro, 2008). Even though there is a positive relationship between pay and job satisfaction , not everyone places a high value on money, and in certain instances people are willing to accept less money in exchange for other factors that they consider as important, such as working closer to home and shorter working hours (Castro, 2008).

Robbins and Judge (2007) agree that pay correlates to job satisfaction as well as overall happiness for people living below the poverty line or residing in poor countries. Once individuals earn relatively well and live comfortably, the relationship between pay and satisfaction disappears. It is further stated that the amount of pay, fairness and method of pay should be relevant to this dimension of job satisfaction. It is the perception of fairness rather than the amount of pay that is important in the pay-satisfaction relationship (Castro, 2008).

2.5.2.3   Promotion and opportunities

This dimension is concerned with opportunities that exist in an organisation, the fairness of the process associated with promotions as well as the basis on which promotions are given. Research indicates that when employees perceive few opportunities for advancement, they tend to be negative about their job and organization (Luthans, 2005). Employees want promotion policies and practices that are equitable. Promotions do not necessarily only refer to hierarchical movement, but also include lateral opportunities; promotions afford employees opportunities for personal growth, more responsibility and increase in social status (Castro, 2008).

2.5.2.4   Working conditions

Working conditions refer to elements such as temperature, lighting, noise, and ventilation. Some studies include elements such as working hours, lunch and tea breaks, the equipment used, and the location as well as physical layout of the office. Employees prefer a work environment that facilitate opportunities to do a good job and where they can perform well, as well as environments that offer personal comfort (Robbins & Judge, 2007). In addition, studies have shown that employees prefer physical conditions that are safe, clean, and comfortable, with few distractions (Luthans, 2005). Preference is also shown for modern facilities, adequate tools and equipment, and working closer to home (Castro, 2008). The working environment does not only refer to the physical facilities of the organization, but also to the psychological conditions in the organisation.

2.5.2.5   Supervision

Factors such as supervisory style and influence, human relations and administrative skills are analysed in this dimension. The behaviour of the supervisor is a major determinant of job satisfaction. Studies highlight the distinction between employee-orientated and task-orientated supervisors (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Employee-orientated supervisor is likely to build personal and supportive relationships with their staff, take an interest in them, provide advice and help them to achieve their goals. Task-orientated supervisors, on the other hand, consider their primary function to initiate and organize work, and consider employees as an instrument in achieving organizational targets. Supervisors who are high on task orientation tend to be low on employee orientation and vice versa. However this might not always be the case.

Other studies found that a work environment characterized by employee participation has a higher substantial effect on employee's satisfaction (Luthans, 2005). Some studies found that job satisfaction tends to increase when the supervisor is seen to be understanding and friendly, acknowledges satisfactory performance, encourages inputs from subordinates and shows personal interest in employees (Castro, 2008).

Supervisors who offer technical support, job related assistance, guidance, problem solving skills, and time for their employees are likely to have more satisfied subordinates. However, supervisors who are considered to be insensitive, incompetent and not supportive have the most negative effect on employee job satisfaction (Hlungwani, 2006).

2.5.2.6   Co-workers

The competence, helpfulness and friendliness of peers also influence job satisfaction. For many people, work does not only provide monetary value and personal achievement, but also fulfils a social need (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Interaction with colleagues and working with friendly supportive peers will more likely lead to job satisfaction. Research suggests that employees who work with supportive colleagues will be more satisfied than those who do not. If people in the work group are difficult to get along with each other, this can have a negative impact on job satisfaction (Castro, 2008).

Table 2.1

Job dimensions

General categories	Specific dimension	Dimension description
I. Events or conditions		
1.Work	Work itself	Include intrinsic interest, variety, opportunity of learning, chance for success, control over work flow, etc.
2. Rewards	Pay	Amount, basis for pay etc.
	Promotion	Opportunity for, basis of, fairness of promotion
	Recognition	Praise, criticism, credit for work done, etc.
3. Context of work	Working condition	Hours, rest pauses, equipment, quality of work space
	Benefits	Annual leaves, pension, medical and life insurance plans, vacations, etc.
II. Agents		
1. Self	Self	Values, skills, abilities, etc.
2. Others (in- company)	Supervisors	Supervisory style and influence, administrative skills, etc.
	Co-workers	Competence, friendliness, helpfulness, etc.
3. Others (outside company)	Family members	Supportive, knowledge of the job, demands for time, etc.

(McCormick & Ilgen, 1985, p.80)

Because SAAG is a training unit, its members are obliged to work after hours to ensure that learners on course receives high standard of training. However they are being compensated for their extra effort. They are paid extra money for overtime and they are also given off days for the extra effort that they put in their work. They are given recognition awards on monthly basis as well as at the end of each year for the best achievers. SAAG also ensures that their members are rotated to different sections yearly in order to ensure that member gain experience in other fields of training. One can say that SAAG is making means to ensure that their members are happy in the workplace so that they can in turn have a feeling of satisfaction in their work.

However, one cannot conclude that being given the rewards as well as the opportunity to grow in their areas of expertise would mean that they are satisfied with their job. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate areas such as working condition, supervisory support as well as the relationship with co-worker in order to assess whether members of SAAG are satisfied with their job. Job satisfaction scale developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) will assist in investigating whether employees of SAAG are satisfied with their job or not and how lack of job satisfaction among members of SAAG can lead to turnover intentions (see par 3.6.3).

2.5.3 Theories of job satisfaction

Theories of job satisfaction attempt to identify the types of variables such as needs, values and expectancies that are relevant to job satisfaction and how these variables are combined in order to determine overall job satisfaction. There is agreement among researchers that an individual's affective reaction is dependent on the interaction between the individual and the environment (Castro, 2008). However, there is disagreement about the mental process that determines these reactions.

Research distinguishes between process theories and content theories (Locke, 1975).Process theories are concerned with describing the process of how behaviour is energized, directed, sustained and stopped. Content theories on the other hand, focus on what it is in individuals or the environment that energises and sustain people.

2.5.3.1   Content theories

Content theories assume that all individuals have the same set of needs and stipulate the characteristics that should be evident to jobs. These theories identify factors that lead to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The content theories that will be discussed below include Maslow's needs hierarchy, Herzberg two factor theory, Alderfer's ERG theory and McClelland's needs theory.

2.5.3.1.1   Maslow's needs hierarchy

Maslow (1967) suggests that individuals are satisfied when certain needs are met. These needs are arranged hierarchically and divided into lower-order needs and higher- order needs. He holds that before higher-order needs are satisfied, the lower-order needs first have to be met. The first three needs are considered to be lower-order needs, while the fourth and fifth are higher-order needs. The five major needs are:

2.5.3.1.1.1   Basic physiological needs

This theory postulates that individuals are primarily concerned with satisfying needs such as food, water, air and shelter (Robbins & Judge, 2007). If they do not have necessary food, clothing, water and shelter or comparable elements to survive, they are not likely to become concerned about learning new skills to qualify for future jobs. In the workplace simple thing like snacks, clean water and coffee will go a long way in meeting employees' basic needs. In order to meet the employees physiological needs SAAG ensure that there is a cafeteria in the workplace that has most refreshments that employees may need during the day.

2.5.3.1.1.2   Safety needs

Once the physiological needs have been satisfied, the need for safety becomes evident. These needs refer to freedom from physical, economic, and emotional harm (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

For example, in order to ensure that the employees are free from physical harm, SAAG appointed an occupational health and safety officer to ensure that the workplace is free from harm.

2.5.3.1.1.3   Social needs

Once the physiological and social needs have been satisfied, the need for love, affection, and belongingness emerge. Organisations can see to these social needs through the establishment social programmes (Josias, 2005). For example, in SAAG there is a happy hour at least once a month where employees can interact and socialise as well as big tea where all members of the unit gather once a month to enjoy tea and snacks together as a unit.

2.5.3.1.1.4   Esteem needs

Esteem needs can be divided into two types, namely mastery and achievement (self), and recognition and approval (others). Organisations are able to satisfy their employees' needs through recognition and rewards programmes as well as promotion and wages increase (Josias, 2005). As mentioned, SAAG does recognise their employees for their hard work by rewarding them with certificates for the being top achievers of the month or of the year.

2.5.3.1.1.5   Self-actualisation needs

These include the need for growth, achieving one's potential and self-fulfilment. At this stage of need satisfaction, an employer need to identify where the employees hope to go as it relate to the level of achievement and get them there. Based on the above theory, an individual's ideal job environment will be one that best meets his/her current needs as per hierarchy of needs postulated by Maslow.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs was not intended to be applied to the world of work. It was McGregor (as cited in Castro, 2008) who popularized Maslow's theory for the work environment.

2.5.3.1.2   Alderfer's ERG theory

Alderfer's theory states that individuals' needs can be classified into three groups, namely existence, relatedness and growth (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

a. Existence needs are basic needs such as nutritional and material requirements. From a work perspective, this refers to issues such as pay and working conditions.
b. Relatedness needs are fulfilled through interacting and building relationships with family and friends, and in the work context are fulfilled when interacting and building relationships with peers and colleagues.
c. Growth needs refer to the individual's personal physiological needs.

The above mentioned needs are represented in continuum, along which individuals can move in either direction. This theory in contrast to Maslow's needs theory, state that even though the lower-order needs have been met, they are still important and they will still continue to satisfy individuals, and are not superseded by higher-order needs (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Mangers must understand that employees have different needs that must be satisfied at the same time. According to ERG theory, if the manager concentrate solely on one need at a time, will not fully satisfy their employees. If employees, for example, are not provided with growth and advancement opportunities in the organisation, they might revert to the relatedness need such as socialising needs. If the environment does not permit to meet those socialising needs, the employee may revert to the need for money to fulfil those socialising needs. The sooner the managers can realise this, the more immediate steps they can take to fulfil those needs.

2.5.3.1.3 McClelland's theory of needs

According to this theory, all individuals acquire needs over time and these are learnt and shaped by individual's personal experiences. These needs are present in all individuals, although the one on the transition three needs will be more dominant. This theory, unlike those of Maslow, does not specify transition between needs.

The three needs associated with this theory are needs for achievement, for power and affiliation. Employees who have a preference for one of the above needs will be satisfied in positions in which these needs are met. For example, someone who has a dominant affiliation need, will probably be satisfied in a position that requires close interaction with his/her work colleagues.

2.5.3.1.4   Herzberg two-factor theory

According to this theory, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two different concepts resulting from different causes and are not interrelated. Herzberg (1968) identifies two groups of factors that are involved in job satisfaction. The first group, motivators, are intrinsic to the job and refer to factors such as the work itself, achievement, recognition, promotion and responsibility. When present in the work situation, these factors result in job satisfaction and have no influence on job dissatisfaction.

The second group, referred to as hygiene factors, they do not result in job satisfaction, but if they are inadequate, it may cause job dissatisfaction. Example of these factors includes pay, security and working conditions. These factors are necessary for employees to be satisfied but do not causes job dissatisfaction.

2.5.3.2   Process theories

Process theories highlight the difference in people's needs and concerned with the process involved in these differences. Process theorists stipulate that job satisfaction is not only a function of the job and its related environment, but also determined by individuals' needs, values and expectations. Equity theory, goal-setting theory and expectancy theory will be reviewed below (Castro, 2008).

2.5.3.2.1   Equity theory

The equity theory developed by Adam (1963) acknowledges that variable factors affect an employee's evaluation and perception of his/her work and employer. Although this theory has predominantly been applied to compensation issues it can be used more widely to include a variety of inputs and outputs relevant in an organisational setting.

Equity theory, which is regarded as a discrepancy theory, consider the ratio of an individual's job inputs to the job outputs to that of another's job inputs and job outputs. According to Robins (2005) individuals will be satisfied if there is a positive relationship between what they put in their work (inputs) and what they get out of it (outputs). Hence, the theory is built on the belief that employees become demotivated if they feel that their inputs are greater than their outputs. When individuals experience inequity, tension arises which they attempt to eliminate in various ways. Examples include changing their own inputs and/or outputs, of the comparison person, cognitively distorting their inputs and/or outputs, leaving the situation or changing their comparison person. Central to this theory, is the comparison of what an individual receives for doing a certain task in relation to what others receive. Satisfaction exists only when the rewards and efforts are considered reasonable in a relation to the rewards of others.

2.5.3.2.2   Goal-setting theory

Locke and Latham's (2002) goal-setting theory explores the correlation between the goals an employee sets and performance he/she delivers. According to this theory, when a goal is set at a difficult level, a person is required to put more effort into meeting it, meaning that the most difficult goals will result in the highest level of performance. Satisfaction is experienced when a goal is met.

Goals influence performance in four ways. First, the attention and effort of the worker are focused on actions specific to a goal. Second, the individual increases his/her effort towards achieving the goal (the higher the goal the larger the effort). Third, the goal will increase persistence of goal attainment when the participant is in control of the time devoted to achieving the goal. Lastly, arousal, discovery, and the use of task-relevant knowledge are affected through the goals introduced, which have an effect on performance. Goal setting theory state that a positive relationship exists between high goal difficulty and high level of performance (Locke & Latham, 2006).

Locke and Latham's (2002) goal-setting theory can be used to predict job satisfaction. They state that a worker's productivity is significantly increased by a high goal, thus establishing a base relationship for an application to job satisfaction. Goals are a product to strive for and a means of judging satisfaction. When a person makes the effort to achieve a goal, he/ she will not be satisfied until the goal has been attained. One may infer that, when a subject achieves a higher performance level than is required for a goal to be attained, satisfaction will be increased relative to the amount of performance (Castro, 2008). Likewise, the further the subject is from realising the goal, the more dissatisfaction he/ she will experience. The relationships show that there is a link between goal difficulty and job satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 2006).

All the above mentioned theories are important in the workplace in order to ensure that employees are satisfied in the workplace. Employees are the building block of the organisation. Organisational success depends on the collective efforts of the employees. SAAG can benefit by applying the above discussed theory in the workplace to ensure employee satisfaction as well as to avoid the development of behaviours related to negative organisational outcomes such as turnover intentions. In the current study job satisfaction was measured using the job description index developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) with acceptable alphas. The questionnaire consisted of five subscales, namely pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision and the work itself (see par. 3.6.3).

2.6   WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Wharton and Blair-Loy (2006, p. 416) define work as "the activity involving mental or physical effort done in order to achieve a result". Auster (1996) maintains that although the term work generally is used to denote the exertion of effort toward some end, economically it refers to activities oriented toward producing goods and services for one's own use or for pay. A family is defined as "a fundamental social group in society typically consisting of one or two parents and their children" (Friedriken-Goldsen & Scharlach, 2001, p. 21). To maximize the definition of family Cox and Parley (1997, p. 244) defined a family as "a group of people affiliated by birth, marriage or co-residence."

Work-family conflict is defined as "a form of inter role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect, that is participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).

Wharton and Blair-Loy (2006, p. 417) refer to work-family conflict as "a situation in which the demands of the work interfere with fulfilling family responsibilities". Shimazu, Bakker, Demerouti and Peeters (2010, p. 766) support Greenhaus and Beutell definition of work-family conflict as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect, such that participation in one role makes it difficult to participate in the other."

According to Bourg and Segal (1999) this type of conflict can be produced by either work pressures interfering with fulfilment of the family role, or family pressures interfering with the work role. Huffman, Culbertson, Henning and Goh (2013) concur with Bourg and Segal as they maintain that work family conflict usually occurs when pressures and demands of work collide with pressures and demands of family. Trachtenberg, Anderson and Sabatelli (2009) hold the view that work family conflict is a term that is used to illustrate the competition between one's professional role and one's personal and family life.

Participation in the family role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the work role. By examining the above descriptions of the concept work family conflict one is able to infer that family can interfere with work or work can interfere with family (King, 2005). The notion of work family conflict derives from the belief that when individuals have to enact multiple roles, psychological distress increases from the increased conflicts that are likely to occur when the expectations of one role, such as work, interfere with the expectations of the family role (Kossek, Baltes & Matthews, 2011). Kgosana (2009) holds the view that conflict emanates from the fact that family and work are the most important domains of life for most adults with the vast majority of work activities and home activities performed in different places, at different times and with different associates.

The assumption that conflicts are the predominant dynamic between work and family roles emanates from the stress theory and theories of role accumulation suggesting that human energy and time is affixed commodity (Kelloway, Gottlieb & Barham, 1999). Direnzo, Greenhaus and Weer (2011) propose that the more roles individuals add on to their life demands, the greater the probability of role strain, role overload, and conflict. Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux and Brinleya (2005) meta-analysis demonstrates that work family conflict has clear negative effects on individual wellbeing as it is strongly related to job burnout, depressive symptoms, general psychological stress, physical health symptoms and family strain. Rantanen, Kinnuenen, Fedt and Pulkkinen (2008) suggest that work family conflict is an antecedent of high psychological strain and thought to cause a state where an individual's mental resources are threatened and depleted leading to a possible decrease on wellbeing.

2.6.1 Types of work-family conflict

Researchers have also conducted research examining the different forms of conflict. Byron (2005) suggested that there are three different types of conflict, time based, strain-based and behaviour based conflict.

2.6.1.1   Time based conflict

Time based conflict is evidenced when time pressures of one role prevent an employee from being able to allot time to meet the demands of another role. Kgosana (2009) holds the view that time based conflict occurs when the time devoted to work makes it difficult to fulfil the obligations and requirements of the family role and can impact the worker in either of two ways. One form of this conflict addresses the simple zero-sum nature of time management. In other words, any time spent by the worker in one domain makes it physically impossible for that worker to spend that same time in the other domain. Time based conflict can also occur when the employee is physically present in the family domain, but mentally preoccupied with work concerns. So while this individual is trying to meet their family obligations in body, his or her mind is still at work (Donaldson & Grant Vallone, 2001).

This type of work-family conflict is relevant in the SAAG setting, specifically to the instructors working conditions at training sections. Instructors of SAAG are expected to be in class with the learners during working hours in order to provide training. They are also expected to go an extra mile in order to ensure that the admin of their respective classes is in place. Because of the limited time during working hours and the amount of work that needs to be done, instructors have to work overtime or take their work with at home in order to ensure that they are up to date with their work. Sometime the instructors are required to work over the weekends. This implies that instructors of SAAG devote most of their time to their work which makes it impossible to devote the same amount of time to their families.

2.6.1.2   Strain based conflict

According to Voydanoff (2005) strain based conflict occurs when pressure or strain from one role affects how a person performs in another role. Strain-based conflict occurs when the pressures of the work role spill over and affect interactions within the family domain. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985, p. 79) define this type of work family conflict as "strain from participation in one role makes it difficult to fulfil requirements of another."

In other words, the employee who has a particularly stressful day at work comes home in a bad mood and projects it on his/her family. That employee may snap at his/her spouse for no particular reason or be so tired in such a way that he/she has no time to spend with the family.

2.6.1.3   Behaviour based conflict

Behaviour based conflict occurs when behavioural patterns required and exhibited in one role are incompatible with those required for another role (Kgosana, 2009). This type of conflict occurs when behaviours that are acceptable and even rewarded in the work domain are incompatible with the behaviours that are desired in the home domain. Problems occur when the employee fails to recognize the need to adjust her behaviours between the two domains.

For example, an authoritative boss who must give clear direction to his/her employees at work in order to get the job done may find that his/her attempts to behave in the same manner at home with his/her children are not equally successful and can even result in hurt feelings and resentment (Eby et al., 2005).

SAAG is a military unit and military vests some authoritative power to their members to in order to execute their duties. Most of the members in SAAG have an authoritative power over their subordinates as well as learners on course. This authoritative power that members have at work can spill over to the family setting where member want to act as an authoritative figure at home. Work-family conflict can surface should the member fail to adjust his or her behaviour at home to suit the family setting.

2.6.2 Theories related to work family-conflict

There are several theories that have been invoked in the study of work family conflict. Research on work and family has sought to explain work family conflict from multiple theoretical approaches.

2.6.2.1   Compensation theory

According to King (2005) the compensation theory is a bi-directional theory stating that the relationship between work and non-work is one in which one domain may compensate for what is missing in the other. Furthermore, this theory suggests that people add more to one domain than the other in order to balance out what lacks in the other domain. If an individual commit more time to work than, work family conflict may increase in contrast if an individual commit more time to family than work, but the work requirements increase, than family to work conflict also increases.

In the study one can ask the question whether the amount of time that members of SAAG invest in their work is not negatively affecting their family time. With the help of work-family conflict scale developed by Lim, Morris, and McMillan (2010) (see par 3.6.4), the study will be able to reveal the effect of this extra time on work-family conflict among members of SAAG and how the outcome affect turnover intentions. It is good for the organisation to have members that are willing to give more than what is expected when coming to performing their duties. However the organisations must also guard against negative outcomes caused by the extra miles that employees are willing to take. SAAG could be negatively affected should members of SAAG fail to fulfil their family domain roles due to the amount of time that they invest in their work. Members may start to experience family-work conflict which can have an impact to the unit. Members may start to develop turnover intentions due to family-work conflict.

2.6.2.2   Role theory

According to Googins (1991) the role theory refers to the social role an employee plays in the work domain and how they experienced strain can negatively affect the performance in the family domain. Role theory is mostly about how resources at work can psychologically influence the employee to exhibit negative emotions or attitude at home (Voydanoff, 2005).

Resources at work, such as job authority, hours worked, such as in this study where members of SAAG are expected to work overtime and on weekends to achieve the objective of the unit, and job satisfaction affect this social role the employee plays and depending on whether the employee is provided these resources in a positive way (satisfactory job authority and work hours), he/she will experience possibly more or less work family conflict. Hence it is proposed in this study that job satisfaction can influence the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intentions among members of SAAG.

2.6.2.3 Resources domain theory

According to Surhone, Tennoe and Henssonow (2010) this theory states that a negative correlation between family and work domains, that there is infinite amount of personal resources to be expanded with more activity in one domain, by definition, it takes away resources that could be expanded in the other domain. The concept of finite resources has been used to suggest a negative relationship between the work and family domains. Esson (2004) states that work and family interfere with each other through three distinct processes: time, psychological energy, and physical energy.

These three processes can be thought of as finite resources in which any quantity of a resource that is utilized in one domain is unavailable for the other providing support for a negative relationship between the work and family domains. Therefore the more resources one uses to fulfil role obligations in the family domain takes away from available resources that could be used to fulfil role obligations in the work domain and vice versa.

2.6.2.4 Spill over theory

This theory focuses on the impact that satisfaction and effect from one domain has on the other domain. According to Fredriksen-Goldsen and Scharlach (2001), the spill over theory revolves around the conceptualization that the work sphere can have a positive or negative impact on the family sphere, meaning that attitudes and behaviours (such as distress from working long hours, such as in SAAG) can create distress at home with family members.

This theory emphasises that people in higher demanding jobs experience substantially higher levels of negative spill over from work into their lives off the job jeopardizing their personal and family wellbeing. However, spill over theory also has a positive side. The skills that members of SAAG learn at work, such as planning, management, discipline and conflict management, can enrich their families. The member can use the skills learned at work to solve their family issues.

2.6.2.5   Segmentation theory

The segmentation theory suggests that factors in each domain operate independently such that satisfaction can be derived from work family or both. The theory suggests that work and family domains do not affect one another and are separate life domains (Michael & Hargis, 2008). Kreiner (2002) describes segmentation as the degree to which work and family domains are kept separate from one another. Accordingly, segmentation is characterised by the extent to which role pressures from the work and family domains affect same domain outcomes and have little or no impact on cross-domain outcomes. In the current study work-family conflict questionnaire developed by Lim, Morris and McMillian (2010) with the acceptable alpha consisting of 18 items assessing the six conceptually and empirically distinct dimensions was used to measure work-family conflict (see par. 3.6.4).

2.7   HARDINESS

The concept hardiness is grounded in existential psychology and personality theory (Kobasa & Maddi, 1979). Hardiness involves the creation of meaning in life, even when life is sometimes painful or absurd, and having the courage to live life fully despite its inherent pain and futility. Hardy persons possess a greater openness to experience on variety of levels, a higher sense of control and mastery as well as increased confidence and commitment to life, work, self and others (Barton, 1996). Hardiness is thus an individual differences variable that develops early in life and is reasonably stable over time (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982).

Hardiness represents a collection of various attributes, beliefs and behavioural tendencies that encompass three dimensions that will be discussed later in this chapter; namely, challenge, commitment and control (Crosson, 2015; Johnsen et al., 2017). In the work of Kobasa, Maddi and Kahn (1982, p. 169) hardiness is defined as "a constellation of personality characteristics that function as a resistance resource in the encounter of stressful life events". Carol and Adler (2006, p. 110) define hardiness as "a personality style or tendency, fairly stable over time". Hardiness is also seen as a continuum along which the hardiness level ranged from non-hardy to highly-hardy (Lo Bue, 2015).

The individuals who are high on hardiness possess all together the disposition of commitment, control and challenge. They tend to approach the demands of life actively with the perception that they can handle them successfully. They view these demands as meaningful and useful, which results in less stressful experiences (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982). Whereas individuals low on hardiness are alienated (low commitment), powerless (low control) and are threatened or redid (low challenge) (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982).

Individuals who are low on hardiness tend to view adverse circumstances as threatening (instead of as an opportunity for growth or learning opportunity) and such individuals would most likely withdraw themselves and thus become vulnerable to stress (Lo Bue, 2015). Because research on the effects of hardiness revolves around the work context, and as such, the protective nature of hardiness may become evident in accordance with individual's work context and different circumstances (Shinga, 2015).

Researchers have long assumed that individual differences exist in the extent to which people effectively respond and cope with different work conditions or situations. This idea is perhaps best represented by personality trait called hardiness (Johnsen et al., 2017). The military occupation challenges soldiers physically and mentally. Service members' should possess hardiness qualities to maintain their health and perform optimally despite the high demands they face (Lo Bue, 2015).

In the SANDF some military units specialise in training, such as the one under study (SAAG), and other units are operational units. However the demands posed by the military occupational stressors apply to all military personnel. All military personnel are exposed to deployments, irrespective of whether one is working at a training unit or operational unit. For example, members of SAAG must be deployed to the field for each officer's formative course that is being presented in the unit. This implies that the instructors of SAAG as well as the support section must be deployed twice in a year to the field in order to commence with the practical part of training that is required for learners to be found competent as future leaders of SANDF.

These deployments require members of SAAG to deploy away from home environment for long period of time and be exposed to a dangerous work environment. Constant exposure to a dangerous work environment may cause stress to members and later lead to behaviours related to quitting the job. However a study by Carol and Adler (2006) found that there are individual variables, such as hardiness which in this study is used as a moderator between the independent variables and the dependent variable, which can buffer the effects of stress.

The scale developed by Carol and Adler (2006) will assist in investigating whether the members of SAAG have hardy personality and how their hardiness level can affect the relationship between their level of job satisfaction, organisational climate, work-family conflict and turnover intentions (see par 3.6.5).

2.7.1 Dimensions of hardiness

Hardiness represents a collection of various attributes, beliefs and behavioural tendencies and it is composed of the following interrelated components (Kobasa, 1982; Carol & Adler, 2006; Johnsen et al., 2017):

2.7.1.1   Control

Control is defined as "a tendency to feel and act as if one is influential (rather than helpless) in the face of the varied contingencies of life" (Kobasa et al., 1982, p. 169). Kardum, Hudek-Knežević, and Krapić (2012, p. 488) concur that control is the "tendency to believe and act as if one can influence the life events through one's own effort". Control means facing reality and taking charge of stressful situation.

In addition, control could also imply the ability to feel and act as if one is influential as opposed to helpless (Johnsen et al., 2017). Hardy people believe that they can choose how they handle the situation and have a sense of autonomy and influence on their future. Hence it is proposed that members of SAAG who are high on hardiness will not develop turnover intentions should they experience low level of job satisfaction. However, the opposite is true.

2.7.1.2   Commitment

According to Kobasa (1982, p. 169) commitment is defined as a "tendency to involve oneself in (rather than experience alienation from) whatever one is doing or encounters" (Kobasa et al., 1982, p. 169). Kardum et al. (2012, p 488) state that commitment involves the "tendency to involve oneself in the activities in life and have a genuine interest in and curiosity about the activities, things and other people". Kobasa (1979) characterises hardiness as a commitment to oneself and work, a sense of personal control over one's experiences and outcomes, and the perception that change represents challenge, and hardiness is therefore treated as an opportunity for growth rather than as a threat.

According to Lo Bue (2015) commitment facet of hardiness builds on the work of Antonovsky in 1974, whose sense of coherence entailed commitment and engagement with others, which lend resistance to the ill effects of stress. Hardiness-commitment provides a sense of internal balance and confidence which are important for realistic assessment of stressful and threatening situations like the deployments duties that members of SAAG have to execute in the field. (Lo Bue, 2015). Commitment refers to assigned meaning and purpose to self, others and work.

People who make those commitments have a sense of purpose and they know that they can call in their relationships in times of difficulty (Crosson, 2015; Johnsen et al., 2017). Commitment is the inclination to involve oneself in the experience rather than running away from the problem. Change for hardy individuals' is seen as a challenge which provides opportunities for growth rather that threat for security (Crosson, 2015; Johnsen et al., 2017).

2.7.1.3 Challenge

This dimension of hardiness is challenge and it is defined by (Kobasa et al., 1982, p. 169) as a "belief that change rather than stability is normal in life and that the anticipation of changes are interesting incentives to growth rather than threats to security". In this regard, 'challenge' "refers to the belief that changes in life are opportunities for personal growth" (Kardum et al., 2012, p. 488). Challenge refers to an enthusiasm and excitement for life which is provided as opportunities for growth. Hardy people seek novelty and challenge as oppose to familiarity and security (Crosson, 2015; Johnsen et al., 2017). They do not feel challenged by stressful situations and have high tolerance for ambiguity.

2.7.1.4 Existential courage

The last dimension of hardiness is existential courage. However this dimension is not explored further in this study, it is only highlighted in this section. The instrument that is used to measure hardiness in chapter 3 does not include this dimension (see par. 3.6.5). Existentialism has long defined major motivation in human functioning as an ongoing quest for life's meaning and purpose. The quest for meaning is expressed in the inevitable decision-making process underlying everything that people do in life (Maddi, 2004). All decisions have an inherent form. One can either choose the future or the past. Choosing the future involves striking out in relatively new, unfamiliar directions, whereas choosing to repeat the past involves holding onto what is already known and familiar. It is choosing the future that maximises information. Choosing the future is most consistent with continuing to elaborate life's meaning, it also brings ontological anxiety, as expressed in fear of uncertainty and possible failure (Maslow, 1967; Maddi, 2004).

Existentialist believes that to choose the future regularly requires courage. Without courage one may choose the past regularly, which stagnates the quest for meaning (Maddi, 2004).

Hardiness, comprised of commitment, control and challenge, is offered as an operationalization of existential courage. Hardiness has been shown to enhance performance, despite stressful changes, and to increase perception and actions consistent with choosing the future. Hardiness can now be assessed and trained to increase existential courage (Maddi, 2004). Hardiness emerged as a set of attitudes and beliefs about how people interacts with the world around them that provides the courage and motivation to do the hard work of turning stressful changes from disasters into opportunities instead. Specifically, the attitude or beliefs involved are the 3 C's (commitment, control and challenge).

Someone who is strong in commitment want to stay involved with the people and the events around going on around him/her, as that seems the best way to find what is experientially interesting and meaningful. Someone who is strong in control want to have an influence on the outcomes going on around him/her, even if they seem difficult in certain circumstances (Maddi, 2004).

It will seem wasteful to that person to sink into powerless and passivity. Furthermore, someone who is strong in challenge find the process of learning from experience (whether positive or negative) developmentally fulfilling (Maddi, 2004). Conceptually, not one of the 3 C's by itself is enough to provide the needed courage and motivation to turn stressful changes to advantage. At the conceptual level, hardiness appears to be a reasonable operationalization of existential courage and motivation to choose the future rather than the past. Choosing the future is facilitated by hardy attitude of commitment, control and challenge (Maddi, 2004). These attitude leads to perceiving stressful circumstances as a normal provocation to development (challenge), manageable (control) and worth investing in (commitment).

At the empirical level, evidence is accumulating that hardiness involves openness to experience, innovativeness, and perceptual subtlety (Hamilton & James, 2004). Accordingly, there is a positive relationship between hardiness and performance criteria. Furthermore, there is a negative relationship between hardiness and stressful conditions (Crosson, 2015). Such findings are consistent with the view that hardiness is an operationalization of existential courage and motivation (Maddi, 2004).

Each component of hardiness is perceived to offer appraisal and coping mechanisms. Firstly, commitment allows the individual to appraise events as meaningful and to develop self-efficacy. Secondly, control facet assists the individual in appraising events as part of a longer-term life plan and confers the impetus to initiate necessary action. Lately, challenge allows the individual the ability to tolerate ambiguity and to adjust easily to new experiences (Hamilton & James, 2004). In the current study hardiness was measured using the job description index developed by Carol and Adler (2006) with acceptable alphas. The questionnaire consisted of three subscales namely commitment, control and challenge (see par. 3.6.5).

2.8   CONCEPTUALISING THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CONSTRUCTS

This section of the chapter discusses the relationship between the variables of the study. The relationship between turnover intentions and organisational climate is discussed, followed by the relationship between turnover intentions and job satisfaction, then the relationship between turnover intentions and work-family conflict, lastly hardiness is discussed as a moderator variable between the independent and dependent variables.

2.8.1 The relationship between organisational climate and turnover intentions

Research has suggested that climate perceptions are associated with variety of important outcomes at an individual, work group and organisational as a whole. One of these important outcomes and also the focus of the study is turnover intentions (Castro, 2008). The following relationships between the dimensions of organisational climate and turnover intentions were found in different studies:

2.8.1.1 Autonomy and turnover intentions

Dysvik and Kuvaas, (2013) describe job autonomy as the degree of discretion employees have over important decisions in their work, such as timings and methods of their tasks. Job autonomy has been identified as one of the features of work design for employee outcome such as job satisfaction and motivation (Dysvik, & Kuvaas, 2013). They further stated that lack of autonomy seems to be a powerful antecedent of turnover. Employees who have autonomy and freedom about how and when to do work, could feel sense of responsibility for their tasks and activities. This would activate a sense of attachment to management and to one's work environment that in turn could reduce employee's desire to leave the organisation (Karim, 2010). Liu (2011) showed that autonomy orientation and autonomy support establish psychological empowerment and in turn reduces turnover.

2.8.1.2 Job involvement, effort and turnover intentions

Job involvement has been described as the degree to which one is cognitively preoccupied with, engaged in, and concerned with one's present job (Risher & Fyn, 2007). Agrusa and Lema (2007) suggested that turnover is reduced when a collaborative work environment is created and when workers felt involved in workplace decision making. Research by Boxall and Macky (2014) identified strong evidence that employee involvement in decision making at appropriate level was related to lower turnover rates. Agrusa and Lema (2007) found that employees who are involved in the organisation's decision making tend to put extra effort in their work and they are less likely to leave their organisation.

2.8.1.3 Perceived supervisor support and turnover intentions

Perceived supervisory support (PSS) has been linked to important organisational outcomes. Research shows that employees who have frequent, quality exchanges with their supervisors are less likely to develop turnover intentions (Li, Kim, & Zhao, 2017). Because supervisors have more frequent contact with employees, as compared to upper management, they are able to more readily convey positive valuations of caring to employees (Paterson et al., 2013).

Additionally, PSS may also negate negative employee attitude or behaviours. One of such behaviour or attitude is turnover. Since turnover intentions have been identified as an immediate precursor to turnover behaviours, it is important that organisations foster factors that will reduce turnover intentions. One of those factors is supervisor support.

2.8.1.4   Welfare and turnover intentions

Having an opportunity to have one's opinion heard and being treated with dignity and respect in administration of policies creates strong impression that the organisation cares about its employees (Nyakwara et al., 2014). They also found that systems that were perceived by employees as equitable were less conducive to behaviours that might reflect resentment or protest and would less likely lead to turnover intentions.

2.8.1.5   Performance feedback and turnover intentions

Frequent meetings with supervisors indicate that employees are provided with greater amount of information, clear role definition, and support and performance feedback. Meeting frequently indicates that quality exchanges are taking place between a supervisor and an employee. Meeting frequent with supervisors is also expected to have direct relationship with turnover intentions (Agrusa & Lema, 2007). Based on the finding revealed by Agrusa and Lema (2007) on the relationship between the dimensions of organisational climate and turnover intention, the study proposes that there is a negative significant relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention of members of SAAG.

2.8.2   The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions

Past research has stated that job satisfaction is related to individual reaction of the work environment and that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Masri, 2009). Previous research also points out that literature review on job satisfaction and turnover intentions shows that an individual who experience relatively low job satisfaction has an intention to change their job.

Muchinsky and Tuttle (as cited in Masri, 2009) found that job satisfaction and turnover are negatively relate among a sample of state civil service employee. The outcome of research by Moynihan (as cited in Masri, 2009) also found that the intention to quit is negatively correlated with job satisfaction.

Robbins and Judge (2007) agree found that pay correlates to job satisfaction as well as overall happiness for people living below the poverty line or residing in poor countries. Once individuals earn relatively well and live comfortably, the relationship between pay and satisfaction disappears. It is further stated that the amount of pay, fairness and method of pay should be relevant to this dimension of job satisfaction. Furthermore, employees prefer a work environment that facilitate opportunities to do a good job and where they can perform well, as well as environments that offer personal comfort (Robbins & Judge, 2007). In addition, studies have shown that employees prefer physical conditions that are safe, clean, and comfortable, with few distractions (Luthans, 2005). Preference is also shown for modern facilities, adequate tools and equipment, and working closer to home (Castro, 2008).

Other studies found that a work environment characterised by employee participation has a higher substantial effect on employee's satisfaction (Luthans, 2005). Some studies found that job satisfaction tends to increase when the supervisor is seen to be understanding and friendly, acknowledges satisfactory performance, encourages inputs from subordinates and shows personal interest in employees (Castro, 2008). The above mentioned contribute to job satisfaction and once they are in place employees are unlikely to develop turnover intentions. Based on literature discussed above, this study hypotheses that there is a negative significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention of members of SAAG. This study further proposes that hardiness will moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions of members of SAAG.

2.8.3   The relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intentions

Ahmad (2008) assessed withdrawal behaviours with both work family conflict and family work conflict constructs and found out that when employees experience work-family conflict and family-work conflict, they will likely withdraw from work in an attempt to eliminate the conflict (Ahmad, 2008). Evidence has also shown that work-family conflict is strongly associated with the work related factors. Byron (2005) state that employees who work in demanding occupations are more likely to experience conflict between their work and family as they try to maintain the roles as housewives and mothers. Hence in this study it is hypothesized there is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intentions of members of SAAG.

When work interferes with completing family obligations causing work-family conflict, then quitting the job for employees that score low on hardiness may work to eliminate the occurrence of work interfering with family (Ahmad, 2008). It is further hypothesized that hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention of members of SAAG.

Thus, the employee sees work as the proximal cause of his or her thoughts of quitting. When family activities interfere with completing work duties, then quitting might also contribute to reduce experienced conflict and allow the individual to better meet family obligations.

Ahmad (2008) state that researchers have used global measures of work family conflict, correlations, and considered professional withdrawal, but few have assessed a direct effect of work family conflict and family work conflict on turnover intentions (Ahmad, 2008). Byron (2010) reported that work-family conflict inversely contribute to low job satisfaction among female who work in demanding occupations. Research has also shown that being satisfied with work, family and life does not lead to thoughts of quitting (Greenhaus, & Powell, 2003). This study further proposes that work-family conflict influence job satisfaction of members of SAAG.

2.8.4   Hardiness as a moderator

The military work environment is stressful in nature. Researchers have long assumed that individual differences exist in the extent to which people effectively respond and cope with different work conditions or situations (Johnsen et al., 2017). It is argued that individual differences can act as a moderator to help some people respond to situation positively, while others respond negatively (Johnsen et al., 2017). There are certain individuals that are tolerant and endure negative work environment in the military. Such individuals can be said to be hardy or possess the characteristics of a hardy individual.

It can be further argued that such employees would not intent to leave their jobs either, as they are hardy to negative and stressful employment conditions. Hardy people believe that they can choose how they handle the situation and have a sense of autonomy and influence on their future. Hardiness- commitment provides a sense of internal balance and confidence which are important for realistic assessment of stressful and threatening situations. Hardy people seek novelty and challenge as oppose to familiarity and security (Crosson, 2015; Johnsen et al., 2017). They feel do not challenged by stressful situations and have high tolerance for ambiguity. Hence the study hypothesises that hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention of members of SAAG.

Those who do not possess characteristics of hardiness, they are more likely to leave their work when the working conditions (such as organisational climate, job satisfaction and work-family conflict) are negative (Johnsen et al., 2017). According to Kardum et al. (2012) employees high on hardiness perceive their job in a better light, are more committed to their organisations have more responsible work behaviours, as opposed to those who are low on hardiness. Hence the study hypothesises that there is a positive significant relationship between hardiness and turnover intentions of members of SAAG.
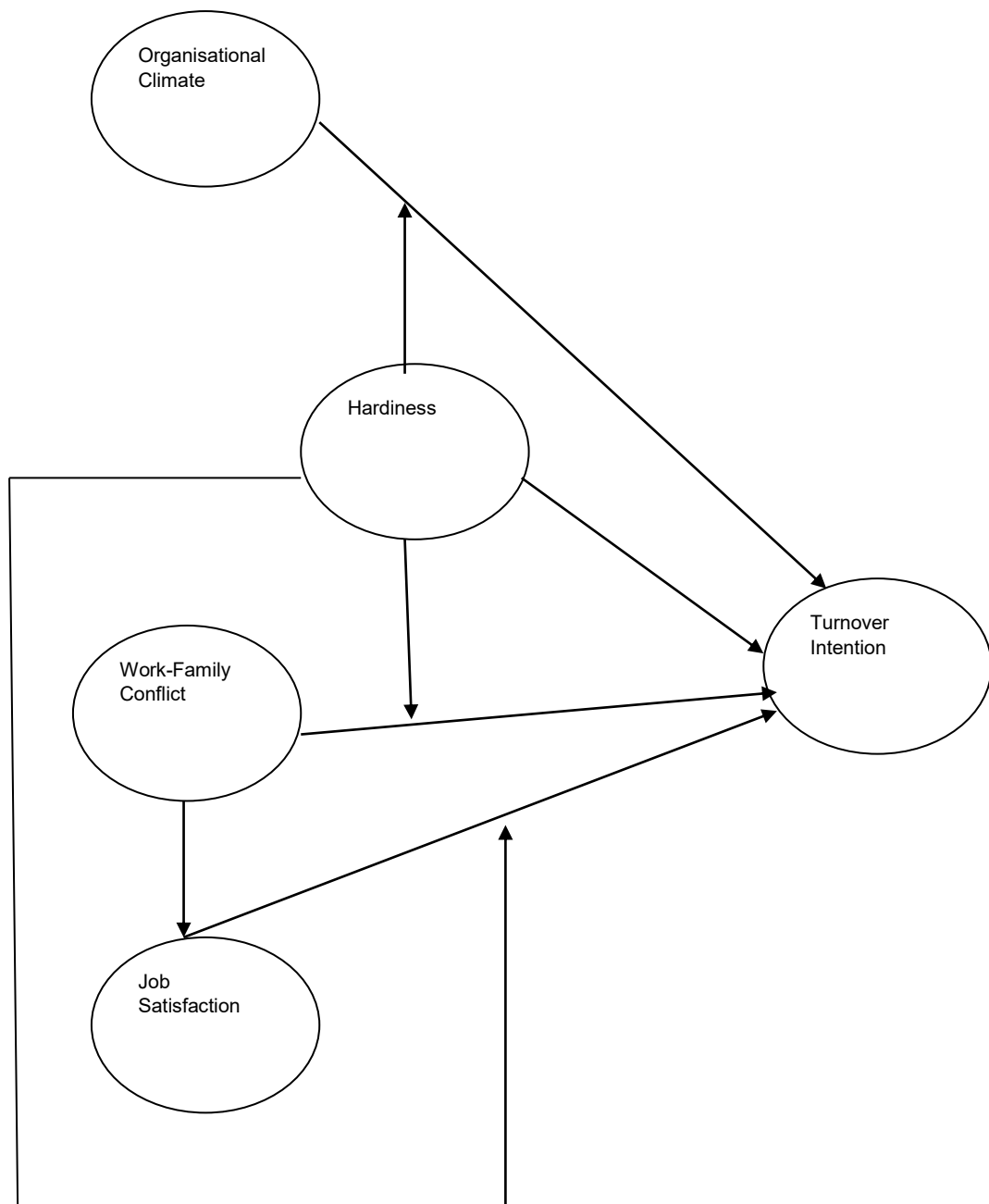
Figure 2.5 **A conceptualised model of turnover intentions in the SAAG**

According to literature, there are challenges (constructs) that lead members of the organisation to experience turnover intentions. Furthermore, this constructs have a potential to influence one another (Gill et al., 2013). As proposed in figure 2.5, that is, the conceptualised model of turnover intentions of members of the SAAG. Factors such as organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and hardiness have a potential influence on turnover intentions of members of the SAAG.

2.9   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided an in-depth review on turnover intentions and factors that are influencing it. This chapter further provided an in-depth literature review on the relationship between the constructs of the study and the focus was on describing the hypothesised interaction between the factors (see Fig. 1. and Fig. 2.5) and as such, a model was proposed.

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The overall objective for this study was to determine factors that influence turnover intention of members of the SAAG and how hardiness moderate the relationship between variables of the study. The overall objective would be achieved through these theoretical objectives: the conceptualisation of turnover intentions from a theoretical perspective, the conceptualisation of organisational climate from a theoretical perspective, the conceptualisation of job satisfaction from a theoretical perspective, the conceptualisation of work-family conflict from a theoretical perspective, the conceptualisation of hardiness from a theoretical perspective, to conceptualise the theoretical relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, hardiness and turnover intentions, and to conceptualise the moderating effect of hardiness on the relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and turnover intentions. The theoretical objectives lead to the development of a theoretical model for the study (see fig 1.1).

The theoretical background and framework informed the following empirical objectives which are:

- To determine the level of turnover intention in a sample of SAAG members.

- To determine the level of organisational climate in a sample of SAAG members.

- To determine the level of job satisfaction in a sample of SAAG members.

- To determine the level of work-family conflict in a sample of SAAG members.

- To determine the level of hardiness in a sample of SAAG members.

- To determine the influence of organisational climate, job satisfaction and work-family conflict on turnover intention

- To determine the moderating effect of hardiness on the relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family and turnover intentions in a sample of SAAG members.

- To determine the influence of hardiness on turnover intention.

The theoretical framework and the grounds for the researcher to formulate the hypotheses for the current study was provided by the literature review conducted in Chapter two. The developed hypotheses are in line with the study objectives. This chapter will present the hypotheses, research design, sampling design, measuring instruments as well as statistical analysis for the study. Prior to undertaking in a detailed discussion, it is important for the author to provide an understanding of what research is and how/why it is carried out.

Research methodology is defined as "the methods, techniques, and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing the research design or research plan, as well as the underlying principles and assumptions that underlie their use" (Babbie & Mouton, 2002, p. 647). Research methodology is further defined as "a systematic way to solve a problem, it is a science of studying how research is to be carried out" (Rajasekar, Philomominathan & Chinnathambi, 2013, p. 5). Essentially, the procedures by which researchers go about their work of describing, explaining and predicting the phenomena are called research methodology. It is also described as the study of methods by which knowledge is gained. Its aim is to give the work plan of research (Rajasekar, Philomominathan & Chinnathambi, 2013).

This study utilises both the deductive and inductive methods of research. According to Bryman (as cited in Matjeke, 2016) deductive theory is a representation of the most common view of a particular domain whereby a researcher relies on what is already known and utilises this theoretical knowledge to develop hypotheses that must be empirically tested. Embedded in the deductive process are five steps which one would follow when conducting empirical research.

The steps, which form the basis of the current study are; theory, hypothesis, data collection, findings, hypothesis confirmed or rejected and revision of theory (Bryman as cited in Majeke, 2016). Following the testing of developed hypotheses, the researcher will engage in induction whereby implications of the findings will be inferred to the theory from which the study was initiated.

3.2   HYPOTHESES

The objective of the study was to evaluate the influence of organisational climate, job satisfaction and work-family conflict on turnover intentions with hardiness as possible moderator variable to turnover intentions among members of SAAG. The stated theoretical research objectives for the study were to conceptualise organisational climate, job satisfaction, work family conflict, turnover intentions and hardiness from a theoretical perspective, and also the theoretical relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work family conflict, turnover intentions. Lastly, the theoretical objective was to conceptualise the moderating effect of hardiness on the relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work family conflict, and turnover intentions.

The theoretical relationships between the variables of interest were established through literature by conceptualising and providing arguments on the interaction of variables (see fig. 2.4). In order to provide answers to the research problem stated in chapter 1 (see par. 1.2) and to satisfy the research objectives of the study as stated in chapter1 (see par. 1.3.3), the following hypotheses were formulated to determine the empirical relationship between the variables:

H_1:   There is a significant relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention.

H_2:   There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

H_3:   There is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention.

H4:   There is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction.

H5:   Hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention.

H6:   Hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

H7:   Hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention.

H8:   There is a significant relationship between hardiness and turnover intention.

3.3   RESEARCH DESIGN

A quantitative study was conducted whereby data was be collected by means of questionnaires. Quantitative research is described as a scientific method which entails the collection of data, as exhibiting a view of the relationship between the theories and research as deductive and prediction for a natural science approach and as having an objective conception of social reality (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

Self-report and structured questionnaire survey was be employed. Corrigan, Mueser, Bond, Drake and Solomon, (2008) state that the advantages of using the self-report and structured questionnaire method are that surveys are able to study large samples of people fairly easy and they are able to examine a large number of variables. Survey research can ask people to reveal behaviour and feelings which have been experienced in real situations. If samples of people are selected at random and are large enough it should be possible to generalise the results to a larger population (Corrigan et al., 2008).

According to Corrigan et al. (2008) self-report studies have many advantages, but they also suffer from specific disadvantages due to the way that subjects generally behave. Self-reported answers may be exaggerated; respondents may be too embarrassed to reveal private details; various biases may affect the results, like social desirability bias.

Self-report studies are inherently biased by the person's feelings at the time they were completing questionnaire. If a person feels bad at the time they complete the questionnaire, for example, their answers will be more negative. If the person feels good at the time, then the answers will be more positive (Corrigan et al., 2008). However it is still appropriate to this research because survey research is available for researchers to collect original data for analyzing and describing a large population to observe directly (Babbie, 2007). In addition, survey is also good at measuring behaviours, attitude and orientation such as turnover intentions.

3.4   SAMPLING DESIGN

The population of a study includes all the members or individuals represented in a research project. Whereas a sample refers to the number of individuals in the population that contains essentially the same variations present in the population (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). The aim of sampling is to select a set of individuals from a population in a way that accurately represents the population from which the sample was drawn. Two types of sampling methods can be identified, namely probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling increases the likelihood of achieving the primary aim of sampling because every participant has an equal chance of being selected (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). Random sampling is regarded as the simplest form of probability sampling. However, in non-probability sampling, individuals selected do not necessary represent the population. It is imperative that the sampling method used realises the goals of the research being conducted (Castro, 2008).

The population of the study comprised of members of the SAAG (both military and civilians). A non-random sampling method was used to select the participants of the study. According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (2008), when using the non-random sampling technique the probability of any particular member of the population being chosen into a sample is unknown.

Permission to conduct a study in SAAG was obtained from the Officer Commanding of the SAAG unit, the Chief of SA Army as well as the Chief Defence Intelligence of the SANDF by means of a formal letter. Ethics clearance was also obtained from the Stellenbosch University ethics committee. In order to avoid interrupting unit's routine members were approached at their respective sections to participate in the study. Members were informed about the research, including the objectives and those were interested in participating were informed that participation in the study is voluntary and they may withdraw from the study whenever they feel like doing so.

An informed consent was obtained from the participants by ticking in the box that they are agreeing to participate in the study or declining participation. The consent form was part of the questionnaires that was used to collect data. Data was collected from a sample of 288 members of SAAG, n= 288. This represents 80 % of the members of SAAG. It took two days to collect data from the participants because members were approached at their different sections on different dates and timings.

3.5   DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Each participant was given self-report questionnaires as a survey instrument. The questionnaires consisted of three parts. The first part consisted of the questionnaire cover letter which includes an informed consent to participate in the study. The second part, section A, will consisted of demographic information of the participants. The third part, section B, will consisted of subsections with scales measuring organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, turnover intentions and hardiness. To increase the response rate, the participants were informed regarding research objectives. Participants were also informed that participation in the study is voluntary and information provided will be kept anonymous, that is; no names or other identifiers was collected on any of the instruments used.

3.6   MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

All the constructs that were included in the study were assessed with a perceptual self- report measure. The research questionnaires consisted of six sections, Section A to section F. Section A focused on the participant's biographical information, which included information regarding the participant's gender, age, race, home language, highest educational qualification, field of utilisation, and length of service. Section B to F consisted of scales measuring various variables.

3.6.1   Turnover intention questionnaire

Turnover intention was measured using Turnover Intention Questionnaire (TIQ) developed by Roodt (2004b), which consist of 12 –items). The response format used was a 4-point Likert scale, where 1= Definitely False (DF), 2= Mostly False (MF), 3= Mostly True (MT), and 4= Definitely True (DT). In terms of reliability, the scale has an internal consistency of .913 Cronbach's Alpha coefficient (Roodt, 2004b).

3.6.2   Organisational climate questionnaire

Organisational climate was measured using Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Patterson et al., (2005) The original scale consist of 17 subscales, that is, autonomy, integration, involvement, supervisory support, training, welfare, formalisation, tradition, innovation and flexibility, outward focus, flexibility, clarity of organisational goals, efficiency, effort, performance feedback, pressure to produce, and quality. For the relevancy of the study, only 6 subscales was used, which is autonomy, involvement, supervisory support, welfare, effort and performance feedback, to measure organisational climate with. The response format used was a 4-point Likert scale where 1= Definitely False (DF), 2= Mostly False (MF), 3= Mostly True (MT), and 4= Definitely True (DT). In terms of reliability, the scale has an internal consistency ranging from (α=.67) to (α=.91) (Patterson et al., 2005).

3.6.3   Job description index

Job satisfaction was measured using Job Description Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). Which consist of 32 -items scale measuring job satisfaction with five different job areas: pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision and the work itself. The response format used was a 5-point Likert scale where 1= Strongly Disagree (SD), 2= Disagree (D), 3= Neutral (N), 4= Agree (A) and 5= Strongly Agree (SA). In terms of reliability, the following Cronbach's alphas were found: The alpha value for pay was .80, promotion .62, the work itself .82 and supervision .89 (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969).

3.6.4   Work-family conflict scale

Work-family conflict scale (WFCS) consisting of 18 items assessing the six conceptually and empirically distinct dimensions was used to measure work-family conflict: Time-based (work interference to family), time-based (family interference to work), strain-based (work interference to family), strain-based (family interference to work), behavior-based (work interference to family), and behavior-based (family interference to work). Responses to all items were made on five-point Likert-type scales; 1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5 = strongly agree (Lim, Morris, & McMillan, 2010). The internal consistency of each of the six dimensions of work-family conflict was estimated with Alpha coefficient. The reliabilities for each of the six dimensions exceeds the conventional .70 level of acceptance: (1) time-based = .94; (2) strain-based = .93; and (3) behavior-based = .94. The overall scale exceeds .75 Alpha coefficient (Lim, Morris, & McMillan, 2010).

3.6.5   Military hardiness scale

The military hardiness scale (MHS) developed by Carol and Adler (2006), was used to measure hardiness. In the current study, the purpose of the scale is to measure members of SAAG hardiness. The MHS is a 4-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= disagree, to 4= strongly disagree. The scale consists of 18 items measuring commitment, control and challenge. In terms of reliability, the scale has internal consistency of .90 Cronbach's Alpha coefficient (Carol & Adler, 2006).

3.7   DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001) data is collected and interpreted for the purpose of drawing conclusions that reflect on the hypotheses, ideas and theories that initiated the inquiry. Once all the data has been collected from the surveys (questionnaires), the information is to be presented and analysed on the SPSS and PLS.

The SPSS statistical package and PLS was used to calculate and conduct statistical analysis. The statistical procedures relevant to this research included the following: The statistical procedures relevant to this research include the following: Descriptive statistics were calculated using maximum, minimum, mean and standard deviations; and reliability analyses were conducted using Cronbach's alpha. Spearman correlations of factors derived from turnover intention, organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and hardiness were calculated. . A five per cent level ($p>0.05$) was used as a parameter for significant relationships. PLS analysis was used for further analysis to test significance of the proposed model of turnover intention (see Fig 1.1).

3.8   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed how the study would be empirically tested. The developed hypotheses were discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, the study discussed the research methodology which included the research design, sample, data collection procedure, and measuring instruments. The study also discussed data analysis and interpretation. The next chapter (Chapter 4) provides empirical results of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter will present various statistical analyses from the data collected. These results will be presented as follows: Firstly, descriptive statistics; secondly, reliability of the various measures; thirdly, inferential statistics; fourthly, PLS analysis will be presented. PLS analysis will provide the measurement and structural model results.

4.2   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Thompson (2009) explains descriptive statistics as numbers that summarise the data with the purpose of describing what occurred in a sample. Descriptive statistics can also be used to compare the sample from one study with another, they also help researchers detect sample characteristics that may influence their conclusions (Thompson, 2009). Descriptive statistics are procedures used to summarise, organise and simplify data (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Rosnow and Rosenthal (2008, p. 238) further define descriptive statistics as "illustrations of variability for a complete population of events or scores". Descriptive statistics transforms raw data into a more manageable data. This form may consists of tables that allow the entire set of scores to be viewed or computed average, distribution frequencies, measures of central tendency, and measure of position (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008).

Measures of central tendency (mean and standard deviation) were calculated with the intent to illustrate general tendencies which he participants portrayed towards the dependent and independent variables. Central tendency is defined as "statistical measure that identifies a single value as representative of an entire distribution" (Thomson, 2009, p. 58). It is aimed to provide an accurate description of the entire data. It is a single value that is most typical/ representative of the collected data (Thomson, 2009). Gholba (2012) further explains measures of central tendency as a statistical constant which enables researchers to comprehend in a single effort the significance of the whole measures of central tendency.   A measure of central tendency is a summary measure that attempt to describe a whole set of data with a single value that represents the middle of its distribution.

Mean is the most commonly used measure of central tendency. The mean is defined as "the sum of all scores in the sample divided by the number of score in the sample" (Thompson, 2009, p.58). This type of mean is also referred to as arithmetic mean to distinguish it from other mean types such as the geometric and harmonic mean. Arithmetic mean, geometric mean and harmonic mean are usually called mathematical averages, while mode and median are called positional averages (Thompson, 2009). For the purpose of this study, arithmetic mean will be used and it will be mentioned without an adjective (as mean).

Standard deviation provides a more accurate picture of the distribution of measurements (Salkind, 2010). Salkind (2010) further states that this statistics is explained as an indicator of the distance of individual measurements from the mean score. A low standard deviation indicates that data points are clustered tightly around the mean value, whereas a high standard deviation indicates that the data are less precise and spread across a large range of value (Thompson, 2009). Standard deviation is a more accurate and detailed estimate of dispersion because an outlier can greatly exaggerate the range (highest value minus lowest value). Standard deviation shows the relation that the set of score has to the mean of sample. It is the square root of sum of the squared deviation from the mean divided by the number of scores minus one (Salkind, 2010).

The sample was made up of a total of 280 participants. The participants consisted of males and females (see Fig 4.1). The majority of the participants were females 162(58%) whilst the males were the minority 118(48%).
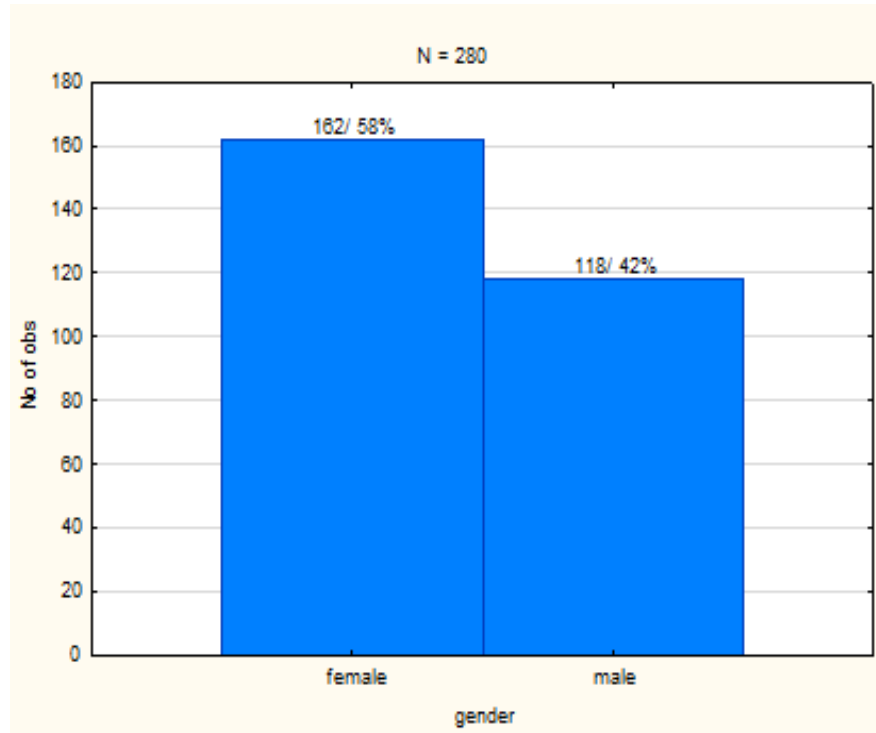
Figure 4.1 **Histogram of gender**

The participants represented different age groups ranging from 22-30 years to 40 years and older (see Fig 4.2). The majority of the participants were from the age group 31 to 39 years, which comprised of 181 participants (65%) of the study sample, followed by the age group 40 years and older, which comprised of 72 participants (26%) of the study sample, and the minority were from the age group 22 to 30 years, which comprised of 27 participants (10%) of the study sample.
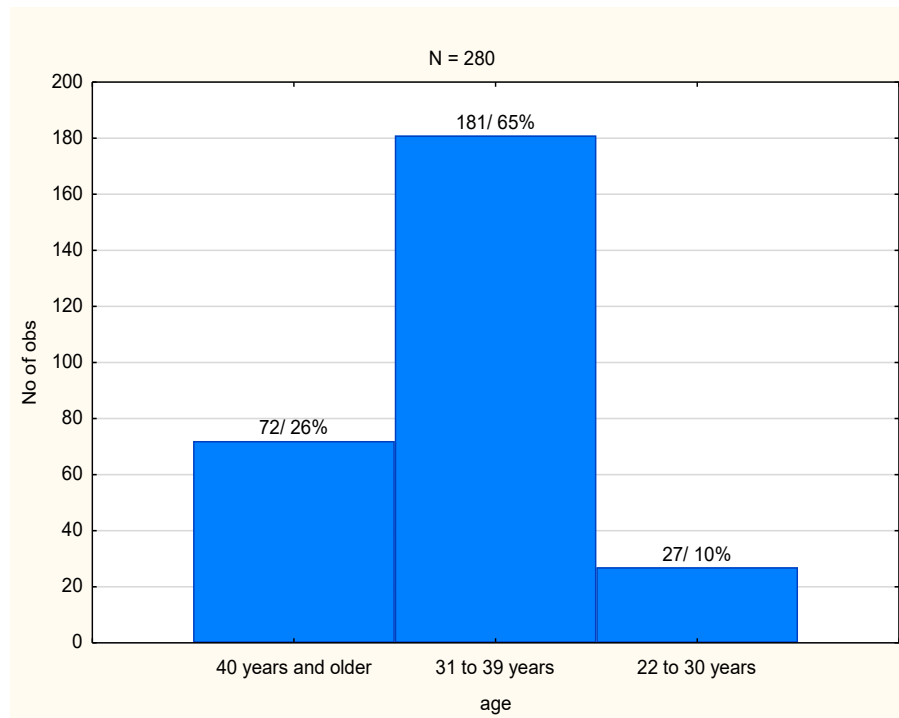
Figure 4.2 **Histogram of age**

Different racial groups were represented in the study except for the Asians/Indians (see Figure 4.3). The majority of the participants were from the Africans racial group 275(98%), followed by the coloureds racial group 4(1%) and the minority were from the whites racial group 1(0%).
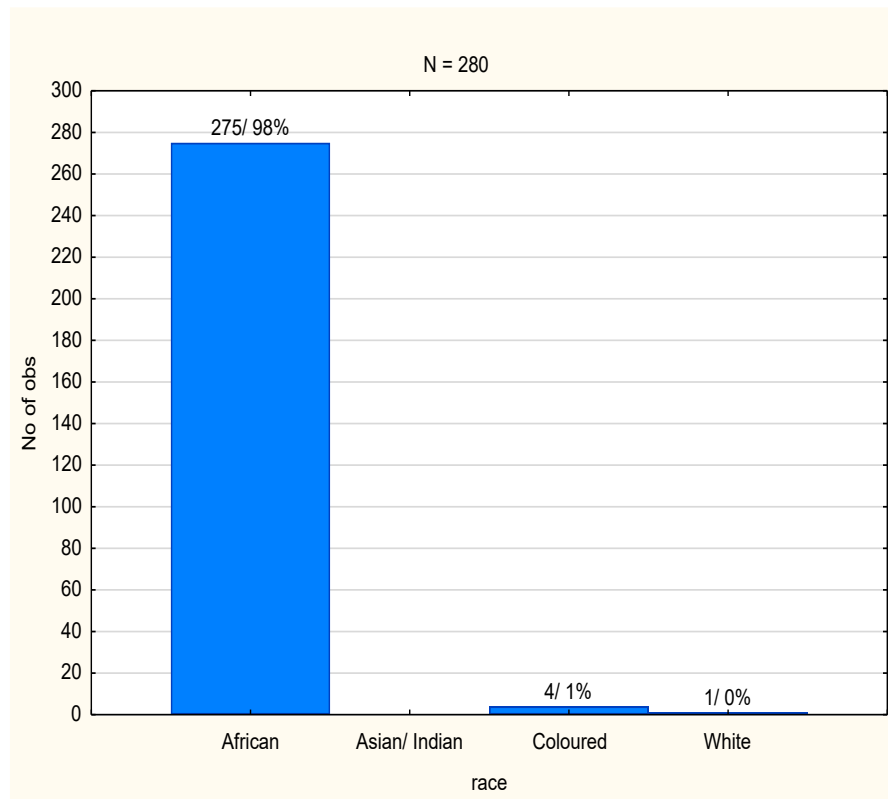
Figure 4.3 **Histogram of race**

With regard to home language, the participants represented different home languages except for Ndebele (see Fig 4.4). The majority of the participants spoke Zulu, and they comprised of 85 participants (30%) of the study sample, while the minority spoke English, and comprised of 1 participant (0%) of the study sample.
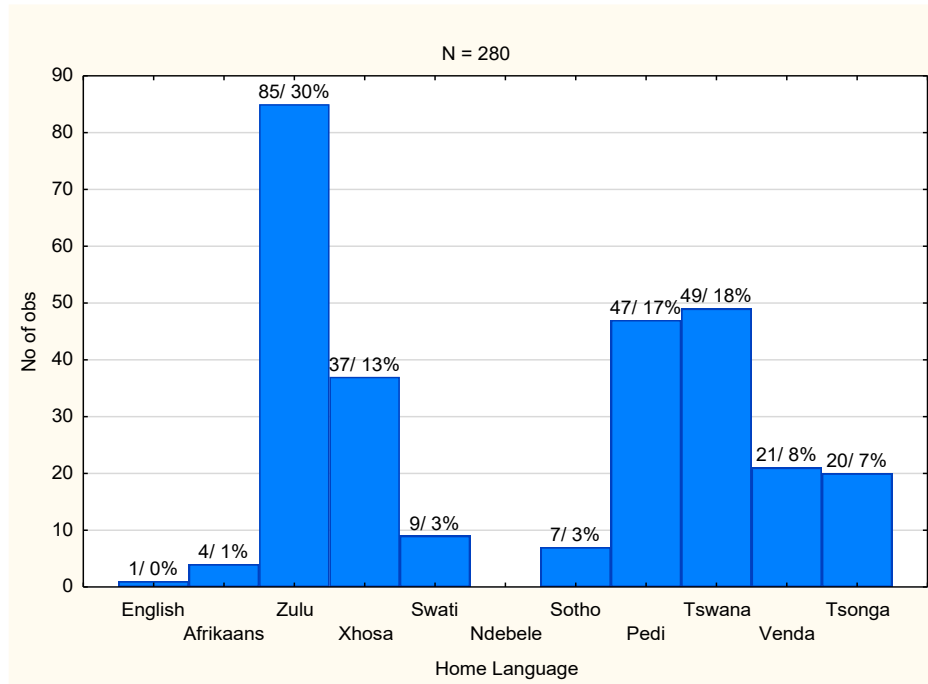
Figure 4.4 Histogram of home language

Different educational qualifications were represented in the sample (see Fig 4.5). The majority of the participants have grade12/standard 10 as their highest educational qualification 270(96%), followed by those who are having a degree as their highest educational qualification 6(2%), and the minority of the participants have certificates as their highest educational qualification 4(1%).
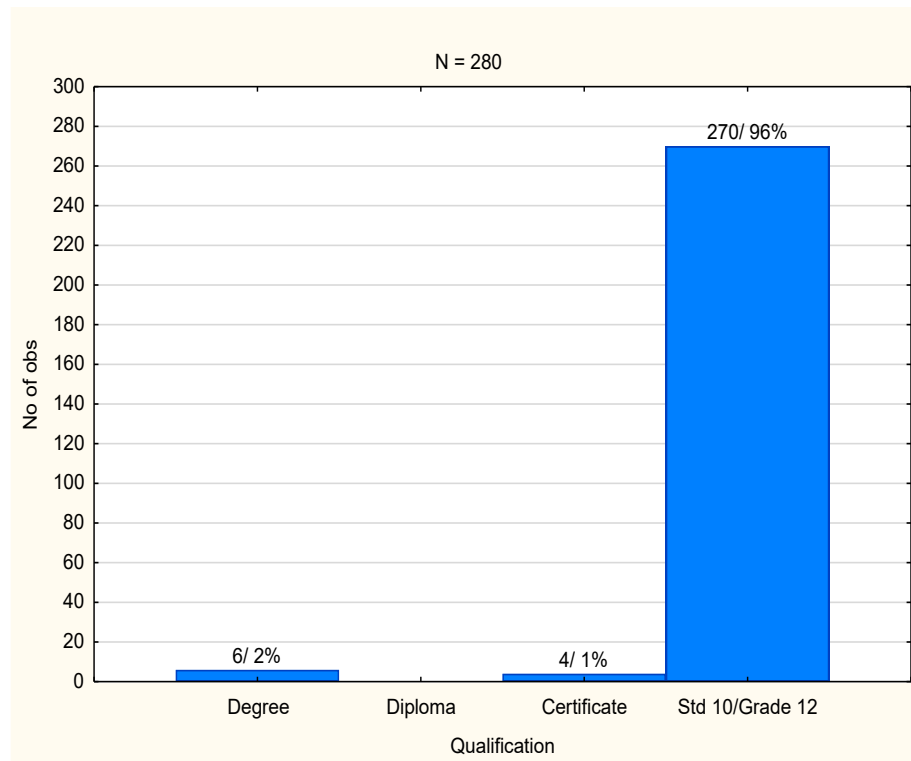
Figure 4.5 Histogram of educational qualification

In terms of field of utilisation at work, the participants were grouped in two groups, those who are working in support sections and those who are working at training sections (see Fig 4.6).The majority of the participants were from the group of those who are working at the support section, which comprised of 205 participants (73%) in the study sample. From the group of those working in the training sections, there were 75 participants (27%) in the study sample.
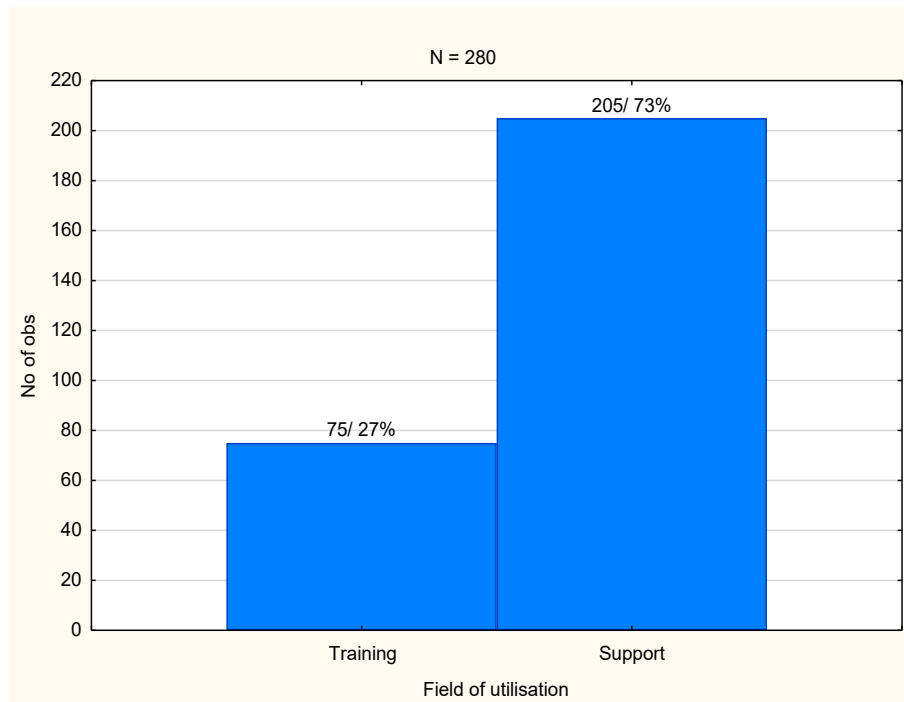
Figure 4.6 **Histogram of field of utilisation**

In terms of the lengthy of service there were three groups ranging from 3-5 years to 11 years and more (see Fig 4.7). The majority of the participants were in the group of 11 years and more length of service, which comprised of 174 participants (62%) of the study sample. In the group of 6 to 10 years, there were 05 participants (38%) of the study sample, and in the group of 3 to 5 years, there was 1 participant (0%).
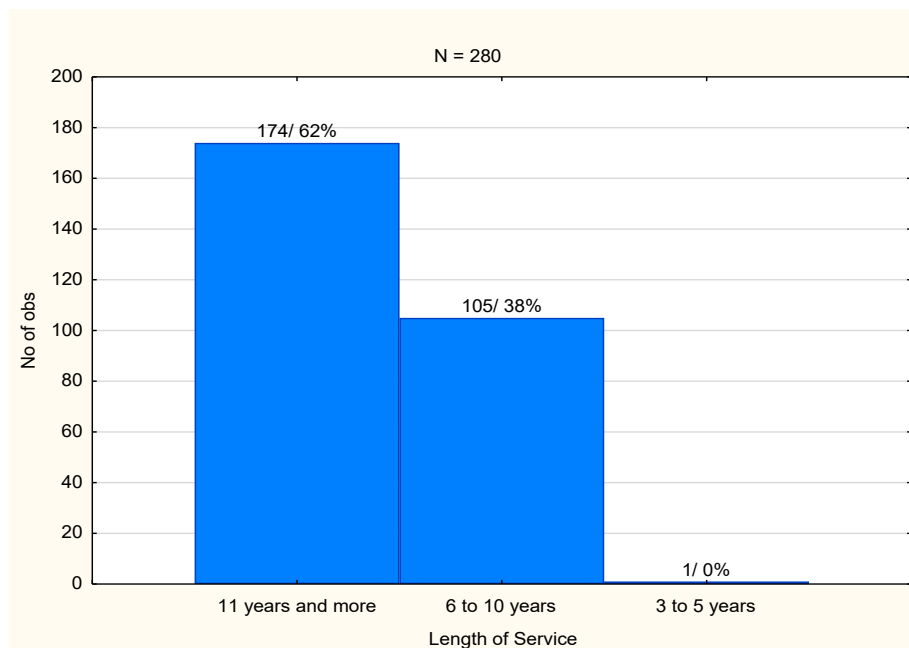
Figure 4.7 **Histogram of length of service**

The measures of central tendency, which is used to determine the typical score attained by participants as stated by Thompson (2009), were conducted in order to determine whether there was a relationship between the variables of interest. Furthermore, certain empirical objectives were determined using the measures of central tendency. The five variable of the study were investigated using the following: (a) Turnover Intentions – calculated using the TIQ with 12 items to which participants had to indicate their level of agreement using a four-point Likert scale, (b) organisational climate – calculated using OCQ with 6 sub-scales each with 5 items except for 1 sub-scale with four items to which participants had to indicate their level of agreement using four-point Likert scale, (c) job satisfaction – calculated using JDI with 4 sub-scales each with 8 items to which participants had to indicate their level of agreement using a four-point Likert scale, (d) work-family conflict – calculated using WFCS with 18 items to which participants had to indicate their level of agreement using a four-point Likert scale, and (e) hardiness – calculated using MHS with 18 items to which participants had to indicate their level of agreement using a four-point Likert scale.

Table 4.1

Measures of central tendency

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Turnover intentions	280	1.5	3.41	2.46	.49
Organisational climate	280	1.54	3.55	2.52	.60
Job satisfaction	280	1.40	3.43	2.47	.48
Work-family conflict	280	1.33	3.72	2.50	.73
Military hardiness	280	1.30	3.66	2.51	.97

Table 4.1 shows an overview of the mean scores. The TIQ had a mean of 2.46 and a standard deviation of .49 which reflected that the participants had average level of turnover intentions. OCQ had a mean of 2.52 and a standard deviation of .60 which reflected average level of organisational climate for participants. JDI had a mean of 2.47 and standard deviation of .48 which reflect that participants had average level of job satisfaction. WFCS had a mean of 2.50 and standard deviation of .73 which reflected average level of work-family conflict for participants. MHS had a mean of 2.51 and standard deviation of .97 which reflected that participants had average level of hardiness.

These results were used to provide answers for the stated empirical objectives (see par. 1.3.3). The results show that there were average levels of organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, hardiness and turnover intentions, therefore objective (a) to determine the level of turnover intention in a sample of SAAG members, (b) to determine the level of organisational climate in a sample of SAAG members, (c) to determine the level of job satisfaction in a sample of SAAG members, (d) to determine the level of work-family conflict in a sample of SAAG members in a sample of SAAG members were all confirmed.

4.3   RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Reliability refers to the fact that a scale should consistently reflect the construct it is measuring (Babbie & Mouton, 2012). Gravetter and Forzono (2009, p. 28) define reliability as "the stability or consistency of a measurement".   The six instruments that were used in the study (TQI, OCQ, JDI, WFCS, and MHS) showed in previous research to have acceptable levels of internal consistency (see par. 3.5).

For all the scales and subscale of the study, item analysis was performed to test the reliability and to support the validity of research. Item analysis is the internal consistency analysis that measures the extent to which items in the scale measures attribute or construct (Field, 2009). Item analysis shows how items contribute to the internal consistency of the scale. Items that do not contribute to the reliability of the total measurement can be rewritten or deleted to improve the measurement scale reliability (Babbie & Mouton, 2012). This items indicate a considerable increase in the Cronbach alpha when deleted (Theron, 2015).

For research purposes, different researchers agree that the acceptable value for Cronbach alpha is .75 (Devellis, 2013). The Cronbach alphas are sensitive to the number of items on the scale. For the scale consisting of items fewer than ten, it is not rare to find the Cronbach alpha value of .50 (Pallant, 2007). The following are the results of the study:

- Item 4 in TIQ "opportunities to achieve goals at my workplace are jeopardised" showed the characteristics of a poor item with a negative inter-item correlation (-.66) when compared to other items of the scale. The item was flagged as problematic. However, the item was retained because the purpose of the research was to use the scale in its entirety and deleting the item would not have made much of a difference to the Cronbach alpha.

- Item 12 in the TIQ the trouble of relocating prevents me from leaving my current employer had a negative and low inter-item correlation (-.26) when compared to other items of the scale. Such results could have been due to the way the item is phrase. The item was flagged as problematic, but retained, because deleting the item would have not significantly improved the Cronbach alpha.

- Item 3 in the subscale "promotion" of JDI ('Promotion in my organisation is frequent') had a negative but high inter-item correlation (-.81) when compared to other items of the subscale. These results could be due to the way the item was phrased. The item was flagged as problematic. Nevertheless, the item was retained because the purpose of the research was to use the subscale in its entirety and deleting the item would have not have made a much of a difference to the Cronbach alpha.

Table 4.2

Internal reliability and inter-item correlation for subscales

Variable (Scale)	N	Cronbach's alpha (α)	Average inter-item correlation
Turnover intentions questionnaire			
Organisational climate questionnaire:			
Autonomy	280	.92	.72
Involvement	280	.79	.50
Supervisory support	280	.93	.76
Welfare	280	.91	.74
Effort	280	.95	.82
Performance feedback	280	.93	.74
Job description index:			
Pay	280	.92	.62
Promotion	280	.84	.44
The work- itself	279	.95	.69
Supervision	280	.95	.72
Work-family conflict scale:			
Time-based	280	.95	.79
Strain-based	280	.96	.80
Behaviour based	280	.96	.80
Military hardiness scale:			
Commitment	280	.91	.75
Challenge	280	.87	.83
Control	280	.92	.80

Table 4.2 provides the Cronbach alpha for the subscales and the average inter-item correlation for the subscale. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient usually ranges between 0 and 1, however, there is no lower limit to the coefficient (Gliem & Gliem (2003). The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale, and it should also be noted that a high value for Cronbach's alpha indicates good internal consistency of the items in the scale, it does not mean that the scale is unidimensional (Shinga, 2015).

The reliability coefficients for the dimensions (autonomy, involvement, supervisory support, welfare, effort and performance feedback) used to measure organisational climate had reliability coefficient ranging from acceptable Cronbach's alpha .79 to high Cronbach's alpha .95 (see Table 4.2).

Furthermore, reliability analysis was performed for the job description index subscales (pay, promotion, the work-itself, and supervision) to measure the members' job satisfaction. The analysis produced significant reliability coefficients of .84 to .95. Subscales (time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based) used to measure members' work-family conflict produced significantly reliable coefficients of .95 to .96. The reliability coefficients for the dimension (commitment, challenge and control) used to measure military hardiness had significant reliability coefficient of .84 to .97. The average inter-item correlation for all the subscales was positive (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.3

Scales reliability coefficients results

Variable (Scale)	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Turnover Intention (TIQ)	.77
Organisational Climate (OCQ)	.80
Work-family conflict (WFCS)	.98
Hardiness (MHS)	.98
Job satisfaction	.23

In order to determine how well the instruments measured the research variables, further reliability analysis was performed. Table 4.3 the analysis yielded acceptable and significant Cronbach's alpha levels for the four measuring instruments (TIQ, OCQ, WFCS, and MHS) ranging from .77 to .98. Job satisfaction measuring instruments (JDI) yielded a low Cronbach alpha of .23. The Cronbach alpha for the primary scale of job satisfaction (.23) was influenced by its subscales (ranging from .84 to .95). A decision was made to keep all the results for further analysis. The job satisfaction scale is a formative measurement, which means that the subscales are influencing the primary scale.

The following is the discussion on formative and reflective measurement: In determining the formative and reflective measurement, the following theoretical considerations must be well-thought-out:

- Direction of causality between items and latent construct

  For reflective measurement, the direction of causality is from construct to items. Changes in the construct do cause changes in the indicators while changes in the indicator should not cause changes in the construct. For the formative measurement, the direction of causality is from items to construct Changes in the construct do not cause changes in the indicators while changes in the indicators should cause changes in the constructs (Jarvis, 2003; Coltman, 2008).

- Nature of constructs and indicators

  In reflective measurement, the indicators are manifestations of the construct, while in formative measurement the indicators are defining characteristics of the construct (Jarvis, 2003; Coltman, 2008).

- Characteristics of items used to measure constructs

  In reflective measurement indicators should be interchangeable, indicators should have the same or similar content, indicators should share a common theme, dropping an indicator should not alter the conceptual domain of the construct.

For formative measurement the indicators need not be interchangeable, the indicators have the same or similar content, indicators need not share a common theme, dropping an indicator may alter the conceptual domain of the construct (Jarvis, 2003; Coltman, 2008).

The formative measurement is described as the measure in which the subscales influence the primary scale. On the other side the reflective measurement is described as the measure in which the primary scale influences the subscales (Diamantapoulos & Siguawa, 2006). The job satisfaction scale in this study is a formative measurement hence a decision was made to keep all the results for further analysis except for job satisfaction.

4.4   INFERETIAL STATISTICS

Inferential statistics is the body of statistical computations relevant to making inferences from findings based on sample observations to some larger population (Babbie & Mouton, 2012). The objective of inferential statistics is to make inferences such as drawing conclusions, making predictions, and decisions about the characteristics of a population from information contained in a sample (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2008). Researchers can use inferential statistics to confirm or reject hypotheses (Field, 2009). In this study, inferential statistics that were performed are correlation analysis (Spearman correlation) to test the hypotheses (see par. 3.2).

4.4.1   Correlational analysis

According to Shinga (2015, p. 107) a correlational research strategy involves measuring two or more variables to describe the relationship between the variables. Correlation is the extent to which two variables tend to change together, and the coefficient describes both the strength and the direction of the relationship (Babbie & Mouton, 2012). A correlation of $\pm$1.00 shows a perfect and consistent relationship and a correlation of 0 indicates no consistency. A correlation of $\pm$.80 to $\pm$1.00 is referred to as a high correlation and acceptable, a correlation of $\pm$.60 to $\pm$.79 is referred to as moderately high and acceptable, a correlation of $\pm$.40 to $\pm$.59 is referred to as moderate, a correlation of $\pm$.20 to $\pm$.39 is referred to as low and any correlation below $\pm$.20 is disregarded (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011).

For the purpose of the current study, Spearman's correlation was applied, which measures the relationship between two variables when both are measured on ordinal scales by means of r.

Table 4.4

Spearman correlations between the variables of interest

From variable	To variable	Spearman r	P
Turnover intention	Organisational climate	-0.75	0.01
Turnover intention	Work-family conflict	0.74	0.01
Turnover intention	Hardiness	-0.75	0.01
Turnover intention	Job satisfaction	-0.55	0.01
Organisational climate	Work-family conflict	-0.75	0.01
Organisational climate	Hardiness	0.76	0.01
Organisational climate	Job satisfaction	0.5	0.01
Work-family conflict	Hardiness	-0.71	0.01
Work-family conflict	Job satisfaction	-0.5	0.01
Hardiness	Job satisfaction	0.53	0.01

The summary of the correlation results between the independent variables (organisational climate, job satisfaction, and work-family conflict), the moderating variable (hardiness) and the dependent variable (turnover intentions) is provided in table 4.4. The correlation results were used to provide answers for the stated empirical objectives (see par. 1.3.3). The objectives were to determine the relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict and turnover intentions in a sample of SAAG. Organisational climate, job satisfaction, and work-family conflict (independent variables) yielded significant results when correlated to turnover intentions (dependent variable); therefore, the objectives were confirmed. Below is the discussion on hypothesis testing:

H_1:   There is a significant relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention.

Figure 4.8 **Relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention**

Figure 4.8 shows a moderately high linear and significant negative correlation between organisational climate and turnover intention (r = -0.75; p=0.00). This means that as organisational climate increases, turnover intention decreases in the opposite direction. H1 was accepted.

H2:   There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Figure 4.9 **Relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention**

Figure 4.9 shows a moderate linear and significant negative correlation between organisational climate and turnover intention (r = -0.55; p=0.00). This means that as job satisfaction increases, turnover intention decreases in the opposite direction. H2 was accepted.

H3:   There is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention.

Figure 4.10 **Relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention**

Figure 4.10 shows a moderately high linear and significant positive correlation between work-family conflict and turnover intention (r = 0.74; p=0.00). This means that as work-family conflict increases, turnover intention increases in the same direction. H3 was accepted.

H4:   There is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction.
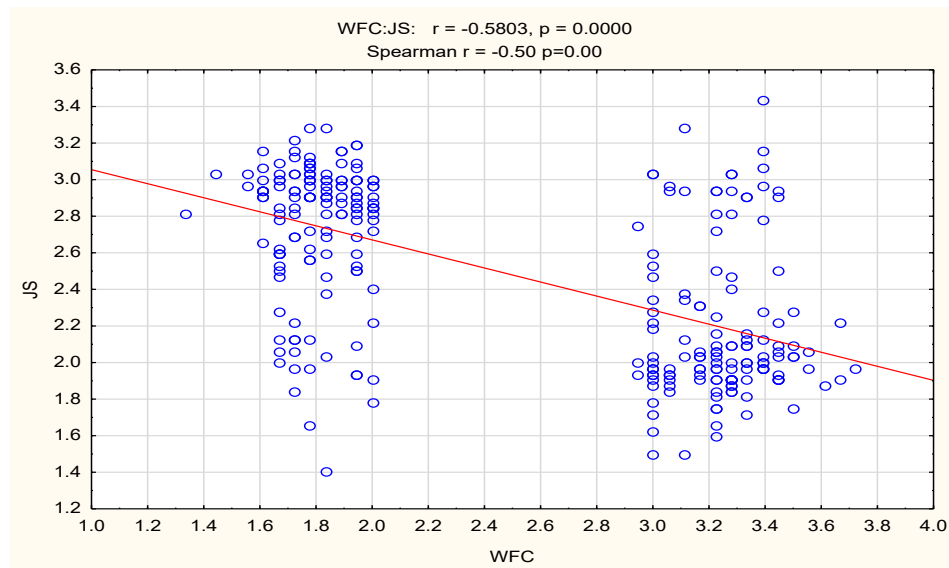
***Figure 4.11* Relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction**

Figure 4.11 shows a moderate linear and significant negative correlation between work-family conflict and job satisfaction ($r = -0.50$; $p=0.00$). This means that as job satisfaction increases, work-family conflict decreases in the opposite direction. H4 was accepted.

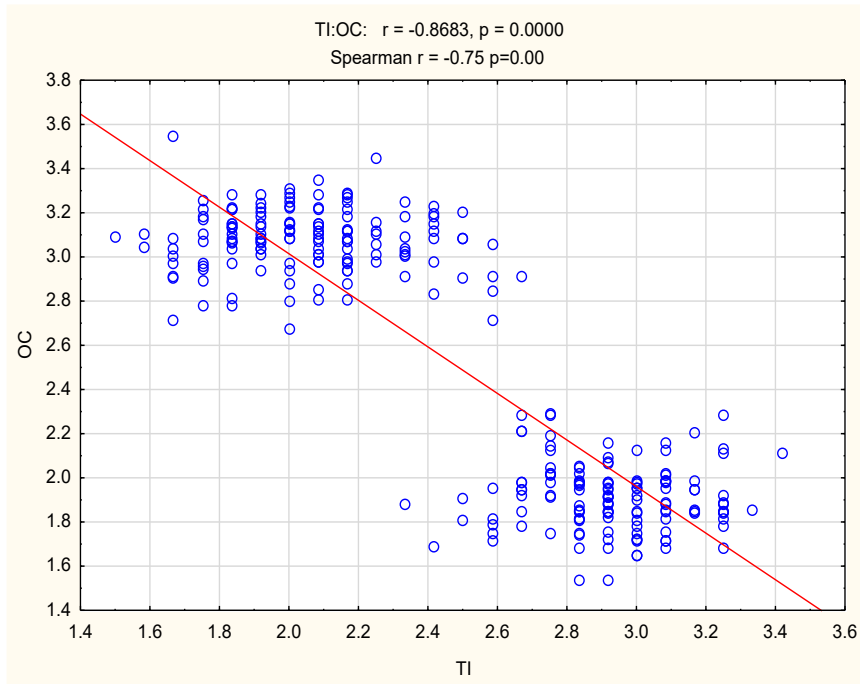H8:   There is a significant relationship between hardiness and turnover intention.

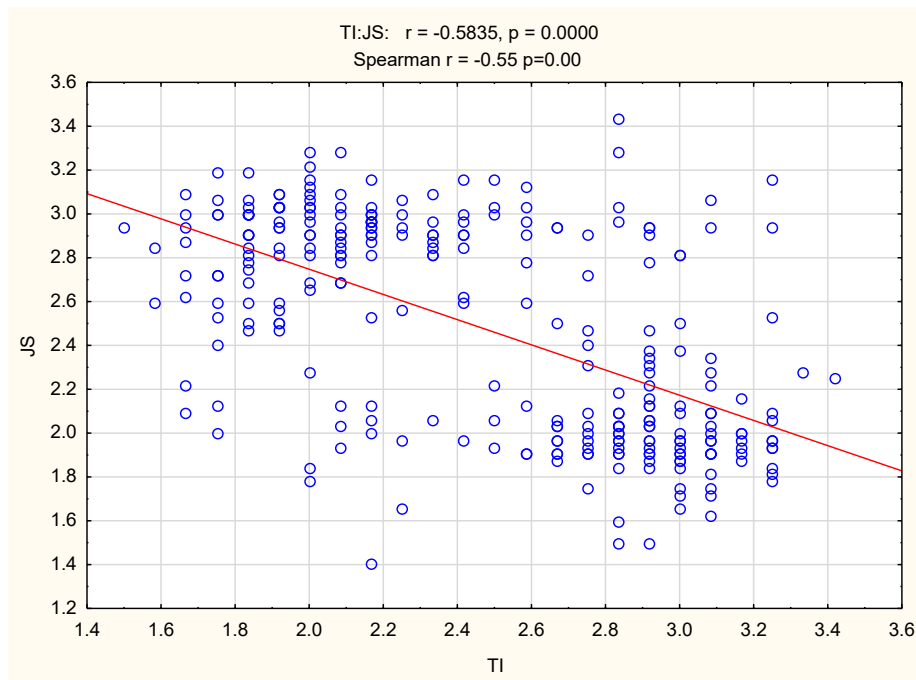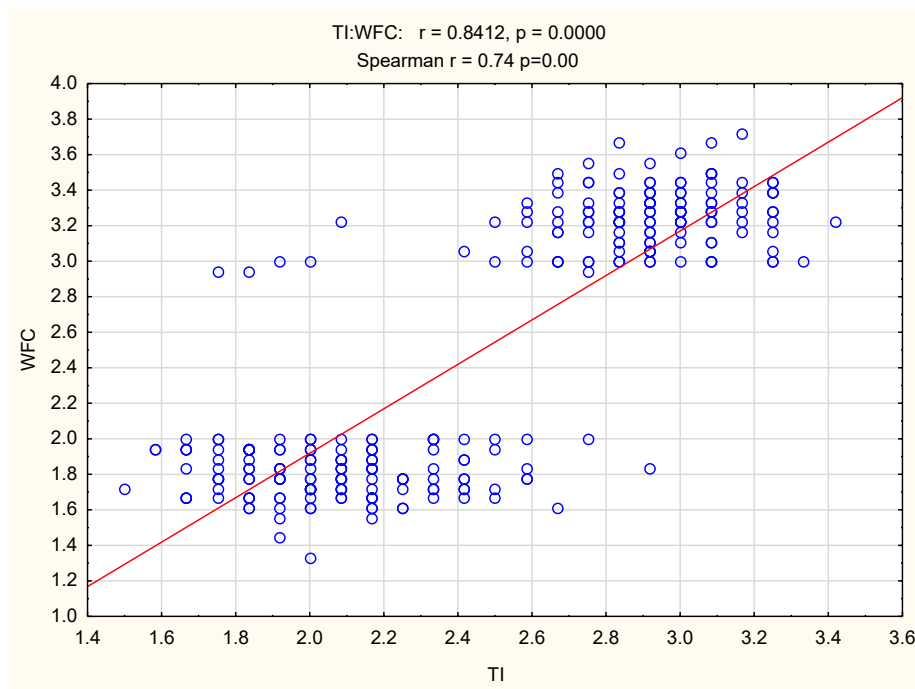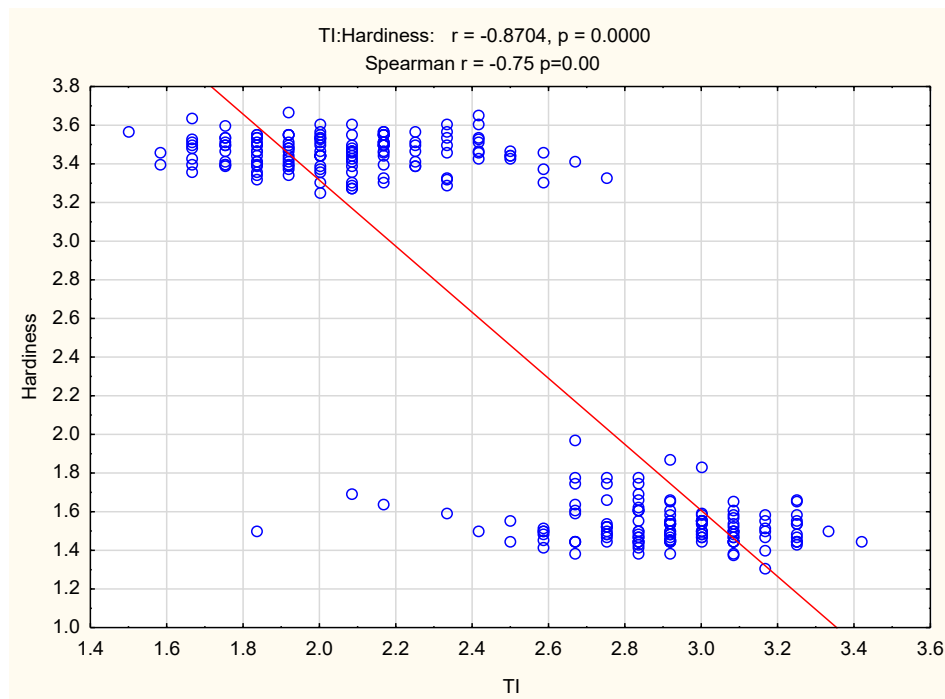***Figure 4.12* Relationship between hardiness and turnover intention**

Figure 4.12 shows a moderately high linear and significant negative correlation between hardiness and turnover intention (r = -0.75; p=0.00). This means that as hardiness increases, turnover intention decreases in the opposite direction. H8 was accepted.

4.5   PARTIAL LEAST SQUARE ANALYSIS (PLS)

PLS analysis was performed to test the relationship among variables (dependent and independent) and the moderating effect of hardiness as hypothesised (see Fig. 1.1). The research model analysis was performed using PLS. The PLS analysis performed followed two steps, (a) overview results of model reliability and validity (measurement model) and (b) structural model.

Composite reliability and average variance extracted were conducted to confirm the model's reliability and validity. A reliability coefficient of .70 or higher is preferred and for an exploratory research, .4 or higher is acceptable (Hulland, 1999). For validity, the validity coefficient should be .50 or higher Garson (2013). Wong (2013) describes partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM), as a statistical method that that enables the researcher to determine the reliability of measurement and the structural model. In order to measure the variance proportion explained by PLS components; the R-squared was calculated. The R-squared (or R-squared coefficient) explains the variance proportion explained by the PLS components (Sanchez, 2013).The PLS values can be from 0 (0 percent) to 100 (percent).

The higher the R-squared value the greater the model fit. R-squared indicates the amount of variance of the specified variable explained by the SEM model; hence, R-squares does not form part of the reliability analysis (Shinga, 2015). The results of PLS analysis are provided in table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Results overview of model

Variables	R-squared	Composite Reliability	AVE
Organisational climate		0.93	0.81
Hardiness		0.99	0.93
Work-family conflict		0.98	0.95
Turnover intention	0.85	0.85	0.48
Job satisfaction	0.77		

The R-squared results in Table 4.5 indicate that hardiness (r^2 = .85.) only explains 85 percent of variance to the SEM model fit and job satisfaction (r^2 = .77) explains about 77 percent of variance to the SEM model fit. From Table 4.5 it can be concluded that the composite reliability for all latent variables of the model ranging from .85 to .99 is above the preferred threshold of .70 (Field, 2009; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2008). From Table 4.5, the results also show that only three latent variables (organisational climate, hardiness and work-family conflict) have acceptable threshold of more than .5 for average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). Turnover intention (.48) did not meet the required threshold, however it was close enough. Based on the results presented in Table 4.5, the measurement model of organisational climate, hardiness scale, work-family conflict scale, and turnover intention scale could be considered acceptable as the reliability and validity analysis has been achieved. A test for discriminate validity was performed and indicated that discriminate validity was achieved and the latent exogenous variables were kept in the model. In the current study, job satisfaction composite reliability and AVE was not reported on because a decision was taken not conduct further analysis on the reliability and validity of job satisfaction scale (see par. 4.3).

After the reliability and validity overview of the model, the measurement and structural model were computed. Table 4.6 is a measurement model showing a descriptive composite of the variables' dimensions' reliability to determine the composite factor reliability coefficients of the constructs as summarised in Table 4.5. A discussion of the measurement (or outer) model is important in order to understand the measurement model in Table 4.6.

There are two main measurement options (Sanchez, 2013, p. 37). These are either the reflective mode (when the manifest variables are reflecting the latent variable) or the formative mode (when the manifest variables are forming the latent variable).

In the case of reflective indicators, the idea is to determine whether reflective indicators are measuring the same underlying latent variable; therefore, they are reflections of the construct. When the indicators are reflective of the latent variable, unidimensionality is implied (Sanchez, 2013; Shinga, 2015). Furthermore, when measuring formative indicators, researchers compare the outer weights of each indicator in order to determine which indicators contribute most effectively to the construct (Sanchez, 2013).

In the current study, job satisfaction is a formative measurement. Sanchez (2013) also warns researchers to be cautious not to misinterpret small values of weights as poor contributions and that the elimination of an indicator is only recommended when high multicollinearity occurs. In the current study, multicollinearity analysis was performed to test whether the independent variables (organisational climate, job satisfaction, and work-family conflict) were highly inter-correlated. According to Hair, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt (2014) a problematic multicollinearity exist when the variance inflation factor (VIF) are higher than 4.0, however any value above 10.0 is not acceptable. The results of this study yielded a problematic multicollinearity with values ranging from 1.4 to 16.1. Therefore, a decision was made to eliminate the organisational climate scale in order to improve multicollinearity. After eliminating the organisational climate scale, multicollinearity improved (ranging from 1.3 to 7.2).

Table 4.6

Measurement model

Path	Estimate	Bootstrap Lower	Bootstrap Upper	Significant
Organisational climate>autonomy	0.88	0.83	0.92	Yes
Organisational climate>effort	0.97	0.93	0.96	Yes
Organisational climate>involvement	-0.76	-0.82	0.69	Yes
Organisational climate>performance feedback	0.97	0.96	0.97	Yes
Organisational climate>supervisory support	0.9	0.86	0.93	Yes
Organisational climate>welfare	0.95	0.93	0.96	Yes
Hardiness>commitment	0.95	0.94	0.96	Yes
Hardiness>Challenge	0.97	0.96	0.97	Yes
Hardiness>Control	0.96	0.95	0.97	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 1	0.86	0.84	0.88	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 2	0.81	0.79	0.84	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 3	0.75	0.69	0.8	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 4	-0.71	-0.77	-0.65	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 5	0.68	0.59	0.75	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 6	0.63	0.54	0.7	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 7	0.76	0.69	0.81	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 8	0.74	0.69	0.8	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 9	0.5	0.4	0.59	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 10	0.57	0.48	0.65	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 11	0.78	0.73	0.83	Yes
Turnover Intention>Turnover intention 12	-0.29	-0.41	-0.16	Yes
Work-family conflict>Time-based	0.98	0.97	0.98	Yes
Work-family conflict> Strain-based	0.98	0.98	0.98	Yes
Work-family conflict> Behaviour-based	0.97	0.97	0.98	Yes

Table 4.6 indicates variables that were included in the measurement model and whether they were significant or not. Garson (2013) states that the measurement loadings represent the standardised path weights which connects the factors to the indicator variables. When the paths are larger and significant the measurement model is viewed as stronger and reliable (Hair et al., 2014). The value closer to 1.0 indicates that the latent variable was more reliable.

In order to obtain information about the variability of the parameter estimates, the bootstrapping technique was used (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). Bootstrapping is a non-parametric method for estimating PLS precision of the parameter estimates (Sanchez, 2013). The bootstrapping method helps improve model estimation in PLS (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). The PLS bootstrap percentile confidence interval was set at 95% level of confidence as stated by Hulland (1999). All these measures were conducted to ensure that reliable and valid construct measures were used for assessing the nature of relationships in the overall model.

As shown in table 4.6, organisational climate was composed of six dimensions; these dimensions were used as a manifest variable to measure the main latent variable in the model. The manifest variables (autonomy, effort, performance feedback supervisory support and welfare) had a significant coefficient level and high estimates ranging from .88 to .97, and involvement had a negative and significant level of -.76, the dimension was retained but flagged as problematic. Hardiness was composed of three dimensions (Control, commitment and challenge) these dimensions were used as manifest variables to measure the main latent variable in the model.

All the manifest variables had a significant coefficient level and high estimates ranging from .95 to .97.all the items of the latent variable turnover intention had significant items with high levels (see Table 4.6). However, turnover intention item 4 had a significant but negative estimate value of -0.71 and was flagged as problematic, and item 12 had a significant but a negative estimate value of -0.29 and it was flagged as problematic. Work-family conflict was composed of three dimensions which were used as manifest variables to measure the main latent variable in the model. All the manifest variables had a significant coefficient level and high estimates ranging from .97 to .98.

Table 4.7

Measurement model (Formative outer weights and loadings)

Path	Weights	Loadings
Job satisfaction>Pay	0.3	0.87
Job satisfaction>Promotion	-0.67	-0.97
Job satisfaction> Supervision	0.13	0.71
Job satisfaction>The work itself	0.01	0.68

Table 4.7 shows the analysis of the formative measurement. Table 4.7 compares the outer weights of each indicator of job satisfaction in order to determine which indicators contribute most effectively to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction indicators: pay had a significant level of 0.3 and loadings of 0.87, promotion had a significant but negative estimate value of 0.67 with loadings of -0.97, supervision had a significant level of 0.13 with loadings of 0.71, and the work itself had a low value of 0.01, however the loadings of 0.68 are significant (see Table 4.7).

After reliability and validity analysis of the overall measurement model the PLS was used to estimate the structural model. PLS bootstrap percentile, path coefficients significance across latent variables and the estimate value were analysed. These measures were taken so as to test the significance of coefficients for the purpose of determining whether the proposed model of turnover intention (see Fig 1.1) was established and the moderating effect of hardiness. The path coefficient estimate values were used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables. The following results were found (see Table 4.8, Fig 4.13 and Fig. 4.14):

Table 4.8

Structural model

Path	Estim-ate	Bootstrap Lower	Bootstrap Upper	Signifi-cant
Hardiness>turnover intention	-0.54	-0.75	-0.39	yes
Job satisfaction _hardiness> turnover intention	-0.05	-0.07	0.19	no
Job satisfaction > turnover intention	-0.14	-0.27	0	yes
Work-family conflict _hardiness> turnover intention	-0.14	-0.27	0.02	yes
Work-family conflict> job satisfaction	-0.88	-0.92	-0.84	Yes
Work-family conflict> turnover intentions	0.26	0.12	0.39	yes
Organisational climate>turnover intention	-0.43	-0.67	-0.42	Yes
Organisational climate _hardiness>turnover intention	-0.02	-0.22	0.19	No

Table 4.8 shows various relationships and directions between variables. The structural model results will be reported through a combination of Table 4.8 and Figure 4.13 and Figure 4.14. The path from organisational climate to turnover intention negative and significant at an estimate of -0.43(see Fig 4.13), H1 (there is a significant relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention) was established and therefore accepted.

A decision was therefore made to eliminate organisational climate scale to improve the problem of multicollinearity. Structural model without organisational climate scale was then computed (see Fig 4.14).

Figure 4.13 **Structural model results (prior eliminating organisational climate scale)**

The path from job satisfaction to turnover intention was negative and significant at an estimate of -0.14 (see Fig 4.14), H2 (there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention) was established and therefore accepted. The path from work-family conflict to turnover intention was positive and significant at an estimate of 0.26 (see Fig 4.14), H3 (There is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention.) was established and therefore accepted. The path from work-family conflict to job satisfaction was negative and significant at an estimate of -0.88 (see Fig 4.14), H4 (There is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction) was established and therefore accepted.
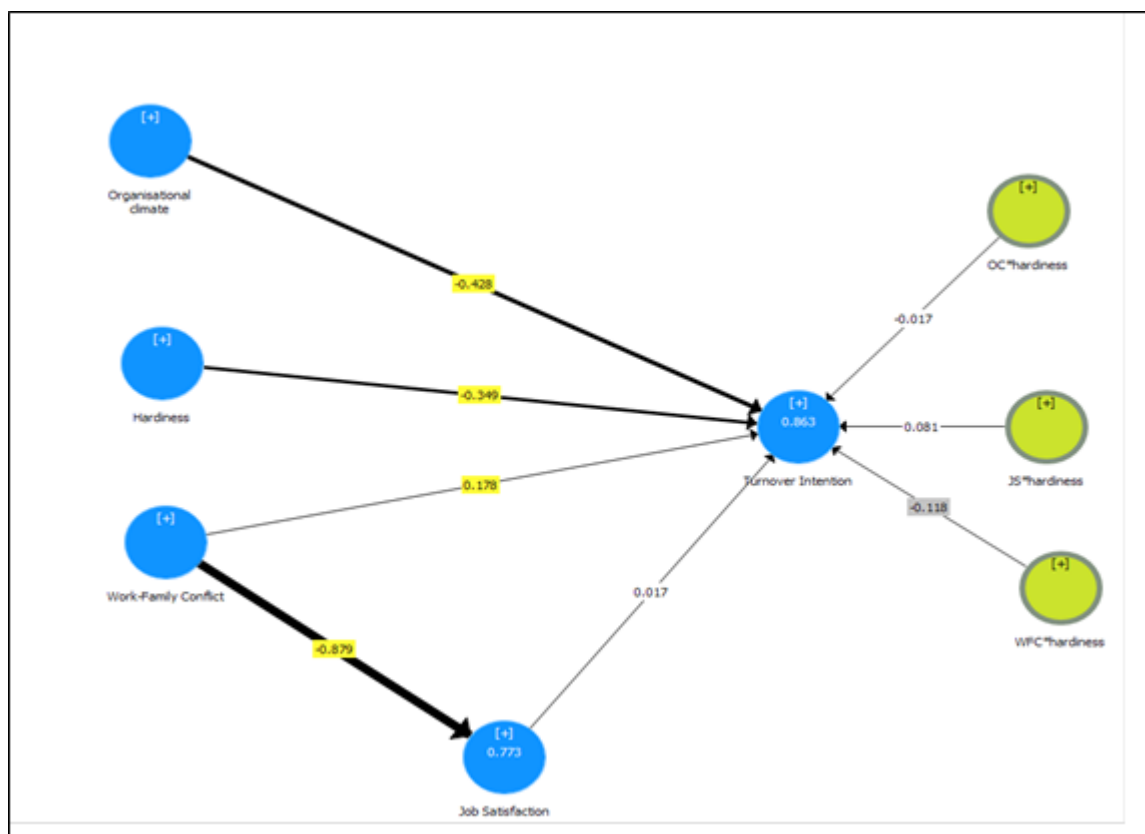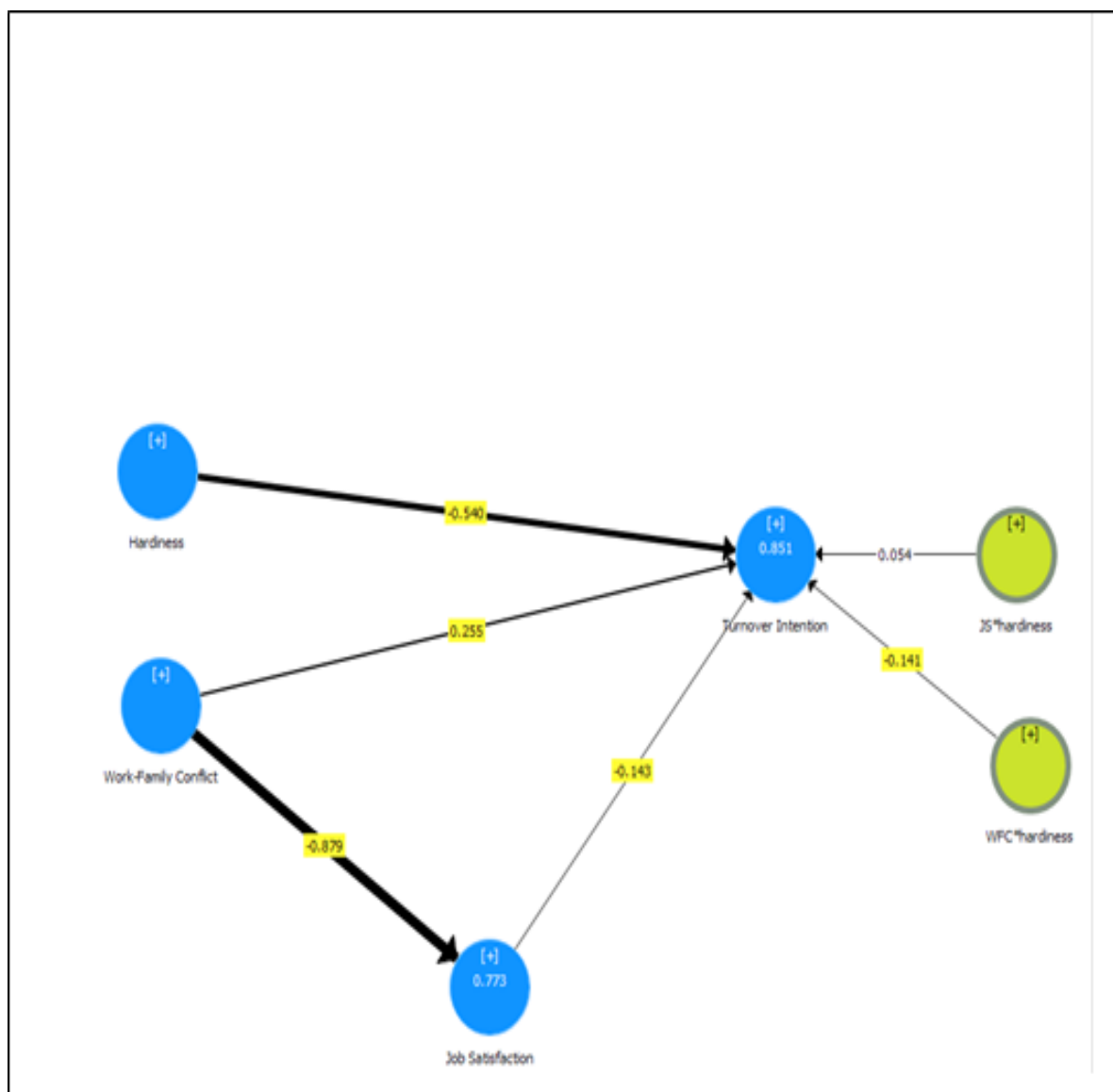
Figure 4.14 **Structural model results (after eliminating organisational climate scale)**

The path from hardiness to turnover intention was negative and significant at an estimate of -0.54 (see Fig 4.14), H8 (there is a significant relationship between hardiness and turnover intention) was established and therefore accepted.

Table 4.9

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
Organisational climate	Hardiness	Turnover intention	-0.49	0.78	0.78	0	2.24	0.14
Job satisfaction	Hardiness	Turnover intention	-0.83	0.76	0.76	0	0.81	0.37
Work-family conflict	Hardiness	Turnover intention	-0.61	0.79	0.78	-0.01	15.1	0

The moderating effect of turnover intention among the exogenous and endogenous variable was tested. The results in Table 4.9 show that the moderating path (organisational climate_ hardiness_ turnover intention) between organisational climate and turnover intention was not significant (p=0.14), thus H5 (hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention). The moderating path (job satisfaction_ hardiness_ turnover intention) between job satisfaction and turnover intention was not significant (p=0.37), thus H6 (hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention) was rejected. The moderating path (work-family conflict_ hardiness_ turnover intention) between work-family conflict and turnover intentions was significant (p=0.), which suggested that there might be a moderation effect, thus H7 (hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention) was accepted. Figure 4.15 illustrates the moderating effect of hardiness on work-family conflict and turnover intention by indicating that when hardiness is high, turnover intention and work-family conflict are moderated.
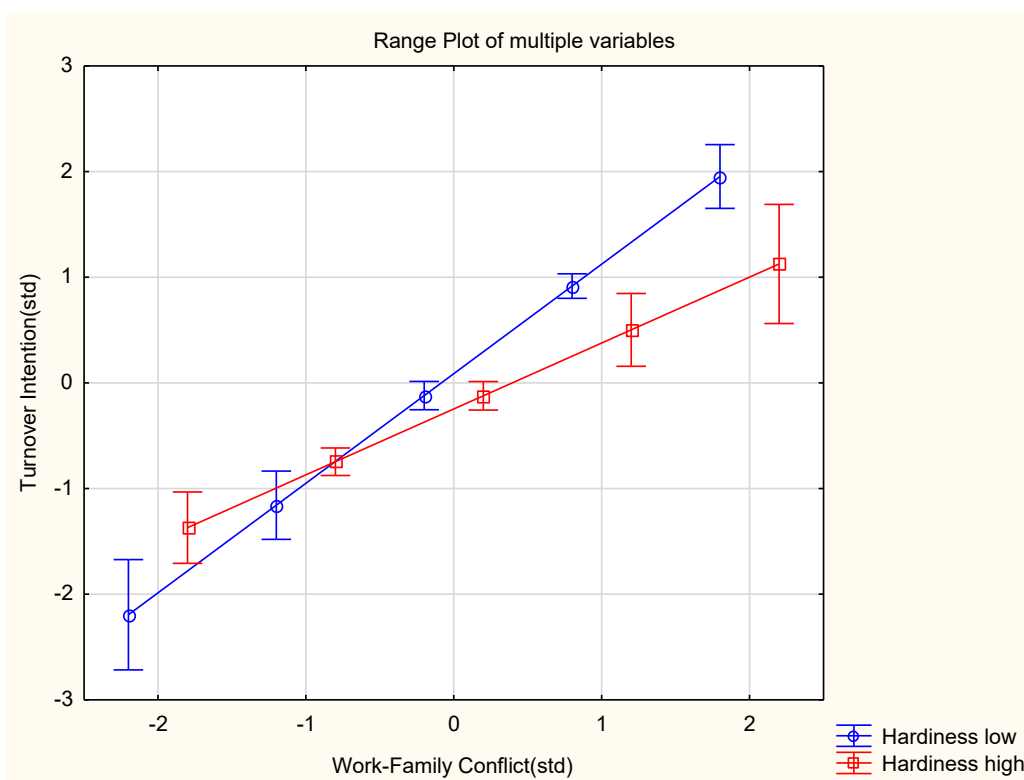
Figure 4.15 **Regression of turnover intention on work-family conflict**

4.6   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The purpose of the chapter was to present the results obtained from various statistical analysis. In presenting the results, descriptive statistics and measure of central tendency were included. Reliability analysis for four variables of interest (turnover intention, work-family conflict, hardiness, and organisational climate) was significant. The reliability coefficient for the primary sale of job satisfaction was insignificant. However, the subscales of job satisfaction correlations were performed using spearman correlation coefficient. Correlation analyses yielded mixed results. Both positive and negative correlations were found among variables of interest that were used to test the hypotheses of the study. Most of the correlation results were significant and H1, H2, H3, H4, and H8 were accepted.

Further analyses was conducted through the PLS to test the relationship among the variables of interest and to test the properties of the proposed model of turnover intention (see Fig 1.1). Multicollinearity was performed and the result yielded a problematic multicollinearity. A decision was made to eliminate the organisational climate scale in order to improve the multicollinearity. In order to determine the reliability of the model constructs, further analyses was performed. The reliability and validity of results for the overall measurement model were above the preferred threshold for the composite reliability and AVE. Job satisfaction outer weight model was presented to determine which of the job satisfaction indicators contribute most effectively to job satisfaction. Pay, supervision and the work itself indicators were significant and promotion indicator was negative with high loadings.

The result further yielded that work-family conflict has direct and significant influence on turnover intention, work-family conflict has a negative and significant influence on turnover intention. Job satisfaction has a negative and significant influence on turnover intention. Hardiness has a negative and significant influence on turnover intentions, hardiness also moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. However, hardiness did not moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention. Furthermore, hardiness did not moderate the relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention. H5 and H6 were rejected and H7 was accepted.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of a discussion of the results that were presented in Chapter 4. Firstly, descriptive statistics, in the form of means, standard deviations as well as the minimum and maximum values will be discussed. Secondly, a discussion of the inferential statistics in the form of correlation coefficient value, and lastly PLS analysis results (measurement and structural model) will be discussed.

5.2   DISCUSSION OF MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY

The mean of 2.46 (see Table 4.1) was found for turnover intention which represented the perception held by members of SAAG towards their experience of turnover intention. Such a mean value means that members of SAAG experienced moderate level of turnover intention. A low standard deviation of .49 associated with turnover intention was observed. This indicates that there were slight disagreements in terms of turnover intention, meaning that the majority experienced moderate levels of turnover intention. This is supported by maximum of 3.41 which means that the majority of members of SAAG experienced moderate turnover intentions and a minimum of 1.5 which means that only few participants disagreed with the moderate experience of turnover intentions. Turnover intention experienced by members of SAAG was moderate. The moderate experience of turnover intention corresponds with the results found in the study by Mahdi, Zin, Nor, Sakat, and Naim (2012) that when employees view their jobs as interesting, challenging and gratifying, providing opportunities for autonomy, self-direction and the use of multiple skills and abilities, they are likely to experience a positive emotional state, which in turn, lead them to feel committed to their jobs and organization. For this reason, their intention to leave the current institution will be reduced. This indicates the need for SAAG to create the programs that will assist in creating positive emotions and/or environment employees to increase their intention to remain with the organisation.

The mean of 2.52 (see Table 4.1) was found for organisational climate which represented the perception held by members of SAAG towards the organisational climate. Such a mean value means that members of SAAG had a moderate level of perception towards the organisational climate. A low standard deviation of .60 associated with organisational climate was observed. This indicates that there were slight disagreements in terms of organisational climate, meaning that the majority had a moderate perception of the organisational climate. This is supported by maximum of 3.55 which means that the majority of members of SAAG experienced moderate organisational climate and a minimum of 1.54 which means that only few participants differ with the moderate experience of organisational climate. Participant's perception of organisational climate was moderate.

These results are similar with the notion of Karim (2010) who is of the opinion that employees who have autonomy and freedom about how and when to do the work, could feel a sense of responsibility for their tasks and activities. This would activate a sense of attachment to management and to one's work environment that in turn could reduce employee's desire to leave the organisation (Karim, 2010). Liu (2011) showed that autonomy orientation and autonomy support establish psychological empowerment and in turn reduces turnover and increase intention to stay. An employee who has high job involvement will consider his job as big part of his identity. If one have autonomy in his/her work certainly he/she will be loyal to his work and organisation.

Because supervisors have more frequent contact with employees, as compared to sinior management, they are able to more readily convey positive valuations of caring to employees (Eisenberger, Stinlhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski & Rhoades, 2002). Supervisor support is an important organisational factor that indirectly affects the intention to remain employed. Welfare on the other side helps keeping the moral and motivation of employees high so as retain the employees for longer duration (Lalitlha & Priyanka, 2014). Agrusa and Lema (2007) also found that employees who perform to the best of their ability and put more effort in their work are less likely to leave their organisation. Study by Robbins (2008) found that positive feedback on good performance is a strong motivator and staff members are likely to accept and respond to constructive criticism.

Coetzee and Schreuder (2010) indicate that giving employee's valuable feedback on time, providing feedback help booster employee positive attitude towards the organisation and help prevent early intentions of leaving the organisation. Organisational climate factors affect the employees' attitude, such as turnover intention, towards the organisation. These results indicate a need for SAAG to create an organisational climate that provides members with autonomy, supervisory support, performance feedback, involve their employees in decision making and look after the welfare of its members.

The mean of 2.47 (see Table 4.1) was found for job satisfaction which represented the perception held by members of SAAG towards their experience of job satisfaction. Such a mean value means that members of SAAG experienced moderate level of job satisfaction. A low standard deviation of .48 associated with job satisfaction was observed. This indicates that there were slight differences in terms of job satisfaction, meaning that the majority of participants experienced moderate levels of job satisfaction. This is supported by maximum of 3.43 which means that the majority of members of SAAG experienced moderate levels of job satisfaction and a minimum of 1.40 which means that only few participants differ with the moderate level of experience towards job satisfaction. Job satisfaction experienced by participants was moderate.

The results are similar with the notion past research that it has been found that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Moore (2002) states that job satisfaction is one of the factors that contribute to people's intention to quit their jobs. Masri (2009) further states that job satisfaction is related to an individual reaction of the work environment. Previous research also points out that literature review on job satisfaction and turnover intentions shows that an individual who experience relatively low job satisfaction has an intention to change their job (Masri, 2009). When the employees are not satisfied with their jobs their intention towards turnover will be greater, they will leave the organization and the duration of their job will be smaller (Jeffrey, 2007).

These results indicate a need for SAAG to create programs that can help raise the level of job satisfaction of their members to minimise turnover intentions of its members taking into consideration the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision and the work itself).

The mean of 2.50 (see Table 4.1) was found for work-family conflict which represented the perception held by members of SAAG towards their experience of work-family conflict. Such a mean value means that members of SAAG experienced moderate level of work-family conflict. A low standard deviation of .49 associated with turnover intention was observed. This indicates that there were slight differences in terms of work-family conflict, meaning that the majority experienced moderate levels of work-family conflict. This is supported by maximum of 3.72 which means that the majority of members of SAAG experienced moderate turnover intentions and a minimum of 1.33 which means that only few participants differ with the moderate experience of work-family conflict. The work-family conflict experienced by members of SAAG was moderate.

The results are similar with the notion of (Deery, 2008) that there is a consensus in the literature regarding the way work-family conflict considerations affect turnover intention. An increase in workplace flexibility will reduce work-family conflict resulting in a reduction in employee turnover intention. Work-family conflict could cause employees to quit their job because the tasks and stress that accumulates in the workplace leads not only to frustration in the workplace, but also at home in the family domain (Deery, 2008). The emotions felt in the workplace are felt at home as employees find it hard (a) to zone out while not at work and, (b) change their behaviours and feelings in the short period of time between the two locations (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Furthermore, employees find it hard to forget about the work that needs to be done in the workplace while they are in the home environment. These results indicate a need for SAAG to adopt friendly work family policies to reduce turnover intentions.

The mean of 2.51 (see Table 4.1) was found for military hardiness which represented the perception held by members of SAAG towards their hardiness level. Such a mean value means that members of SAAG perceived a moderate level of hardiness. A low standard deviation of .97 associated with hardiness was observed.

This indicates that there were slight disagreements in terms of participant's hardiness level, meaning that the majority perceived as having a moderate levels of hardiness.

This is supported by maximum of 3.66 which means that the majority of members of SAAG perceived themselves as having a moderate level of hardiness and minimum of 1.30 which means that only few participants disagreed with the moderate experience of hardiness. Hardiness experienced by members of SAAG was moderate. This could be interpreted to imply that most participants had a moderate sense of control, challenge and commitment (Shinga, 2015).

The results are similar with the notion of the past by Johnson et al. (2017) that there are certain individuals that are tolerant and endure negative work environment in the military. Such individuals can be said to be hardy or possess the characteristics of a hardy individual. It can be further argued that such employees would not intent to leave their jobs either, as they are hardy to negative and stressful employment conditions. Those that do not possess characteristics of hardiness they are more likely to leave their work when the working conditions (such as organisational climate, job satisfaction and work-family conflict) are negative (Johnsen et al., 2017). According to Kardum et al. (2012) employees high on hardiness perceive their job in a better light, are more committed to their organisations and have more responsible work behaviours, as opposed to those who are low on hardiness. These results indicate that there is a need for SAAG to develop programs that can assist their members maximise their hardiness.

5.3   DISCUSSION OF CORRELATION RESULTS

The purpose of the present study was to explore which factors influence turnover intention, the relationship amongst these factors and how hardiness moderates 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 Relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention

H1, stating that there is a significant relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention (r= -0.75; p=0.00) (see Fig 4.8), was accepted. The results indicate a moderately high and significant negative correlation and were acceptable in accordance with the set criteria (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011).

These results are in agreement with previous research by Subramanian and Shin (2013) who found a statistically significant negative relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention. These results are also in line with the findings by researchers who reported that positive organisational climate creates positive work attitude and behaviour (Subramaniam, 2005; Donoghue, 2010). Subramanian and Shin (2013) further state that employees are more satisfied working in the positive work environment and therefore less likely to leave their organisation. The results point a need for SAAG to improve its organisational climate, especially the dimensions pertaining autonomy, employee involvement, welfare, effort, supervisory support and performance feedback. If any of these dimensions are perceived negative, it may trigger employees' intention to leave the organisation (Subramanian & Shin, 2013).

5.3.2 Relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention

H2, stating that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention (r= -0.55; p=0.00) (see Fig 4.9), was accepted. The results indicate a moderate and significant negative correlation and were acceptable in accordance with the set criteria (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). These results are in line with the findings by researchers that there is a negative and significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Saeed, Waseem, Sikander, & Rizwan, 2014).

Job satisfaction is negatively related with the turnover intention of employees. Employees often think to leave their job; they often make comparison of their current job with the others and evaluate the alternatives which they can get by leaving their recent job (Blau, 1987; Saeed et al., 2014).

According to Saeed et al. (2014) job satisfaction has a significantly negative association with turnover intention on consistent basis. Study by Saeed et al. (2014) proved that there is negative relationship between the job satisfaction and turnover intention. When the job satisfaction is greater the turnover intention will be lesser and vice versa.

Higher difference between expected benefits and actual benefits will result in higher turnover intention. This results calls for SAAG to minimize this difference to make their employees more satisfied to reduce their turnover intention. When the employees are more satisfied they retain their entity but if they are not satisfied they leave the organization (Saeed et al., 2014).

5.3.3   Relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention

H3, stating that there is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention (r= 0.74; p=0.00) (see Fig 4.10), was accepted. The results indicate moderately high and significant positive correlation and were acceptable in accordance with the set criteria (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). These results are in line with the findings by past researchers that there is a positive and significant relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention (Byron, 2005; Asghar, Gull, Bashr & Akbar, 2018). Hammig and Bauer (2009) suggested that individuals who experienced work-family conflict have been found to incur increased health risks, inadequate performance in family roles (e.g., marital partner and parent), reduced family and life satisfaction, and poor marital adjustment.

It is evident that exposures to work stressors are likely to lead to higher levels of work-family conflict (Hammig & Bauer, 2009). In most cases, jobs that have unpredictable scheduling requirements are associated with work-family conflict. Once the conflict from the workplace enters the home, the employee is encouraged to leave their job in search of a job that is more suited to their family simply because their family domain is more important to them (Asghar et all., 2018). Meijman and Mulder (1998) suggesting that working overtime is an important predictor of negative work home interference.

Byron (2005) further suggested that time-related conditions such as long work hours, schedule inflexibility, shift work requirements, and overtime/evening duties are consistently related to work family conflict. Hence, we could argue that an increase in workplace flexibility will reduce work-family conflict resulting in a reduction in employee turnover intention.

The findings imply that commanders of SAAG can significantly reduce turnover intention among their members by adopting work-family support programs that increase the feeling that the organization values staff contributions and cares about their well-being.

5.3.4   Relationship between job satisfaction and work-family conflict

H4, stating that there is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction (r= -0.50; p=0.00) (see Fig 4.11), was accepted. The results indicate moderate and significant negative correlation and were acceptable in accordance with the set criteria (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011).

These results are in line with the findings by past research that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and work-family conflict. Research has shown that being satisfied with work, family and life does not lead to thoughts of quitting (Greenhaus, & Powell, 2003). Employees who experience high level of work-family conflict have lower level of job satisfaction. When work causes difficulties in fulfilling family responsibilities, the individual gets lower satisfaction from work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). These results indicates a need for commanders of SAAG to adopt policies that promote employees job satisfaction (specifically to the dimensions of job satisfactions mentioned in the current study) and also the programs that foster work-family support.

5.3.5   Relationship between hardiness and turnover intention

H8, stating that there is a significant relationship between hardiness and turnover intention (r= -0.75; p=0.00), was accepted. The results indicate moderate and significant negative correlation and were acceptable in accordance with the set criteria (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). These results are in line with the findings by past research that there is a significant relationship between hardiness and turnover intention (Cash, 2009).

Kardum et al. (2012) further state that employees high on hardiness perceive their job in a better light, are more committed to their organisations have more responsible work behaviours, as opposed to those who are low on hardiness. Cash (2009) also support the results of the current study by indicating that the higher a person's level of hardiness, the lower the intention to leave the organisation.

These results points to a need for commanders of SAAG to develop programs and/or policies that can help enhance the hardiness level of its members in order to minimise the members' intention to quit. Shinga (2015) also found that hardiness enables the soldier to cope with challenges inherent in the relationship with his/her unit and to endure the physical and emotional strain embedded in the military activities to reach the required standard.

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 quality of the measurement model was tested through setting the parameter estimates by means of using the bootstrap technique with intervals set at the 95 percent level (Medeiros et al., 2007). The bootstrap method also allows for the testing and estimation of path coefficient and estimate levels. The measures included in the measurement model ensured the determination of valid and reliable constructs for the overall model. Positive and significant results were obtained for the dimensions of the different constructs.

Turnover intention consisted of only one dimension, namely turnover intention. Therefore it was tested through its items. Positive and negative results were found for turnover intention. Item 4 of turnover intention was found to have a negative but significant estimate value of -. 71 in comparison to other items of the scale. Item 12 of turnover intention was found to have a negative but significant estimate vale of - .29 (see Table 4.6).

Both items, 4 and 12 of turnover intention, were retained but flagged as problematic. All other items in the scale had a positive and significant coefficient level with relatively high estimate values ranging from .5 to .86. Based on the validity and reliability of the remaining ten items, turnover intention was confirmed to be valid and reliable construct.

Organisational climate consisted of six dimensions. Positive and negative results were found for dimensions measuring organisational climate (see Table 4.6). Out of the six dimensions measuring organisational climate, one dimension (involvement) had a negative but significant estimate value of -0.76, the dimension was retained but flagged as problematic. All other dimensions had positive and significant coefficient level as well as high estimate values ranging from .88 to .97. Based on the validity and reliability of the five remaining dimensions, organisational climate was confirmed to be a valid and reliable construct.

Hardiness consisted of three dimensions. Positive and significant coefficient level with high estimate values ranging from .95 to .97 (see Table 4.6) were found for all three dimensions measuring hardiness. Therefore, the reliability and validity were confirmed and accepted for the construct. Work-family consisted of three dimensions. Positive and significant coefficient level as well as high estimate values ranging from .97 to .98 (see Table 4.6) were found for all the three dimension measuring work-family conflict. Based on the reliability and validity of the dimensions measuring work-family conflict, it was confirmed that work-family conflict is valid and reliable construct. Job satisfaction consisted of four dimensions. Positive and negative significant results were found. Promotion was found to have negative but significant loadings -.79 (see table 4.7). All other dimensions had factor loadings ranging from .68 to .87 which were all valid and reliable.

5.4.2 Structural model analysis

The interaction between variables of interest was tested using the PLS structural model analysis. The structural model analysis was computed in order to determine the relationship and influence of the exogenous variables on the endogenous variables.

The bootstrap confidence level of 95% was used to determine the significance of the various path coefficients. The model indicated that five paths were statistically significant (see Table 4.8).

The path coefficient results confirmed that hardiness had a direct effect on turnover intention; such results indicate the positive nature of hardiness in the work environment when assessing employees' turnover intention. The path coefficient results confirmed that job satisfaction had a direct effect on turnover intention; such results indicate the importance of job satisfaction in assessing the employees' turnover intention. The path coefficient results confirmed that work-family conflict had a direct effect on job satisfaction. Furthermore the path coefficient results confirmed that work-family conflict had a direct effect on turnover intention, such results highlight the positive nature work-family conflict in determining employees' turnover intention. The path coefficient results confirmed that organisational climate had a direct effect on turnover intention; such results highlight the positive nature of organisational climate in assessing the employees' intention to quit.

However, conclusion cannot be made with regard to the results of organisational climate due to the problem of multicollinearity that was found when organisational climate was included in the model.

Further analysis was performed to test the moderating effect of hardiness on the exogenous and endogenous variables. Based on the results of the moderation test, H5, stating that hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention was rejected (see table 4.9). Various studies showed that hardiness has moderating effect on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, turnover intentions and other organisational outcomes (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982; Lo Bue, 2015; Carol & Adler, 2006). However, the current study could not achieve the moderating effect of hardiness on the relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention.

This can be drawn back to the moderate level of organisational climate and turnover intention experienced by participants (see Fig 4.1) and they may not perceive such levels to be significant to their hardiness level.

However, conclusion cannot be reached on the results of organisational climate due the problematic multicollinearity that was shown when the organisational climate was included in the model. H6, stating that hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention was rejected (see table 4.9).

Various studies showed that hardiness has moderating effect various organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover intention, commitment and other outcomes (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982; Lo Bue, 2015; Carol & Adler, 2006). However, the current study could not achieve the moderating effect of hardiness on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. This can be drawn back to the moderate level of job satisfaction and turnover intention experienced by participants (see Fig 4.1) and they may not perceive such levels to be significant to their hardiness level.

H7, stating that hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention was accepted (see Table 4.9). This results indicate the importance of hardiness as a moderating variable when assessing the relationship between organisational outcomes, particularly between work-family conflict and turnover intention. The results of this study are also in line with the results of previous studies that when work interferes with completing family obligations causing work-family conflict, then quitting the job for employees that score low on hardiness may work to eliminate the occurrence of work interfering with family (Ahmad, 2008).

5.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter focused on discussing the results of the data analysis that was presented in chapter four. The chapter started with the discussion on the measures of central tendency (mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum), followed by the discussion of correlation results and ended with the discussion on PLS which included both measurement model and structural model. Positive and negative correlations that were found from the results were discussed, as well as the results of the moderating effect of hardiness on the relationship between dependent and independent variables.

Of the eight hypothesis of the study, six hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4, H7 and H8) were established and accepted. Some of the results found in the study were in agreement with the results of previous research, while other results were contradictory and possible reasons were given.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1   CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this study was to explore the factors that influence turnover intention among members of the SAAG, and the moderating effect of hardiness on the relationship between these factors was also explored. The study can aid the commanders of the SAAG to come up with effective strategies for preventing or minimising the turnover intention of members of SAAG. Literature review has emphasised the importance of organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, turnover intention and hardiness (see Ch. 2). The main objective of the study was to explore the factors that influence turnover intention among members of SAAG and to explore the moderating effect on the relationship between the independent and dependant variable. The theoretical objectives were provided (see Par. 1.3.2) to aid in exploring the variables of the study. The empirical objective was to scientifically test the theorised relationship among variables of the study (see fig 1.1).

The significance of the study was seen through the empirical results that were discovered. The study contributed in exploring the factors that influence turnover intention among members of SAAG and moderating effect of hardiness on the relationship between the factors influencing turnover intention. The study shed some light to the commanders of SAAG on what can be done in order to prevent or minimise turnover intention of their members. The study also highlighted the importance of hardiness in moderating the factors that influence turnover intention. The literature gap identified in literature on whether or not there is a relationship between organisational climate, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, turnover intention and hardiness drove the exploration of factors that influence turnover intention of members of SAAG.

Data was collected from 280 members of the SAAG using previously developed questionnaires that are valid and reliable. The results showed that there is a negative and significant relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention. Negative and significant relationship was also found between job satisfaction and turnover intention. A positive and significant relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention was found. The results of the study further showed that there is a negative and significant relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention. Positive and significant relationship was found on the relationship between hardiness and turnover intention. The results were in agreement with the results found in the previous studies.

PLS results revealed that there is no moderating effect found in the path organisational climate _hardiness_ turnover intention. The researcher cannot confidently confirm this results as problematic multicolinearity was found when organisational climate was included when testing the model. PLS results further showed that there is no mediating effect of hardiness for the path job satisfaction _hardiness_ turnover intention. The results showed that there is a moderating effect of hardiness on the path work-family conflict _hardiness _ turnover intention. Only two hypotheses, H5 and H6, were rejected.

6.2   LIMITATIONS

When engaging in exploratory study, the researcher must automatically expect limitations. The results of this study must be read in conjunction with the following limitations: Exploratory research can only investigate the relationship between the variables of interest and cannot investigate causality. The researcher cannot confidently conclude that relationship exist between the variables of interest due to the unknown extraneous variables that may could not be observed, which may have affected the results.

The majority of the participants were females and the minority were males (see Fig 4.1), which may lead to the results being seen as representing the turnover intention of the female members of the SAAG. In addition to the above statement, the sample size consisted of 280 participants and the results cannot be generalised to the population of the study. The majority of participants were from the support sections which could be seen as the representing the turnover intention of the female members of the support section of SAAG (see Fig 4.6).

The data collection instrument used in the study was a self-report; therefore one can expect the presence of response bias which might influence the results of the study. The items of the questionnaires used in the study were phrased in English and this can influence the results as the majority of participants were the majority participants were Africans and Zulu speaking (see Fig 4.3 and Fig 4.4). Problematic multicolinearity was found in the study which makes it difficult for the researcher to comment on the results of organisational climate since multicolinearity improved after eliminating organisational climate scale from the structural model.

6.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

It is evident from previous research that there are lot of factors that can influence employees' intention to quit (Subramaniam, 20005; Donoghue, 2010). In order to broaden the understanding of which factors can influence turnover intention, it is important to research other factors which factors could possibly influence employees' turnover intention of members of SAAG and how hardiness pay a role in relation to turnover intention and other factors. This can help the commanders of SAAG to understand what factors contribute to turnover intention and they can use such knowledge to minimise or prevent turnover intention of its members.

It is further recommended that similar research be conducted with the same sample size but equal numbers for both males and females in order to reduce the concern yielded by the results of the study which can be explained as the female perception of turnover intention. Another similar study can be conducted with equal number of participants from both the support and training section in order to reduce the concern yielded by the results of the study which can be explained as the support members' perception of turnover intention.

Based on the results of the study, job satisfaction measure was found to be a formative measure as opposed to other measures used to measure other variables of the study which were reflective measures. Future research could examine the cause of such results. It is also recommended that for future research, it should be investigated as to why promotion subscale was significant but negative in relation to other subscales of job satisfaction.

Previous research found that hardiness has a moderating effect on the relationship between various organisational outcomes (Lo Bue, 2015; Carol & Adler, 2006). The current study showed that hardiness does not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, as well as on the relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention. Future research can investigate why hardiness is not having a moderating effect on the above stated factors, and is having a moderating effect on the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention. Further research can be conducted to examine the problematic multicolinearity that was found in an effort to solve the problematic multicolinearity that was found.

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