

**FACTORS INVOLVED IN SUBJECTIVE CAREER SUCCESS OF
SOLDIERS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE
FORCE: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY**

by
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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my husband (David Basiami Ditsela) and my mother (Nomasaet Sara Sam) for their unremitting support and encouragement during this hard time.

DECLARATION

I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Signature:

Date: **February 2012**

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ABSTRACT

Since the 1970s, economic recession, industrial restructuring, technological changes, and intensified global competition has changed the nature of work. Consequently, employees have changed, many organisations are changing and jobs are minimized to keep up with global demands. However, military organisations and jobs seem to be lagging behind. Although the military is recruiting young generations, many of its jobs are still traditional military jobs that pose heavy demands and dangerous circumstances on the soldiers, hence, the purpose of this particular study. The aim of this study is to explore the relationship between subjective career success (SCS), work circumstances (WC) and personality factors (PF) of soldiers in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF). The existence of the relationship between the variables was explored through a non-experimental controlled inquiry. The variables under study were defined as follows: subjective career success is characterised by increase in the level of skills, increase in self-esteem, increased autonomy and responsibility in the position the person holds, and working with interesting colleagues; WC is defined as working conditions in which physical, mental, and emotional activities are directed towards accomplishing a specific task. Work circumstances encompass job demands, job characteristics, salary, and job security of soldiers; and PF includes locus of control in the workplace, self-efficacy and assertive behaviour in the workplace.

A sample of 57 participants was selected from officers (Second Lieutenant – Captain and equivalent rank) studying at the South African Military Academy (here referred to as SAMA), Faculty of Military Sciences, Stellenbosch University. Another sample of 113 Non-Commissioned Officers (NCOs) (Leading-Seamen – Chief Petty Officers) was selected from SAS SALDANHA (South African Naval Gymnasium). In total, a sample of 170 was drawn for this research.

Correlation analysis was used to determine the relationship between independent variables and dependent variable; and multiple regression analysis was used to determine factors that explain SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

The results showed a significant partial relationship between job characteristics and SCS. Furthermore, a significant correlation emerged between salary satisfaction and satisfaction with job security. Insignificant relationship emerged between job demands and SCS. Insignificant results also emerged in the relationship between locus of control, self-efficacy and assertive behaviour (PF) and SCS respectively. As a result, it was concluded that WC have a partial relationship with SCS; and PF does not have any relationship with SCS. However, the results of the multiple regressions analysis provided that only job security satisfaction, salary satisfaction, locus of control and self-efficacy explain SCS, concluding that WC and PF in this research partially explain SCS of soldiers.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General introduction and orientation of the study

Since the 1970s, economic recession, industrial restructuring, technological changes, and intensified global competition has changed the nature of work (Bosman, Buitendach & Laba, 2005a; Havran, Visser & Crous, 2003). The meaning of work and career began to take a different shape across organisations (Havran et al., 2003). Work is now characterised by fewer employees, increased workload, less security and less control of the job, contrary to its previous conception (i.e. clear career path, security, job autonomy and large workforce) (Bosman et al., 2005a). Consequently, these conditions pose strain on employees. Furthermore, the circumstances pose challenges on organisations pertaining to the attraction and retention of talented employees. This impacts on organisations' desires for achieving optimal business success (Kanye & Crous, 2007).

Despite the transition in the conceptualisation of work across organisations, there are other organisations such as the military, which still follows the traditional view of work – large workforce, job security, and high workload. The military is still characterised by large work force, bureaucratic structure, high level of communications, less job control (autonomy) (Sheldon & Alden, 1998), heavy physical and psychological job demands such as heavy workload; long working hours; exposure to human loss; long separation from loved ones and risky and stressful duty (deployments, live exercises, and operations) (De Jong & Visser, 2006). This is no exception to the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) which seems to be stringently following this traditional view.

A prevalent example in the SANDF is the Military Skills Development System (MSDS) yearly intake of young South Africans (aged between 18 and 23 years) which is aimed at increasing the number of soldiers and rejuvenating of the SANDF.

These factors serve to explain the work circumstances (WC) faced by soldiers and those include salary, job security, job characteristics, and job demands. Despite the prevailing circumstances, the SANDF is also faced with the challenge of attracting more recruits to render service in the force. One of the SANDF human resource strategies is to guarantee the achievement and attainment of the right quality, quantity and composition of human resources in the SANDF. Subsequently, to ensure an appropriate human resources cost and expenditure for optimal execution of the Department of Defence and Military Veterans (DODMV) mandate and mission (DOD, 2009).

Apart from the traditional approach held by the military pertaining to the meaning of work, the military view of career success (CS) is still following the habitual conceptions, which focus on the objective indicators of CS such as salary advancement, promotion or organisational level. This emanates from the common practice of predetermining and aligning the soldiers' career paths with the rank structure of the SANDF. This structure is based on whether a soldier is appointed as an officer or a non-commissioned officer (NCO) and is coupled with a specific salary package (Sheldon & Alden, 1998). Any changes pertaining to the meaning of CS for soldiers might be overlooked due to the lack of empirical evidence on this dilemma hence the significance of this scientific inquiry. Any change in the meaning of CS for soldiers may serve as an explanation in the perceived relationship between WC and subjective career success (SCS).

Despite the WC, the military does not seem to be facing any human resource challenges such as high turnover, massive resignations, and high absenteeism rate, which are indicative of poor CS.

Soldiers seem dutiful and committed to their daily tasks and their work. Can this be an indication of SCS experienced by soldiers or, the manifestation of other factors that create the propensity to engage in the work despite the circumstances? In order to establish the relationship between WC and SCS, it is imperative to consider personality factors (PF) that might contribute to this relationship.

Personality factors such as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982), locus of control in the workplace (Rotter, 1966) and assertive behaviour (Fensterheim & Baer, 1975; Roos & Van Eeden, 2008) are discussed. A detailed discussion on these factors will follow in chapter 2. However, a brief overview is provided for each factor. Firstly, self-efficacy refers to the person's personal judgment of how well one can perform the courses of action required when dealing with the potential situation – it is based on the person's belief about own abilities, not skills (Bandura, 1982; Liebert & Spiegler, 1994). Liebert and Spiegler (1994) assert that this construct is based on trust about own abilities in terms of job performance. Another pervasive personality factor is locus of control. It refers to the person's beliefs about the ownership of power and action (Wood, Saylor & Cohen, 2009). It is the belief about whether the outcomes of one's action flow from own behaviour or that of other people (Bandura, 2005). The last factor is assertive behaviour, which is the behaviour that enables the person to act in own interests without any guilt feelings. It is important that the person must be able to express own feelings and act in a way that is satisfying to the self without showing any aggression towards the other person (Kululu, Buldukoğlu, Kalakaç & Köksal, 2006).

These PF serve as motivating factors in the relationship between WC and SCS. Furthermore, they explain the performance of soldiers under the circumstances by stabilising their responses to WC (Hair, Moore, Hardley, Kaye, Day & Orthner, 2009; Hamid, Yue & Leung, 2003; Plummer, 2005). Lastly, these factors will also be explored in terms of their relationship with WC and SCS of soldiers.

1.2 Background and motivation for the research

A soldier's response to his/her duty is referred to as a calling – some view soldiering as just another job. Despite the differing views on what soldiering is, soldiers serve to protect the nation against any potential internal and/or external threat. In addition to this, soldiers serve to uphold the Constitution proposed by the government. For instance, in South Africa (SA) soldiers in the SANDF serve to uphold the SA Constitution as proposed by the government. When performing their duty, soldiers are expected to be professional, obedient and have the will power at all times. In a normal work setting, this can be difficult to maintain, especially if the WC soldiers are facing, are taxing and challenging at all times. However, soldiers found a way of responding to their WC in order to maintain peace and stability in and outside SA.

To add on to the WC faced by soldiers, there are other factors such as infringements on soldiers' human rights (i.e. the right to life and the right to strike as stated in the Bill of Rights) that prohibit soldiers to respond to labour issues (such as salary, promotions, working conditions, etc) in a way that any ordinary employee in the labour market would respond to. For instance, negotiating own salary increases, through massive demonstrations to send the message to their employer or even using go-slow mechanisms, or refusing to participate in military missions is not possible in the SANDF. Irrespective of all these limitations on soldiers' powers, involving cumbersome WC which can be potentially threatening the effective delivery of service by the soldiers and the security of SA, most soldiers still seem to be responding positively to their work. Overlooking the WC faced by soldiers or a subtle response to the WC, assuming that soldiers are generally satisfied with their work and successful in their careers can be potentially threatening to the total security of SA. This will impact negatively on SA's engagement in missions in and outside the country.

This research focuses on the SANDF in particular for the following reasons (DOD, 1996):

- Firstly, the SANDF is an instrument of state policy in realisation of state security goals, without which these goals will not be realised.
- Secondly, the SANDF is the main security organ in the Republic of South Africa (RSA). Given the nature of its mandate, the primary role of the SANDF is to protect the nation against any form of military aggression and to provide military assistance to needy countries in the whole of Africa.
- Thirdly, the SANDF functions and exercises its powers upholding the Constitution and maintaining order in SA, thus providing protection for the government against internal and external threats.
- Lastly, the SANDF serves to ensure protection of the inhabitants of the Republic against internal and external threats.

The significance of a healthy military-state relationship for the inhabitants of RSA was emphasised by the Defence Minister - Ms Lindiwe Sisulu in her speech where she appreciated the role played by the SANDF (Sisulu, 2010):

“The relationship the state has with its soldiers is unique and based on an exceptional amount of trust and responsibility. It requires of the state an enormous investment in each member, both in their conditions of service and education and training. ...We still have serious challenges in the Defence Force, most of which are as a result of serious under funding. If we do not invest in our Defence Force, we are doing ourselves an injustice”

Although, the Republic is in a state of peace and stability, it does not mean that there is no need for military capability. Due to the inherent unpredictable future, the Republic has to maintain the core defence capability should any threat arise (DOD, 1996). By building military capability, it does not only mean having the latest weapons systems and required logistical support, but also highly motivated soldiers (Regular Force and Reserve Force) who are ready for the task, hence this study.

1.3 Problem statement

Given the soldiers' primary function and responsibility to the SANDF in the safety and security of South Africans, the need to determine the effect of WC and PF on soldiers' SCS is a relevant research challenge. An understanding of these factors, their antecedents and the effect will shed light on the combat readiness of the SANDF. Furthermore, in view of limited research on SCS issues of soldiers this study can make a relevant contribution. The research challenge is to present the theoretical proposition that will serve to conceptualise WC, PF and SCS, and to establish a theoretical as well as empirical relationship between these variables. The importance of this study is embedded in the various outputs that can be derived from it:

- a. Given the limited research on WC in relation to SCS in the SANDF, this study will contribute to enrich the literature by bringing new perspectives in the research of CS.
- b. The study will also create a body of knowledge and awareness on the factors that contribute to employee SCS and ultimately organisational success for the military.

- c. The study endeavours to fill the gap in the literature by determining whether there is a relationship between WC and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.
- d. The specific focus on the SANDF will also bring a new perspective in the literature.
- e. The study may determine the existence of the relationship between WC, PF and SCS.

The study will attempt to answer the following research questions: Firstly, does a construct “WC” exist as a determinant of SCS? Secondly, how can this construct “WC” be operationalised? Lastly, are there emerging relations with other variables such as PF?

1.4 Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to explore the relationship between WC and SCS, and PF and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

1.5 Research process

The research will be conducted in seven phases, namely a literature review, empirical research, reporting of results, discussion of results, conclusion, limitations and recommendations.

1.5.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The focus of the literature review is to delineate factors involved in SCS of soldiers. Furthermore, the literature review focuses creating a clear understanding of military WC, PF and SCS of soldiers and most importantly the link between WC, PF and SCS.

Specific areas of the study include:

- a. Military job characteristics
- b. Job demands faced by soldiers
- c. Salaries in the military
- d. Job security
- e. Subjective career success
- f. Locus of control in the workplace
- g. Self efficacy
- h. Work assertive behaviour

1.5.2 Phase 2: Empirical research

Data for this study was gathered by means of various questionnaires. The questionnaires were all paper-and-pencil evaluation tools. Military job characteristics were measured using overload, organisational support, and growth opportunity subscales from the Job Demands-Resource Scale (JDERS) developed by Jackson and Rothmann (Rothmann, Mostert & Strydom, 2006). This scale is chosen because it includes some of the items (items: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 15, 21, 22, 27, 31, 34, 36 and 37) from Job Characteristics Scale (JCS) developed by Hackman and Lawler (1971) and the other one (items: 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 17) developed by Oldham and Hackman (2005). This scale was designed to measure satisfaction with job characteristics modelled in two broad categories (i.e. job demands and job resources – see par 2.3.2). The scale has 48 items which originally measured seven factors, but the most recent research found that only five factors constitute the scale (i.e. growth opportunities, organisational support, advancement, overload, and job insecurity) (Rothmann et al., 2006). These subscales showed acceptable alpha coefficients ranging from .76 to .92 (Rothmann et al., 2006). To determine the total score of this scale, ratings within each subscale are summed and divided by the total number of items in that particular subscale. Negative statement items on the instrument were reverse-coded so that a high score on the total score of the instrument indicates a high degree of satisfaction with the job characteristics and the work environment for the respondents (Johari, Mit & Yahya, 2009).

Job Demands were measured using the Workload Scale of the Sources of Work Stress Inventory (De Bruin & Taylor, 2006). The scale consists of seven (7) items where an individual is asked to indicate the degree to which his/her workload is a source of stress for him/her. This scale measures the workload and time pressure components of the job demands dimension of the Job Demand Control (JDC) model (see par 2.3.2). The response format is a 5-point Likert-type scale, with responses ranging from 1 (= none at all) to 5 (= very much). The scale has an internal consistency reliability of .89 (De Bruin & Taylor, 2006).

Salary satisfaction was measured by Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) (Judge, 1993). The questionnaire measures the level of satisfaction with one's pay and it consists of 18 items, with responses ranging from 1 (= very dissatisfied) to 5 (= very satisfied). The internal consistency reliability of the scale was .89 (Judge, 1993).

Satisfaction with job security was measured using five statements adopted from Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquist (1967). It is a 5-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1 (= very dissatisfied) and 5 (= very satisfied). The internal consistency (Cronbach's α) of this scale is .85 (Yousef, 1997).

Subjective CS was measured using the Career Success Scale (CSS). The scale is composed of 5 items developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990). It is a 5-point Likert scale with response category ranging from 1 (= strongly disagree) to 5 (= strongly agree) (Greenhaus et al., 1990). The scale has the reliability of $\alpha = .88$ (Park, 2010).

Locus of control was measured using the Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (LOC) called internal-external (I-E) scale (Rotter, 1966). The scale is a 29 item scale which consists of six filter and twenty three forced choice pairs with one internal and external oriented statement. High scores are indicative of externality and low scores are indicative of internality. The external statement is assigned 1, whereas the internal statement is assigned 0, with ratings ranging from 0 to 1 (Rotter, 1966; Chen & Wang, 2007). The scale has a Cronbach's alpha of .77 and a test retest reliability of .82 (Tong & Wang, 2006).

Self-efficacy was measured using the General Self-Efficacy (GSE) Scale (Liebert & Spiegler, 1994). The GSE is used to assess the general sense of perceived self-efficacy. It is a 10 item, 4-point Likert type scale with responses ranging from 1 (= not at all true) and 5 (= exactly true). The previous use of the instrument indicated high reliability ($\alpha = .79$ to $.90$) (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1995).

Work assertive behaviour was measured by Rathus' 30-Item Assertiveness Schedule (Rathus, 1973). This scale provides information concerning the person's assertiveness and frankness and provides information on the behaviours which are typically displayed in a variety of situations. The scale has a high test-retest reliability ($r = .78$) and validity ($r = .70$). It is a polar type scale (+3 to -3), with each pole ranging from very positive/negative (+3 and -3) to moderate (+1 and -1). The +3 indicates extreme positive pole and -3 indicates extreme negative pole. The scale is numbered consecutively from +3 to -3 omitting the zero point (indicating the absence of the centre point) (Rathus, 1973).

These questionnaires were administered to officers at SAMA between the rank of a Second-Lieutenant (2Lt) and a Captain (Capt), and equivalent ranks and non-commissioned officers (NCOs) at SAS SALDANHA between the ranks of Leading Seamen (LS) and Chief Petty Officer (CPO). The sample was comprised of 57 officers and 113 NCOs. A total convenient sample of 170 participants was used for analysis using STATISTICA 10. (Field, 2009; Mouton, 1996; Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

1.5.3 Phase 3: Reporting of results

Due to the fact that various statistical techniques were used to analyse the data, a discussion on the techniques will be limited to the appropriate section in the thesis.

The results include descriptive statistics (i.e. minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviations) and correlations of factors derived from WC, PF and SCS, and the results of multiple regression analysis for all variables under study (Field, 2009). The different statistics will be further discussed in Chapter 3 (see par. 3.6).

1.5.4 Phase 4: Discussion of results

The main results and their explanations are discussed in this section. Furthermore, a discussion between the results of previous and the current study will follow.

1.5.5 Phase 5: Conclusion

In this section, the conclusion of the research will follow.

1.5.6 Phase 6: Limitations

The general limitations of the study as well as the limitations of the measuring instruments are discussed.

1.5.7 Phase 7: Recommendations

The recommendation with regard to further research, how the results of the research can be used and recommended intervention strategies are discussed.

1.6 Chapter Division

The chapters will be presented in the following order:

- a. **Chapter 1: Introduction and orientation of the study**
- b. **Chapter 2: Theoretical framework**
- c. **Chapter 3: Research design and methodology**
- d. **Chapter 4: Results**
- e. **Chapter 5: Discussion of results**
- f. **Chapter 6: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations**

1.7 Chapter Summary

The theory provides that there is prevalent change in the meaning of work as well as the view of careers by many individuals and organisations. These changes clearly demarcate the position of the military regarding the perception of CS by soldiers. The literature provides that the military still follows the traditional view of career despite the changes in the meaning of work, meaning that soldiers still view career based on the observable objective indicators. Their clinging to the traditional meaning of work often imposes circumstances that are demanding on them. Having said that, little is known about soldiers' career satisfaction and ultimately SCS in the SANDF.

What emanated from the literature is that soldiers are faced with demanding WCs that are potentially threatening their health and the security of SA in general, which is a challenge for the SANDF. The extent of the threat is underestimated by the passive response to soldiers' unique circumstances. The literature further provides that, these WCs can be related to perception of soldiers' SCS and CS in general.

Another factor that emanated from the literature is the significance of the motivating role of PF in the soldiers' response to WC and SCS. The role played by these factors in soldiers' response to their WC is also highlighted in the literature.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a theoretical background of WC and factors that describe this phenomenon. The importance of these factors is highlighted by the need to define WC as a construct that can be researched in the future. The definition of this construct is imperative to determine its relation to SCS. Apart from WC, a theoretical discussion on personality factors and their relation to SCS will be covered in this section. Most importantly, delineation of SCS as opposed to the traditional view of career success is also discussed. As the study falls within the military ambit, WC, PF and SCS are defined and discussed within the military context.

2.2 Military Background

The military profession exists to serve the country and its people. The military must be portrayed and be constituted as an effective instrument of state policy (Huntington, 1986). The state priority in SA has shifted from security to social development with no clear military threat, consequently resulting in the defence budget cuts and the growing perception that the military has become less important for the society (Franke & Heinecken, 1999). Although this is the case, the SANDF continuously engages in work as dictated by the state. In its application as a security network for the state, the SANDF plays a major role internally and externally. Internally, the SANDF is committed to internal border patrols and crime combating activities like rhino poaching in the Kruger National Park and pirates' activities along the South African borders.

Externally, the SANDF is involved in deployments and peace support operations including peace-building, peacemaking, peacekeeping and peace-enforcement missions on the African continent, like in Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) Sudan, etc (Heinecken, 1998; Neethling, 1997; Ramuhala, 2011; Stott, 2002; Wagner, 2001). Deployment is described as the assignment of soldiers to temporary duty away from their normal work stations or units (Stafford, 2003). Peace support operations can include missions like:

- Peace-building - refers to ways of handling structural violence. It refers to various means of handling direct conflict and violence – it deals with procedures that reduce the likelihood of engaging in violent actions with the aim of addressing the root causes of conflict and preventing it from happening again (Heinecken, 1998; Malan, 2008; Neethling, 1997; Wagner, 2001). Peace-building efforts can be deployed in a short to long term programme depending on the situation. The short term peace-building programmes are designed for stabilising peace efforts in order to prevent conflict situations, whereas, the long term programmes are laid out to remove the root cause of conflict and lay a foundation for sustainable peace (Malan, 2008).
- Peacekeeping – it is defined by the United Nations (UN) as a unique and dynamic instrument developed by the organisation as a way to help countries torn by conflict create the conditions for lasting peace” (Allais, 2011, p. 2). It refers to efforts directed at discontinuing the existing violence between the parties. This includes assisting in the maintenance of ceasefire, implementation of comprehensive peace agreements, and protection of humanitarian operations (Malan, 2008; Allais, 2011). During peacekeeping missions, parties are contained and kept away from coming into contact with one another (Neethling, 1997; Theron, 2005; Wagner, 2001).

During these missions, soldiers engage in a variety of tasks such as helping to build sustainable institutions of governance, human rights monitoring, disarmaments, demobilisation and reintegration of former combatants into their communities (Allais, 2011). The face of peacekeeping has changed in the sense that it does not only involve pure military operations, but also includes other bodies such as the military, police and civilians working together to lay the groundwork for sustainable peace (United Nations, 2008)

- Peace-enforcement - refers to the application, with the authorisation of the UN Security Council, of a threat of force or any coercive measures to compel compliance with peace resolutions or to prevent unlawful aggression by one country against another (Heinecken, 1998; Ramuhala, 2011). This is done so as to stabilise the situation (Malan, 2008) and to induce conformity with UN sanctions and resolutions (Ramuhala, 2011). This mission can be carried out by regional organisational agencies and agencies for enforcement actions under the authority of the UN Security Council (such as South Africa, Columbia, Nigeria, Lebanon, etc.) (United Nations, 2008).

These operations mostly entail activities directed at preventing violence within and between states (Theron, 2005). The mandate of the soldiers in these activities is to protect civilians against any form of harm and self-sacrifice. Often times, soldiers sacrifice their own safety for that of their buddies and civilians. Subsequently, they are being ambushed, shot at or violated. During these operations, soldiers are faced with challenges such as exposure to human suffering, performing rescue missions under fire, exposure to mines and diseases (e.g. malaria), and foreign environmental conditions (Bruwer & Van Dyk, 2005).

Regardless of the physical danger and demands of their duties, soldiers still regard these activities as central military functions as opposed to preparation and conduct of combat operations (Franke & Heinecken, 1999). In this obviously challenging WC, soldiers are constantly expected to assist civilians and avail themselves whenever they are required. Furthermore, soldiers are also expected to adjust and cope with the dynamic and challenging peace support operations at all times (Lloyd, Van Dyk & De Kock, 2009).

Apart from this physically inclined WC, there are other conditions that soldiers have to deal with such as adjustment to different working conditions and demands. Adjustment is a requirement for many jobs, but it has become important in the military job demands. There is an overall change in military missions from the confrontation of a single, well defined enemy to a more diversified and ill-defined enemy (such as child soldiers, elderly people, and women) (Dhlahla, 2008; Gade, 2010; Lin, 2010; Pulakos, Arad, Donovan & Plamondon, 2000). With most soldiers being parents, husbands and family men/women, such a confrontation can be potentially devastating for soldiers, particularly when the ability to adjust to them is lacking. Apart from ill-defined enemy, generic military missions are posing a challenge to soldiers.

Nowadays, military missions have changed in the sense that they are conducted at a smaller scale (i.e. small intervention units) rather than at conventional war scale, but providing diversified operations while tapping into different cultures, societies, environments and religions in a short space of time (Dasseville, 2008). This means that soldiers are deployed from different geographical locations and areas like in SA but as a result they are exposed to a wide array of challenges (such as extremely hot temperatures, different languages and cultures) that require a completely different approach. In order for them to survive or to be effective in their work, they are expected to foster a high level of adjustment (Pulakos et al., 2000).

2.3 Work circumstances

Theoretically, WC does not exist as a construct, meaning that there is no definition for this construct in the literature. However, for the purpose of this research, a definition will be formulated by explaining the two concepts i.e. “work” and “circumstances”. The concept “work” means any physical, mental, or emotional activity directed toward accomplishing a task or transforming an input in the form of material, information and other sources into goods or services (Van Den Bos, 2007). The nature of work, which is the “circumstances”, is described by referring to salary, job security, and conditions of work (Calitz, 1975). Extracting from the description of “work” and “circumstances”, WC is defined as working conditions in which physical, mental, and emotional activities are directed toward accomplishing a specific task. This definition is aligned to Herzberg’s motivating-hygiene factor theory (or Herzberg’ two factors theory) as illustrated below (see Fig. 1) (Bagraim, 2011; DeShields, Kara & Kaynak, 2005).

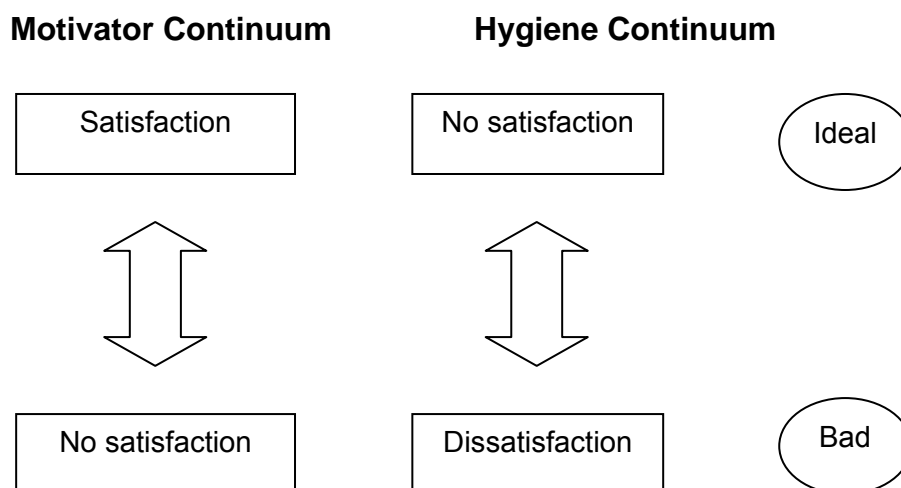


Figure 1. Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory Model

(Bagraim, 2011, p. 96)

The two-factor theory was introduced in 1959 and it has become a dominant paradigm in the field of organisational psychology ever since (Evans, Kuggundu & House, 1979).

The basic assumption of this model (Fig. 1) is that employees will be motivated if they have a high level of job satisfaction. Originally, the theory was designed to determine factors that make employees feel good about their job and to explain motivation and job satisfaction for employees in the organisation (Bagraim, 2011). The theory postulates that there are two factors (hence the name two-factor theory) influencing job satisfaction i.e. motivation (satisfiers) and hygiene (dissatisfiers) factors presented in a continuum (Fig. 1) (DeShields et al., 2005; Liu, Norco, & Tu, 2009) and these are explained below as follows:

- Motivating factors - are usually intrinsic to the organisation and are part of the job itself (or job content), thus, controlled by the employee. These include responsibility, achievement and opportunity for personal growth (Bagraim, 2011; DeShields et al., 2005).
- Hygiene factors - are usually extrinsic factors controlled by the organisation and those include factors such as quality of supervision, organisational policies, salary and job security (DeShields et al., 2005).

According to this theory, the two factors do not compensate for one another - both factors affect job satisfaction in their own way (DeShields et al., 2005). For instance, if a soldier feels bad about his/her job (e.g. low salary) and indicates lack of satisfaction with the job, it does not necessarily mean that the soldier does not like his/her job, but he/she has no satisfaction. Because motivators and hygiene factors are presented in a continuum, they do not replace one another. For instance, the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but no satisfaction. This means that one can simply assume that when the soldier is not satisfied with his/her job, he/she is therefore dissatisfied. It is, therefore, required that both motivating and hygiene factors should be adequately addressed to maintain job satisfaction in the organisation. Research found that higher job dissatisfaction reduces job efforts by employees (Kahya, 2007).

Research further found that employees who feel good about their jobs and generally satisfied with their jobs and career often ascribes this to internal factors (i.e. internal locus of control – see par. 2.5.1.1); and those who feel bad ascribes these feelings to external factors (i.e. external locus of control – see par. 2.5.1.2). It is, therefore, argued that locus of control, self-efficacy, and assertive behaviour at work are significant variables that may influence soldiers overall satisfaction with their careers and the perceived SCS. Consequently, these factors are then referred to as motivating factors (i.e. satisfiers). These factors will be further discussed under PF (see par. 2.5). WCs faced by soldiers such as salary, job security, job demand and job characteristics are referred to as hygiene factors (i.e. dissatisfiers) (DeShields et al., 2005). These are referred to as system factors because they are entirely controlled by the organisation. Due to this fact, these factors are presumed to have an influence on soldiers' behaviour and attitude in task performance because of the soldiers' limited scope of influence on these factors (Johari et al., 2009). To advocate this, research found that poor working conditions (as one of the system factors) result in the decrease in employee performance (Kahya, 2007). Therefore, it can be assumed that constant exposure to poor working conditions within the military work settings can elicit reduced employee performance. Without any doubt, this may hamper mission readiness of the SANDF and CS of soldiers. A discussion on each WC factor follows after this.

2.3.1 Job characteristics

Job characteristics are “the job design that purports three psychological states of a job incumbent, namely, meaningfulness of the work performed, responsibility for the work outcomes, and knowledge of the results of the work performed, which will yield positive outcomes” (Johari et al., 2009, p. 64) (see Fig. 2). In most cases, job characteristics are explained by referring to the Hackman and Oldham model (DeShields et al., 2005; Johari et al., 2009; Rothmann et al., 2006). The same model (Fig. 2) will be used in this research to provide the theoretical basis for the explanation of job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

The model was designed and developed by Hackman and Oldham with the aim of describing the relationship between job characteristics and individual responses to the work itself (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

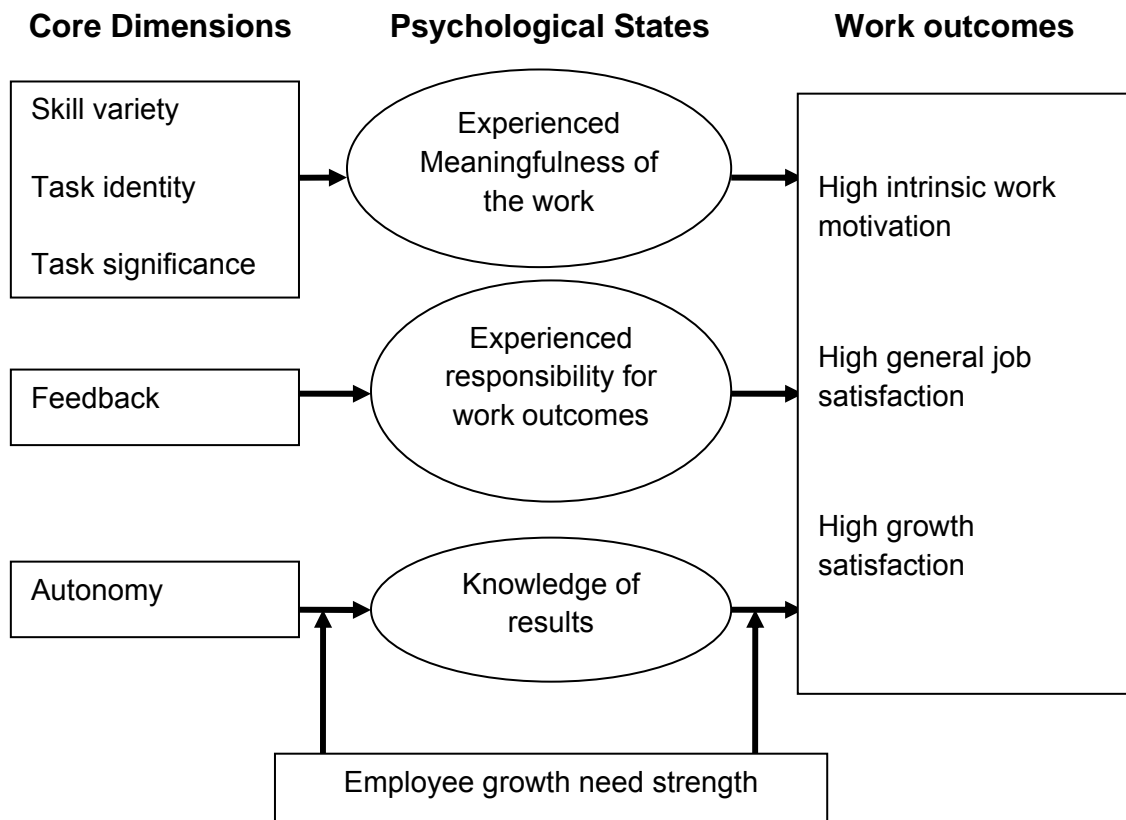


Figure 2. Job Characteristic Model of Work Motivation

(Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p. 256)

This model (Fig. 2) explains how properties of job characteristics affect people's attitudes and behaviours. It also provides a set of core job characteristics (dimensions) such as skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback and autonomy that explains the employee work outcomes (Oldham & Hackman, 2005). A discussion on these characteristics will be provided below. These characteristics hold psychological meaning for the employees and contribute to overall job satisfaction (Walsh, Taber & Beehr, 1980).

The model (Fig. 2) illustrates that jobs that are highly structured and defined by formal and inflexible organisational systems limit skill variety, task identity, and eventually affect employee performance and possibly SCS (Johari et al., 2009). This is typical in the military where jobs are highly structured and formal, thus limiting variety of tasks. The model (Fig. 2) further purports that the individuals' performance can be enhanced by one's experience of the job as a presentation of all five dimensions of job characteristics, like skill variety, task significance, task identity, and autonomy (Walsh et al., 1980) (see par 2.3.1.1).

Research also found that job performance can be enhanced when some aspects of the job give more autonomy and challenge to workers with high need for growth (Johari et al., 2009). This is particularly true in organisations that are not fairly small and less bureaucratic. It is general knowledge that military jobs allow for limited autonomy for those in lower levels of the hierarchy and some jobs do not provide autonomy at all (such as being a non-rank carrying member – referred to as privates, airman, or seaman and working as a gate guard). This lack of autonomy and challenge can lead to negative work outcomes for those soldiers with high need for growth (Evans et al., 1979).

2.3.1.1 Job characteristics dimensions

The construct "job characteristics" has been conceptualised by many authors as a multidimensional construct (Boonzaier & Boonzaier, 1994; Boonzaier, Ficker & Rust, 2001; Johari et al., 2009; Suman & Srivastava, 2009). There are inconsistent inconclusive agreements on the dimensions or different factors that constitute this construct. Many agree that this construct has five dimensions i.e. skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Boonzaier & Boonzaier, 1994; Boonzaier et al., 2001; Johari et al., 2009; Suman & Srivastava, 2009).

These are explained by Evans et al. (1979) and Suman and Srivastava (2009) as follows:

- Skill variety - is the degree to which a job requires a variety of activities in carrying out the work, which involve the use of different skills and talents of employees to successfully accomplish the task.
- Task identity - is the degree to which the job requires completion of a whole or identifiable part of the work. This job must be readily identified by the employee.
- Task significance - is the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of people both within and outside the organisation.
- Feedback - is the degree to which the employee receives clear and direct information about his or her performance. Feedback is not restricted to supervisors; it also includes feedback from the job itself, peers or members outside the organisation. It is directly related to the employee's feeling of his knowledge of work results, thus serving as a motivating factor to perform or not to perform in the job.
- Autonomy - is the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and judgement to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.

Furthermore, the model proposed that positively experienced job characteristics will bring about three critical psychological states, namely, experienced meaningfulness of work, experienced responsibility for work outcomes and knowledge of work results (Boonzaier & Boonzaier, 1994; Johari et al., 2009). The psychological states proved to be important for job satisfaction, motivation and CS (Behson, Eddy & Lorenzet, 2000; Oldham & Hackman, 2005). For instance, positive job characteristics will lead to positive workplace outcomes such as higher work motivation, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction for employees (Johari et al., 2009).

2.3.1.2 Psychological states

Psychological states are internal to the individual and do not represent the properties of the work itself (Johari et al., 2009). They are more positive responses on constructive job experiences. For instance, the individual's motivation or drive to perform the job diligently without any influence is an indication of psychological states. A positive response to job characteristic dimensions will lead to positive feelings towards the job (e.g. experienced meaningfulness) which will in turn lead to positive outcomes such as work motivation and job satisfaction. General satisfaction with the job by implication means CS (Evans et al., 1979). This was supported by Liu et al. (2009) when they mentioned that job characteristics have a positive impact on CS. In their research, Boonzaier and Boonzaier (1994) explained the psychological states as follows:

- Experienced meaningfulness of work – is the degree to which the employee experiences the work as meaningful, valuable and worthwhile.
- Experienced responsibility for work outcomes – is the degree to which the employee feels personally accountable and responsible for the results of the work.

- Knowledge of work results – the degree to which the employee knows and understands how effective he/she is performing the job.

In summary, job characteristics affect the psychological states in the following manner: Firstly, the presence of skill variety, task identity and task significance establishes the psychological state of experienced meaningfulness for the job. Secondly, the experience of autonomy in the job contributes to the establishment of worker's experience of responsibility for the job. Lastly, feedback from the job results in employee obtaining clear and direct information about the effectiveness of his/her performance (Boonzaier & Boonzaier, 1994). In the model (Fig. 2), there is "*employee growth need strength*" that is provided as a mediator between the core job dimensions, psychological states and the work outcomes. The "*employee growth need strength*" is the measure of individual differences in their need for higher order growth. The growth need strength is predicted as the link between the job dimensions and psychological states and between psychological states and the various outcomes (Evans et al., 1979). For instance, a young officer who is given authority to carry out a section attack from the beginning until it is completed, will develop a sense of ownership and growth into the task as a result, he/she will be able to visualise his/her final product of the section attack, acquire knowledge regarding what he/she visualised (i.e. results). Once those results are achieved and the final product is satisfying to the officer and his/her superiors, that officer will display high level of work-effectiveness, motivation, and growth satisfaction.

2.3.1.3 Job characteristics outcomes

The outcomes are model-dependent variables and are shown in the right hand side of the model (Fig. 2). These outcomes include high intrinsic work motivation, high general work satisfaction, high growth satisfaction, and high work effectiveness (Evans et al., 1979).

The literature provides that satisfaction with the context of the job (such as pay, job security among others) can actually moderate the relationship between job characteristics, psychological states, and the outcome variables (such as job effectiveness, motivation, and job satisfaction) (Boonzaier & Boonzaier, 1994). It is therefore, proposed that job characteristics should be treated as a constellation since the psychological states mediate the relationship between perceived job characteristics and job satisfaction (Walsh et al., 1980). All this will culminate in whether the employees will be satisfied about their work or not and ultimately determine CS (Boonzaier & Boonzaier, 1994).

In the military where task variety, task identity and task significance are prevalent, it can be assumed that soldiers' perception of job characteristics will be positive and that the possibility of SCS is prevalent. On the contrary, feedback takes long to be received by soldiers due to bureaucratic structure and autonomy is mostly limited to senior ranks, thus, it cannot really be attested that soldiers' perception of job characteristics is positive and that SCS is customary. In light of this, specific military job characteristics will be discussed focusing on work overload, bureaucracy, organisational support, growth opportunities and advancement in the military.

2.3.1.4 Military job characteristics

Military jobs are characterised by harsh working conditions ranging from cold winter, to hot and dry desert, high aerospace altitude and to depth under the sea depending on the arms of service (Krueger, 1998). These conditions present stressors, which involve combinations of adverse environmental conditions such as noise, vibrations, fumes and smoke, sleep loss, threat of indigenous biological diseases, and high physical and mental workload of military equipment operators. These working conditions can dominate and adversely affect the performance of the individual (Sheldon & Alden, 1998).

Research dictates that these adverse conditions affect soldiers' level of concentration towards task performance, subsequently leading to poor quality of work, physical and emotional stress (Kahya, 2007). These can impact on the soldiers' feelings and perception of SCS. These results can have dire consequences on the SANDF, such as financial loss, replacement costs, human loss, and low morale, to mention a few.

2.3.1.4.1 Work overload

Work overload refers to the amount of work, mental load and emotional load that one carries in the job (Rothmann et al., 2006). It usually occurs when the environment poses demands that are beyond the person's coping abilities and capabilities (Karasek, 1979; Kgosana, 2008). A further discussion on work overload is provided in par 2.3.2.4.1. This includes the pace and amount of work, and mental and emotional load that link to specific work challenge.

2.3.1.4.2 Bureaucracy

Apart from these, military jobs are characterised by a bureaucratic relationship that exist between the state and the military profession. This bureaucratic relationship illustrates an organisational culture (refers to a system of shared assumptions or meaning held by members of the organisation) that emphasises obedience to orders more than anything else (Werner, 2011). Because of this hierarchy of obedience, soldiers cannot exercise some form of flexibility in terms of how or when to perform their duties. They constantly act under the command channel that dictates how they must perform their jobs (the rule of instant obedience of higher order), therefore limiting their creativity and expression of own views. In this kind of situation soldiers' performance is judged based on promptness and efficiency with which they carry-out their duties and not on the creativity applied in the implementation of state policy (Huntington, 1986).

Although this bureaucracy is one of the measures used to instil military discipline and loyalty among soldiers, it can be very cumbersome, thus beleaguering soldiers' performance by acting as dissatisfier/hygiene factor (see par 2.3). For instance, this bureaucracy is actually promoting power distance between the soldiers and the employer whereby soldiers do not have the opportunity to engage with their employer on career issues. Due to this, soldiers' perception about their employer relationship can have a negative spin-off on soldiers' perceptions about CS. For instance, soldiers who do not get the opportunity to effectively discuss their career with their employer can be negatively influenced by this, therefore, losing hope in their careers.

Furthermore, soldiers who are more creative, imaginative and more independent and who do not believe in following orders bluntly, might be frustrated with the military and end up reducing their efforts towards their contribution and their commitment to the military. Although this can be the result, it is still believed that the military hierarchy is an important feature for discipline and order in the force. This was actually alluded to by Huntington (1986) when he mentioned that a military without a formal hierarchy of obedience will end up in security disaster.

2.3.1.4.3 Growth opportunities

Advancement simply refers to the opportunities within the organisation that promote upward movement in terms of remuneration, training and career prospects. It refers to having enough variety, opportunities to learn and independence in your work (this factor is encapsulated in Hackman and Oldham's model of job characteristics as referring to task variety and autonomy) (Rothmann et al., 2006). Military jobs are mostly repetitive routine jobs that do not provide variety and in most cases soldiers do not have authority to juggle their work or restructure them in the ways that maximise their performance (Kgosana, 2008). This therefore means that the independence of the task is compromised.

2.3.1.4.4 Organisational support

The theory of organisational support holds that in order to meet employee needs and to assess the benefits of the increased work efforts, employees form a general perception concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being. This perception of organisational support will increase employees' contribution toward organisational goals (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). For instance, if soldiers perceive the SANDF to be more supportive or promoting a supportive organisational culture, soldiers are likely to increase their efforts towards the SANDF's goals.

This was supported by Van Breda (1995) when he mentioned that soldiers who are confronted by unpredictable WC, but feel supported by their organisation are likely to cope better and perform to their best than those who feel unsupported. Organisational support includes the relationship with supervisor and colleagues, participation in decision making, role clarity, clear communication channels, and flow of information. There is a military support structure that is put in place to support soldiers and their families during military operations. This support structure is instituted at a unit level where the commandant, social worker, chaplain and a psychologist are actively engaged in assisting deployed soldiers and their families staying behind (Kalamdien, 2008; Kalamdien & Van Dyk, 2009; Kgosana, 2008, 2010).

Apart from the organisational support, the supervisor proved to have a more pervasive influence on the soldiers' attitude such as job engagement and self-efficacy which will in turn culminate in group efficacy (see par 2.5.2) (Kgosana, 2010). Lack of support or the perception of lack of support by the supervisor can spill over to work/family conflict (Kgosana, 2008). Organisational or supervisory support can be emotional (providing empathetic ear, advice or a concern of welfare for soldiers) or instrumental (providing soldiers with all the equipment and resources needed to make the soldiers' jobs enjoyable and less burdensome).

The perception of emotional support enhances self-efficacy at work (Kgosana, 2010). Military job characteristics will be measured with overload, organisational support, and growth opportunity subscales from Job Demands-Resource Scale (Rothmann et al., 2006). This scale will be discussed in par 3.5.1.

Previous research demonstrated a concern for the employees' reactions to their tasks (Calitz, Hilaael, McCormick & Peter, 1974; Calitz, 1975). The research gave considerable attention to job characteristics and their effect on job satisfaction since the 1970s. Studies by Hackman and Lawler (1971) and Hackman, Pearce and Wolfe (1978) provide that job characteristics can directly affect employee behaviour and perception in the workplace.

Most recently, it was found that job characteristics do have an effect on employee outcomes such as turnover intention and reduced organisational commitment (Hu, Schaufeli & Taris, 2011). This is particularly true in the research of Kahya (2007) where it was found that the jobs that were characterised by harsh conditions, hazards, and inadequate physical security hampered employee satisfaction with the job. These results advocate Calitz's (1975) study which found that job characteristics have a high correlation with employee satisfaction with the job and ultimately SCS. Furthermore, research proved that job characteristics were likely to yield favourable work outcomes, such as, good work attendance, work performance, job satisfaction and career satisfaction (Oldham & Hackman, 2005) and this was ascribed to internal locus of control (i.e. internal forces) (see par 2.5.1.1) by employees (Bagram, 2011). For instance, people who find their job fulfilling and meaningful are likely to be committed to their work and presenting good work results.

2.3.2 Job demands

Different types of jobs present employees with different job stressors such as job demands, decision authority and skill discretion (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005/2006).

This is no exception to the military. Jones and Fletcher (In Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) define job demands as the degree to which the environment contains factors that requires attention and response from soldiers. Job demands are defined according to the workload and intellectual requirement criteria of the job (Landy & Conte, 2007). Van Den Tooren and De Jonge (2010) advocate that job demands are work tasks that require continued effort from the employee. In simple terms, job demands refer to the amount of work needed to be done in a particular job.

A specific reference is made to military jobs that are generically physical and psychologically demanding in nature. Inherently, military jobs require a sustained balance between the physical, as well as, the psychological aspects of the job to enable the soldiers to function effectively (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Landy and Conte (2007) found that jobs that are characterised by high demands and low control such as military jobs; contribute to job strain and job dissatisfaction. However, it has to be noted that although military jobs are inherently following orders, there are instances where soldiers exercise high degree of control such as execution of military operations. For instance, a soldier operating a missile system, artillery weapon or any other military weapons and equipment is expected to have high control over them because of the danger they can pose to fellow soldiers and innocent people. When it comes to planning operations or making decisions (e.g. deciding who is going on deployment? for how long? and how will that deployment be carried out?) regarding those operations, their junior ranks' control latitude becomes relatively low. For instance, the soldiers are just given orders on operations and they just have to comply.

With regards to the demands; jobs that are characterised by heavy demands, such as military jobs, are likely to produce a higher level of mental and physical distress than jobs with low demands (Lloyd et al., 2009; Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009).

If the researcher takes a closer look at military jobs - they are inherently physical and psychologically challenging, thus placing soldiers under constant psychological and physical strain. This will have an adverse effect on the soldiers and eventually the SANDF.

In most cases, soldiers experience stressors such as role conflict; heavy workload; long working hours; exposure to human loss; long separation from loved ones; and risky and stressful duty depending on the situation (Bruwer & Van Dyk, 2005; De Jong & Visser, 2006; Lloyd et al., 2009). Among these stressors, role conflict was found to be the more pervasive stressor in peacekeeping operations (Lloyd & Van Dyk, 2007). This can be caused by the difference between the expectations of one's country (e.g. being a South African soldier) and the expectations of organisations such as UN (e.g. being a soldier serving under the UN flag).

Although it is common knowledge that UN rules and regulations prevails when it comes to peacekeeping missions, it is difficult to change indoctrinated minds that went through the intense socialisation process to respond instantly to new rules as required by the UN. Another factor is the confusion with regards to the response of soldiers when confronted with fire from two opposing parties. For instance, whether the soldiers on peacekeeping missions can respond and fight fire with fire (compromising their neutral position and turning to combatants) or submit to the UN code and remain neutral. The UN charter makes it clear that the peacekeeping operation is not an enforcement tool. However, in case of self defence and defence of the mandate, peacekeeping soldiers can use force with the authorisation of the Security Council (United Nations, 2008).

From time to time, soldiers engage in activities, such as internal/external deployments, live exercises, missions and/or operations with the different magnitude of strain and response. These activities do not pose strain to only those taking part in them. Those left behind are also operating under adverse strenuous conditions caused by lack of personnel.

They also have the duty to keep the units, regiments or squadrons running as efficiently as they were with full staff. This means that, each soldier will carry out the work for two or more people, thus increasing job demands on these soldiers without any substantial compensation for their jobs. Although the current perception of military job demands is stressful, it is imperative to mention that job demands are not necessarily negative. They may turn out to be destructive when the situation requires high effort especially when soldiers' energy levels and resources are depleted. The role of the energy level and the presence of resources reduce the effect of job demands on the soldier and the associated physiological and psychological strain. In the case where this effect is not curbed, the situation will elicit responses such as depression, anxiety, or burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The literature on job demands provides the Job Demand-Resource model (JD-R model) (see Fig. 3) as a comprehensive model which aims to account for both impairing and stimulating job demands and employee ill-health and well-being in the workplace (Van Den Broeck, De Cuyper, De Witte & Vansteenkiste, 2010). The same model (Fig. 3) illustrates that although each and every occupation has its specific job characteristics (see par 2.3.1.4 for military job characteristics) associated with well-being, these can still be modelled into the category of job demands and job control (Rothmann et al., 2006). This model is illustrated as follows:

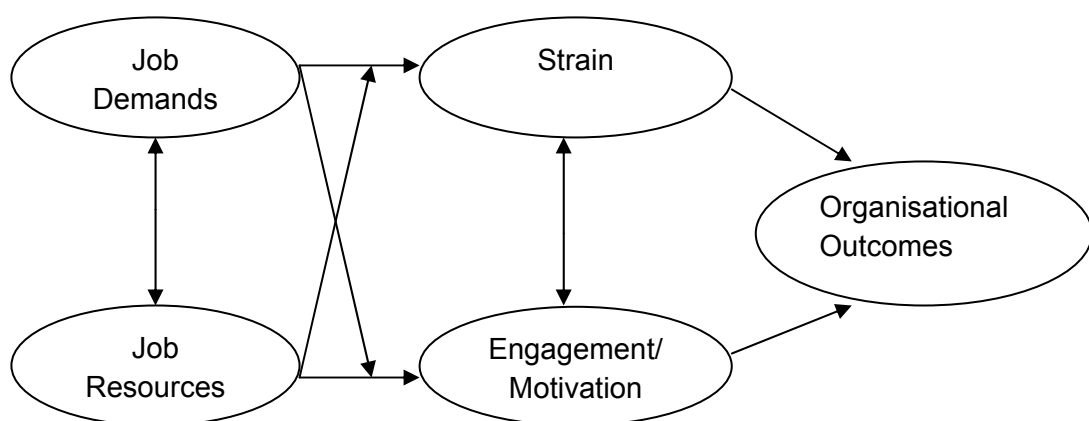


Figure 3. Job Demand-Resource Model

(Bakker & Demerouti, 2006, p.313)

The model consists of job demands and job resources which exist concurrently in the content of the job. What the model (Fig. 3) actually depicts is that the exhausting aspects of the job (such as workload, time pressure, and difficult physical environment) will be job demands whereas the stimulating aspects of the job (such as support, developmental opportunity and supervisory relationship) are referred to as job resources. The model (Fig.3) assumes interaction between overall, composite indicators of job demands and a similar indicator of job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006).

The model (Fig. 3) suggests that these two aspects (i.e. demands and resources) are not supplementing one another, but rather contribute equally to positive employee, job and organisational outcomes. This assumption was actually supported in the study by Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli and Schreurs (2003) and Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli (2006) who found that job resources buffered the impact of job demands on burnout. Although these two aspects of the model (Fig. 3) are important, this research will focus mostly on job demands as an aspect of WC that is hypothesised to have a relationship with the SCS of soldiers (See par 1.3).

As mentioned above, job demands are one of the overarching categories of the JD-R model (Fig. 3) which refers to the aspects of the work context that overburden the employees' personal capacity (Van Den Broeck et al., 2010). It refers to physical, social, or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and mental effort by the employees (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010; Hakanen et al., 2006; Hansez & Chmiel, 2010; Hu et al., 2011). Whether they are administrative hassles, emotional conflict or role overload they require sustained effort (physical and psychological) by the employee (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2011). These demands can elicit stress in the short-term, but they have a potential of disrupting one's well-being in the long run (Sonnentag, Binnewies & Mojza, 2010).

The JD-R model (Fig. 3) seems to be in agreement with the theory of job characteristics (see par 2.3.1) which puts more prominence on the motivational potential of job resources at the task level (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006).

Research suggests that job demands are somehow linked to psychological costs and contribute to employee burnout which can potentially be disruptive on how the person performs his/her work (Van Den Broeck et al., 2010; Crawford et al., 2010; Nahrgang et al., 2011). What happens is that high job demands activate physiological and psychological systems in order to mobilise the energy levels to respond to the demands (Sonnetag et al., 2010). This is particularly true in a situation where excessive job demands placed on the employee with lack of job resources drain the employee's energy, thus resulting in negative work and organisational outcomes (Hu et al., 2011). For instance, soldiers find themselves under pressure to operate in peace support operations, internal exercises, and even run military courses with limited financial resources, equipment and infrastructure.

In reality, employees who are confronted with these demands for the first time will try to withstand them and focus all their energy on surpassing them, but as time goes on their energy levels are depleted. The only way employees retain their energy is by drawing back on their jobs and disengaging, thus withholding performance (Van Den Broeck et al., 2010). Instead of disengaging, Sonnetag et al (2010) suggest that employees may use a temporary relief system at the end of each working day where they deactivate their physiological and psychological system. This action will reduce the elevated strain level and recover one's body (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006). This, however, is a temporary measure – for a more long-term arrangement, the removal of job demands from the physical work environment is necessary (Sonnetag et al., 2010).

Employees who find themselves in such a situation are faced with a trade-off between the protection of their performance goals (e.g. benefits, promotion) and their mental efforts that have to be invested in their job. This trade-off has the potential of impinging on employees' performance. This trade-off can be managed by creating a balance between the increasing job demands and job resources (Hakanen et al., 2006). For instance, increasing demands on soldiers can be balanced by introducing more resources such as autonomy, supervisory support, more benefits and increased salary levels to ensure continued performance by soldiers. Hu et al. (2011) found that high job demands and low resources were moderately correlated for blue collars that are extrinsically motivated and less dedicated to their work as opposed to health care professionals who are more intrinsically motivated. This implies that employees who are less dedicated to their work and who do not have inner drive to stretch themselves beyond the lack of resources are less likely to fall prey to devastating well-being problems such as ill-health, depression and stress. Furthermore, the relationship between job demands and work engagement depends on the perception (i.e. challenge or hindrance) of that particular demand, how people appraise the demands and react to them.

2.3.2.1 Challenge

These demands can be perceived as stressful, but promote mastery, personal growth, or/and future gain. They are appraised by many employees as potentially promoting personal growth, opportunity to achieve, and demonstrating competence and development (Nahrgang et al., 2011). For example, job demands such as workload, time pressure, and high levels of responsibility are physically and psychologically draining but have a potential to drive employees to perform at their best if appraised as a challenge, rather than a threat. Research found a positive correlation between job demands and positive job outcomes such as job engagement and job performance (Van Den Broeck et al., 2010). This result can be linked to the employees' appraisal of job demands.

For instance, if the employee perceives the demands presented by his/her job as a challenge he/she is likely to increase their performance, eventually resulting in job engagement and good performance. The mere appraisal of the demands as fulfilling, engaging and developing can be seen as a display of subjective career success experienced by employees.

2.3.2.2 Hindrance

On the contrary, demands such as role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload and red tape are perceived as performance hindrances, barriers or constraints by employees (Nahrgang et al., 2011; Van Den Broeck et al., 2010). These types of demands are referred to as hindrances and are associated with decreased level of motivation and engagement (Crawford et al., 2010). The hindrances impede personal growth, learning, and goal attainment. For instance, when the employees appraise the job demands as hindrances they are likely to underperform. In addition to challenge versus hindrance type of demands, job demands are further classified in terms of psychological, emotional and physical job demands (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009; Van Den Tooren & De Jonge, 2010). Although this is the case, this research will only focus on psychological and physical job demands.

2.3.2.3 Psychological job demands

Psychological job demands refer to employee work performance and the presence of conflicting demands (work/family demands) (Dziak, Janzen & Muhajarine, 2010; Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009). These demands that affect the person's mental health are described as time pressure, heavy workload, routine work, and conflicting demands (work/family conflict) (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009). Constant exposure to these demands is detrimental to the career of those employees carrying the workload and eventually the organisational success.

Excessive exposure to psychological demands can be adverse to health when the decision latitude is low. Decision latitude is “the working individual’s potential control over his tasks and his conduct during the working day” (Mikkelsen, Øgaard & Landsbergis, 2005, p. 157). This view was advocated by Sonnentag et al (2010) by stating that constant exposure to these demands causes poor well-being over time which then impacts on the employees’ level of satisfaction and engagement in the work. It is important to note that a combination of high demands and low decision latitude develops more active learning and internal locus of control, enabling the employee to develop a greater range of coping strategies, motivation and job satisfaction (Mikkelsen et al., 2005).

Furthermore, those exposed to these prolonged conditions can suffer from psychological and well-being distress, which can manifest in the form of burnout and continuous conflict in the work/family situations (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009). High psychological demands have been associated with musculoskeletal pain such as neck and shoulder complaints (Schreuder, Roelen, Koopmans & Groothoff, 2008). This can result in depletion in the soldiers’ interests in their jobs and their commitment to the organisation. In order to attenuate the relationship between job demands and poor well-being, resources such as job control, social support and self-efficacy were mobilised (Sonnentag et al., 2010). A discussion on these resources, particularly self-efficacy, will follow later in this research (see par 2.5.2).

One of the compelling resources in the management of psychological job demands particularly work/family conflict, is the issue of psychological detachment. It refers to an individual’s sense of being away from work – switching off. An employee does not take any work home; think about work or attempt to engage in any work related activities at home or during non-work time. The benefit of psychological detachment is that it allows a person to focus on other areas of life that will generate new ideas and perspectives that will eventually assist the maintaining a positive view about one’s job (Sonnentag et al., 2010).

However, the success of this method depends on the employees' willingness and the ability to psychologically detach from their work. This lack of ability will result in the continuation of the psychological strain and energy depletion.

2.3.2.4 Physical job demands

Physical job demands are associated with the musculoskeletal system that provides form, support, stability, and movement to the body. They affect the person's state of physical well-being such as long working hours, exposure to risk, danger, climate, temperature, fatigue and heavy workload (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009; Van Den Broeck et al., 2010). For instance, members who experience constant physical strain will exhibit poor job performance, ill health, or job dissatisfaction that will eventually have a adverse effect on their careers. These demands require a sustained physical or cognitive effort and skills from the employees (Nahrgang et al., 2011). For instance, in the military soldiers constantly engage in tasks that require them to lift heavy loads, kneel, stoop, and operate in confined spaces for a long time.

Research found that people with physically demanding jobs are also of lower socioeconomic positions and at the same time have harder living conditions and poorer health (Chau & Khlal, 2009). Physical job demands are viewed as hindrances because they have the potential to hinder performance (Nahrgang et al., 2011). Given a wide range of job demands, specific attention will be given to those demands that are typically presented by military jobs such as work overload/heavy workload, exposure to risk of injury and death, and conflicting demands (or work/family conflict). Some of these demands are said to be imposed by the greedy nature of the military (Kgosana, 2010).

2.3.2.4.1 Work overload/heavy workload

Work overload is usually defined as “occurring when the environmental situation poses demands which exceed the individual’s capabilities for meeting them” (Karasek, 1979, p. 287). It simply occurs when the employee’s workload becomes too high for him/her. Research found that employees working in flat organisations experienced less workload, higher autonomy, efficiency, and less psychological stress than employees working in medium and hierarchical organisations. The study further found that women are more prone to work overload than men due to their physique (Borg & Kristensen, 1999). Physical workload was identified by many authors as a risk factor for musculoskeletal complaints, impaired work ability and early retirement from the labour market (Campo, Weiser & Koenig, 2009; Holtermann, Jørgensen, Gram, Christensen, Faber, Overgaard, Ektor-Andersen, Mortensen, Sjøgaard & Sjøgaard, 2010; Schreuder et al., 2008). In the study by Nabitz, Jansen, Van Der Voet and Van Den Brink (2009) high workload and job uncertainty were the predictors of work strain. Due to high workload, employees suffer from poor health which later impacts on their commitment to the organisation as well as their longterm career prospects, thus resulting in dissatisfaction with careers.

2.3.2.4.2 Exposure to risk of injury or death

Recent study by Nahrgang et al. (2011) found that exposure to risks and hazards impair employees’ health and positively relates to burnout. The two job demands were also found to be more consistent job demands across industries in terms of explaining variance in burnout and work engagement (Nahrgang et al., 2011). In the context of safety, the presence of risk constitutes environmental and workplace conditions and exposures, which includes possible loss of life, injury and chance of danger. The presence of risk has the potential to increase employees’ perception of danger.

Constant exposure to risky operations will likely deplete the employees' mental and physical resources, thus impacting on the employee over well-being and safety (Leonard & Alison, 1999; Nahrgang et al., 2011). Research found that older soldiers in more physically demanding jobs (such as gunnery, mechanical, riflemen, etc.) were found to retire earlier in comparison to soldiers with less demanding jobs (such as logistics, personnel, communications, etc.) (Hollander & Bell, 2010). In most cases, soldiers performing high demand jobs find themselves exposed to potential risk of compromised safety, ill-health, and injuries. This potential risk is actually viewed as a hindrance because it has the capacity to impede progress towards working safely, therefore, hindering employee safety (Nahrgang et al, 2011). This will subsequently result in a lack of interest to engage in safety activities at work or even be satisfied with work.

2.3.2.4.3 Conflicting demands (or work/family conflict)

Soldiers have an unusual working environment, with long periods of absence from their families, loved ones, and friends and from their home units. Furthermore, they are exposed to high demands in their work which often conflict with their normal family life – creating work-family conflict. Work-family conflict is a form of interrole conflict that occurs when the role requirements of work and family are incompatible with each other. This often occurs when one's work roles interfere with successful execution of one's family roles (Bowling, 2007). This conflict manifests itself in excessive time pressure, incompatible work schedules and fatigue (Kgosana, 2010)

Due to the fact that soldiers are on duty twenty four hours, seven days a week (24/7), they are often expected to leave their families and respond to their duty promptly. Sometimes they sacrifice or miss out on important family events such as birthday celebrations; birth of little ones in the family; and children's school achievement celebrations, thus creating work-family conflict.

Sometimes military duties interrupt life changing processes that require the contributions of both parties, such as wedding plans or celebrations. For instance, a soldier who is being called for deployment directly after he/she got married will have to respond to duty leaving the new bride/groom behind. A response to this kind of situation always comes at a cost. The soldier either sacrifices new love and responds to duty, thus leaving tension at home, or sacrifices duty and be charged for disobedience of lawful command or/and lose the deployment remunerations. Often, soldiers choose to respond positively towards the military by leaving their families in dismay. This “tug-of-war” is more like second nature to soldiers. However, it does not come easy. Soldiers go through a lot of stress, and sometimes experience minor depression trying to come to terms with the situation (Borg & Kristensen, 1999). Job demands will be measured by using Work Load Scale of the Sources of Work Stress questionnaire (De Bruin & Taylor, 2006) and this will be discussed in par 3.5.2. Following this, is the discussion on salary as a component of WC.

2.3.3 Salaries in the military

The majority of organisations have a salary policy, which explicitly states the conditions under which performance will be rewarded, with no exception to the military. Salary policy includes paying competitive salaries to reward good performance; for the attraction and sustenance of the calibre of staff required. Salary policy may be explicitly stated in the salary manual, or may be clearly defined, or built up by organisational tradition (McBeath & Rands, 1969).

Salary is one of the determinants of the best-admired company to work for (Martins & Von Der Ohe, 2002). Salary refers to pay received for time worked provided to the employee by the employer (Williams, 1995). It is often referred to as an indicator of OCS (Rode, Arthaud-Day, Mooney, Near & Baldwin, 2008).

Previously, the SANDF used impressive salaries, benefits and allowances as one of its recruitment and retention strategies, which benefited the organisation by retaining the most skilled soldiers (DOD, 1996). However, the salaries and benefits in the SANDF were controlled to provide parity between the SANDF personnel and the public sector personnel. This situation left the SANDF with no mechanism of determining salaries and benefits for soldiers (DOD, 1996). This raised a concern, since the unique circumstances of soldiers were not catered for. As a result, the previous salary dispensation of the Public Service and the military severely disadvantaged the Defence Force, and led to the loss of a number of technical professionals in the Army, Air Force, Navy and South African Military Health Services (SAMHS). This can be due to the uncompetitive remunerations levels of the previous dispensation (Sisulu, 2010), a possible indication of the lack of CS, in comparison to what was offered by other organisations.

In order to manage the situation, the Ministry of Defence introduced the Occupational Specific Dispensation (OSD) (effective from 1 July 2010) to retain skills in the military. This came after the realisation that the shortage of skills, knowledge and experience will cripple the SANDF core capacity if soldiers' salaries are not in line with their unique circumstances (Sisulu, 2010). This serves as an acknowledgement of the WC of soldiers and their commitment to their duty at all times, with the call for government responsibility to show support for them (Sisulu, 2010). This recognition of the soldiers' unique WC and the salaries they receive for their jobs was actually viewed in line with the equity theory or pay satisfaction. This theory argues that satisfaction with pay is a function of obtained pay in relation to the individual's perceived input or contribution to the job in relation to other people holding similar jobs. The model is based on the perceived external/internal equality of pay in the same/similar situations (Dreher, 1981).

Furthermore, salary satisfaction was positively related with attitude towards supervisors, advancement opportunities and the company benefit package. People with positive attitude towards their jobs tend to be more satisfied with their salaries (Dreher, Ash & Bretz, 1988).

Research found that monthly salary and pay satisfaction co-vary in a positive direction (Dreher, 1981) and that satisfaction with salary correlates positively with job performance and organisational commitment (Dreher, 1981; Williams, 1995). People with high perceived performance expectations tend to be less satisfied with their salary than people with low expectations. This can be rooted in the concept of matching one's experiences and skills with the salary. Another factor that creates dissatisfaction with ones' job can be the comparison of a similar job in other companies (Dreher, 1981). Other factors that tend to affect the value that the employees place on their salary is the employees' lifestyle and needs (Williams, 1995). The argument is that once the salary or compensation fulfils security, basic economic and social needs, there is the likelihood that employee satisfaction, loyalty and commitment will increase (Dreher et al., 1988).

2.3.3.1 The anguish of low salaries for soldiers

The issue of salaries and remunerations packages has been on discussion by many soldiers for years. Many soldiers who have been in a service for a long time find themselves in the predicament of not being able to provide sufficiently for their families. Due to economic conditions soldiers find themselves struggling to purchase houses for their loved ones or even to take their children to institutions of higher education due to lower salaries. These low salaries resulted in some soldiers living in indecent conditions in the informal settlements (i.e. shacks) and being unable to even afford transport fare to their bases (News 24, 2010). Soldiers opted for deployment duties, which did not provide much sustenance for soldiers and some chose to leave the SANDF and join the police service and the private sector just to have a decent life, an indication of lack of career success. Some soldiers wanted to give up their right to vote in exchange for personal tax deductions (News 24, 2010). The displayed dissatisfaction by soldiers with their WC which resulted in disregard of the hierarchy of obedience by engaging in a protest march in the capital city of Pretoria, which turned violent (Campbell, 2010; News 24, 2010).

This left everyone in shock and shortly afterwards the new salary increases were announced by the government (Campbell, 2010). Among others, this demonstration was an eye opener for the nation, the government, and other soldiers in terms of the conditions that soldiers endure in the execution of their duties as well as the sacrifice that soldiers make in the process. Soldiers do not only sacrifice their safety, right to life and career satisfaction, but also the economic stability and happiness of their families. This eventually, impedes their perception of CS and their level of satisfaction with CS. Satisfaction with salary will be measured by Pay Satisfaction Questionnaires (PSQ) (Judge, 1993) (see par 3.5.3).

2.3.4 Job security

Job security is defined as a “perceived stability and continuance of one’s job as one knows it” (Probst, 2003, p. 452). It is about a feeling of stability in the job as well as a sense of security. Once this continuity in a job is compromised, lack of trust and organisational commitment will surface, resulting in a negative relationship between the employees and the organisation (Staufenbiel & König, 2010). In the past, many countries introduced job security provisions with the aim of protecting workers against economic fluctuations, thus providing a sense of stability to employees’ careers (Pagés & Montenegro, 2007). This was a mechanism to bypass the layoff costs of high tenure employees. For instance, instead of paying long-serving employees who have been laid off, they would rather provide them with long-term employment prospects. Even though this benefited many organisations, it resulted in a mixture of positive and negative consequences such as a decrease in job creation efforts, decreased job construction flows and an increase in incidents of long-term employment (Pagés & Montenegro, 2007). Although this was a common practice for most companies, the popular perception is that jobs still became less stable and less secure in the 1980s with this provision in place (Steward, 2000). These conditions continued until the 1990s.

However, research shows that job security increased significantly from 1970 until 2000 for many countries, particularly the United States (U.S.) (Steward, 2000). Although this was the case, job security became a growing public concern for many (Givord & Maurin, 2004).

Job security was measured by looking at the number of job losses for a specific period and comparing that with the number of losses in the past. For instance, looking at the number of job loss cases from 2001 until 2005 as compared to the number of job losses from 2006 to 2010. A difference between these two periods will determine the rate of job loss for a specific period. It should be recognized that job security is not a matter of counting job loss cases, but a subjective term that is defined based on the individual's perception and interpretation of the work environment (Bosman et al., 2005a). As the above definition suggests, job security is reflected by continuity of employment within a particular organisation (Bosman, Rothman & Buitendach, 2005c). This continuity of employment is prevalent in the SANDF where soldiers are granted permanent employment contracts by the state (see par 2.3.4.1). Lack of continuation of contracts can be referred to as a state of job insecurity as previously denoted by Ashford, Lee and Bobko (1989, p. 804) as "powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatening job situation". A feeling of job insecurity is likely to be caused by job conditions such as role ambiguity and role conflict as well as personal factors such as locus of control (see par 2.5.1) (Ashford et al., 1989). Some are of the opinion that the perceived powerlessness can be an important variable in the study of job security by playing a moderating role in the perception of job security (Probst, 2003). The perception and the meaning of job security in the military environment follow below.

2.3.4.1 *The meaning of job security for soldiers*

The continuance of employment prevailed in the SANDF where soldiers who joined the force before 1994 enjoy the status of permanent employment due to the conditions of their employment contract. These soldiers were classified as permanent force members (PF). Most of these soldiers were from the former South African Defence Force (SADF) that was offered this provision as a retention strategy by the former Commander-in-Chief, Nelson Mandela (DOD, 1996). Apart from this retention strategy, soldiers with a long service in the force were offered permanent contracts by the state afterwards as a gesture of appreciating their contribution to the force. In some instances, soldiers were offered permanent contracts with the SANDF as a way of reducing financial cost that could be incurred by the organisation should these soldiers leave (DOD, 1996).

The common employment practice in the SANDF was that, soldiers join the organisation voluntarily for economic reasons contrary to the previous conscription of white males (Mankayi, 2010). Research found that most soldiers voluntarily join the SANDF for economic reasons, social mobility, job security or educational opportunities (Franke & Heinecken, 1999; Heinecken & Khanyile, 1996; Sasson-Levy, 2003). Studies indicated that 78.7% of soldiers joined because of job security and career prospects in the military (Heinecken & Khanyile, 1996). Advocating this view is Mankayi's (2010) research where the majority of participants maintained that soldiering was about commitment and love for the country, and also job security. What this research revealed is that, the majority of soldiers viewed soldiering as a career, not a calling tinted by self-sacrifice as it used to be. This means that their focus is on satisfying their career needs and aspirations and being successful in their careers more than anything (Mankayi, 2010).

Due to changes in the SANDF employment contracts, soldiers' employment/service conditions were changed from permanent to contractual basis where continuity of employment was initiated by soldiers. This change in the employment contract highlights the changes in the soldiers' perception of job security that might have been taking place, but remained overlooked. For instance, in the past every soldier was almost certain that his/her job was secured, but with these changes in the employment contract job security cannot be confirmed by soldiers. For instance, if a person joins the SANDF through the military skills development system (MSDS) he/she will undergo two years of military training. At the end of these two years, some individuals are given a five-year contract in the Regular Force (RF) serving under the core service system contract (CSS) while others join the Reserve Force (RF) serving a five-year contract with commitment of thirty (30) days per year (DOD, 2006/2007) . At the end of five-year contract, soldiers can then request renewal of their contract from the SANDF if they still wish to be employed by the SANDF – initiating continuity of employment. Although this sounds like an easy paper-and-pen administration, there are other factors (such as medical conditions and conduct) that are considered by the SANDF before they can actually enlist any applying soldier.

Although it is rare for the SANDF to deny contract renewal, the thought of going through this process with the chance that one might end up without a job can be stressful or worrying for soldiers. This practice of the five-year contract spilled over to the soldiers who joined before the MSDS system, but were not long enough in the system to be offered permanent employment contract (e.g. medium term service (MTS) and short term service (STS) contract soldiers). These soldiers are also offered five-year CSS contracts by the state that is renewed upon request.

Most people feel more secure in permanent public sector jobs because they provide permanent employment contracts and are perceived to be insulated from labour market fluctuations (Clark & Postel-Vinay, 2009). An example is the recent economic recession where most employees around the world were concerned about losing their jobs.

Due to this catastrophe, a large number of companies and organisations could not cope with the conditions; therefore, they were forced to retrench their valuable employees (Givord & Maurin, 2004). In the same situation, under the same conditions, none of the SANDF members were retrenched due to organisational financial losses - their jobs were secure.

2.3.4.2 Outcomes of job security

It should also be acknowledged that job security is one of the determining factors when choosing a future employer (organisation) and it influences various organisational attitudes and behaviours in a positive way (Clark, 2001; Martins & Von Der Ohe, 2002). It is one of the first and most important aspects of a job that determines satisfaction, followed by pay, and then the work itself. Before one applies for the job, the first question that comes to mind is “is this job a permanent or temporary arrangement?” If the answer is “permanent”, depicting job security, then there is a likelihood that the person will take the job and enlist with that organisation (Clark & Postel-Vinay, 2009).

Job security and satisfaction with salary were found to be most powerful predictors of employee turnover in many organisations (Clark, 2001). This statement is in agreement with what Oldham and Hackman’s model proposes in terms of hygiene factors (e.g. job security and salary) – which maintains that job security together with salary are great motivators for employees and lead to a feeling of career success (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Stocker, Jacobshagen, Semmer & Annen, 2010). High job security is often linked to increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment, trust in management and the intention to stay in the organisation, particularly when the management demonstrates support for the employees (Bosman et al., 2005c; De Witte, 2005; Origo & Pagani, 2009). This is particularly true in the situation where there is an established trust relationship between the employees and the employer.

For instance, if, employees feel that their jobs are secure, they will focus less on worrying about seeking employment, and more on increasing organisational efforts to ensure their continuous contributions to their jobs and making a success of their careers.

A study revealed that employee participation rates, particularly for older workers, increase with an increase in job security (Pagés & Montenegro, 2007). Furthermore, employees with longer organisational service are found to be more secure, but are not necessarily satisfied with their security (Probst, 2003). Salter (as cited in Bosman, Buitendach & Rothman, 2005b) found a positive relationship between job security and internal locus of control of employees (see par 2.5.1.1). Furthermore, research found that an increase in job security leads to a decline in the employment rates of young workers (Pagés & Montenegro, 2007). For younger employees job security outcomes are experienced far differently from that of older workers. For younger workers, job security means reduced employment rates. Job security reduces the continuation value of work for younger workers, making them more vulnerable to dismissals during difficult times, such as recessions, than older workers.

Based on these two views, it can be assumed that increased job security is a double-edged sword i.e. when it is applied strictly (i.e. high job security) young employees have a slim chance of employment or are dismissed by organisations; and when it is relaxed (i.e. low job security) the organisation suffers the cost of paying high severance packages to older employees for long service. An increase in severance pay substantially lowers the number of jobs in the labour market (Lazear, 1990). This is supported by the results in Pagés and Montenegro's (2007) study, which revealed that employment protection by way of increasing job security is detrimental for young workers. This dimension will be measured using five statements adopted from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967) (see par 3.5.4).

2.4 Career success

Changes in the world of work caused by factors such as job insecurity, globalisation, changing organisational and societal values may impact future CS (Pretorius & Morgan, 2010). Many studies have explored this concept and came up with various definitions (Young & Collin, 2000; Baruch, 2004; Abele & Spurk, 2009). For this research, a definition of CS will be “the positive material and psychological outcomes resulting from one’s work-related activities and experience” (Callanan & Greenhaus, 2006, p. 148). CS is a cumulative outcome, the product of behaviours collected over a long period of time (Seibert, Crant & Kraimer, 1999). CS is defined in terms of continued growth and self-renewing experiences, and to some, CS means unchanged work identity (Kanye & Crous, 2007). These two views highlight the existing differences in the view on CS i.e. traditional and contemporary views.

- *Traditional view:* The traditional conceptions of CS focus on the objective indicators of CS such as salary, attained promotion or organisational level. It means advancement from one job level to the next or one salary level to the next. This is viewed as observable and tangible artefacts indicating CS.
- *Contemporary view:* On the contrary, the contemporary conception of CS means acquisition of different skills, abilities and competencies, and perception of job level. It focuses on inner personal meaning of career such as feeling of accomplishment, achievement and fulfilment regarding a career (or career satisfaction) (Seibert et al, 1999). This inner personal meaning of CS denotes SCS, which is the main focus of this research. Under unstable and uncertain employment conditions, subjective indicators are viewed as major indicators of CS as opposed to objective indicators (De Vos & Soens, 2008).

In the world where careers have taken up a boundaryless career shape (where careers are no longer dependent on the traditional organisational career arrangement, but move across different boundaries of different employers and different occupations), the objective indicators of careers may no longer be viable, necessitating SCS (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Pretorius & Morgan, 2010). Given the nature of the population under study, where CS is still measured by upward hierarchical movement, income and organisational level, one can actually ask whether the concept of SCS exists in the military domain or not. An answer to this will be provided theoretically and by performing statistical analysis in Chapter 4.

Naturally, military jobs are characterised by security, heightened promotion levels, and clear career paths mapped for each member (DOD, 1996). Every level of promotion is coupled with an increase in responsibilities, salary and benefits such as increased pension. Although the career path is clear, promotion might take longer than expected or sometimes not happen at all, but one still finds soldiers carrying their day-to-day tasks with pride.

However, there are other organisational activities that are taking place during one's military career, such as studying opportunities, lateral placements, military career development courses (i.e. promotional, functional, and developmental courses which form part of the developmental process of the soldiers) presented in the SANDF by different units and foreign courses (i.e. training opportunities at approved institutions outside the border of RSA). All this should be acknowledged as motivating factors potentially influencing the soldiers' perceptions of CS. Soldiers engage in these activities to facilitate organisational learning and also for self-enrichment and development, which are aspects of SCS (DOD, 2005). For instance, soldiers are afforded the opportunity to study at SAMA for a bachelor's degree in different fields like Human and Organisation Development, Organisation and Resource Management, and Technology.

Given the prevailing perception that CS is conceptualised as having two dimensions (i.e. OCS and SCS) (De Vos & Soens, 2008; Kanye & Crous, 2007; Pretorius & Morgan, 2010; Seibert et al, 1999). Following is the discussion is on those dimensions, paying attention to SCS as the main focus of this study. The reason why SCS is not viewed in isolation is the fact that these two dimensions proved to be interrelated over time. Many researchers seem to be in agreement that objective indicators of OCS directly influence SCS (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Heslin, 2005; Hall & Chander, 2005; Lau, Shaffer & Au, 2007). For instance, how a person experiences the aspects of OCS will influence how the person subjectively perceives CS, and this feeling of OCS has a direct influence on the development of SCS (Abele & Spurk, 2009).

An illustration of the link between OCS, SCS and other factors (i.e. personality, job performance) will be illustrated in the model below (see Fig. 4). This model (Fig. 4) is based on the social learning theory which postulates that people can learn and modify their personality for CS (Lau & Shaffer, 1999). Firstly, the model (Fig. 4) illustrates that certain personality factors (e.g. locus of control, self-esteem, etc) determine person-environment fit, job performance and OCS and SCS. Secondly, person-environment fit determines job performance and OCS and SCS. Lastly, job performance seems to be a determinant for OCS and SCS (Lau & Shaffer, 1999)

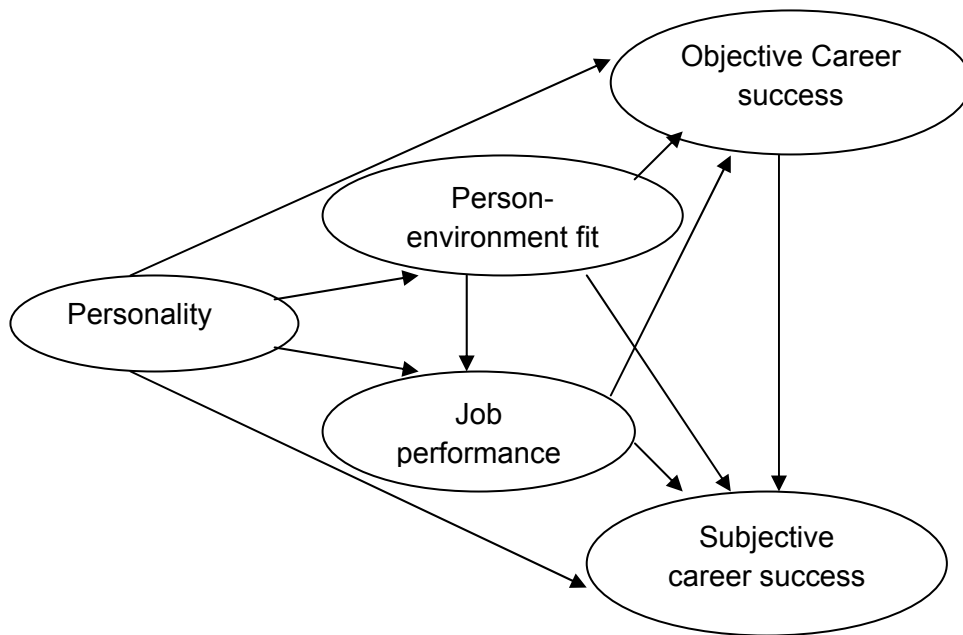


Figure 4. A Conceptual Model of Career Success

(Lau & Shaffer, 1999, p. 227)

This interrelationship between OCS and SCS was further demonstrated by Hall and Chandler (2005) (see Fig. 5) and a discussion on these two factors will follow directly after the model (Fig. 5).

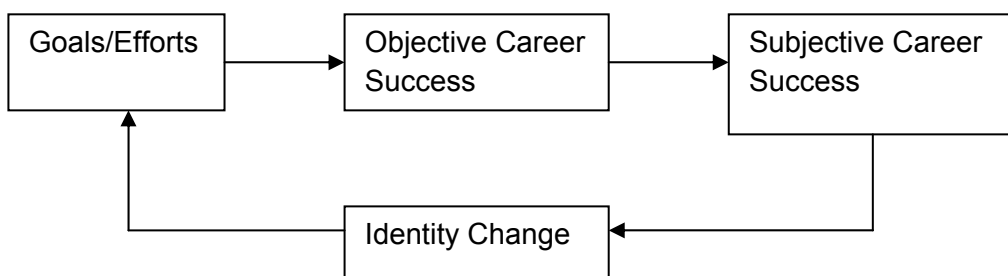


Figure 5. Subjective Career Success Model

(Hall & Chandler, 2005, p. 158)

This model (Fig. 5) maintains that goal setting, objective career success, subjective career success, and identity changes as the person gains experience and achieves high level or performance and mastery (Hall & Chandler, 2005).

2.4.1 Objective career success

OCS is defined in terms of the organisational and business confines. It is more short term, unpredictable and continuously changing achievements (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). It is usually measured by observable indicators such as lifelong learning, salary, autonomy, learning new skills, rank, organisational position and the job title (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Callanan & Greenhaus, 2006; Gattiker & Larwood, 1986; Pretorius & Morgan, 2010). These characteristics represent observable accomplishments and are sometimes referred to as extrinsic CS indicators, simply because they are attached to the organisation and not the individual and are mostly controlled by the organisation (Callanan & Greenhaus, 2006). This is typical of CS experienced by soldiers motivated by the will to excel and get to higher positions in the organisational hierarchy. This was espoused by Rubinstein (2006) when he mentioned that choosing a career for soldiers means focusing on moving up the organisational ladder and staying permanently in their jobs for a long time.

Although these seem to be attractive factors for most soldiers, research found that receiving high pay and getting promotions do not necessarily lead to a feeling of success as expected, instead they lead to depressive reactions and personal alienation (Heslin, 2005). Previous studies also found that loss of personal affiliation by managers leads to personal and social alienation. These managers might have achieved great heights in their career and presumed to be satisfied and successful in their career by many people, but in reality, they were generally not satisfied with their careers due to positional estrangement (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986).

Although the military view of CS seems to be inclined to OCS with the presumption that soldiers have successful careers, the possibility of SCS being held in the military should not be ruled out completely.

The purpose of this study is to determine the existence of any relationship between WC, PF and SCS and to introduce these concepts within the military context.

2.4.2 Subjective career success

SCS is operationalised as perceived job or career satisfaction (Heslin, 2005). SCS reflects the individual's feeling of achievement and satisfaction with the career (Pretorius & Morgan, 2010). It is characterised by an increase in the level of competence, skills, self-esteem, and responsibility in the position the person holds, achievement of self-development, lateral transition, good work-life balance, receiving recognition for work performed and working with interesting colleagues (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Callanan & Greenhaus, 2006; Gattiker & Larwood, 1986; Pretorius & Morgan, 2010; Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011; Torsi, Rizzo & Carrol, 1994). These characteristics are the intrinsic CS indicators (Callanan & Greenhaus, 2006) because they are driven by the person's inner career motives (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). SCS is more long-term and stable and it represents the employee's subjective evaluation relative to his/her life and work goals and expectations (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Heslin, 2005; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001;). Furthermore, SCS refers to the person's own developmental preferences in a particular occupation. Focusing on the subjective indicators of careers will not only provide information on the individual's perception of their own careers, but it will also outline the individual's impact on their own career development (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986).

The perception of SCS is highly influenced by perceived job characteristics and job content. In most cases, job characteristics (like workload, bureaucracy, organisational support, etc) tend to influence employee's feeling about themselves, their abilities and their careers (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986). How the individual appraise these job characteristics has a great influence on how the person will assess his/her CS.

For instance, if one perceives job characteristics to be a challenge instead of a hindrance, that person will most probably perceive his/her career in a positive light. SCS can be divided into three dimensions i.e. perceived career achievement, career satisfaction and perceived financial achievement (Heslin, 2005; Lau et al., 2007):

- Perceived career achievement - refers to positive outcomes at work based on personal appraisals in terms of career attainment. Success is achieved when the person's career goals are achieved.
- Career satisfaction - refers to positive outcomes at work based on psychological well-being (Lau et al., 2007). It is the most salient aspect of SCS and relates to a person's satisfaction with the aspects of the job. For instance, a person who is generally happy with aspects of the job is likely to perceive his/her career as successful.
- Perceived financial achievement - refers to positive outcomes at work based on personal appraisal in terms of financial attainment. Success is achieved when the person earns more money than his/her friends.

2.4.3 Antecedents of career success

There are various factors that serve as antecedents to CS such as the supervisor, peers, organisational support, career flexibility, career networks, work-life balance, and high career motivation (Kgosana, 2008, 2010; Pretorius & Morgan, 2010; Wolff & Moser, 2009). Work-family balance and supervisor support were found to be more prominent factors in determining CS.

It was found that once this balance is lost, work/family conflict will result, leading to lack of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for many employees (Kgosana, 2010; Pretorius & Morgan, 2010). Kgosana (2008, 2010) found that a supportive work environment is likely to reduce the negative effects of work/family conflict that is caused by military demands.

Career networking is related to both OCS and SCS (Wolff & Moser, 2009). This factor has a pervasive influence on the experience of both OCS and SCS. Supervisor and peer support was found to be a compelling factor in the perception of SCS (Hall & Chander, 2005; Kgosana, 2008). This was espoused by Kalamdien (2008) when he mentioned that integrated support (i.e. supervisor, fellow soldiers, peer, family, etc) could have a significant influence not only on the achievement of the organisational objectives, but also the feeling of soldiers' effectiveness and success on deployments.

Other studies found gender (i.e. males) and educational level (i.e. post matric level) to be good sources of CS. Gender was closely related to salary and managerial level where males mostly assumed high positions and earned high salaries, whereas educational level was closely related to financial success (Heslin, 2005; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). Other variables such as years of experience, the number and length of employment gaps, occupational background, and the type of organisation are associated with CS (Seibert et al., 1999; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). SCS was related positively to self-efficacy (see par 2.5.2) (Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011). SCS will be measured using Career Success Scale (CSS) (Greenhaus et al., 1990), and will be discussed in par 3.5.5. Following this is the discussion on PFs that serve as motivators (satisfiers) in SCS of soldiers (see par 2.4.2). These factors will be dealt with individually in the discussion below following the description of PF as a construct.

2.5 Personality factors

The topic of personality became popular after World War II and it was acknowledged in the field of Industrial Psychology after the 1990s (Hogan, 2005; Hough, 2003). Due to different views on the origin and development of personality as a construct, many definitions of personality were formulated. However, there seems to be some commonality about these definitions resulting in personality being defined as “the dynamic and organized set of characteristics of a person that uniquely influence his/her cognitions, motivations, and behaviours (Lau & Schaffer, 1999). There are three paradigms of psychology i.e. benevolent eclecticism (is the long vulnerable line of personality); partisan zealots (is the theory of believers); and enthusiastic taxonomy (it classifying theories according to epistemological origins). The enthusiastic taxonomy further categorizes personality into five schools of thoughts i.e. psychoanalytic, traits, cognitive, existential and social behaviouristic perspective (Lau & Schaffer, 1999). This research will flow from the social behaviouristic perspective which assumes that behaviour is guided by motives; therefore, it can be learned and modified. Furthermore, behaviour occurs as a result of the interplay between inner processes and environmental influences (Bandura, 1982; Lau & Schaffer, 1999; Liebert & Spiegler, 1994).

There are many research that are conducted on CS focusing on personality traits and how these traits impact on CS (Seibert et al, 1999; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). In addition to personality traits, some went to the extent of studying the cognitive factors that motivate human behaviour in the workplace. Among the researched factors, locus of control, self-efficacy and assertive behaviour (together labelled PF) seem to be dominating the literature. However, it should be noted that this research is not cast in stone. There are some loopholes in the literature in terms of how PFs impact on the perception of SCS for soldiers, and how PFs play a role in the relation between WC and SCS of soldiers.

This part of the research will be on the explanation of the PFs, and how they impact on the perceived SCS by soldiers, and most importantly how they relate to WC and SCS.

2.5.1 Locus of control in the workplace

Spector (1988, p. 335) defines locus of control as “a generalised expectancy that rewards, reinforcements or outcomes in life are controlled by one’s own actions (internally) or by other forces (externally)”. Locus of control, particularly external locus of control (together with self-efficacy) is a construct of salutogenic functioning (Oosthuizen & Van Lill, 2008). Salutogenesis focuses on the origins of health and wellness. It is a combination of Latin and Greek words i.e. *salus* and *genesis*. *Salus* means health and *genesis* means origins (Breed, Cilliers & Visser, 2006).

The concept of locus of control stems from attribution theory (Cunningham, 2011). This theory originates from the relationship between person-perception and internal behaviour. Perception is “a mental process by which the person organises, interprets and understands sensory impressions from their environment” (Cunningham, 2011, p.60). This behaviour is shaped by both the internal and external forces combined together. Because the concept of locus of control is a matter of perception, the discrepancy between the person’s perception of internal forces and external forces will determine the person’s behaviour or response to a given situation. For instance, if the individual’s perception is internally inclined, that person is likely to behave in a way that demonstrates internal characteristics such as creative thinking, initiative, assertiveness and high self-esteem.

Locus of control does not refer to beliefs about control of personal actions, the competence to do the task, and self-control, but the belief about the source of control (Perrewé & Mizerski, 1987). This view was advocated by Kululu et al. (2006) when they mentioned that locus of control describes the belief about the location of one's source of control. It is the belief about whether outcomes flow from one's behaviour or extraneous variables (Bandura, 2005). Locus of control was originally developed by Rotter as having one dimension with polar opposites (internal and external dimensions).

The two dimensions were referred to as a continuum between internal and external ownership of one's power and actions (Ashford et al., 1989; Barbuto, Barbuto & De La Rey, 2010; Kululu et al., 2006). The internal ownership refers to the individual's genuine belief that the actions are consequence of own ability. The external ownership, on the other hand refers to the individual's belief that outcomes are the consequence of external factors (Wood et al., 2009). A strong correlation was found between locus of control and CS (Lau & Schaffer, 1999).

With more research being done on this construct, it was proposed that locus of control has three dimensions (e.g. internal locus of control, external locus of control and autonomy) (Oosthuizen & Van Lill, 2008). Internal and external locus of control are still explained in the same way, with the autonomy dimension referring to the independent action of an individual or a team in bringing about the conceptualising of an idea and implementing that idea (i.e. following through from conception to completion). For the purpose of this research, the focus will only be on the two original dimensions of locus of control (i.e. internal and external locus of control), and this will be discussed later in this section.

2.5.1.1 *Internal locus of control for soldiers*

Internal locus of control refers to the degree to which the individual expects the outcomes of his/her behaviour to be contingent on own acts (Smith, Hume & Zimmermann, 2007; Oosthuizen & Van Lill, 2008). For instance, people with internal locus of control believe that they are in control of their own lives (Kululu et al., 2006; Yukl, 2010). The construct of internal locus of control is a generalised expectancy that a person's own attempts will result in positive rewards. For instance, these people do not attribute any of their achievements to luck or chance, they are certain that whatever performance effort they put into their work will result in positive outcomes.

Compared to people with external locus of control, those with internal locus of control tend to view the environmental events as having less impact and believe that they have the power to counteract whatever threats their environment might impose. People with internal locus of control tend to take more objective steps when confronted with a threatening situation than externals. They are also assertive and are not likely to be threatened by any situation (Ashford et al., 1989; Kululu et al., 2006). Furthermore, these people attend to self-development, develop constructive relationships and achieve results (Breed et al., 2006). This calibre of soldiers (with internal locus of control, an objective mindset, assertiveness and ready to confront any situational threats, and who go out on their way to attain self development) will benefit the SANDF by achieving mission readiness, mission success and eventually reaching overall CS. Following this is a further discussion on external locus of control and how it unfolds in the military environment.

2.5.1.2 External locus of control for soldiers

Conversely, external locus of control refers to the extent to which the individual expects the outcome of his/her behaviour to be controlled by other powerful figures (Kululu et al., 2006; Smith et al., 2007; Oosthuizen & Van Lill, 2008; Yukl, 2010). For instance, these individuals believe that circumstances and the environment are in control of their lives (Kululu et al., 2006). Succumbing to the external factors, these individuals often attribute the outcomes of their performance to luck or chance events. In most negative cases, these individuals fail to take responsibility for their actions, thus pointing to others as possible factors or causes for their behaviours. In most positive cases, these individuals attribute their achievements to those in senior positions at work. For example, a soldier who received a reward for good performance will likely say that he was just in the right place and in the right time, instead of saying that he/she has done his/her best in the situation. Soldiers with external locus of control are likely to perceive performance as dependent on incentives more than anything (Breed et al., 2006). To them rewards or incentives are the driving forces behind performance. In the case where incentives are not given, the soldiers will then withhold their performance, disengage from work and affect other soldiers' performance. Bosman et al (2005b) found that, in most cases, people with external locus of control tend to be less satisfied with their jobs and less involved in their jobs thus resulting in the feeling of career dissatisfaction.

Researchers contended that locus of control is related to the individual's perception about the ability to control ones' own life and it relates to assertive behaviour (Fortinash & Holoday-Worrest, 1996; Tükel & Gök, 1996). Although the existing establishment dictates that locus of control has a direct effect on assertive behaviour, the recent study on Turkish female nursing students (N = 105) argues that locus of control has no direct effect on assertiveness (see par 2.5.3) (Kululu et al., 2006). Given the complexity of military tasks, it was found that locus of control does not influence the ability to handle this kind of tasks, but rather serves as a motivating factor to be involved in these tasks (Perrewé & Mizerski, 1987).

Furthermore, locus of control was found to be directly related to perceived powerlessness – that is an indicant of job insecurity (Ashford et al., 1989). Locus of control will be measured by the prominent Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966) (see par 3.5.6). The discussion on locus of control will be followed by a discussion on one of the profound constructs in the literature of personality, and for this research, one of the PFs, i.e. self-efficacy.

2.5.2 Self-efficacy

The construct, "self-efficacy" was introduced by Bandura through the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1982; Flett, Panico & Hewitt, 2011; Liebert & Spiegler, 1994; Rennesund & Sakavik, 2010; Salanova, Llorens & Schaufeli, 2011). It received considerable attention as a cognitive determinant and a personal resource in the literature (Bandura, 1982; Liebert & Spiegler, 1994; Simbula, Guglielmi & Schaufeli, 2011; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Self-efficacy was introduced into the career literature by Hackett and Betz in the 1980s (Adachi, 2004).

Self-efficacy will be described as the soldier's personal judgement of how well he/she can perform the courses of action required in dealing with the potential situation (Bandura, 1982, Breed et al., 2006). It serves as a motivational source by influencing the tasks that people pursue and their perseverance in the face of challenges. This was advocated by Riordan and Louw-Potgieter (2011), when they mentioned that self-efficacy is linked to overcoming challenges at work, thus improving performance. For instance, people who believe that their competence levels are high are likely to be motivated to put effort and persist in overcoming challenges at work and being successful in that particular task, other than those with low beliefs (Simbula et al., 2011).

What will be expected is that after each attainment of success, one should reassess self-efficacy beliefs subsequently resulting in an increase in one's efforts for future tasks (Dréze & Nunes, 2011).

Self-efficacy is developed through a series of successful task completion (Barnir, Watson & Hutchins, 2011). After every success, self-efficacy beliefs and trust in one's abilities are boosted, keeping the person motivated to pursue any task with a drive for success. It can, therefore, be argued that, in a situation where WCs are taxing on soldiers' resources, those with high efficacy beliefs are likely to trust their abilities, pursue their task, persevere, and be successful in the accomplishment of that task despite the circumstances. The successful completion of the task and the heightened feeling of accomplishment can be indicators of SCS. Soldiers with low efficacy beliefs generally lack the motivation to engage in their jobs and are also likely to doubt their abilities. These soldiers are less likely to experience a feeling of accomplishments or SCS. This is advocated by Fu, Richards, Hughes and Jones (2010) when they mentioned that people with high/positive self-efficacy persevere in the face of difficulty and achieve better performance than others. These people were also found to be better career planners than others (Spurk & Abele, 2011).

Self-efficacy is akin to perceived behavioural control and is used as a measure of behavioural control (Ajzen in Fu et al., 2010). It is measured in terms of efficacy expectations, where efficacy expectations are referred to as the beliefs about one's abilities (Grier-Reed & Ganuza, 2011; Liebert & Spiegler, 1994). These expectations determine whether an individual's coping behaviour will be initiated, how much task-related effort will be expected and how long that effort will be sustained (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Self-efficacy is based on how much trust and belief the individual has in his/her abilities, and not "skills" that the person possesses (Maddux, 2009). These beliefs come about over time and determine the extent to which the person will cope with the situation (Salanova et al., 2011; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

For instance, a person who trusts his/her abilities, but lacks skills (with high self-efficacy) is likely to engage in tasks with confidence, whereas a person with skills to perform the job but has low self-efficacy will continuously doubt his/her abilities and therefore, will perform poorly. People with a high level of self-efficacy or self-determination in their work life are referred to as proactive individuals. Proactive individuals have the ability to self-select and create an environment where their work environment matches their career needs and values. In this way they will acquire a greater satisfaction with their work (Seibert et al., 1999).

This point of departure indicates that a person with low self-efficacy will be hesitant to make a positive contribution to the organisations regardless of the skills and the expertise he/she possesses even if the person is certain that his/her positive contributions will lead to desired outcomes (Adachi, 2004; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Self-efficacy is influenced by four primary sources of information as asserted by Bandura's theory (Luzzo, Hasper & Albert, 1999):

- Performance accomplishment - self-efficacy expectation can be modified by participating in the task. It is based on personal mastery experiences.
- Vicarious learning - self-efficacy expectation can be modified watching others perform the job. Watching others perform a dangerous task without adverse consequences can generate expectations in observers that they too will improve if they intensify and persist in their efforts. Self-efficacy has a direct effect on career actions.
- Verbal persuasion - self-efficacy expectation can be modified by receiving support and encouragement from others.

- Emotional arousal - self-efficacy expectation can be modified by decreasing the amount of anxiety experienced when performing a task.

To add these, positive evaluation of the environment and the self were also recognized as primary sources of self-efficacy expectations (Spurk & Abele, 2011). Self-efficacy expectation can be modified by observing counterparts performing well in a deployment environment (Haas & Northam, 2010). Because the deployment is appraised positively, soldiers who are anxious about deployment and have never been in a deployment environment can develop the expectations that they will overcome the deployment challenges based on the experiences of previous deployments.

Self efficacy is not an individual phenomenon, but also an organisational phenomenon perceived as collective efficacy (when people work together they may share beliefs and affective experiences) which is mostly experienced in the workplace (Rennesund & Sakavik, 2010; Salanova et al., 2011). Collective efficacy or shared beliefs has a collective power to produce desired results (Salanova et al., 2011). Collective efficacy is shaped by factors different from self-efficacy. It develops through interaction with other people in the workplace, exchange of information and observed behaviour within a team (Tasa, Taggar & Seijts, 2007). Because it is influenced by behaviours within a team, its validity is attenuated in the presence of individual differences.

The positive contribution of collective efficacy is that it promotes team effort in solving group problems, constructive resolution of complex group tasks and also increases team performance (Tasa et al., 2007). Given the collective nature of military organisational culture, collective efficacy can benefit the military by maximising team efforts, promoting positive climate, and group cohesion.

Although collective efficacy is claimed to produce desired work results, it was found to be negatively experienced in military companies where people did not share common beliefs (Jex & Bliese in Rennesund & Sakavik, 2010). The study by Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) and Bergh (2011) indicated a positive correlation between self-efficacy, work-related performance and success in specific career-related outcomes. For instance, self-efficacy made unique contribution in jobs or tasks that required low complexity, but not those that required medium or high complexity.

Another study found a correlation between self-efficacy and levels of job satisfaction (i.e. satisfaction with supervisor, variety, closure, etc) (Alam & Mohammad, 2009; Salanova et al., 2011). Others found that self-efficacy mediated the relationship between job demands and control, thus resulting in the feeling of satisfaction with one's career (Rennesund & Sakavik, 2010). Self-efficacy also served as a mediator in the relationship between stressors and strains (Simbula et al., 2011) and also in the relationship between work centrality and career success (Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011). Employees with a high level of efficacy in general will have a lower score on work-related stress (Rennesund & Sakavik, 2010). A positive appraisal of job demands, stressors and strains in the workplace by a person with a high level of self-efficacy can perpetuate a positive perception/feeling about his/her careers, meaning CS. Self-efficacy will be measured by the General Self-Efficacy Scale (Liebert & Spiegler, 1994) (see par 3.5.7). This section of the research brings us to the discussion of assertive behaviour in the workplace and how assertive behaviour of soldiers impacts on their perception of SCS and how it filters WC.

2.5.3 Assertive behaviour in the workplace

Assertive behaviour is defined as a "soldier's tendency to be interpersonally dominant, ascendant, and forceful" (Infante, 1987, p. 165).

It is the behaviour which enables the person to act in his/her own interests without violating or showing aggression to others and without feeling guilty about the act (Kululu et al., 2006; Raudsepp, n.d.). Assertiveness is the direct and appropriate communication of a person's needs, wants and opinions without pushing, threatening, putting down others, and doing this without fear during the process (Floriana & Zernitsky-Shurka, 1987). Fensterheim and Baer (1975) and Townend (1991) assert that assertiveness possesses openness and directedness, honesty and appropriateness as its behavioural characteristics. Assertive people generally demonstrate a high level of self confidence and self-respect (Townend, 1991; Raudsepp, n.d.).

Assertive behaviour does not lead to accomplishment of one's desires, but a feeling of content about self (Fensterheim & Baer, 1975; Raudsepp, n.d.) and closer and more satisfying relationships with others (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976). It is composed of behavioural, personal, situational and cultural factors as its dimensions. These are the products of a set of learned attitudes and social skills (Floriana & Zernitsky-Shurka, 1987).

Assertive difficulty can lead to a feeling of inadequacy and weakness that can result in the person being aggressive (Fensterheim & Baer, 1975; Lange & Jakubowski, 1976). People who feel unappreciated at work will have difficulty building successful careers, thus resulting in lack of assertiveness. This lack of assertiveness will hold them back in their career, and threatening their will to progress (Raudsepp, n.d.). Assertive behaviour is a positive characteristic in the workplace that promotes more gratifying working relationships, greater self-control and self-confidence, and increases the likelihood of achieving goals (Er, 1989). It is distinct in the sense that it is constructive (Schullery, 1998). It means standing up for personal rights, thoughts and feelings in a way that is honest by not violating the other person.

It is differentiated from aggression which refers to directly standing up for personal rights and expressing rights, thoughts and feelings in a dishonest and inappropriate way that violates the other person (Er, 1989). There are five types of assertiveness i.e. basic assertiveness, empathetic assertiveness, escalating assertiveness, confrontive assertiveness, and I-language assertiveness (Er, 1989; Wilson, Lizzio, Whicker, Gallois & Price, 2003):

- Basic assertiveness - refers to standing up for personal rights, beliefs or feelings in a simple and direct way.
- Empathetic assertiveness - it involves expressing recognition of the other's situation, followed by other statements that stand up for one's own rights.
- Escalating assertiveness - It means starting with minimal assertive responses that can accomplish one's goals with little possibility of negative consequences.
- Confrontive assertiveness - It involves describing objectively what someone or some group said would be done, relating what actually was done, and then expressing what one wants to be done in the future.
- I-language assertiveness - It involves an expression of one's difficult negative feelings using 'they' when referring to others feelings and 'I' when referring to own feelings.

An additional type of assertiveness is argumentativeness. Argumentativeness is an assertive style of communication that requires more than skill in constructing an argument.

This is a type of assertive behaviour that is slightly related to earning higher salaries and substantially related to subjective career satisfaction. Although argumentativeness is regarded as an important tool in the employment relationship, high argumentativeness may be negatively perceived as conflict or aggression (Schullery, 1998/1999). In the military, where ranks and military protocol takes priority, argumentativeness can cause more harm.

Inappropriate use of assertiveness can cause stress or even jeopardize good working relationships (Schullery, 1998). For instance, the use of I-language without reservations can cause worry and anxiety which can damage the working relationship between employees (Er, 1989). This is particularly true in the military culture where soldiers operate in groups of delegates. The posture of military culture is collectivistic (a dimension of military culture), emphasising the needs of the whole group and group dependability (no “I or they” language).

This collectivistic culture refers to the extent to which people are oriented towards interests of a wider group instead of focusing on their own interests (Neal, Griffin & Hart, 2000; Wallace, Hunt & Richards, 1999; Werner, 2011). Although this is the expectation of the military culture, a study conducted by Lloyd and Van Dyk (2007) at the SAMA found that officers studying at SAMA tend to be more individualistically inclined (tend to stay clear of the other, thus reducing their dependence on other soldiers) than expected in the normal military culture. Assertive behaviour in the military environment is one of the determining factors of success in military missions. This flows from masculinity (another dimension of military culture) which provided that success is defined by assertiveness, challenge and ambition rather than caring, nurturing, supportiveness (i.e. femininity) (Hofstede in Wallace et al., 1999; Werner, 2011). Research found that individuals with internal locus of control tend to have a high level of assertiveness and self-esteem (Fortinash & Holoday-Worrest, 1996; Perrewé & Mizerski, 1987; Tükel & Gök, 1996).

Assertive behaviour in the workplace will be measured using Rathus' assertiveness schedule (Rathus, 1973) (see par 3.5.8).

2.6 Chapter Summary

To fully capture the diversity of factors involved in SCS of soldiers in the SANDF, a theoretical background on the military and career was provided. This was followed by a discussion on the WC facing soldiers, including job characteristics, job demands, salary and job security. Job characteristics are known to have an effect on employee work performance, engagement and career success (or job satisfaction). The literature reveals that these characteristics have both motivating or satisfying and dissatisfying factors that somehow contributes in the satisfaction of employees in the workplace. These factors were discussed extensively and a link between them and SCS was created.

Job demands were also found to be playing both a positive and negative role in the perception of employees, thus concluding that job demands may not only be viewed in the negative light when it comes to career success. The challenges, hindrances, and types of demands pertaining in the military were discussed. Salary and job security were found to be the most pervasive factors determining SCS for many employees, particularly older employees. These two were discussed in relation to all other WCs facing soldiers. These discussions were followed by a discussion on PFs such as locus of control, self-efficacy and assertive behaviour. Facing the gap on the interplay between these PFs and SCS, the discussion evolved around the components, dimensions and types of PF in order to establish a theoretical base to create the link between these factors and SCS. A background on the relevance of these factors in career issues and WC was provided.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

3.1 Introduction

The insight emanating from the literature review (Chapter 2) will form the basis for the hypotheses that will be outlined in this chapter. Furthermore, a discussion on the explanation of the research design, sample, measuring instruments and statistical analysis will be provided.

Before engaging in discussions on the factors above, it is important to create an understanding on research and why it is done. Research is a scientific method used to make sense of things and to provide information and answers to raised questions (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008; Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). Research is a cumulative process, which consist of five stages (i.e. formulate a testable hypothesis, design a study, collect data, analyse data and drawing conclusions). Research can either be qualitative, quantitative or a combination of both (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). This study will follow a quantitative research approach, because it focuses on the analysis of more variables and it also makes provision for the use of statistical analysis to determine the significance of the results (Neuman, 2003; Terre Blanche et al., 2006; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). The study will be an exploratory type of study. An exploratory type of study is used to explore new interests in a particular field or subject (Mouton, 2001). The research embarks on this type of study because of the lack of empirical evidence to prove the existence of the relationship between WC, PF and SCS in the SANDF.

3.2 Hypotheses

With the understanding of the primary functions and responsibilities of the SANDF in the safety and security of South Africans (the need to determine the relationship between WC and PF and soldiers' SCS remains a relevant research challenge for the SANDF. The challenge is to present theoretical proposition that will serve to conceptualise WC, PF and SCS for soldiers, and to establish a theoretical as well as empirical relationship between these variables. In light of this statement and the necessity to provide answers for questions that are raised in Chapter 1 (see par. 1.3), the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1:

H_{01} : There is no significant relationship between job characteristics and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

H_{a1} : There is a significant relationship between job characteristics and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Hypothesis 2

H_{02} : There is no significant relationship between job demands and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

H_{a2} : There is a significant relationship between job demands and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Hypothesis 3

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between salary and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

H_{a3}: There is a significant relationship between salary and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Hypothesis 4

H₀₄: There is no significant relationship between job security and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

H_{a4}: There is a significant relationship between job security and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Hypothesis 5:

H₀₅: There is no significant relationship between locus of control and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

H_{a5}: There is a significant relationship between locus of control and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Hypothesis 6:

H₀₆: There is no significant relationship between self-efficacy and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

H_{a6}: There is a significant relationship between self-efficacy and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Hypothesis 7:

H₀₇: There is no significant relationship between assertive behaviour and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

H_{a7}: There is a significant relationship between assertive behaviour and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Hypothesis 8:

H₀₈: WC and PF have no significant effect on SCS.

H_{a8}: WC and PF have a significant effect on SCS.

3.3 Research design

Research design is described as a set of guidelines and instructions to be followed in addressing a research problem (Mouton, 1996). To empirically investigate the hypotheses that WC and PF have an effect on SCS of soldiers requires a strategy that will present unambiguous empirical evidence that will either be for or against the operational hypotheses. The study is exploratory with the aim to indicate a relationship between the various variables.

Due to lack of control over the research variables in this research, the research will adopt an ex-post facto correlation approach. This is a systematic empirical inquiry where the researcher does not have any manipulation power over the variables – where independent variables are inherently not manipulative (Johnson, 2001).

3.4 Sampling design

A population under study is being described by as the total group of study for which conclusions will be drawn (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). It can be further described as a collection of research subjects who share the same characteristics that are of interest to the researcher. For this study, the population was SANDF soldiers both officers and non-commissioned officers assigned to training/education units from which the sample was drawn.

Participating units were SAMA and SAS SALDANHA. These two units were selected because they house and provide education and training to soldiers. SAS SALDANHA specialise in maritime training from basic military training to more senior training like Military Training for Ratings 1, 2, and 3 (MTR1, 2, & 3). MTR 1 provides military training for Able Seamans (AB), MTR 2 provides military promotional training for LS, and MTR provides more senior training for CPO to be promoted to the rank of a Warrant Officer (WO). SAMA specialise in military education on Certificate, Bachelors Degree (BMil) and on post graduate level for members in the SANDF (i.e. Army, Air Force, Navy and SAMHS). In this sense, these two units encapsulate the diversity of WC experienced by soldiers, cultural differences and diversity of ranks (Officer/NCO) and also bring a blend of PF from a pool of soldiers in the SANDF.

Before commencing with the research, ethical clearance was obtained from Stellenbosch University Ethics Committee.

Since the study is conducted in the military, permission to commence with the research was obtained from the relevant authorities in the SANDF, which is the Defence Intelligence (DI) by means of a formal letter.

After permission was granted, the officers commanding of the two participating units (i.e. SAMA and SAS) were approached in order to get access to the participants. Having done this, the participants were approached in their respective locations to explain the purpose of the research. The research data were kept confidential, strictly adhering to the ethical standards of Stellenbosch University Ethics Committee and the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) (Chapter 10). Participants were ensured about confidentiality of the research data, and then requested permission for their participation.

A sample of 170 was collected from SAMA ($n = 57$) and SAS SALDANHA ($n = 113$) using convenient sampling method as described by Babbie and Mouton (2001). A sample from SAMA was composed of officers (males and females) from a rank of 2Lt to a rank of a Capt across Services; and a sample from SAS SALDANHA consisted of NCOs, both males and females from a rank of LS to a rank of CPO.

Participants were gathered in lecturing rooms in their respective locations on different days where the purpose of the research was explained and written consent was obtained (using consent forms). Once they have consented to the research, questionnaires were distributed immediately for completion which took a minimum of 30 minutes and maximum of 45 minutes. A total of 70 questionnaires were administered to SAMA participants and 57 questionnaires were returned completed. This represents 81% response rate, which is indicative of good response. Another total of 150 questionnaires were administered at SAS SALDANHA and 113 questionnaires were returned completed. This represents 75% response rate, which indicates a good response by participants. The response rate for the combined sample was 78%.

3.5 Measuring instruments

The research questionnaire consists of 2 sections i.e. Section A and B. Section A is focused mainly on biographical information where participants were asked to provide information pertaining their age, gender, racial group, marital status, highest qualification, arm of service, years in service, mustering, unit, rank, and time in rank. Section B consisted of subscales measuring various variables.

3.5.1 Job characteristics

Military job characteristics will be measured using overload, organisational support, and growth opportunity subscales from the Job Demands-Resource Scale (JDRS) developed by Jackson and Rothmann (Rothmann et al., 2006). This scale was designed to measure satisfaction with job characteristics modelled in two broad categories (i.e. job demands and job resources – see par 2.3.2). The scale has 48 items which originally measured seven factors, but the most recent research found that only five factors constitute the scale (i.e. growth opportunities, organisational support, advancement, overload, and job insecurity). These subscales showed acceptable alpha coefficients ranging from .76 to .92 (Rothmann et al., 2006).

To determine the total score of this scale, ratings within each subscale are summed and divided by the total number of items in that particular subscale. Negative statement items on the instrument were reverse-coded so that a high score on the total score of the instrument indicates a high degree of satisfaction with the job characteristics and the work environment for the respondents (Johari et al., 2009).

3.5.2 Job demands

Job Demands will be measured using the Workload Scale of the Sources of Work Stress Inventory (De Bruin & Taylor, 2006). The scale consists of seven items where an individual is asked to indicate the degree to which his/her workload is a source of stress. This scale measures the workload and time pressure components of the job demands dimension of the JDC model (see par 2.3.2). The response format is a 5-point Likert-type scale, with responses ranging from 1 to 5 in the following order: none at all, very little, some, quite a lot, and very much. The scale has an internal consistency reliability of .89 (De Bruin & Taylor, 2006).

3.5.3 Salary

Salary satisfaction (see par 2.3.3) will be measured by the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) (Judge, 1993). The questionnaire measures the level of satisfaction with one's pay and it consist of 18 items, with responses ranging from 1 = very dissatisfied to 5 = very satisfied. The internal consistency reliability of the scale was .89 (Judge, 1993).

3.5.4 Job security

Satisfaction with job security (see par 2.3.4) will be measured using five statements adopted from Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss et al. (1967). It is a 5-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1 = very satisfied – 5 = very dissatisfied (Yousef, 1997). The internal consistency (Cronbach's α) of this scale is .85.

3.5.5 Subjective career success

Subjective CS (see par 2.4.2) will be measured using the Career Success Scale (CSS) (Greenhaus et al, 1990). The scale is composed of 5 items developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990). It is a 5-point Likert scale with the response category ranging from 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (agree completely) (Greenhaus et al., 1990). The scale has the reliability of $\alpha = .88$ (Park, 2010).

3.5.6 Locus of control in the workplace

Locus of control (see par 2.5.1) will be measured using Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (LOC) called the internal-external (I-E) scale (Rotter, 1966). The scale is a 29 item scale which consists of six filter and twenty three forced choice pairs with one internal and external oriented statement. An external control statement is scored as 1, whereas internal control statement is scored as 0. High scores are indicative of externality and low scores are indicative of internality, and response range from 0 to 1 (Chen & Wang, 2007). The scale has a Cronbach's alpha of .77 and a test retest reliability of .82 (Tong & Wang, 2006).

3.5.7 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy (see par 2.5.2) will be measured using the General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE) (Liebert & Spiegler, 1994). The GSE is used to assess the general sense of perceived self-efficacy. It is a 10 item, 4-point Likert type scale. The previous use of the instrument indicated high reliability ($\alpha = .79$ to $.90$) (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1995).

3.5.8 Assertive behaviour in the workplace

Work assertive behaviour (see par 2.5.3) will be measured by Rathus' 30-Item assertiveness schedule. The schedule has a high test-retest reliability ($r = .78$) and validity ($r = .70$). It is bipolar type scale (+3 to -3), with each pole ranging from very (+3 and -3) to moderate (+1 and -1) (Rathus, 1973).

3.6 Statistical analysis

Statistica 10 was applied to do the statistical analysis of the data. The analysis started with computation of factors (dimensionality analysis) for each scale used. Descriptive statistics (i.e. minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviations) on the sample as well as on different factors were calculated to provide an overview of the sample as well as the responses on different factors. For further data analysis and hypotheses testing, correlation analysis was computed on various variables (WC and PF) to determine their relationship with SCS. Correlation is a statistical technique used to measure and describe the relationship between two observed variables. For this research, Spearman correlation (a non-parametric measure of the agreement between two variables) was used to test stated hypotheses (par 3.2) (Field, 2009; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Furthermore, multiple regression analysis was used to determine the variances of multiple factors (or predictor) in explaining SCS.

It was also used for development of linear regression model and to test the model. Multiple regression analysis is a statistical technique that allows for the prediction of the score of dependent variable on the basis of scores of several independent variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011).

3.7 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the proposed theoretical hypotheses. Included is the research methodology to be used, an over view of the research design, sample and measuring instruments. Lastly, an overview of the statistical analysis was provided. The next chapter will be based on the presentation of the results of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The results from various statistical analyses are presented in this chapter. The results are presented as a combination of both groups (i.e. SAMA and SAS SALDANHA). For instance, the differences between officers and NCOs will represent a specific view of sample groups and the differences between genders, arms of service, and years of service will represent a combined sample. Firstly, the results will outline a sample (presented in percentages), followed by the alpha coefficients of the different subscales to establish psychometric integrity of the different instruments used. Secondly, the Spearman's correlation matrices representing the relationship between all the different independent variables and SCS will be presented for hypotheses testing. Lastly, the computation of the multiple regression analysis of all independent variables to observe which of them has more variance in explaining SCS in the SANDF, and model presentation will be provided (see Fig. 11 below).

4.2 Descriptive statistics for the sample

Descriptive statistics for the combined sample is listed representing a combined group of SAMA and SAS. Descriptive statistics are used to summarise data in a meaningful fashion allowing for more easy description of the data (Field, 2009). A brief description of the samples in terms of age, years of service and years in the current ranks is provided in Table 1 below.

The description provides data on the median; mean (the two measuring central tendency – i.e. the where the centre of a frequency distribution lies), maximum and medium, and standard deviations (SD) (it measures variability of scores from the mean - or average) of scores of each observed category (Field, 2009).

Table 1

Descriptive statistics for total sample of officers and NCOs

	N	Med	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Age	170	29.0	32.1	7.0	22.0	57.0
Years in service	170	8.0	11.1	6.2	3.0	29.0
Years in a rank	170	4.0	4.1	2.9	0.1	18.0

Participants were aged between 22 years and 57 years, with the maximum service of 29 years in the SANDF.

Furthermore, a sample description is presented in percentages for each category. The total sample was composed of 113 (i.e. 66%) males and 57 (i.e. 34%) females. The majority were African participants (68%), followed by Coloured (19%), White (9%), Indian (3%) and other (1%). Most participants had a single status constituting 56% of the sample, followed by married (39%), divorces (4%) and life partners (1%). The educational qualifications of the majority were with matriculation qualification (matric) (59%), followed by participants with diploma (18%), and honours (4%), below matric (4%) and other degree (4%). Participants were mostly from the SA Navy (69%), followed by SA Army (39%), SAMHS (3%) and SA Air Force (1%). Their ranks were ranging from a Captain (Capt) (2%), Sub-Lieutenant (S/Lt) (2%) and Lieutenant (Lt) (23%), Ensign (Esn) (1%) and Second-Lieutenant (2Lt) (6%), Chief Petty Officers (CPO) (39%), and Leading Seamen (LS) (28%).

The participants corps or mustering were a mixture of technical, mechanical, protection, catering, personnel, military police, armour, infantry, radar operators, intelligence, artillery, fire fighters, electronic warfare and logistics.

4.3 Reliability analysis

The most commonly used measure of scale's reliability analysis is item analysis. Item analysis is basically internal consistency analysis which measures the extent to which items in the scale or instrument measures the same attribute (Nunnally, 1978). Different scales were item analysed through SPSS reliability procedure to identify and if possible eliminate items that lack contribution to the internal consistency of the scale. Out of the analysis the following results were found:

- Item 1 of the workload subscale of job demands scale had the lowest and negative inter-item correlation (-.12) in comparison to other items in the subscale. As a result it was flagged as a problematic item. The substantial increase in the Chronbach's alpha if the item was deleted, increasing from .44 to .65; as a result it was deleted.
- From Rathus' 30-Item Assertiveness Schedule, it was found that items 7, 8, 20 and 28 had a negative inter-item correlation suggesting a possibility of problematic items. Interestingly, their Chronbach's alphas if items were deleted did not show any significant change on the over all Chronbach's alpha. Due to this fact, all these items were retained.
- Item 4 of Rotter's Locus of Control Scale showed a negative inter-item correlation (-.31) in comparison to other items, but its Chronbach's alpha if item deleted did not show a marginal change. Therefore, the item was retained since the effect was insignificant.

The reliability analysis was estimated on different scales and subscales to determine the reliability of different instruments. In most cases, reliability analysis was used to measure the consistency of the instrument in different situations, which was the case in this research (Field, 2009; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). Reliability of the various subscales was estimated by using Cronbach's alpha (α). Cronbach's alpha is the most common measure of internal consistency (Field, 2009, Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Internal consistency results yielded by the analysis are presented in Table 2 followed by a discussion on the reliability coefficients.

Table 2
Subscales and chronbach's alpha (α)

Subscales	Mean	SD	α
Job Demands-Resource Scale:			
Overload	22.81	3.98	.73
Organisational support	25.11	5.16	.82
Growth opportunities	61.84	11.55	.92
Workload Scale of the Sources of Work Stress Inventory:			
Workload	11.17	2.80	.65
Time pressure	9.33	2.17	.53
Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire	44.54	11.30	.91
Statements from Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire	12.63	4.46	.89
Career Success Scale	16.97	5.33	.89
Rotter's Locus of Control Scale	8.24	3.85	.73
General Self Efficacy Scale	32.69	4.33	.83
Rathus' 30-Item Assertiveness Schedule	12.20	30.61	.73

According to these results, the different dimensions of the Job Demand-Resources Scale (i.e. overload, organisational support, and growth opportunities) used to measure job characteristics yielded significant reliability coefficients of .73; .82; and .92 respectively.

Furthermore, dimensions of Workload Scale of the Sources of Work Stress Inventory (i.e. workload and time pressure) used to measure job demand yielded a lower alpha (i.e. .65 and .53 respectively), but it was still decided to keep these scales.

Other instruments such as Pay satisfaction ($\alpha = .91$), Statements from Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire ($\alpha = .89$), Career Success Scale ($\alpha = .89$), General Self-Efficacy Scale ($\alpha = .83$) and Rathus' 30-Item Assertiveness Schedule ($\alpha = .73$) yielded good reliability coefficients. Given the dichotomous (choosing either *a* or *b*) nature of Rotter's Locus of Control Scale, the reliability analysis on this instrument was performed separately using the tetrachoric correlation matrix. The results showed a correlation coefficient of .73, which is acceptable.

Apart from the reliability analysis, a further analysis on Rotter's Locus of Control Scale was conducted to determine the locus of control of all participants. What emanated from these results is that majority of participants had internal locus of control (82%) and only few indicated external locus of control (18%). These results are depicted in the histogram below (see Fig. 6).

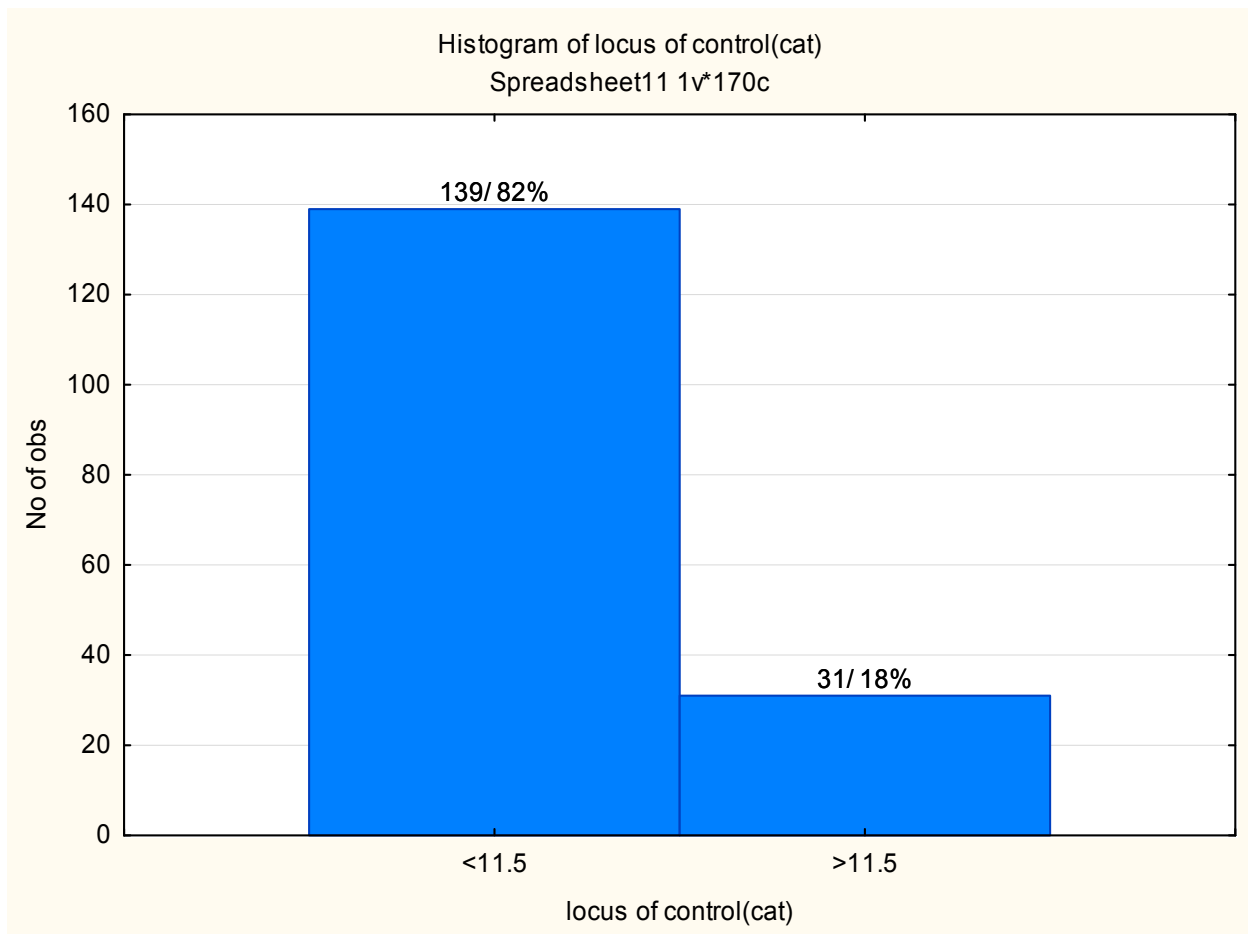


Figure 6. Histogram of the Participants' Level of Locus of Control

These results are followed by correlations statistics between various independent variables and dependent variables.

4.4 Inferential statistics

Following the descriptive statistics is the analysis of inferential statistics. Inferential statistics enable the researchers to draw conclusions that generalise from the subjects under study to the general population of the study based on probabilities (i.e. a proportion of the whole set of possibilities) (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005). Furthermore, inferential statistics helps to confirm or reject predictions (or hypotheses) (Field, 2009).

In this research inferential statistics that were used for hypotheses testing (see par 3.2) is correlations, particularly Spearman's correlation (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005/2011). Apart from sample description (in descriptive statistics) correlations were used for hypothesis testing by testing the significance of particular values in the analysis (i.e. to test if the correlation of that magnitude were likely to occur in the sample, if the null hypothesis were true) (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Correlation was used to measure and describe the relationship between two observed variables. Correlations analysis follows in par 4.4.1.

4.4.1 Correlations between independent variables and dependent variable

Spearman correlation (a non-parametric measure of the agreement between two variables) was used to test stated hypotheses (par 3.2). A correlation was determined by using a statistics called "*correlation coefficient*". Correlation coefficient reflects the direction (negative or positive) of the relationship and the magnitude (i.e. the index of the strength of the relationship) between two or more variables (Field, 2009; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011).

Correlation of ± 0.80 to ± 1.00 is regarded as a high correlation (most preferred); correlation of ± 0.60 to ± 0.79 is moderately high (acceptable); correlation of ± 0.40 to ± 0.59 (also acceptable) is regarded as moderate correlation; and correlation of ± 0.20 to ± 0.39 is regarded as low; and any correlation below 0.20 is regarded as negligible (Nelsen, 1998; Field, 2009; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010). Correlation between the independent variables (i.e. job characteristics, job demands, salary, job security, locus of control, self-efficacy, assertive behaviour) and SCS is under evaluation. See the results in Table 3 followed by the summaries.

Table 3

Spearman correlations between the independent variables (WC and PF) and dependent variable (SCS)

Variables	N	SCS	p
Job characteristics:			
Overload	170	-.06	.42
Organisational support	170	.29	.00***
Growth opportunities	170	.21	.01**
Job demands:			
Workload	170	-.08	.28
Time pressure	170	-.06	.40
Pay satisfaction	170	.39	.00***
Satisfaction with job security	170	-.42	.00***
Locus of control	170	.07	.35
Self efficacy	170	.13	.11
Assertiveness	170	.03	.95

Notes: * Indicates that correlations is significant at 0.05 level ($p < 0.05$),
 ** Indicates that correlation is significance at 0.01 level ($p < 0.01$), and
 *** Indicates that correlation is significant at 0.001 level ($p < 0.001$)

Hypothesis 1 (H_{01}): There is no significant relationship between job characteristics and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Correlations results (see Table 3) for WC revealed that job characteristics dimensions: organisational support ($r = .29$; $p < .001$) (see Fig. 7); and growth opportunities ($r = .21$; $p < .01$) (see Fig. 8) yielded low but significant correlation with SCS with the exception of overload ($r = -.06$; $p > .05$) which yielded a negligible and negative insignificant correlation with SCS. This means that as work overload increases, the perception of SCS decreases in the opposite direction.

Based on these results, the null hypothesis 1 (H_{01}) was partially rejected and alternative hypothesis 1 (H_{a1}) was partially accepted concluding that overall, job characteristics claim partial correlation with SCS given the fact that only two factors (i.e. organisational support and growth opportunities) out of three have a significant correlation with SCS of soldiers in the SANDF, while the third factor (overload) yielded insignificant correlation.

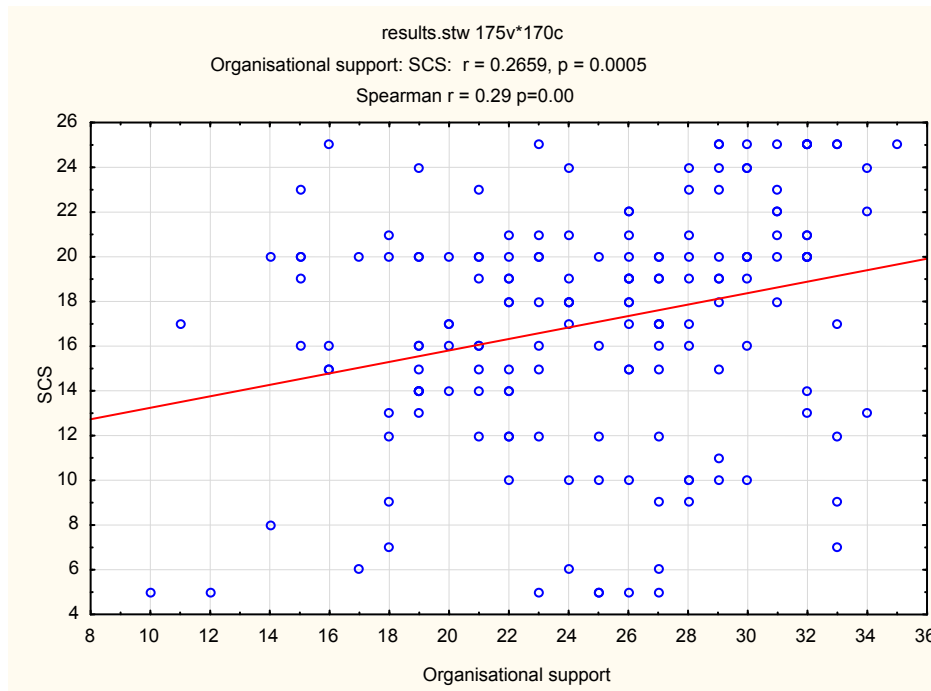


Figure 7. Scatterplot of Organisational Support and SCS

Hypothesis 2 (H_{02}): *There is no significant relationship between job demands and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.*

Job demands dimensions (Table 3): workload ($r = -.08$; $p > .05$) and time pressure ($r = -.06$; $p > .05$) yielded a negligible and negative insignificant correlation with SCS. Due to insignificant correlations on both dimensions of job demands, it was then concluded that job demands do not have any significant correlation with SCS, thus accepting null hypothesis 2 (H_{02}) and rejecting alternative hypothesis 2 (H_{a2}). This means that, in a situation where demands are increasingly taxing on the soldiers, their perception of SCS in the SANDF remains the same.

These results link to those observed in the relationship between job characteristics where overload had no significant correlation with SCS.

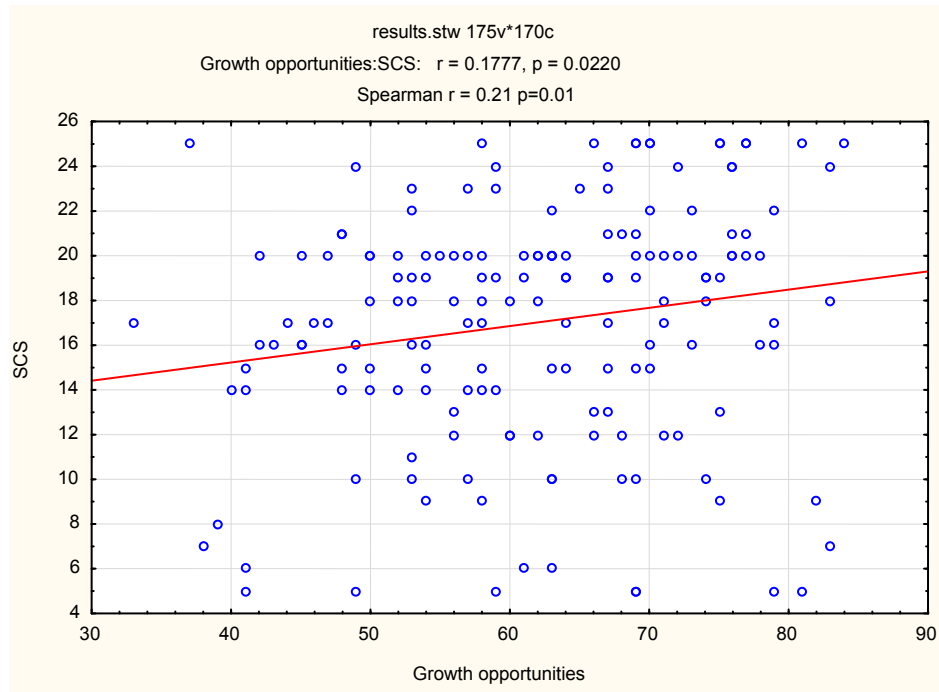


Figure 8. Scatterplot of Growth Opportunities and SCS

Hypothesis 3 (H_{03}): There is no significant relationship between salary and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Pay (salary) satisfaction ($r = .39$; $p < .001$) (see Fig. 9) yielded a low but significant correlation with SCS. Due to significant results, null hypothesis 3 (H_{03}) was rejected and alternative hypothesis 3 (H_{a3}) was accepted, concluding that there is a significant relationship between satisfaction with salary and the perception of SCS in the SANDF.

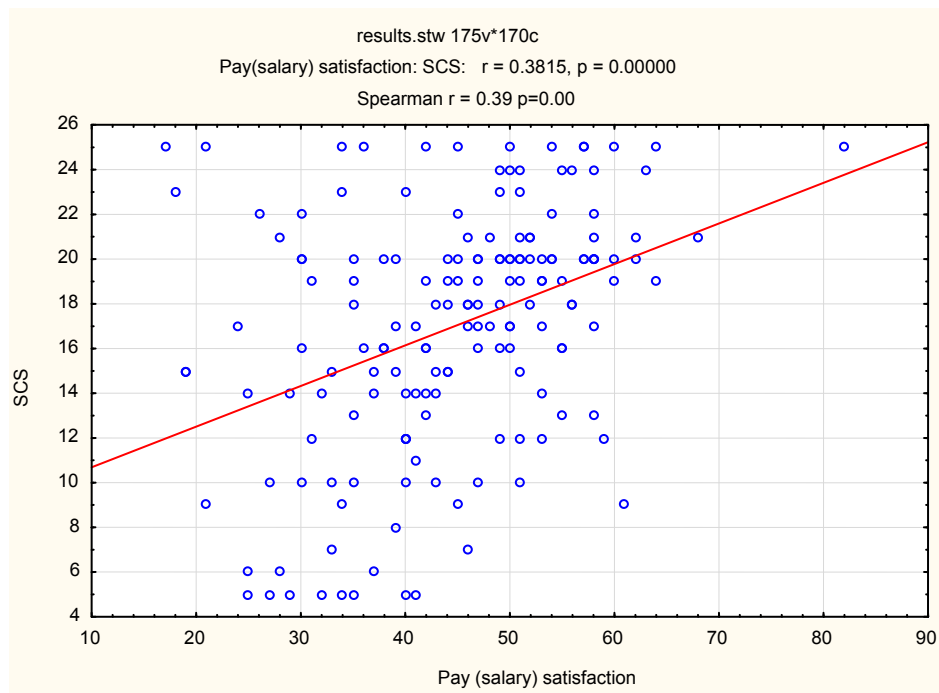


Figure 9. Scatterplot of Salary Satisfaction and SCS

Hypothesis 4 (H_{04}): *There is no significant relationship between job security and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.*

Satisfaction with job security ($r = -.42$; $p < .001$) (see Fig. 10) also yielded a negative moderate correlation with SCS, but significant. Negative correlation means that when satisfaction with job security increases the perception of soldiers on SCS in the SANDF increases in the opposite direction. As a result, the null hypothesis 4 (H_{04}) was rejected and alternative hypothesis (H_{a4}) was accepted concluding that for soldiers, satisfaction with job security does have a significant negative relationship with soldiers' perception of SCS in the SANDF.

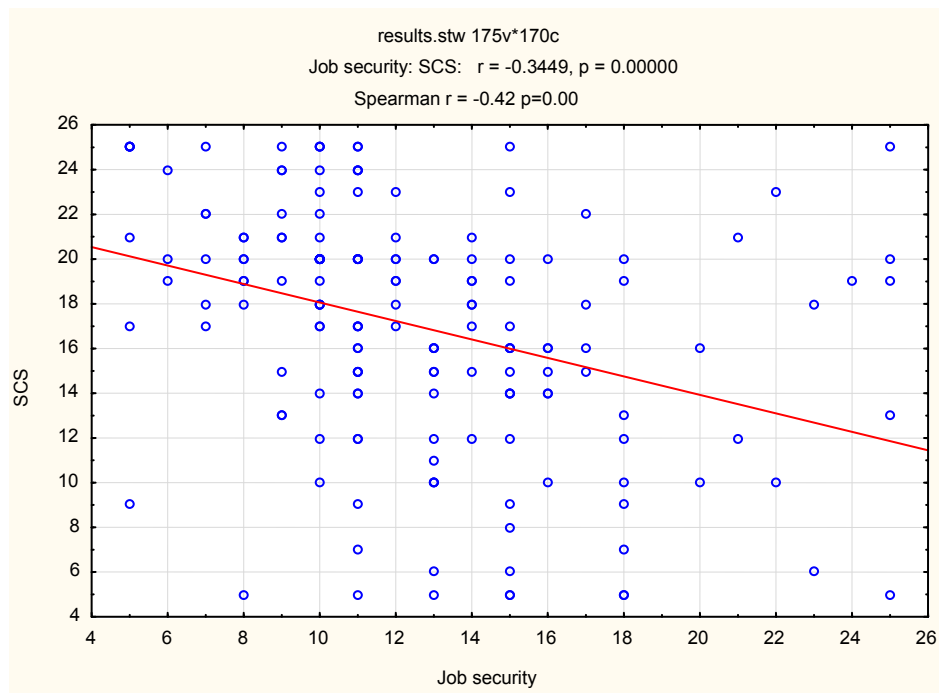


Figure 10. Scatterplot of Satisfaction with Job Security and SCS

These results therefore provides that there is a significant relationship between salary satisfaction, and a significant negative relationship between job security and SCS; and a partial correlation between job characteristics and SCS, and that there is no significant correlation between job demands and SCS. Consequently, this means that there is a partial correlation between WC and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Hypothesis 5 (H_{05}): There is no significant relationship between locus of control and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Correlations results for PF were insignificant. Insignificant correlations emerged between locus of control ($r = .07$; $p > .05$) and SCS therefore, resulting in the acceptance of the null hypothesis 5 (H_{05}) and rejection of alternative hypothesis 5 (H_{a5}). This means that locus of control does not have any effect in the soldiers' perception of SCS in the SANDF.

Hypothesis 6 (H₀₆): There is no significant relationship between self-efficacy and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Self efficacy ($r = .13$; $p > .05$) also yielded insignificant results in correlation with SCS, therefore, resulting in the acceptance of null hypothesis 6 (H₀₆) and rejection of alternative hypothesis 6 (H_{a6}). This means that self-efficacy of soldiers do not have any effect on the perception of SCS by soldiers.

Hypothesis 7 (H₀₇): There is no significant relationship between assertive behaviour and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Assertiveness ($r = .03$; $p > .05$) also yielded insignificant correlation with SCS, meaning that the level of assertive behaviour of soldiers does not have any effect on the perception of SCS by soldiers. As a result, null hypothesis 7 (H₀₇) was accepted and alternative hypothesis 7 (H_{a7}) was rejected concluding that there is no relationship between assertive behaviour and SCS in the SANDF.

Given that all PF yielded insignificant correlation with SCS, it was therefore concluded that, there is no relationship between PF and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF. Following, this section is the discussion on Type I error followed by multiple regressions analysis for further hypothesis testing.

4.4.2 Type I error

No matter how careful one is in conducting research, mistakes of falsely rejecting or accepting null hypothesis do occur. This mistake will result in wrong predictions, hence the need to remain accurate. One can only believe that the results are genuine when the results are 95% confident or when there is only a 5% chance that the results could occur (Field, 2009). There are two types of mistakes one can commit: i.e. Type I error and Type II error.

Type I error refers to the chance of finding a correlation between two variables when no correlation really exists between variables, thus falsely rejecting the null hypothesis. In order to guard against Type I error in this research, the α -level was also provided in Table 3 to determine if the correlation that was found was a matter of chance (i.e. committing Type I error) or whether it is really true of the population at large (Field, 2009; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011).

For all the hypotheses where significant relationships (organisational support, growth opportunities, salary satisfaction, satisfaction with job security and SCS) were found, the α -level was well below 0.05 – the possibility of Type I error can be ruled out in these case. Although it is important to control Type I error, the downside of this is that the small chances of Type I error in an instrument (i.e. the test is conservative), might result in high probability of Type II error (i.e. falsely accepting the false null hypothesis) which can be detrimental to the predictions. Maximum acceptable probability for Type II error is .2 (or 20%) and it is called β -level (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Following deliberations on types of mistakes one can make in predictions is the discussion on the multiple regression analysis.

4.5 Multiple regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis is a statistical technique that allows for the prediction of the score of the dependent variable on the basis of scores on several independent variables and it identifies the best set of predictor variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). In this research, different factors constituting the independent variables (the predictors) were observed to evaluating their contribution in explaining SCS (the criterion).

Summary statistics for the whole regression model (Fig. 11) was provided (see Table 4 below) followed by the regression summary for individual independent variables (see Table 5).

Table 4

R² Values and model significance test

Model Summary	
<i>Statistic</i>	<i>Value</i>
Multiple <i>R</i>	.540
Multiple <i>R</i> ²	.292
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	.243
<i>F</i> (10.145)	5.98
<i>p</i> -value	0.000
Std. Error of estimate	4.537

According to the summary statistics (see Table 4), it is being revealed that the multiple coefficient of determination (R^2) (the fraction between 0.0 and 1.0) of the variation in the dependent variable that is accounted for by the independent variable) of .29 means that approximately 30% of the variability of SCS is accounted for by all combined predictor variables in the model (see Fig. 11). R^2 is used as a measure of goodness of fit of the linear regression. It is called a coefficient of determination. Furthermore, the adjusted multiple coefficient of determination (Adjusted R^2) of .24 gives an indication that about 24% of the variability of SCS is accounted for by the model (see Fig. 11) after taking into account the number of predictors in the model. The *p*-value (it explains the confidence of each variable in relation to the dependent variable) for the regression as a whole was statistically significant ($p < .001$), thus signalling that the overall model (see Fig. 11) is significant.

Although the p-value for the regression as a whole might mean significance, it should not be ruled out that these might mean that the independent variables might be correlated resulting in a condition called multicollinearity (means that the coefficient on individual variable may be insignificant when the regression as a whole is significant) (Aiken & West, 1991). This condition exists when highly correlated independent variables are explaining the same part of the variation in the dependent variable, thus dividing their explanatory power and significance. This will further be explained by observing the analysis in the description of regression summary below (see Table 5) and redundancy of independent variables (see table 6).

Table 5**Values of standardised beta coefficients**

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	b	Sts. Error	Beta (β)	t	sig.
N=156					
Intercept			3.55	0.74	.45
Job characteristics:					
Overload	0.04	0.07	0.05	0.52	.59
Organisational support	0.12	0.09	0.12	1.37	.16
Growth opportunities	-0.10	0.10	-0.04	-1.01	.30
Job demands:					
Workload	-0.02	0.08	-0.04	-0.25	.79
Time pressure	-0.13	0.08	-0.34	-1.61	.10
Pay satisfaction	0.29	0.07	0.13	3.86	.00***
Satisfaction-job security	-0.27	0.07	-0.31	-3.59	.00***
Locus of control	0.19	0.07	0.31	2.53	.01**
Self-efficacy	0.26	0.08	0.32	3.13	.00***
Assertiveness	0.12	0.07	0.03	1.66	.09

Notes: * Indicates that correlations is significant at 0.05 level ($p < 0.05$),

** Indicates that correlation is significance at 0.01 level ($p < 0.01$), and

*** Indicates that correlation is significant at 0.001 level ($p < 0.001$)

Hypothesis 8 (H₀₈): WC and PF have no significant effect on SCS.

In summary, although the statistics revealed that predictor variables accounted for 24 % variance in the SCS processes $F(10.145) = 5.98$; $p < 0.000$; $R^2 = .243$, only few contributions were made to SCS (see Table 4).

The regression summary on factors (WC and PF) underpinning SCS provided that only the contribution of pay (salary) satisfaction ($\beta = 0.13$; $t = 3.86$; $p < .001$), locus of control ($\beta = 0.31$; $t = 2.53$; $p = .01$) and self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.32$; $t = 3.13$; $p < .001$) are significant in explaining SCS for soldiers in the SANDF. However, job security make a negative but significant contribution in predicting SCS ($\beta = -0.31$; $t = -3.59$; $p < .001$).

These are presented in Figure 11. The highest contributing factor is self-efficacy, followed by job security, locus of control and pay satisfaction. This resulted in the partial acceptance of null hypothesis 8 (H₀₈) and partial rejection of alternative hypothesis 8 (H_{a8}). This implies that when the contributions of other factors (variables) are held constant or controlled, only self-efficacy, locus of control, and pay satisfaction are positively associated with SCS; with job security negatively associated with SCS of soldiers in the SANDF (see Fig. 11).

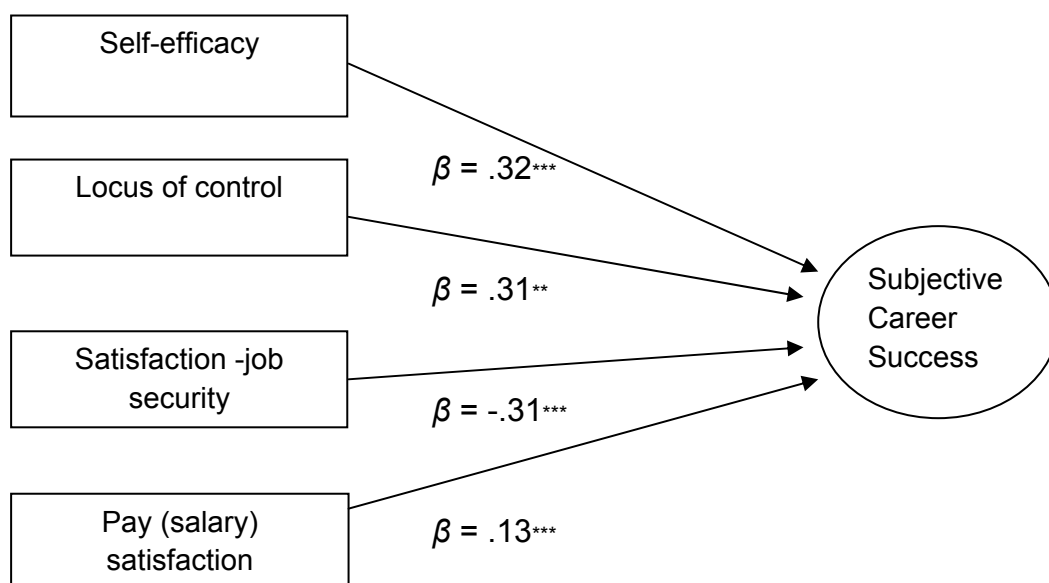


Figure 11. Subjective Career Success in the Military

4.5.1 Multicollinearity

To further explore the above model (Fig. 11) and the results provided in Table 4 above in terms of the significance ($p < .001$) of the model, a specific observation was made to the correlation of independent variables. It was state above that the p-value for the regression as a whole might mean significance, but the independent variables might at the same time be correlated resulting in multicollinearity, thus making insignificant contributions to SCS by explaining the same part of it. Multicollinearity of the independent variables was not excessively high, but relatively reasonable. Furthermore, the tolerance level ($> .2$ is significant) of different independent variables was examined looking at any value above .2 and it was found that all the independent variables surpassed the tolerance coefficient by far – a further indication that all the dependent variables are explaining various parts of SCS (Table 6). A tolerance level below .1 indicates serious problems with the model and score below .2 indicates a potential problem of Multicollinearity (Menard, 1995).

Table 6***Redundancy of independent variables***

Variables	Tolerance	R^2	Partial Correlation	Semi-partial Correlations
Job characteristics:				
Overload	0.78	0.21	0.04	0.03
Organisational support	0.58	0.41	0.11	0.09
Growth opportunities	0.44	0.55	-0.08	-0.07
Job demands:				
Workload	0.61	0.38	-0.02	-0.01
Time pressure	0.68	0.31	-0.13	-0.11
Pay satisfaction	0.81	0.18	0.30	0.26
Satisfaction-job security	0.81	0.18	-0.28	-0.25
Locus of control	0.81	0.18	0.20	0.17
Self efficacy	0.66	0.33	0.25	0.21
Assertiveness	0.88	0.11	0.13	0.11

According to these results (Table 6), the tolerance level of all independent variables is acceptable with values ranging from 0.44 to 0.88. All these values surpassed the tolerance coefficient indicating that there is no Multicollinearity problem expressed by the independent variables. This means that all the observed variables are explaining different parts of SCS. This, substantiate the claim that the model is significant ($p < 001$), thus dismissing the condition of Multicollinearity for this model (Aiken & West, 1991).

4.5.2 Testing for Normality

The underlying assumption in research is that dependent variable is normally distributed.

In order to test this assumption, the P-P plot is used to see if the distribution of the scores is normal. If the distribution falls on the diagonal line, then the variable (i.e. SCS) is normally distributed, but any deviations from the diagonal line shows deviations or a problem of abnormality in the distribution, therefore violating the assumption of normal distribution (Field, 2009).

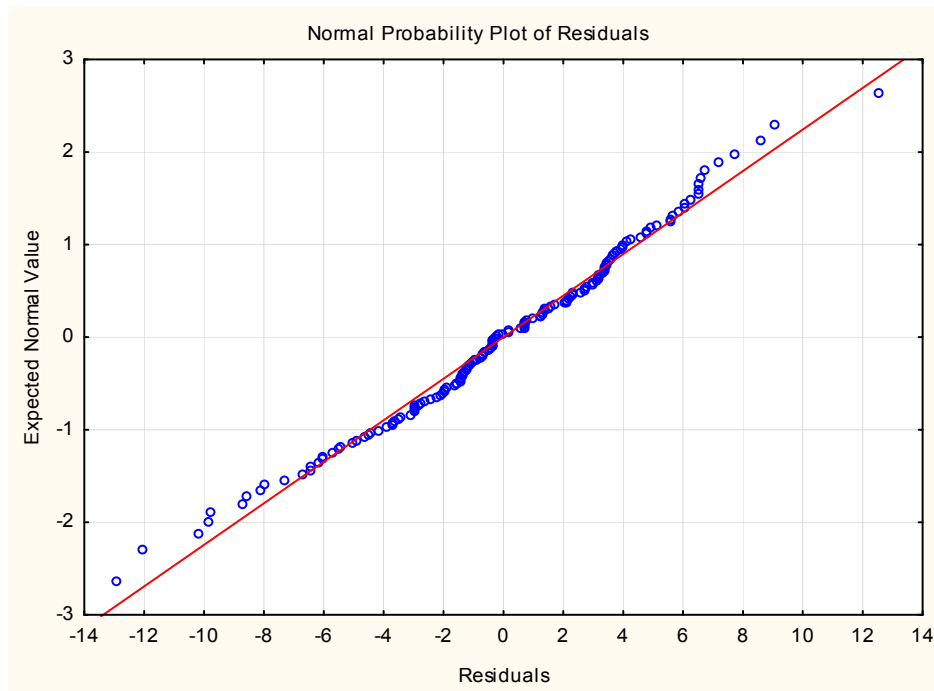


Figure 12. Probability (P-P) Plot of Residuals

The data in the P-P plot (Fig. 12) fall close to the ideal diagonal line - without much deviation - and are clustered around the centre of the distribution. This means that the distribution is normal; therefore it can be assumed that the distribution of SCS is normal for soldiers.

4.7. Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to report on the results obtained from this research. During the analysis different scales and subscales were item analysed to determine reliability.

This was followed by sample description which gave an overview of the whole sample. Correlation analysis was computed for hypotheses testing found significant results between organisational support, growth opportunities, salary satisfaction, job security and SCS. Insignificant results were found between overload, workload, time pressure, locus of control, self-efficacy, assertiveness and SCS.

The analysis was concluded by computing multiple regression analysis to determine variance explained by various independent variables on SCS, and lastly model development. Out of multiple regression analysis it was found that out of ten variables only four (i.e. self-efficacy, locus of control, satisfaction with job security and salary) explained SCS better, and these were eventually used to develop SCS model for the military.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to discuss the research results in Chapter 4, in conjunction with the theoretical discussion in Chapter 2. Most importantly, the discussion will serve as a platform to determine whether the research objectives and questions raised in Chapter 1 are satisfied.

The aim of the research (see par 1.4) was to explore the relationship between WC and SCS, and PF and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF. Apart from reaching the aim of the study, there are questions that were raised in this research such as does a construct “WC” exist as a determinant of SCS? How can this construct “WC” be operationalised? And is there emerging relations with other variables such as WC and PF? This part of the research will attempt to provide answers to those questions based on the analysis in Chapter 4.

5.2 Discussion of correlations results

Military organisations are inherently physically and mentally demanding. The military is one organisation that heavily relies on the performance and contributions of their human resources for their success and task performance (Kgosana, 2010). However, task performance comes at a high cost on soldiers. It draws on the soldiers’ physical and psychological resources and sometimes even drive soldiers away from their natural sources of support (i.e. family) through deployments, creating imbalance in the soldiers’ family and work life domain.

In support of this argument, Bruwer and Van Dyk (2005) mentioned that the SANDF deploys its soldiers outside the borders of SA for a minimum of six months.

During this period of deployments, soldiers are exposed to all sorts of stressors ranging from role conflict, separation from loved ones, heavy workload, long working hours, stressful duty to exposure to human loss (see par 2.3.2) (Bruwer & Van Dyk, 2005; De Jong & Visser, 2006; Lloyd et al., 2009). The only survival tactics available for soldiers during this stressful time is the support from their fellow soldiers and the system (i.e. commandant, social workers, chaplain, etc) (see par 2.3.1.4.4) put in place by the military (Kalamdien, 2008). In some circumstances where support is not sufficiently received, soldiers are expected to draw from their natural survival mode i.e. their personality factors. For instance, in the situation where the WC are taking its' toll on soldiers and fewer resources are available at the soldiers survival it is expected that soldiers personality factors will serve as motivating factors. The objective of this research was to determine the existence of the relationship between the WC and PF and SCS by exploring these factors theoretically and statistically. Given the nature of military WC, it was expected that there would not be a significant correlation between WC and SCS of soldiers. However partial correlation was found between the two (see Table 3).

In line with the above discussion, the perception of SCS was found to be influenced by perceived job characteristics and job content. In most cases job characteristics (like workload, growth opportunities, and organisational support) tend to influence soldiers' feeling about themselves, their abilities and their careers (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986). How the individual soldier appraises these job characteristics has a great influence on how he/she will assess his/her CS. For instance, if the soldier perceives job characteristics to be a challenge instead of a hindrance, he/she will most probably perceive his/her career in a positive light.

5.2.1 Work circumstances

Job characteristics dimensions: In this research, the **organisational support** received by soldiers during the period of hardship (i.e. role conflict, separation from loved ones, heavy workload, long working hours, stressful duty and exposure to human loss) (see par 2.3.2) presented by deployment is positively related to the perception of SCS by soldiers (Bruwer & Van Dyk, 2005; De Jong & Visser, 2006; Lloyd et al., 2009). These results ($r = .29$; $p < .001$) (see Table 3) can be explained by the nature of support provided by the SANDF during deployments. The SANDF put in place a team composed of professionals (i.e. commandant, social workers, chaplain, and a psychologist) that is delegated to provide support to deployed soldiers and their families (Kalamdien, 2008) (see par 2.3.1.4.4). These results are also congruent to the results in the literature where supervisor and peer support were found to be compelling factors in the perception of SCS thus potentially influencing the feeling of soldiers' effectiveness and success on deployments (Hall & Chander, 2005; Kgosana, 2008; Kalamdien, 2008). The more support soldiers receive from the organisation the more they will increase their efforts towards organisational goals and mission and eventually, SCS despite the WC soldiers are faced with (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Van Breda, 1995). This is advocated by Van Breda (1995) and Oldham and Hackman (2005) when they provided that the perceived organisational support by employees served as a buffer between taxing and unpredictable WC and employee work outcomes such as high work effectiveness, intrinsic work motivation, general job satisfaction, and career satisfaction (see par 2.3.1.4.4). Perceived lack of organisational support by soldiers, particularly supervisor support can have negative effect for both work and family life resulting in conflict between these domains (Kgosana, 2008) (see par 2.3.1.4.4).

One of the dimensions of job characteristics is **growth opportunities** which is purported to have a significant relationship with SCS ($r = .21$; $p < .01$) (see Fig. 8).

The presented opportunities for growth such as training and education through military courses (see par 3.4), promotion, remuneration and career prospects (see par 2.3.1.4.3) in the SANDF makes provision for soldiers' satisfaction with their careers resulting in the positive relationship between growth opportunities and the perception of SCS for soldiers (see par 2.4). Furthermore, the SANDF provides study opportunities for soldiers as part of the soldiers' developmental process (DOD, 1996) (see par 2.4). This is particularly relevant for those soldiers with high need for growth (Johari et al., 2009) (see par 2.3.1). All these developmental opportunities serve as motivators with the potential of influencing the soldiers' perception of CS. The theory on growth opportunity dictates that, there must be opportunities within the organisation that promotes upward movement in terms of promotion, remuneration, training and development and career prospects in order to facilitate employee growth in the task (Rothmann et al., 2006) (see par 2.3.1.4.3). Although the literature provided that this can be a limitation for military jobs that are not making provision for variety (i.e. no room for independence of task, tasks are repetitive and the job is a routine) (Kgosana, 2008) (see par 2.3.1.4.3), this research provides that in highly structured jobs defined by formal and inflexible organisational systems (see par 2.3.1) there is a significant relationship between growth opportunities provided by the military and SCS of soldiers.

Another dimension of job characteristics is **work overload** which has a negative insignificant relationship with SCS ($r = -.06$; $p > .05$) (Table 3). Work overload with its depletion of resources can be expected to have a significant relationship with the perception of SCS. The expectation is that as the pace of the work, amount of work increases, mental and emotional load that comes with the work increases (Rothmann et al., 2006) (see par 2.3.1.4.1) the more decrease in the perception of SCS of soldiers will result. However, this is not the case in this research. This lack of significant relationship between work overload and SCS can be attributed to the moderating effect of the support provided by the SANDF to its soldiers during deployments (see par 2.3.1.4.4) (Gade, 2010; Kalamdien, 2008).

Apart from organisational support, soldiers also draw from the support of their peers and colleagues by means of buddy system or job sharing. Using buddy system soldiers share the workload presented to them on daily basis by assisting one another in completing their tasks. As a result, the demands of their jobs are minimised and their performance remain the same.

The literature provides that the perception of organisational support will increase employees' contribution toward organisational goals which by implication means that for the SANDF, soldiers who perceive the SANDF as supportive are likely to increase to maximise their contributions and efforts towards achieving organisational goals (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) (see par 2.3.1.4.4). The provided organisational support is insulating soldiers during deployments inhibiting possible negative effects on both the success of the missions and the career of soldiers. These means that the increase in overload is surpassed by the support soldiers receive during deployments (see par 2.3.1.4.4); as a result soldiers do not experience any effect of work overload on their perception of SCS (Oldham & Hackman, 2005; Van Breda, 1995). In line with the foregoing argument, the literature provides that a condition of work overload only occurs when the person's coping abilities and capabilities are depleted consequently resulting in poor organisational commitment, early retirement from the labour market and dissatisfaction with career prospects (Karasek, 1979, Kgosana, 2008; Nabitiz et al., 2009).

Apart from organisational support, a possible explanation is the military notion of being on duty twenty four hours a day seven days a week. Soldiers see duty as an inherent responsibility that they owe to their country and its people, no matter what the cost. With specific reference to the sample in this research, the explanation for the significant relationship is the fact that soldiers who participated in this research were either studying at SAMA or busy with a course at SAS SALDANHA therefore, meaning that that military life was not that prevalent in their current situation (was distorted by what was experienced in that particular moment in their respective environment - study or course) (see par 3.4).

The results (Table 3) on the dimensions of job characteristics provides that job characteristics for the military (see par 2.3.1.4) are partially explained in terms of organisational support and growth opportunities, thus partially confirming the hypothesis that there is a relationship between job characteristics and SCS for soldiers in the SANDF. Although, these dimensions are partly confirmed they hold a psychological meaning for the soldiers and contribute to overall job satisfaction (Walsh et al., 1980; Johari et al., 2009) (see par 2.3.1). This is not different from trends in the literature where there are inconsistencies and inconclusive agreements on the dimensions that measures job characteristics (Boonzaier & Boonzaier, 1994; Boonzaier et al., 2001; Johari et al., 2009; Suman & Srivastava, 2009) (see par 2.3.1.1).

Job demands dimensions (i.e. workload and time pressure) are described in the JD-R model (Fig. 3) as the exhausting aspects of the job that are stimulated by aspects of the job such as organisational support, developmental opportunities and positive supervisory relationship (see par 2.3.2). Insignificant and negatively relationship between these two dimension can be attributed to the theory held in the discussion of work overload dimension of job characteristics where it was provided that insignificant relationship with SCS is the result of the prevalent organisational support provided by the SANDF during deployments (Kalamdien, 2008). The positive contribution of collective efficacy in this case cannot be ruled out. Collective efficacy promotes team effort in solving group problems, constructive resolution of complex group tasks and also increases team performance as a result reducing the effects of workload on soldiers. The literature provides that the collective nature of military organisational culture and military buddy system used by employees maximises team efforts, promotes positive climate, and group cohesion which work in favour of soldiers who are experiencing workload due to deployments. This collective culture and team approach in the military also minimise time pressure for soldiers (Tasa et al., 2007). (see par 2.5.2). These means the use of teams and buddy system by soldiers maximise effort while reducing workload subsequently minimising the time pressure that could have affected all soldiers if they were working individually on their tasks.

Instead of taking any work home, soldiers assist one another to complete necessary task on time.

Another explanation for the insignificant results is the positive appraisal of these demands by soldiers. For instance, soldiers who appraise the increased responsibilities, tasks and constantly working under time pressure as a challenge potentially promoting personal growth, opportunity to achieve to demonstrate competence and development is likely to be engaged in the work and perform best as opposed to some one who perceives the demands as threat (Nahrgang et al., 2011) (see par 2.3.2.1). Contrary to this research, studies in the literature found a positive correlation between job demands and job outcomes (Van Den Broeck et al., 2010).

The hypothesis that **Pay (salary) satisfaction** has a significant relationship with SCS ($r = .39$; $p < .001$) and was confirmed (see Fig. 9) (see Table 3). This is congruent with the theoretical argument (see par 2.3.3) that salary is often referred to as one of the observable indicators (such as lifelong learning, autonomy, learning new skills, rank, organisational position and the job title - see par 2.4.1) of OCS more than SCS (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Callanan & Greenhaus, 2006; Gattiker & Larwood, 1986; Pretorius & Morgan, 2010; Rode et al., 2008). However, the significant relationship between salary satisfaction and SCS can be attributed to the argument held by Heslin (2005); Hall and Chander (2005); Lau et al. (2007); and Abele and Spurk (2009) that objective indicators of OCS directly influence SCS over time (see Fig. 4) (see par 2.4). For instance, how the soldiers experiences aspects of OCS (such as salary, promotion, advancement) will influence how the person subjectively perceives CS, and this feeling of OCS have a direct influence on the development of SCS (Abele & Spurk, 2009).

Soldiers demonstrated their strong feeling on salary as one of the most important factors in their career when they engaged in a protest march in Pretoria (Campbell, 2010; News 24, 2010). Better salaries and remunerations packages for soldiers are means to decent living conditions, better education opportunities for their children and financial stability for soldiers. This was made clear by soldiers who left the SANDF for police service and the private sector to have a decent life (News 24, 2010) (see par 2.3.1). Therefore, an explanation for this significant relationship is the perceived financial achievement (dimension of SCS) of soldiers (see par 2.4.2) experienced after the salary increase received by soldiers in terms of the OSD (effective from 1 July 2010) (see par 2.3.3) (Heslin, 2005; Lau et al., 2007; Sisulu, 2010).

The hypothesis that **satisfaction with job security** relate significantly with SCS ($r = -.42$; $p < .001$) (see Fig. 10) was supported. The results were significant, but they gyrated in the negative direction showing a negative correlation between the two factors. Negative correlation means that when satisfaction with job security increases the perception of soldiers on SCS in the SANDF increases in the opposite direction. As the feeling of job security increases, the more the decrease in the perception of SCS for soldiers (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009).

This research provides that soldiers' still link job security as one of the factors determining SCS ($r = -.42$; $p < .001$) for them in the SANDF, but in negative light. This can be explained by the nature or contract offered by the SANDF. For instance, the literature (see par 2.3.4) provided that soldiers' employment in the SANDF is contractual, but the soldiers have the authority to initiate continuity of employment with the SANDF (DOD, 1996). Since job security is about "perceived stability and continuance of one's job as one knows it" (Probst, 2003, p. 452). It is based on the individual's perception and interpretation of the work environment (Bosman et al., 2005a). Despite the contractual renewal for continuation of employment in the SANDF, this research provided that soldiers still perceive their military jobs as providing job security for them, therefore they do not have to worry about that (see par 2.3.4.1).

They are not experiencing any security challenges and opportunities, they are psychologically settled in the SANDF and they are now becoming passive in their jobs and do only what is necessary. Provided job security by the SANDF affects the soldiers' perception of SCS in the negative light.

These results further support the previous researches which confirmed that most soldiers voluntarily join the SANDF for economic reasons, social mobility, job security or educational opportunities (Franke & Heinecken, 1999; Heinecken & Khanyile, 1996; Mankayi, 2010; Sasson-Levy, 2003). Previous research revealed that, majority of soldiers view soldiering as a career not a calling tinted by self sacrifice as it used to be. This means that their focus is on satisfying their career needs and aspiration and being successful in their careers more than anything. This means that their priority is getting a salary, which they receive every month, and not worrying about any feeling of job security. This argument flows from the view that was held by Clark and Postel-Vinay (2009) that most people feel more secured in permanent public sectors jobs because they are perceived to be insulation for labour market fluctuations.

Previous research revealed that employees with long service in organisations were found to be more secure in their job, but were not necessarily satisfied with their security (Probst, 2003). Furthermore, research found that increased job security lead to a decline in the employment rates of young workers due to vulnerabilities to dismissal (Pagés & Montenegro, 2007). These can be the case in this research where the majority of participants were fairly young and joined through MSDS and not really concerned about job security. Pagés and Montenegro (2007) agree with these when they revealed that employment protection by way of increasing job security is detrimental for younger workers. Based on these two views, the literature dictated that increased job security is a double edged sword; when it is applied strictly (i.e. high job security) young employees have a slim chance of employment or are dismissed by organisations; and when it is relaxed (i.e. low job security) the organisation suffers the cost of paying high severance packages to older employees

The contribution of this research is that, the positive view of job security by soldiers can result in members being satisfied with their jobs and staying longer in the SANDF. This was found in the studies by De Witte (2005), Origo and Pagani (2009), Bosman et al. (2005b) where high job security was linked to increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment, trust in management and the intention to stay longer in the organisation especially when the organisation provides support to the employees.

5.2.2 Personality factors

Personality factors in this research are factors that motivate human behaviour in the workplace (see par 2.5). These factors were researched in order to see their impact on the perceived SCS by soldiers, and most importantly how they related to SCS (see par 2.5). Those factors (locus of control, self-efficacy and assertive behaviour) are explained as follows:

This research (Table 3) did not confirm the hypothesis that **locus of control** has a significant relationship with SCS ($r = .07$; $p > .05$). These mean that locus of control as a PF does not have a significant relationship with SCS of soldiers in the SANDF. Because locus of control originates from the theory of the relationship between person-perception and internal behaviour, it can be assumed that the insignificant results are the product of the rationalisation of the soldiers' WC as a practical factor in the perception of SCS (Cunningham, 2011) (see par 2.5.1). For instance, if soldiers' perception are internally inclined (which was the case in this research, with the majority of participants demonstrating internal locus of control - 82%) (see Fig. 6), those soldiers are likely to display internal qualities (such as creative thinking and initiative) (see par 2.5.1) which are not allowed in the military environment where flexibility is compromised and orders flow from top-down (see par 2.3.1.4.2), which will subsequently negatively affect their perception of SCS.

This flows from the argument that locus of control is not about the beliefs about control of personal actions, competence of task, and self-control, but rather the belief about the source of control (Perrewé & Mizerski, 1987) (see par 2.5.1). Inherently, sources of power in the SANDF are external forces – i.e. Civil Control of the military which leaves soldiers as mere executors of orders (DOD, 1996; Meernik, 1994) (see par 2.3.1.4.2). Given the insignificant results, it can be assumed that the bureaucratic structure of the SANDF (see par 2.3.1.4.2) and the military in general can pose a threat on the application of internal locus of control by soldiers in the military settings. For instance, in this research, a large number of participants have internal locus of control (82%) (see Fig. 6) in the environment where control stems from external forces can mean that they are not bringing their internal locus of control into play in the organisational culture of the SANDF, they are simply obeying order and doing what they are expected to do in the manner that is prescribed for them. For example, participants from the SAMA are typical junior officers who are supposed to be groomed and modelled into being good officers for the SANDF, however, they are treated more like troops, they are not given the opportunity to respond to challenges like officer, to plan activities and make decisions for themselves and fellow students like officers should. In order to maintain military discipline, junior officers are just following orders and respond passively to their jobs. The negative consequence is that, when they leave SAMA and depart to their operational units they will lack the ability and the potential to be good leaders. This lack of opportunities to be in control and in charge of activities that are expected for an officer can also serve as an explanation of insignificant results.

In reality, soldiers with internal locus of control are expected to be assertive (see par 2.5.1.1), and to view the military environmental events as having less impact on their career and believing that they have the power to counteract whatever threats their environment might impose on them (Ashford et al., 1989; Kululu et al., 2006; Yukl, 2010). However, for this research this is not true.

The majority of participants (82%) (see Fig. 6) indicated that they have internal locus of control, but it is not displayed in the organisation and they also show lack of assertive behaviour.

Self efficacy described as the soldier's personal judgment of how well he/she can perform the courses of action required dealing with the potential situation, relate insignificantly with SCS ($r = .13$; $p > .05$) (see Table 3) (Bandura, 1982, Breed et al., 2006). Because self-efficacy serves as a motivational source by influencing the tasks that the people pursue and overcoming the challenges presented by the task (Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011; Simbula et al., 2011) (see par 2.5.2), the expectation in this research was that, self-efficacy will related significantly with SCS. However, this hypothesis was not confirmed. As a result is concluded that self-efficacy of soldiers do not have any effect on the perception of SCS by soldiers.

Maybe the organisational culture is not allowing soldiers to experience self-efficacy. In the military there is always a higher rank who makes decision, plans, guides the adaptive capacity of the military (Shamir & Ben-Ari, 2009) (see par 2.3.1.4.2) and in most cases higher ranks who makes decisions are the ones who receives credit for the job not the actual people actually did the job. Another possible explanation can be that some soldiers feel like feel underutilized in the organisation – students' officers at SAMA who are treated, and functions like troops in the environment that should be developing their thinking about strategic military issues as developing officers (Coombs & Wakelam, 2010). There is a possibility that, without the opportunities to prove themselves that they can be good leaders, soldiers will remain with doubts in their capabilities as a result they will end up developing low level of self-efficacy and lack of motivation to do anything in the organisation.

This can be linked to the explanation in the literature that soldiers with low efficacy beliefs generally lack the motivation to engage in their jobs and are also likely to doubt their abilities, as a result they will experience a feeling of lack of accomplishments or SCS (see par 2.5.2). This is however, violating the results of previous studies where it was found that self-efficacy was positively related to CS (Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011) (see par 2.5.2). Furthermore, study by Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) and Bergh (2011) indicated a positive correlation between self-efficacy and success in specific career related outcomes (see par 2.5.2). Another study found a correlation between self-efficacy and levels of job satisfaction (i.e. satisfaction with supervisor, variety, closure, etc) (Alam & Mohammad, 2009; Salanova et al., 2011) (see par 2.5.2).

Due to the fact that most studies found the significant contribution of self-efficacy in jobs and tasks that require low complexity, than those that require medium to high complexity (Bergh, 2011; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), it can be assumed that the insignificant results in this research are as a result of the complexity associated with military task (see par 2.3.2) that range from border patrol, crime combating to peace support operations (see par 2.2). Another explanation can be that the participants might lack exposure to the complexity of military operations and numerous duty demands that come with it because they busy with their studies and some are busy with military courses (Bowen, 2010).

Since **assertive behaviour** is the tendency to be interpersonally dominant, ascendant, and forceful, it means that the soldier should be able to act in their own interests without violating or showing aggression to other soldiers or superiors and without feeling guilty about the act and still be able to engage positively at work (Infante, 1987; Kululu et al., 2006; Raudsepp, n.d.).

The expectation in this research in terms of the relationship between assertive behaviour and SCS was that, soldiers with assertive behaviour who are faced with difficult and challenging situations at work will be able to communicate their feelings directly to their superiors, without offending their superiors and still feel happy or satisfied about expressing their situation (Fensterheim & Baer, 1975; Floriana & Zernitsky-Shurka, 1987; Townend; 1991). The experienced feeling of satisfaction will then make soldiers feel appreciated in their work and continue having positive view of their work and career. This was supported by Raudsepp (n.d.) when he mentioned that people who feel unappreciated at work will have difficulty building successful careers, thus resulting in lack of assertiveness which will hold them back in their career and threaten their will to progress.

However, the results (Table 3) failed to support the hypothesis (H_{a7}) concluding that there is no relationship between assertive behaviour and SCS. These results ($r = .03$; $p > .05$) can be explained by the bureaucracy (see par 2.3.1.4.2) of military structure which prohibits flexibility and emphasise obedience to orders more than anything (Werner, 2011). This bureaucracy promotes power distance between soldiers and their superiors, thus limiting the expression of soldiers' views and personal feelings about the job (Huntington, 1986).

Due to lack of opportunity for soldiers to engage directly with their superiors, due to the military channel of command and the rank structure, the soldiers' expression of assertive behaviour becomes less visible on SCS. Another explanation is the military socialisation processes that instil aggressive behaviour in soldiers associating aggression with war and how orders should be carried out in the military environment, thus diluting the expression of assertive behaviour by soldiers.

5.3 Discussion of multiple regression analysis results

In general, although the statistical model fits the data reasonably well, there are some areas of concern (Table 4) (see par 4.5). For instance, some of the results in the model (see Table 5) are in contradiction with the research findings in the correlations analysis of some of the predictors (see Table 3). For instance, in the correlation results locus of control and self-efficacy did not yield significant correlation with SCS as a result H_{a5} and H_{a6} were not confirmed. Contrary, locus of control and self-efficacy found to have a significant effect on SCS, with self-efficacy being the highest contributing factor, followed by job security, locus of control and pay satisfaction (see Fig. 11). Consideration can be made to the theoretical model development process. Since the aim of this research was not to develop a statistical model the process of model development might be flawed.

Furthermore, the possible mediation and moderation role played by other variables such as self-efficacy, locus of control and assertiveness should be taken into consideration when looking at the relationship between SCS and outcome variables. In their research, Rennesund and Sakavik (2010) found that self-efficacy mediates the relationship between job demands and control, thus resulting in the feeling of satisfaction with ones career (see par 2.5.2). And it was also a mediator in the relationship between work centrality and career success (Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011) (see par 2.5.2).

The results that satisfaction with job security and salary are predictors of SCS are congruent with the theory held in Oldham and Hackman's model that proposed that hygiene factors (e.g. job security and salary) are great motivators for employees and lead to a feeling of CS (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Stocker et al., 2010) (see par 2.3).

These results therefore provide answer to the question..." *whether the concept of SCS exists in the military domain or not?*" (see par 2.4) by proposing that in the military environment where CS is still measure by upward hierarchical movement, income and organisational level (DOD, 1996), the concept of SCS does exist and is explained by means of self-efficacy, locus of control, satisfaction with job security and satisfaction with salary (see Fig. 11). Diversity of OCS indicators and SCS indicators in the model (Fig. 11) in explaining SCS for soldiers in the SADNF is maintained by the results of researchers who agreed that objective indicators of OCS directly influence SCS (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Heslin, 2005; Hall & Chander, 2005; Lau, Shaffer & Au, 2007;) (see Fig. 4) (see par 2.4). As a result the hypothesis that WC and PF have a significant effect on SCS was partly confirmed.

5.4. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the results of the research were discussed. This chapter started with a discussion of the correlation results, looking at WC and PF in relations to SCS. These were then followed by the discussion of the multiple regressions model. This research contributes to the understanding military WC by providing that WC have a partial relationship with SCS explained in terms of job characteristics, salary satisfaction and satisfaction with job security, with job demands making insignificant contribution in the relationship between WC and SCS.

The insignificant relationship between job demands and SCS was explained by moderating effect of organisational support received by soldiers during deployment (Kalamdien, 2008). Interesting discussion came out of these results is that, salary and job security, objective indicators of SCS contributes significantly with SCS. This was theoretically explained in term the direct effect that OCS indicators have on SCS concluding that in the military environment; OCS indicators have an effect on SCS of soldiers (Heslin, 2005; Hall & Chander, 2005; Lau et al., 2007; Abele & Spurk, 2009) (see par 2.4).

To the contrary, insignificant relationship emerged between PF and SCS with locus of control, self-efficacy and assertive behaviour claiming no stake in the perception of SCS by soldiers, subsequently concluding that, there is no relationship between PF and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF. This results were attributed to military structure which makes no provision for flexibility, independence and initiative (see par 2.5.1). However, with regards to PF, contradicting emerged when locus of control and self-efficacy proved to have explanation power on SCS followed by salary satisfaction and security with job security (OCS indicators). These results provided that some WC and PF provided in this research explain SCS of soldiers in the SANDF, concluding that WC and PF in this research partially explain SCS of soldiers.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusions

The aim of the research was to explore the relationship between WC and SCS, and PF and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF. Apart from reaching the aim of the study, there are questions (such as does a construct “WC” exist as a determinant of SCS? how can this construct “WC” be operationalised? and is there emerging relations with other variables such as WC and PF?)

The importance of this research is embedded in the various outputs that can be derived from it:

- To enrich the literature by bringing new perspectives in the research of CS.
- To create a body of knowledge and awareness on the factors that contributes to soldiers’ SCS and ultimately organisational success for the military.
- To fill the gap in the literature by determining whether there is a relationship between WC and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.
- The specific focus on the SANDF will also bring a new perspective in the literature.

- The study will determine the existence of the relationship between WC, PF and SCS.

In the endeavour to determine factors involved in SCS of soldiers in the SANDF by focusing on the relationship between WC, PF and SCS, this research provides that there is a significant relationship between job characteristics and SCS explained by partial significant correlation between organisational support and growth opportunities and SCS. Furthermore, a significant correlation emerged between salary satisfaction and satisfaction with job security concluding that satisfaction with job security and salary play a significant role in the perception of SCS in the SANDF. To the contrary, insignificant relationship emerged between job demands and SCS. As a result this research therefore concluded that there is a partial relationship between WC and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Furthermore, insignificant results emerged in the relationship between locus of control, self-efficacy and assertive behaviour (PF) and SCS respectively. Given that all PF yielded insignificant correlation with SCS, it was therefore concluded that, there is no relationship between PF and SCS of soldiers in the SANDF.

Lastly, the results of the multiple regression model (Table 6) provide that only few variables from WC and PF can be used to explain SCS of soldiers in the SANDF, concluding that WC and PF in this research partially explain SCS of soldiers. These results (see Table 6) in relation to the correlations results (see Table 3) provided answers to the questions ...”whether WC” exist as a determinant of SCS? How can this construct of “WC” be operationalised? And is there any emerging relation with PF (see 1.3) by maintaining that WC partially explains SCS and it can be operationalised in terms of organisational support and growth opportunities in the organisation, satisfaction with ones salary and satisfaction with job security in the SANDF, and that WC and PF both have the power to partially explain SCS (see Fig. 11). Given this results, this research propose that Subjective

Career Success in the Military model (Fig. 11) emanating from the results can be used as a platform for the SANDF to address career issues for soldiers. However, this model (Fig. 11) must be tested in order to be generalised in the military environment.

6.2 Limitations

The nature of this research is a limitation in itself in the sense that it does not provide causal factors – it is simply an exploratory study. One cannot safely conclude that the outlined independent variables directly influence the dependent variable; there might be other extraneous factors that were not really observed in the research, but impacted on the results. This on its own warrants caution when presenting and interpreting the results.

Another limitation is with regards to the environment in which the sample was collected. The environment was more on education, training and development and not really operational. As a result, the participants in the sample were either studying or on course, therefore not being really in the operational environment where real military WC are presented to soldiers on a day to day basis. As a result, this environment might have influenced the subjective experiences during the time the participants completed the questionnaires.

Another limitation is that most participants in the sample were not operational (e.g. MSDS who just completed basic training, are less than 3years in the service, or were never on deployment before), therefore limiting the generalisation of these results to the rest of the SANDF.

Given the lengthy questionnaires, it goes without saying that social desirability and generalised item response might have impacted on the response of each subscales.

For instance, generalised item response was particularly observed in the Rathu's Assertiveness Scale that yielded negative total item correlation when some items (7, 8, 20 and 28) were reversed.

Item 1 of the Workload subscale of Job Demands Scale had the lowest and negative inter-item correlation (-.12) in comparison to other items in the subscale. As a result it was deleted. The deletion of this item reduced the already small number of items in this subscale.

6.3 Recommendations

Recommendations with regard to future research, how the results of the research can be used and recommended interventions strategies are discussed. The available results present evidence compelling the researcher to make the following recommendations to the SANDF leaders for the effective utilisation of the SANDF soldiers in the future.

a. Sensitivity to soldiers circumstances

Since soldiers are not allowed to strike for a salary increase and service benefits, the realities of the cost of living in RSA warrants government's sensitivity to soldiers' WC by means of constant revision of soldiers' benefits and salary to minimise the frustrations experienced by soldiers for not meeting basic human needs.

b. Recognition of effort

Supervisors at different levels should make an effort to engage with soldiers at different level to acknowledge their contribution to the organisational goals and mission to stimulate soldiers' interest and commitment to the SANDF.

c. Strengthening organisational support

Continuous organisational support at all levels and different organisations proved to be the most pervasive intervention mediating high demands and work outcomes. Based on this it is recommended that the SANDF should maintain the support it provides to its soldiers during deployment and extend that kind of support to soldiers left behind in the mother units during deployment to keep them motivated.

d. Supervisor engagement

The structure of the military and its culture promote power distance which can have negative spin-offs in soldiers' relationship with supervisors. Therefore, supervisors in the SANDF must try to open communication channels with their subordinates so that they can be able to draw on supervisory support during times of hardships. This engagement with the supervisors will serve as a system to detect early warning signs of lack of motivation, dissatisfaction with the job, CS, etc, consequently allowing the organisation to curb the propagation of the problem at an early stage.

e. Acknowledgement of generation differences

The diversity of the SANDF presents old workers and young workers with the same working environment and challenges. These two generations will not respond in the same way when faced with career matters, would not respond in the same way, therefore caution should be exercised.

f. Cautious review of employment contracts

Career managers must review employment contracts of soldiers and provide soldiers with detailed information pertaining the state of employment contracts in the SANDF (whether they are permanent or temporary) to confirm the state of job security in the SANDF.

g. Developmental opportunities in the SANDF

Career managers must inform all soldiers at all levels about education and development opportunities available in the SANDF as additional compensations efforts by the organisation to facilitate CS.

h. Career discussions

Soldiers should be given the opportunity to effectively discuss their career with their most senior career managers to facilitate their stay in the organisation.

i. Job rotations

Due to the fact that constant exposure to poor working conditions within the military work settings can elicit reduced employee performance, it is therefore recommended that soldiers should be rotated from task to task to minimise the burden of doing the same job over and over.

Psycho-education is also recommended for soldiers' engagement, development and assistance to increase soldiers' level of motivation at work with the focus of facilitating SCS in the SANDF:

- a. It is recommended that both motivating and hygiene factors should be adequately addressed to maintain job satisfaction in the SANDF.

- b. Self-efficacy - soldiers who are more creative, imaginative and more independent should be motivated and be trained on how to use their creativity in the way that will benefit the organisation in order to heighten the efforts towards organisational effectiveness and commitment to the military, and also to reduce the frustration that comes with strict order.
- c. Assertive behaviour – soldiers should be taught and trained on how to become assertive and in order to build a body of soldiers with objective mindset, self determined, ready to confront any situational threats, and who goes out on their way to attain self development to benefit the SANDF to achieve mission readiness, mission success.
- d. Locus of control – soldiers should be trained to develop behaviour of self-control and the attitude to advocating their behaviour to their own acts, and not the organisation.

This training will teach soldiers to take more objective steps when confronted with threatening situations in their career.

Recommendations for future research:

The aim of this research was to explore factors involved in SCS of soldiers in the SANDF. In this quest, a model was developed based on the variance explained by the WC and PF in explaining SCS. Since the aim of the research was not to develop let alone test SCS model, it is therefore recommended that future research should test the proposed model against it's' data in the quest to develop SCS model for the military. Best practices in models dictates that a sequence of model test start with fitting the model followed by the investigation of the model parameters.

This flows from the complexity that is inherent in evaluating the model fit (Kelloway, 1998). Unless, this model is fully tested it cannot be fully applied as SCS model in the SANDF.

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