

Intention to Quit amongst Generation Y Academics at Higher Education Institutions

by
Anecia Meghan Robyn

*Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree Master of Commerce (Industrial Psychology) at
Stellenbosch University*



Supervisor: Prof. Ronel du Preez
Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

December 2012

DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, 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.

Anecia Robyn

30 April 2012

ABSTRACT

Talent retention is currently an international challenge across industries, and especially for academic staff at higher education institutions (HEIs) in South Africa. It may be argued that HEIs are more dependent on the intellectual and creative abilities and commitment of their academic staff than most other organisations. For an HEI to maintain a long-term trajectory of excellence in terms of both research outputs and teaching, a strong focus on retaining a younger generation of skilled academics is needed. Unfortunately, in many fields HEIs have to compete with industry to retain these employees. At the same time, the academic profession has increasingly fallen behind the private sector in terms of remuneration, amongst others, resulting in a shortage of young academics in South African HEIs. An investigation into the intention to quit amongst Generation Y academics at HEIs therefore is justifiable.

A mixed-method research design, including both qualitative (focus groups and blog) and quantitative phases (a self-administered questionnaire), was applied. Academics ($n = 189$) at six HEIs in South Africa were sampled. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients indicate that employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition have a significant negative impact on intention to quit. Based on the multiple regression and partial least square (PLS) path modelling results, it was found that only employee engagement and job satisfaction have a significant negative impact on intention to quit. Therefore, the latter variables have the most significant impact on intention to quit amongst the sampled population. However, the PLS path modelling results suggest that, by including employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition in the prediction of intention to quit, 45% of the variance will be explained. Relationships between the independent variables were also found: between employee engagement and job satisfaction; between transformational leadership and employee engagement; between transformational leadership and job satisfaction; and between remuneration, reward and recognition and job satisfaction.

This study contributes to the body of knowledge on intention to quit among academics, and specifically the sought-after Generation Y academics. The findings serve as input for the

development of efficacious retention strategies and mechanisms to retain Generation Y academics at HEIs in South Africa.

OPSOMMING

Talentretensie is tans 'n internasionale uitdaging in verskeie industrieë en veral vir akademiese personeel in hoërondewysinstansies (HOI's) in Suid-Afrika. Dit kan aangevoer word dat HOI's meer afhanklik is van die intellektuele en kreatiewe vermoëns en toewyding van hulle akademiese personeel as diemeeste ander organisasies. Vir 'n HOI om 'n langtermyn-bestaan van uitnemendheid in terme van navorsingsuitsette en onderrig te handhaaf, is 'n sterk fokus op die behoud van 'n jonger generasie van vaardige akademici nodig. Ongelukkig moet HOI's met die bedryf kompeteer om hierdie werknemers te behou. Terselfdertyd het die akademiese profesie toenemend agter geraak met onder andere vergoeding, wat 'n tekort aan jong akademici in Suid-Afrikaanse HOI's tot gevolg het. 'n Ondersoek na die intensie om te bedank onder Generasie Y akademici by HOI's is gevolglik regverdigbaar.

'n Gemengde-metodenavorsingsontwerp wat beide kwalitatiewe (fokusgroepe en blog) en kwantitatiewe fases ('n self-geadministreerde vraelys) ingesluit het, is gebruik. Die steekproef het akademici ($n = 189$) verteenwoordig van ses HOI's in Suid-Afrika. Die Pearson produkmomentkorrelasies dui daarop dat werknemertoewyding, transformasionele leierskap, werkstevredenheid, en vergoeding, beloning en erkenning 'n beduidende negatiewe impak het op die intensie om te bedank. Die resultate van die meervoudige regressie en PLS modellering dui daarop dat slegs werknemertoewyding en werkstevredenheid 'n beduidende negatiewe impak op die intensie om te bedank het. Hierdie twee veranderlikes het die betekenisvolste impak gehad op die intensie om te bedank onder respondente in hierdie studie. Dit is belangrik om daarop te let dat die resultate van die PLS modellering daarop dui dat 45% van die variansie in die voorspelling van intensie om te bedank verduidelik word deur werknemertoewyding, transformasionele leierskap, werkstevredenheid, en vergoeding, beloning en erkenning. Statistiese verhoudings tussen die onderskeie onafhanklike veranderlikes is bevestig, naamlik tussen werknemertoewyding en werkstevredenheid; tussen transformasionele leierskap en werknemertoewyding; tussen transformasionele leierskap en werkstevredenheid; en tussen vergoeding, beloning en erkenning en werkstevredenheid.

Hierdie studie dra by tot die uitbou van kennis oor die intensie om te bedank onder akademië, en spesifiek die gesogte Generasie Y akademië. Die bevindings dien as insette vir die ontwikkeling van doeltreffende retensiestrategieë vir die behoud van generasie Y akademië by HOI's in Suid-Afrika.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Accomplishing this goal would not have been possible without the support and motivation of the following people. I am forever grateful to:

- ◆ God, who gave me the mental capability, strength to persevere and courage to succeed on my journey.
- ◆ My parents, Desmond and Margaret, for their enduring support, love and encouragement, and for always believing in me. You gave me education – the best gift a child can ever ask for. I therefore dedicate this thesis to both of you.
- ◆ My brother, Aneurin, and my sister-in-law, Roeline, for always encouraging and motivating me.
- ◆ The special person in my life, Marvin, who stood by me through all my ups-and-downs. Thank you for your tremendous patience, and for encouraging me to stay positive throughout this journey.
- ◆ My supervisor, Prof Ronel du Preez, for her valuable input, late nights and dedication for assisting me to complete the research.
- ◆ Prof Martin Kidd of the Centre of Statistical Consultation, Stellenbosch University, for his patience and for assisting me with the data analysis and processing.
- ◆ All the respondents – thank you for enabling me to complete my research.
- ◆ My colleagues and friends, for their support and understanding.
- ◆ Marisa Honey, for the language revision of my thesis.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Talent retention has become a major concern for all organisations in South Africa, especially in the higher education sector, which is facing an aging workforce and limited prospects of recruiting and retaining talented young individuals. The strength of higher education institutions (HEIs) lies in their human capital and therefore it is vital to align their human resource policies and procedures to attract and retain skilled employees. Justifiably, the question can be posed as to how HEIs will ensure the retention of young academics. Chapter 1 focuses on a general overview of the difficulty facing organisations regarding talent retention and the unique challenges of HEIs. Finally, the problem statement and objectives are identified for the current study.

1.1 Talent Retention

Talent retention currently is an international challenge across industries, and especially among academic personnel at HEIs in South Africa. In the current war for talent, turnover in particular is problematic when an organisation loses its most talented and skilled employees (Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole & Owen, 2002; Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Taplin & Winterton, 2007). Organisations will have to acquire an interest in more than mere profitability should they aim to be dominant in a global economy. These interests will include the attraction, development and retention of talent (Boninelli & Meyer, 2004). According to Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney and Taylor (2009), there is a need for a strategic approach regarding talent management and the effective management of employee turnover to avoid negative implications, such as high economic costs and disrupted social and communicative structures. Therefore, management expects that money invested to recruit, select and develop the next generation of employees yields a return on investment. Retention of human resources is critically important in organisations where financial sustainability and survival depend on scarce human and specialist skills (Pienaar & Bester, 2008). To aggravate the problem of retaining young employees, job mobility is increasing and organisations are finding it more difficult to retain skilled employees. Knowledgeable employees display high levels of mobility, as the psychological contract has shifted from a previous emphasis on job security

and loyalty to the current emphasis on employability and loyalty to one's own career and experience (Sutherland, 2005).

Bakos (2007) reported that South African organisations are facing a situation in which the demand for highly skilled employees is far greater than the supply. This phenomenon is compounded by the fact that most organisations are in search of this scarce resource, and talent pools are rapidly becoming exhausted as globalisation increases and talented employees become highly mobile (Botha, Bussin & De Swardt, 2011; Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Minchington, 2010). Given the high demand for talent globally, employees with scarce skills have various career alternatives, and even in difficult economic times have a choice about where, for whom, and how long they work (Waldman & Arora, 2004). According to Hellman (1997), whilst healthy turnover in an organisation can be affirmative, stimulating and helpful in initiating innovative ideas and techniques that can move the organisation to greater levels of success, turnover among highly productive employees is costly. Even though employees may intend to leave willingly due to the relocation of a spouse, a redefined personal role (for example, primary caregiver for an aging parent or staying home with a child) or retirement, of particular apprehension to the employer and human resources is when highly productive employees intend to leave based on reasons often within the control of the employer (Berry, 2010). Berry emphasises that, from a practical point of view, the examination of an employee's turnover intent provides human resource departments with the opportunity to take a proactive approach to increasing retention and delaying turnover in an organisation, as opposed to obtaining the same information from an exit interview associated with voluntary turnover.

1.2 Talent Retention and Generation Y

Smola and Sutton (2002) noted that organisations in the new millennium are faced with baby boomers exiting the workplace, but are also confronted with the task of attracting and retaining a younger workforce entering the workplace that may differ significantly from previous generations. Various experts define Generation Y, the young or next generation of employees, in several ways, but generally include those born between 1980 and 2000. Each generation possesses unique characteristics that affect their work ethic, relationships, how

they manage change and their perception of organisational hierarchy (Glass, 2007), making Generation Y employees somewhat different from employees from previous generations.

A generation is defined by Strauss and Howe (1992) as a given cohort group of which all members are born in a limited span of consecutive years – approximately 22 – and whose boundaries are fixed by peer personality. The authors further interpret peer personality as a generational persona recognised and determined by common age and location, shared beliefs and behaviour and perceived membership of a common generation. Different generations demand a different style of management and will have a definite impact on human resource policies and procedures, as other strategies would need to be devised to motivate and retain these employees (Horgan, 2008).

1.3 Background: Higher Education in South Africa

The academic profession is central to the functioning of any higher education institution (HEI). Without well-qualified and committed academic staff, no academic institution can really ensure sustainability and quality contributions over the long term (Pienaar, 2005). According to numerous sources (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua & Stough, 2001; Martin, 1999; Oshagbemi, 2000; Rowley, 1996), HEIs therefore are even more dependent on the intellectual and creative abilities and commitment of their academic staff than most other organisations.

The current core workforce of HEIs in South Africa typically comprises mature and well-experienced academics. Statistics show that, as of 1 April 2011, the percentage of academics younger than 35 at HEIs in South Africa was approximately 30% (Boughey & Botha, 2011, p. 17) of the academic workforce (refer to Table 1.1). Based on the current retirement age of 65, 4000 academics (27% of academics) will retire and need to be replaced within the next 10 years (Badat, 2008, p. 8). For professors and associate professors, who constitute the most highly qualified and experienced academics, the percentage rises to almost 50% (Badat, 2008, p. 9). Academics older than 50 years have increasingly come to bear the responsibility of publishing. Thus, the Generation Y academics will need to be equipped to hold responsibility for conducting research and publishing, so that the knowledge needs of South

Africa are met effectively (Badat, 2008). Data indicate that the rate at which academics are leaving HEIs is a cause for concern, as the figures quoted range between 5% and 18% (Koen, as cited in Pienaar & Bester, 2006, p. 582).

In order for an institution to have a continuous cycle of excellent research outputs and teaching excellence, a focus on retaining newly recruited and developed academic staff is essential. Evidently, the retention of academics should be a strategic priority, since it is difficult to replace the knowledge, skills and experience of academic staff (Simmons, 2002). The statistics as illustrated in Table 1.1 also reveal the unequal distribution of race and gender among academics at HEIs in South Africa. Pienaar and Bester (2006) highlight the fact that an academic career is probably no longer as desirable and attractive as was previously believed, which aggravates the challenge of retaining academics in South Africa. According to Anderson, Richard and Saha (2002), a decline in the image and status associated with an academic career is evident. As previously mentioned, HEIs are increasingly obliged to make the retention of academics a strategic priority, especially since as many as 68% of the academic staff in a study at Australian HEIs indicated that they wished to leave higher education (Anderson et al., 2002, p. 92).

Badat (2008) added three unique challenges for HEIs in South Africa. Firstly, the higher education sector has to compete with industry to retain young skilled academics. Inadequate remuneration of South African academics relative to occupations in the public and private sector that require similar levels of qualifications and expertise adds to the dilemma. According to various researchers, the remuneration differentials between HEIs and the public and private sectors are significant and have been widening (Badat, 2008; Du Plooy & Snyman, 2004; Oshagbemi & Hickson, 2003; Pienaar & Bester, 2006). Koen (as cited in Pienaar & Bester, 2006) concurs that insufficient financial remuneration is also one of the most important reasons why young, competent academics cannot be recruited or retained for higher education in South Africa.

Table 1.1

Total number of permanent fulltime academics within HE on 1 April 2011 per occupational category, gender, population group and age group

Occupational category	Male				Total Male	Female				Total Female	*Total males and females	Age groups		
	A	C	I	W		A	C	I	W			<35	35-55	>55
Professors	124	22	16	700	862	17	8	4	207	236	1098	62	583	757
Associate Professors	170	13	18	419	620	32	3	16	262	313	933	81	671	397
Senior Lecturers	383	29	32	582	1026	175	18	28	625	846	1872	358	1329	498
Lecturers	822	70	77	923	1892	561	79	129	1233	2002	3894	1355	1982	1006
Junior/Assistant Lecturers	170	12	3	71	256	131	16	9	182	338	594	359	200	28

*Totals exclude Walter Sisulu University, Tshwane University of Technology and the University of KwaZulu-Natal

A – African C – Coloured I – Indian W - White

(Boughey & Botha, 2011, p. 17)

Badat is in agreement with Naidu and Govender (2004, p. 5), who predicted an increasing shortage of academic staff at South African HEIs due to the “brain drain” and more attractive options in the private sector. Therefore, the public and private sectors, together with emigration, yield a powerful pull of current academics as well as Master’s and Doctoral graduates. This situation results in a minimal flow of highly qualified graduates from the private and public sectors to HEIs, to the detriment of the institutions, the economy and society. A second challenge would be to ensure that the next generation of academics possess the teaching and learning capabilities that are essential to produce high quality graduates and to enhance equity of opportunity and outcomes for students (Badat, 2008; Pienaar & Bester, 2008; Simmons, 2002). Thirdly, Badat argues that the next generation of academics also have to contribute to the transformation of institutional cultures, especially at historically white institutions. This concurs with the recommendations of Du Plooy and Snyman (2004) and Gillespie et al. (2001).

In addition to the preceding challenges, it also is important to bear in mind that institutions have to provide quality education that is flexible and innovative enough to cater for the changes in the workforce. These changes include the advancement of globalisation, liberalisation and technological expansion (Shirley, n.d.). According to Pienaar and Bester (2006), the successful management of the careers of academic staff, amidst all the demands and changes, influences the success, functioning and sustainability of any HEI. Substantial

commitment on the part of administrators and academics to foster a positive emotional or affective attachment to their job and workplace is required in order to effectively bear these added roles and responsibilities (Shirley, n.d.). Turnover rates at HEIs may be lower than in other industry segments, but the loss of a single individual can be more costly, as scientific professionals are very valuable. Unlike for-profit firms, which are profit maximisers, HEIs are prestige maximisers, competing for rank and status in the academic world (Leslie & Rhoades, 1995; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). The employees of HEIs therefore are bound to face different challenges than employees working in the corporate environment; which means that standard organisational theories that apply to the corporate sector are inadequate in describing organisational behaviour in higher education (Jo, 2008).

HEIs are dependent on external funding from government and organisations, therefore they need to exist as centres of excellence. This will result in broader national and international recognition, and in turn lead to financial assistance. Branding the institution as a centre of excellence and a knowledgeable enterprise will attract more national and international students. If HEIs continue to lose academics, their national and international image and competitive advantage, as well as their ability to generate new knowledge in a specific field, may be affected adversely (Pienaar & Bester, 2008). Therefore, it is imperative to identify and address antecedents of intention to quit amongst Generation Y academics to ensure that the quality and sustainability of HEIs are not jeopardised (Pienaar, 2005; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005; Trotman, Bennet, Scheffler & Tulloch, 2002). De Bruin and Taylor (2005) highlighted that studies focusing on this unique sector have been rare. Due to the lack of information concerning Generation Y academia in South Africa, there have been missed opportunities for growth and development. This could have affected the organisational performance and staffing in organisations and academia, particularly in the light of the forecasted shortages in higher education. The notion that an academic career has become less attractive may have far-reaching consequences for higher education and society as a whole, as well as for the economy of the country. If South African HEIs want to attract, manage, retain, develop and utilise their most expensive commodity, namely human resources, while ensuring growth and continued existence at the same time, they should understand the career phases of academics as well as the antecedents that lead to the intention to quit of employees – Generation Y academic employees in this instance. By increasing the understanding of employees' intention to quit, management will be able to retain talented human capital that is

committed to the goals of the institution (Shirley, n.d.). If the career obstacles of young academics are not addressed, there could be a variety of negative outcomes for HEIs in general, as well as for South Africa as a whole. The numerous challenges facing higher education in South Africa reinforce the importance of the current study to add to the body of literature on higher education in the country. The next generation of academics brings about additional challenges for HEIs to apply innovative human resources and organisational development theories and processes, based on the uniqueness of this sector in South Africa in comparison to the private and public sector.

1.4 Problem Statement and Objectives

To achieve quality education, sound human resource strategies and practices are required. One of the threats to attaining performance excellence is intention to quit that represents an attitudinal orientation or a cognitive manifestation of the behavioural decision to quit. Intention to quit is a "...conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation (Tett & Meyer (1993, p. 262). Actual turnover is the primary focus of interest for employers, with intention to quit being regarded a strong surrogate indicator for such behaviour. Intentions, according to researchers, are the immediate determinant of actual behaviour (Firth, Mellor, Moore & Loquet, 2004). It therefore is legitimate to use intention to quit as an outcome variable in turnover studies (Chew, 2004). While few would argue against the contention that intention to quit is the immediate antecedent to turnover, there is a considerable diversity of opinions concerning the antecedents of intention to quit. Several models have postulated job satisfaction and organisational commitment to be antecedents of turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Farkas & Tetrick, 1989; Williams & Hazer, 1986). It is imperative for human resource departments to understand how to maximise the retention of productive employees through the analysis of the antecedents of intention to quit. The long-term retention of a highly productive workforce is coveted, and a goal of human resources is to attract and maintain highly productive employees.

A vital question faced by managers therefore is: What can be done to prevent skilled and knowledgeable employees from contemplating to leave the organisation? (Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008). Another question is: What determines intention to quit among Generation

Y academics? HEIs must strive to become the employer of choice amongst the next generation of academics. They should make a concerted effort to understand the antecedents of intention to quit within the Generation Y age cohort in order to become the employer of choice amongst Generation Y academics. Jamrog (2004) suggested that human resource development professionals should focus on building a culture of both retention and engagement in the workplace. “Employer strategies to build a culture that retains and engages the best and brightest will rely less heavily on traditional pay and benefits and more on the creation of a work environment that allows people to grow and develop” (Jamrog, 2004, p. 29). Glass (2007), together with Pienaar and Bester (2008), therefore argue for the need for more research on Generation Y and their role in the workplace (especially in developing countries).

It is against this background that the present study formulates the fundamental research-initiating questions as: (1) What are the antecedents that influence Generation Y academics’ intention to quit at HEIs and (2) How do those antecedents contribute to intention to quit? In accordance with the research-initiating questions that guides this research project, the following literature and empirical objectives are set.

1. To investigate the scope of antecedents that influence intention to quit;
2. To propose a theoretical model of variables influencing intention to quit;
3. To empirically determine the relative importance of the different variables in predicting intention to quit;
4. To empirically determine the relationships between the identified variables and intention to quit;
5. To investigate how HEIs can shape their human resource policies and practices to retain employees and reduce the intention to quit among Generation Y academics; and

6. To make recommendations to human resources and senior management at HEIs on rationally and purposefully monitoring and managing the retention of Generation Y academics.

1.5 Concluding Remarks: Chapter 1

This chapter introduced talent retention and highlighted the general concerns about attracting and retaining skilled employees in most sectors. It also provided introductory perspectives highlighting the unique nature and challenges facing HEIs in South Africa. Furthermore, an overview of the value that the current study can add to the body of knowledge on Generation Y academics was provided, and concluded by looking at the objectives set for the current study.

Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive review of the theoretical framework and models that were used as point of departure for this study. More specifically, it emphasises the prevalence and challenges of intention to quit in higher education. The chapter furthermore defines and discusses the dependent and independent variables, and places emphasis on their interrelatedness. This culminates in the proposal of a theoretical model of intention to quit.

Chapter 3 focuses on the research methodology utilised in this study and describes the research design, the sample population, the measuring instruments, the research procedures and statistical data analysis techniques. Chapter 4 reports on the results of the analysis of the research data. And, lastly, Chapter 5 presents the conclusions of the study, a discussion of the results as well as the recommendations and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Based on the research-initiating question and the preceding literature-related objectives, the aim of the literature review is to present the theoretical background to this study. The different models that are used as theoretical point of departure in the study of intention to quit, together with the selected variables under investigation, are discussed. The chapter will culminate in the development of a theoretical model of variables influencing intention to quit amongst Generation Y academics within HEIs.

2.1 Defining Intention to Quit

Intention to quit has been researched extensively in various organisational sectors (Armitage & Connor, 2001; Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Benson, 2006; Elangovan, 2001; Igbara & Greenhaus, 1992; Jaros, 1997; Lambert, 2001); however, there remains a distinct lack of research on retention and retention strategies within the higher education arena in South Africa.

The early research by Mobley (1977) viewed intention to quit as the culmination of a decision process, whereby the employee initiates the process by evaluating his or her current situation, followed by several stages (for example, evaluating the usefulness of the job search; evaluating the cost of quitting; intending to and searching for alternatives, and then evaluating alternatives compared to the present job) until a firm intention to quit decision is reached. According to Carmeli and Weisberg (2006), turnover intentions refer to three particular elements in the withdrawal cognition process, namely having thoughts of quitting the job, having the intention to search for a different job, and then having the intention to quit. Brown (1996) defined intention to quit as the strength of an individual's view that he or she does not want to stay with his or her current employer, thus adding elements of valence and perception to the definition. For the purpose of the current study, intention to quit is defined as a process whereby employees evaluate their current position and have thoughts of quitting their position.

2.2 Theoretical Models: Intention to Quit

The following section will focus on three models of intention to quit that depict the complex nature of the dependent variable, intention to quit, namely (1) Oehley's talent management model, (2) Dhladhla's model of the influence of leader behaviour, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intention, and (3) Berry's model of employee engagement, compensation fairness, job satisfaction and turnover intent. The most influential antecedents of intention to quit are identified from these models and will serve as the foundation to develop a theoretical model of intention to quit within higher education. The qualitative phase of this study, which comprised focus groups and a blog, furthermore contributed to identify additional antecedents of intention to quit, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

2.2.1 Oehley's talent management model

Oehley (2007) investigated the development and evaluation of a partial talent management competency model. The key objectives of Oehley's study were to identify talent management competencies required by line managers for successful implementation of an organisation's talent management strategy. A further objective was to conceptualise competencies within a partial competency model, and to determine how line managers' talent management competencies affects subordinates' intention to remain with the organisation. The study identified the talent management competencies required by line managers in order to result in certain measurable organisational outcomes, such as reduced turnover. The objectives were accomplished by means of establishing the causal linkages between the talent management competency variables and the outcome variables, namely job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to quit. The model, as depicted in Figure 2.1, is the final version of the partial talent management competency model.

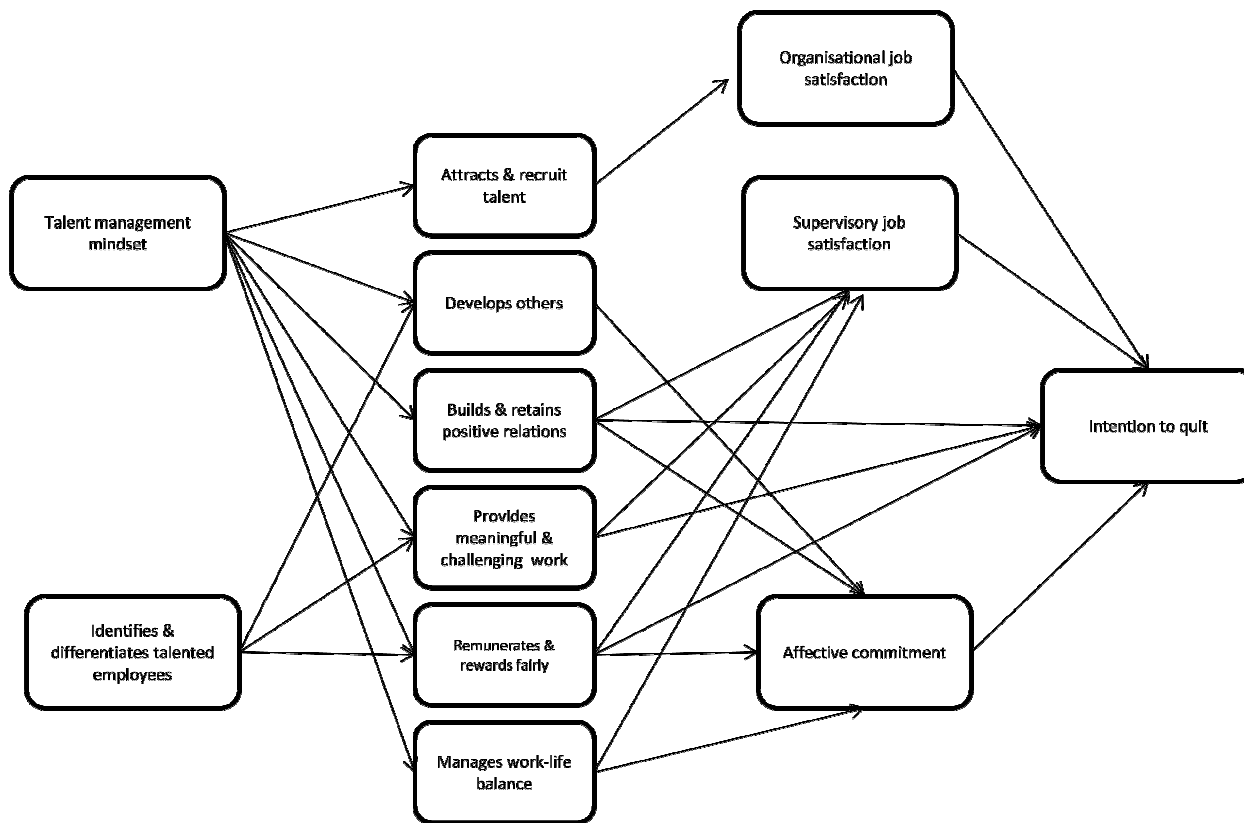


Figure 2.1 Partial Talent Management Competency Model

(Oehley, 2007, p. 54)

The questionnaire utilised to evaluate the talent management competencies was in a 360° format, where peers, superiors and, where applicable, subordinators were involved. Prior to the design of the questionnaire, interviews were conducted using the Critical Incident Technique to ascertain the talent management behavioural indicators to be used for the development of the questionnaire. The interviews were conducted with four line managers on three different management levels, namely director, executive management and middle management.

The study was conducted at a large telecommunications company within the information and communication technology sector. The sample population used for the study consisted of 123 employees who was identified as talented employees with management potential and were enrolled in the organisation's three-year leadership development programme. The sample

represented mostly non-management and entry level management, with a few participants on middle management level. In total, 357 questionnaires were returned and could be analysed.

Oehley (2007) concluded that organisational job satisfaction has a significant and negative effect on intention to quit. The sub-scales of job satisfaction, pay and people load onto organisational job satisfaction. Supervisory job satisfaction has not been found to have a significant effect on intention to quit. The sub-scales of job satisfaction, work, promotion, supervision and job in general load onto supervisory job satisfaction. Oehley's findings regarding organisational job satisfaction are consistent with previous research conducted by Chen (2006), Elangovan (2001) and Scott, Gravell, Simoens, Bojke and Sibbald (2006). However, the results relating to supervisory job satisfaction were not.

Oehley's model was deemed to be insightful as an important part of the talent management competencies, include attracting, developing and retaining talented employees, which is an essential responsibility of a leader.

2.2.2 Dhladhla's model of the influence of leader behaviour, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intention

The main objective set by Dhladhla's (2011) study was to determine the causal linkages between leader behaviour, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and their influence on turnover intention. Therefore, the aim was to develop and empirically test a structural model, as depicted in Figure 2.2. Even though the focus of Dhladhla's study was on employees of the South African National Defence Force (SANDF), the dependent variable under investigation (intention to quit) is similar to that of the current study.

The sample used to conduct this study was specifically selected from the uniformed employees of the SANDF. The data for the study was gathered by means of a self-report questionnaire and a total of $n = 318$ questionnaires were usable for analysis. However, the findings of Dhladhla's study are inconsistent with previous research (Firth et al., 2004;

Tepper, 2000), as it imply that high transformational leader behaviours have very little or almost no relationship with levels of job satisfaction. Another unforeseen finding of this study was found in the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The results showed that an insignificant negative relationship existed between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Earlier research conducted by Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000) and Martin and Roodt (2008) reported a strong negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

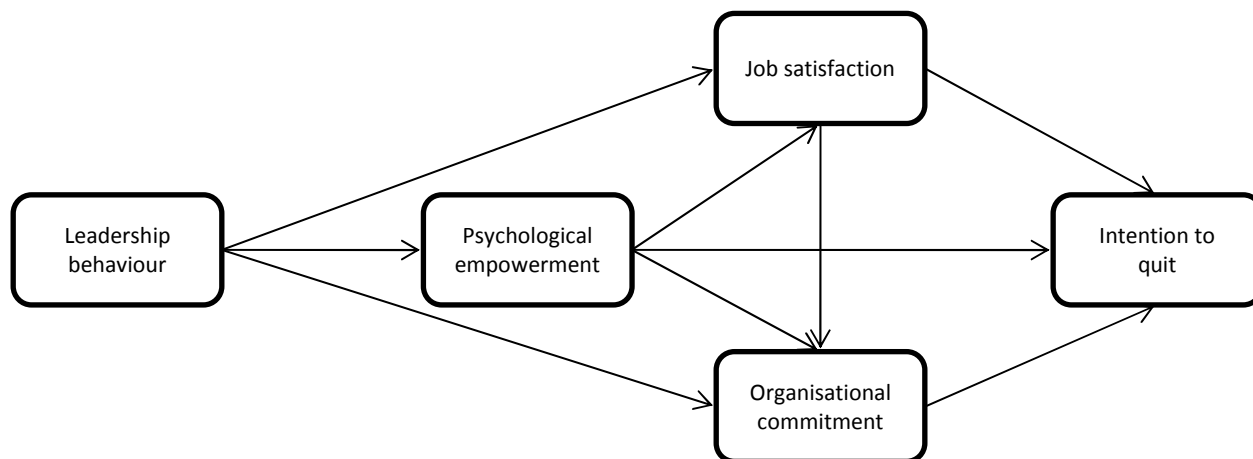


Figure 2.2 Structural Model of Turnover Intention in Organisations

(Dhladhla, 2011, p. 40)

Dhladhla (2011) advised that the study had the potential for expansion through the inclusion of further variables that are likely to influence turnover intention among employees, thus motivating the use of Dhladhla's model as theoretical background for the current study, as it also recognises the crisis caused by the war for talent in South Africa. The current study will expand on Dhladhla's model in order to explicate additional relationships in the subject of turnover intention.

2.2.3 Berry's model of employee engagement, compensation fairness, job satisfaction and turnover intent

The recent study conducted by Berry (2010) assessed the moderating effects of age and the mediating effects of job satisfaction on the relationship between employee engagement,

compensation fairness and the outcome variable turnover intent (refer to Figure 2.3). The study utilised secondary data from an Australian HEI (generated from the 2007 Employee Satisfaction Survey, n=3180). Albeit that the survey comprised different measurement instruments, Berry investigated the data related to employee engagement, compensation fairness, job satisfaction, turnover intent and demographics.



Figure 2.3 Accepted Model for Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction and Intention to quit

(Berry, 2010, p. 209)

Berry's (2010) results indicated that both employee engagement and compensation fairness are inversely related to turnover intent (employee engagement was found to be a much stronger antecedent of turnover intent, with a standardised regression weight of $-.42$, than compensation fairness for the population of academics in higher education). Secondly, job satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intent or that between compensation fairness and turnover intent. The latter finding was rather unanticipated, as job satisfaction is presented as a precursor to turnover intent in the literature (Hellman, 1997; Mobley, 1977; Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980).

The current study incorporates the findings reported, antecedents used and recommendations made by these researchers to expand the literature on intention to quit within a South African context. As the studies conducted by both Oehley and Dhladhla make use of South African samples in different industries, focusing on the influence of leadership

(talent management competencies), job satisfaction, organisational commitment and affective commitment on intention to quit, it could be argued that the current study will add to the existing body of knowledge, especially with regard to the intention to quit phenomenon within the academic profession and higher education sector.

Therefore, the models discussed in the preceding sections will serve as theoretical point of departure for this study. The theoretical background on intention to quit reiterates the need for further studies on the subject, and confirms that the topic is not yet exhausted, especially not in the higher education sector in South Africa. As illustrated, the studies all focus on various variables in different industries, with the common purpose of better understanding the relationship between the independent variables and the investigated dependent variable, intention to quit. Even though these models will be used as basis, it is important to understand the uniqueness of the higher education sector, and of the Generation Y population in South Africa. Therefore, the following sections will focus on the impact of intention to quit on the higher education sector, as well as on the sample population, Generation Y.

2.3 Intention to Quit within the Higher Education Sector

HEIs exist to train students in professional and technical areas in order to support the functional and economic development of the countries in which they find themselves. The relationships between the antecedents of intention to quit may be increasing in importance, as researchers have forecasted a shortage of academics in HEIs (Badat, 2008; Bakos, 2007; Berry, 2010; Bland, Center, Finstad, Risbey & Staples, 2006; Harrison & Hargrove, 2006). Therefore, it is deemed imperative to identify antecedents through this study that will encourage academics to remain in their positions, as, according to Glandon and Glandon (2001), there are limited studies on academic turnover in higher education. Many institutions underestimate the cost of turnover and consequently under invest in reducing it (Pienaar & Bester, 2008). Many researchers have highlighted the benefits of academic turnover (for example, the capacity to hire younger academics, the opportunity to reallocate duties across different programme areas, and the chance to diversify faculties with regard to gender, race and ethnicity), but finding replacements for aging academics is a major concern (Harrison & Hargrove, 2006; Hellman, 1997; Nagowski, 2006). Johnsrud and Rosser (2002, p. 518)

reiterated that "... too often the academics that leave are those the institution would prefer to retain".

In 1993, the Centre for the Study of Higher Education (CSHE) in Australia conducted a national survey of academics' workload, levels of satisfaction, key aspects of teaching, research activities, and work preferences. A follow-up survey was conducted in 1999 that consisted of a representative sample from 15 Australian universities. The extraordinarily high response rate of 58.4% was regarded as an indication of the importance attached to the issues of work roles and workloads by academics at the time (McInnis, 2000). One of the major findings of the study was that the level of overall satisfaction with the job had dropped from 67% to 51% (McInnis, 2000, p. 144). Once again, this is an indication of the importance of job satisfaction and the impact thereof on intention to quit among academics. There also was a significant increase in the proportion of academics that identified their work as a source of considerable stress (from 52% to 56%).

The next generation of academics must possess the intellectual and academic capabilities related to teaching and learning, research and community engagement that are necessary conditions for transforming and developing South Africa's HEIs and enhancing their academic capacities (Badat, 2008). Men and women of the X and Y generations strive towards maintaining a successful work-life balance. The traditional academic models are not likely to satisfy this new generation of academics, which increasingly poses challenges to institutions trying to recruit and retain them (Quinn, Yen, Riskin & Edwards Lange, 2007). The departmental culture is particularly important, since academics' lives are generally affected most directly by their immediate environment (Quinn et al., 2007). Academics that become departmental chairs typically have been trained to be researchers, not administrators, and most enter the position with little leadership experience beyond chairing departmental committees. Quinn et al. (2007) raised the question of how institutions can achieve cultural transformation when policy implementation is managed within departments, which are headed by apprentice leaders. Their recommendation was that HEIs should offer leadership-development workshops for department chairs that must have the following three goals:

- To expose departmental leaders to critiques of the academic norms related to gender, race/ethnicity, age, care-giver status, disability and privilege;
- To prepare departmental leaders to be agents of change within their departments; and
- To create a collegial network that will enable cross-departmental peer mentoring and dual-career hiring, as well as encourage new academics to take advantage of important but infrequently used policies (Quinn et al., 2007).

The subject of intention to quit in the higher education sector, not only in South Africa but internationally was ignored in most previous studies on intention to quit. Moreover, the question remains whether the findings of previous studies on intention to quit are applicable to Generation Y academics. Intention to quit amongst academics in South Africa might be a general concern; nevertheless, based on the mature academic workforce and unique challenges faced by HEIs in South Africa, emphasis ought to be placed on the young, up-and-coming academics who have to continue improving and developing our country. The present study should consequently contribute to the limited body of knowledge available on Generation Y academics in HEIs in South Africa.

2.4 Generation Y

“What is in it for me?” This attitude is often voiced by new graduates and first-time employees. Terri Sarni, Director of Recognition Services at Prudential Financial, reiterated at the World of Work 2002 Annual Conference that “... there will be demographic and skills shortages in the next 10 years as baby boomers leave the workforce” (Parus, 2002, p. 14). He continued, “Now is the time for companies to differentiate themselves as employers and give their talent reasons to stay” (Parus, 2002, p. 14). Over the last few decades, the workforce has changed dramatically in terms of age, gender, ethnic and racial composition, family structure and job expectations. Consequently, such social developments have had significant impacts on the nature and operations of organisations, especially in the management of human resources (for example, recruitment and selection, training and development, and performance management) (Chew, 2004; Murphy, Gibson & Greenwood, 2010; Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). The relatively sparse empirical research published on Generation Y is “... confusing at best and contradictory at worst” (Deal, Altman & Rogelberg, 2010, p. 191), compounding the

perceived inability of organisations to recruit and retain Generation Y employees. Reiner (p. 49) predicted "... this generation will have more impact than any other generation ..." (as cited in Scholtz, 2003). Spiro (2006) concurs with Reiner that, if capitalised on, Generation Y will most likely prove to be one of the greatest assets of organisations today. However, many organisations are failing to formulate strategies to recruit and especially to retain this talent.

2.4.1 Defining and profiling Generation Y

As mentioned previously, Strauss and Howe (1992) define a generation as a given cohort group in which all members are born in a limited span of consecutive years – approximately 22 – and whose boundaries are fixed by peer personality. Codrington and Grant-Marshall (2005) concur that a generation can be defined in terms of time (approximately 20 years).

The book, *Generations: the history of America's future, 1584 to 2069*, by Strauss and Howe (1992), brought awareness of generations to the workplace. Generational time spans differ between countries and, according to Codrington and Grant-Marshall (2005), American Generation Y's were born between 1980 and 2001, whereas Generation Y's in South Africa generally include individuals born between 1990 and 2005. For the purpose of this study, Generation Y is classified as individuals born from 1981 to 2001, in order to make provision for the overlap between European and American Generation Y classifications. In various other publications, synonyms for Generation Y's are Millennials, Generation next, Netgeneration, Echo Boomers and iGenerations.

Eric Chester, in his book *Employing Generation Why?* describes Generation Y as impatient, desensitised, disengaged, sceptical, disrespectful, bluntly expressive, adaptable, innovative, efficient, resilient, tolerant and committed (as cited in Codrington and Grant-Marshall, 2005, p. 63). Chester furthermore writes "... that this generation have, more than any other young generation, an ability to filter out every command, every request and every instruction that is not bundled with acceptable rationale...they demand reasons and rationale, so the traditional 'because I said so' is not going to cut it" (p. 63). This popularised statement by Chester should give top management and human resources insight into how their policies and processes will have to be adapted in order to accommodate Generation Y employees. It is important to remember that not all the characteristics that demographers, educators and

employers ascribe to Generation Y apply to each and every member of the generation. Unfortunately, there is limited scientific research on Generation Y in the workplace, especially regarding how this generation affects human resource policies and practices in South Africa. Most publications are popularised and not empirically tested. This study will attempt to make a contribution in this regard.

2.4.2 Generation Y in the workplace

Generation Y's are technologically advanced, therefore are not afraid to test new technologies and are known to be the first to adapt, try, buy and spread the word about new innovations. They are looking to develop new skills, are progressive thinkers, able to process information quickly, eager to embrace change, and constantly looking for new approaches and seeking the next challenge (Botelho, 2008; Herbison & Boseman, 2009; Wordon, 2009). According to Lower (2008), they also have high standards and excel at teamwork. The work environment plays an integral role in Generation Y's satisfaction in the workplace. To them, a good employer allows flexibility, provides career development opportunities, challenging work, creative expression, freedom, work–life balance and mobility, and places emphasis on corporate social responsibilities (Burmeister, 2009; Martin, 2005; Martin & Tulgan, 2006; Strydom, 2009). Of equal importance to Generation Y employees are the ethical track record and corporate culture of an organisation (Gen Y rocks, 2010). An Australian study by McCrindle revealed that the five most significant factors for attracting and retaining Generation Y are a good work–life balance; a collaborative workplace culture; a varied job role and opportunity for advancement; an inclusive management style; and ongoing career development. The McCrindle study established that career development was regarded as 'very important' (78.9% of the sample), with on-the-job coaching and mentoring being a favoured development style (McCrindle, 2006, p. 23).

Furthermore, a study conducted by Russo confirmed that organisations that are willing to be innovative and flexible with their employment terms will be first in line to take advantage of what Generation Y has to offer. The following factors, in support of previous research findings, were significant in the recruitment and retention of Generation Y employees:

- Opportunity to do work that is exciting;
- A chance to learn and develop;
- Having one's job aligned to one's talent;
- Ethical record of organisation; and
- Known to pay well and have a professional company culture (as cited in Gen Y rocks, 2010).

Recent research findings indicate that younger generations are looking for a work environment that is dynamic, interesting, challenging and, above all, fun (Ferri-Reed, 2010; Hulett, 2006). The concepts of "work" and "fun" may seem mutually exclusive; however, in this context they refer to creative communications, open workspaces, state-of-the-art technology, workplace flexibility and social networking opportunities. Generation Y's are well educated, skilled in technology, self-confident, able to multi-task and have plenty of energy. They seek challenges, yet work–life balance is of the utmost importance to them (Gilbert, 2011). According to Irvine (2010), Generation X and Y prefer a direct communication style with timely feedback, frequent encouragement and recognition of their efforts. They are also more team oriented, enjoy change and need to respect their leaders in order to follow them. Hulett (2006) affirmed that Generation Y employees, in general, are an optimistic group with high expectations for their success. Hulett furthermore suggests that organisations should focus to retain Generation Y employees from the onset of the recruitment phases, as these employees expect to be consulted concerning job management (for example, work scheduling) and to have some autonomy in the job description (for example, choice of duties and order of execution as more choices offer higher perceived individual control, leading to greater job satisfaction).

Henry (2006, p. 1) explains:

Generation Y are self-confident, outspoken, passionate, opinionated, loyal and impatient. They are easily bored and happily move on to other things and interests. They have high expectations of their parents, friends, colleagues and managers. They are ambitious, in a hurry and expect work and life to co-exist harmoniously, even though they are not sure how to make it work yet. They are in demand in the workplace and they know it.

Henry emphasised, moreover, that Generation Y's are motivated by opportunities for self-improvement and engage in training, learning and development activities. These opportunities for growth motivate Generation Y employees to work harder and achieve their goals as effectively as possible and, in return, they hold high expectations of their employers in terms of benefits, flexibility and compensation. According to Lieber (2010), Generation Y has a unique, flexible work style that managers may find challenging. They value flexibility in the workplace and will challenge the status quo. Lieber (2010) concurs with Henry (2006) that flexibility and the opportunity to pursue personal growth are highly motivational to Generation Y employees.

There is still no agreement on exactly how to differentiate between the generations, although there is consensus that four generational groups form the majority of the current workforce (Kupperschmidt, 2000). Each group has its own distinct set of values, view of authority, orientation to the world, loyalty, expectations of their leadership, set of demands and ideal work environment, which escalate diversity challenges in the workplace (Spiro, 2006). Managing diversity involves creating an environment that allows all employees to contribute to organisational goals and experience. According to Alsop (2008), employers are faced with some of their biggest challenges ever as they endeavour to integrate Generation Y's into a workplace with three other very different generations. The importance of Generation Y for the purpose of this study can be emphasised and motivated by the fact that these employees are entering the workplace with higher expectations than any other generation before them (Alsop, 2008). The challenge facing the leaders of today is to recognise that workforce diversity is not just about different cultures and genders, but also the difference between themselves and the next generation. Leaders need to identify the drivers motivating these divergent groups in order to create appropriate acquisition, retention and reward strategies.

According to Alsop (2008) and Irvine (2010), the four American generations in the workplace consists of the traditionalist/veterans/silent generation, born between 1925 and 1945; the baby boomers, born from 1946 to 1964; Generation X, from 1965 to 1979, and Generation Y, 1980 to 2001. Table 2.1 provides a summary of the characteristics of the four generations in the workplace, as well as the key historical events during each period. In order to understand the differences between generations, one has to consider the events that most affected the different generations as they were growing up. These may be great historical events that

affected millions of people, as seen in Table 2.1, or they may be individual experiences, such as the death of a parent or an unexpected relocation of the family (Sujansky & Ferri-Reed, 2009). Each generation holds diverse traits that call for a diverse perspective on the facets of human resources, including recruitment and selection, training and development and remuneration policies (Alsop, 2008). Walker (2007) argues that the traditionalist generation hold worldviews very intensely aligned with the times in which they were born and raised (for example, the Great Depression; the Second World War; the first moon expedition). Glor (2001) furthermore mentions that the Baby Boomers lean towards idealism and improving their environment, whereas the cynical Generation X tends to be more pragmatic and feels no such obligation to improve the world. Dinnell (2007) cautioned that most Generation Y employees leave their job not because there is no compelling reason to leave, but because there is no compelling reason to stay.

Table 2.1***Four Generations in the Workplace***

	Generation Y	Generation X	Baby Boomers	Traditionalist
Born between	1980 – 2001	1965 – 1979	1946 – 1965	1925 – 1945
Key historical events – USA	Terrorist attacks September 11; Afghanistan and Iraq wars; Hurricane Katrina	AIDS epidemic; space shuttle; fall of Berlin Wall; Bill Clinton–Monica Lewinsky scandal	Assassinations of John and Robert Kennedy and Martin Luther King Jr.; first man on the moon	Great Depression; Pearl Harbour; World War II; Korean War; Cold War; Cuban missile crisis
Key historical events – RSA	Township revolt; FW de Klerk as President; Mandela released after 27 years; ANC wins first non-racial elections	Hendrik Verwoerd assassinated; Resettlement in black “homelands”; Biko arrested; Uprising in Soweto	Policy of apartheid adopted; Group Areas Act; RSA declared a republic; Nelson Mandela sentenced to life imprisonment	Afrikaans officially second language; White women enfranchised; SABS established
Traits	Entitled, optimistic, civic minded, close parental involvement, value work–life balance, impatient, multitasking, team oriented	Self-reliant, adaptable, cynical, distrust authority, resourceful, entrepreneurial, technological savvy	Workaholic, idealistic, competitive, loyal, materialistic, seek personal fulfilment, value titles and the corner office	Patriotic, dependable, conformist, respect authority, rigid, socially and financially conservative, solid work ethic

(Adapted from Alsop, 2008, p.5; BBC News, Online; SA History, Online)

In the following section the focus therefore turns to the impact that the Generation Y workforce has and will continue to have on human resource management policies, strategy and practice. Employers will have to carefully consider what strategies they will use to cultivate and retain valuable Generation Y employees now and in the future.

2.4.3 Impact of Generation Y on human resource management practices

Glass (2007) argues that the existence of a multigenerational workforce affects predominantly two areas of human resources policy and employee development efforts, namely retention and motivation. Employees of diverse age groups react differently to programmes designed to address these two areas, and have different expectations. As a result, organisations might have to revise their existing practices for the retention of the next generation of talent.

Greenhaus, Callanan and Godshalk (2000) reported that the early career stage encompasses two periods, namely establishment and achievement. During the establishment period of the early career, employees have to become established in their careers and organisations. The new employee must not only master the technical aspects of his or her job, but must also learn the norms, values and expectations of the organisation. The major task of the individual is to learn about the job and the organisation and to become accepted as a competent contributor to the organisation. In the achievement period of the early career, the individual is not as concerned with fitting into the organisation as he or she is with moving upward and mastering it (Greenhaus et al., 2000). Generation Y, as the next generation entering the workplace, faces early career challenges that is bound to influence their attraction and retention. According to Codrington and Grant-Marshall (2005), a common trend among Generation Y employees is to view work as one big, lifelong curriculum vitae-building exercise. It is predicted that Generation Y's will have ten different career changes in a lifetime and will completely change their careers at least once a decade. This could impact negatively on organisational success, as it depends to a large degree on committed, motivated and engaged employees.

The preceding sections discussed the three theoretical models used as the point of departure for this particular study. Building on the theoretical models, the uniqueness of the higher

education sector was highlighted and explained to emphasise the importance of HEIs for South African society. Thereafter, the sample population, Generation Y, was discussed by highlighting their unique profile and characteristics. In the following section, the interrelatedness of the dependent variable and independent variables will be discussed. The literature study of the various antecedents of intention to quit will culminate into a proposed theoretical model.

2.5 Generation Y, Intention to Quit and Related Variables in the Phenomenological Network

The overview of theoretical models and related literature has identified numerous antecedents that may influence intention to quit, namely person-organisation fit; training and career development; organisational culture; communication and consultation; team working relationships; perceived organisational support; occupational stress; organisational commitment; employee engagement; transformational leadership; job satisfaction; and remuneration, reward and recognition. All of these variables will be presented briefly in the subsequent sections in order to give recognition to the complexity of the phenomenological network related to intention to quit. The question regarding how these variables and this complex web of interrelated relationships impact on the intention to quit of Generation Y academics in higher education will be contemplated in the next section.

2.5.1 Person–organisation fit

While different generations may hold particular sets of work values, organisations also possess and communicate values. The concept of person–organisation (P–O) fit emphasises matching people and jobs in terms of qualifications based in knowledge, skills and/or ability (Chew, 2004). Fit can also be defined as an employee’s perceived compatibility with the job, organisation and community (Mitchell, Holtom & Lee, 2001). Dawley, Houghton and Bucklew (2010) concur that fit consists of an employee’s perceptions of comfort or compatibility within the environment of an organisation.

The concept of organisational fit identifies convergent goals and values between the individual and the organisation as an important element of affective commitment (Chew, 2004). Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2000) reported that both person–job fit and P–O fit predict job satisfaction, although P–O fit is a better predictor of intention to quit. Therefore, people who are not well suited for the job and/or organisation are more likely to leave than those who have a good person–job or P–O fit. Good job fit can further enhance employees' feelings of organisational support. While perceived organisational support (POS) measures employees' global belief that the organisation values their contributions and well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986), job fit relates to employees' comfort levels within the organisation. Numerous researches argued that P–O fit significantly affects employees' turnover intention, working attitude, organisational citizenship behaviour, ethical behaviour, commitment, job satisfaction and job performance (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Chatman, 1991; Lui, Lui & Hu, 2010).

However, generational differences in P–O fit have received little attention. Schein (1992) suggested that the values of an organisation's influential members tend to represent the culture of the organisation. Employees currently in the most senior positions who might have the most influence on the organisation's culture are the older generations (for example, the Silent generation and Baby Boomers). This introduces the potential for younger employees (Generation Y) to experience less fit, as they hold differing values to the older generations. In the study conducted by Cennamo and Gardner (2008) it was found that significant generational differences existed for individual work values involving status and freedom. Therefore, Generation Y employees may tend to seek work opportunities that provide freedom and autonomy and may be prepared to leave the organisation if these needs are not met. Cennamo and Gardner furthermore mentioned that younger employees might prefer a psychological contract with the organisation that emphasises freedom, status and social involvement. Terjesen, Vinnicombe and Freeman's (2007) research concurs, as they provided evidence that, compared to previous generations, Generation Y employees are looking for slightly different qualities in their employers. Organisations should thus not emphasise unrealistic attributes, as this will become evident to Generation Y employees, which will then lead to their departure to other organisations that they perceive to have the attributes they are searching for in an organisation.

2.5.2 Training and development

Roy and Kreiss (2008) argue that opportunities must be created for employees to further their knowledge, for work-related functions as well as career-focused training. Generation Y is reported to be the most formally educated generation, and they recognise ongoing training as being key to remaining relevant and ensuring they are employable in the future (Dinnell, 2007). The level of employee turnover and training are expected to be inversely related; the higher the level of turnover, the lower the amount of training (Chew, 2004). Therefore, employers have to create opportunities for measurable achievements and advancement, with concrete benchmarks in order to maintain young employees' professional skills (Howe & Nadler, 2009).

Generation Y employees rely on their immediate supervisors more than any other individual for training opportunities; this includes providing on-the-job training as well as recommendations for or approval of formal training. Generation Y tends to want an intellectual challenge, needs to succeed, strives to make a difference, and seeks employers who will further their professional development (Brown, 2004). Setting and achieving personal goals matters to Generation Y cohorts, as does performing meaningful work that has the potential to contribute to a better world. An interesting statement by Alsop (2008) in his book, "The trophy kids grow up", is that even though Generation Y employees seem to be self-absorbed young people, they want structure and clear direction in their work assignments, but also expect flexibility to decide when and where they complete the tasks. These new workforce entrants will seek more personal attention, require high levels of supervision, and expect more structure than their Generation X predecessors (Zemke, Raines & Filipczak, 2000). Generation Y constantly requests development opportunities, chances to demonstrate their abilities, and consistent advancement in their careers right from the start. Martin and Tulgan (2006) explain that this globally-aware, socially conscious, and volunteer-minded generation is likely to perform best when their abilities are identified and matched with challenging work that encourages them to reach their full potential. Generation Y's are aware that demonstrating credibility over time is important, as is developing their skills and pursuing opportunities to show what they are capable of (Burmeister, 2009; Spiro, 2006).

Generation Y's demand immediate feedback (Hershatler & Epstein, 2010) and have "... an obsession with training and development" (Martin & Tulgan, 2006, p. 17). Martin and Tulgan suggested that the best management practices for Generation Y include establishing coaching relationships in order for Generation Y employees to learn from their superiors, develop their skills and grow as individuals.

2.5.3 Organisational culture

Sheridan (1992) describes organisational culture as the invisible forces that shape life in a business organisation. Retention management begins with potential employees' perceptions or attractiveness to the culture and structure of an organisation. According to Sheridan, managers who want to examine how effective their corporate culture and structure are at retaining employees need to do so from the ground up. This means that managers must consult with their employees at all hierarchical levels in order to determine their perception of the organisational culture. Only then can organisations truly understand and/or review their culture.

The new generation of academics has to contribute to the transformation of institutional cultures, which in differing ways and to varying degrees comprise equity of opportunities and outcomes (Badat, 2008). Therefore, Generation Y academics should play a fundamental role in the creation of a new culture at South African HEIs. Generation Y employees are seeking organisations where they feel they can add value and contribute to society, which is in line with the reason for the existence of HEIs. Organisations and HEIs need to create a culture that is appealing to the new generation, who are seeking for positions that are meaningful and fulfilling (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; Yang & Guy, 2006). Generation Y's are increasingly paying attention to an organisation's values and mission and want to work for those organisations that go beyond simply making money (Ng, Schweitzer & Lyons, 2010).

2.5.4 Communication and consultation

Effective communication is an essential facet of people management – be it communication of the organisation's goals, vision, strategies and business policies or the communication of

facts, information and data communication structure (Chew, 2004). Communication can strengthen employee identification with the organisation and indirectly build trust. Two-way communication is regarded as a core management competency and as a key management responsibility. Management's responsibilities for effective communication include: (a) ensuring people are briefed on key issues, (b) communicating honestly and as fully as possible on all issues affecting people, (c) encouraging team members to discuss company issues and give upward feedback and (d) ensuring issues from team members are fed back to senior management and that timely replies are given (Mumford & Hendricks, 1996).

Fallon (2009) notes that Generation Y employees yearn for feedback, as it will enable them to determine how well they are developing and determine how they can improve. They appreciate managers who care about their growth and progress, as it gives them a feeling of being valued by the organisation, as well as a sense of loyalty.

2.5.5 Team working relationships

Team relationships in the workplace are becoming more popular, as they instil collaboration and provide interaction between employees. Employees remain at an organisation when they have formed strong relationships with their work colleagues (Clarke, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1997) emphasise that employees who work as a team are more likely to feel an increased commitment to the work unit's efforts and the organisation as a whole. Research reported by Dinnell (2007, p. 14) supports previous research views in that 42% of Generation Y's surveyed mentioned 'relationships with peers' among the top reasons for staying in their job. Consequently, Generation Y employees tend to remain in organisations due to the strong teamwork relationship they have established in the workplace (Clarke, 2001). Deloitte (2009) and Raines (2002) have stated that more than previous generations, Generation Y value teamwork and are accustomed to collaboration, while working and interacting with others is viewed as a means to making work more pleasurable (Eisner, 2005; Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010).

2.5.6 Perceived organisational support (POS)

Perceived organisational support (POS) is an individual's perception of organisational treatment, regardless of whether any particular kind of treatment is explicitly or implicitly promised (Shapiro & Conway, 2005). Chew (2004) describes POS as the extent to which employees believe that the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being, and postulates that employees and the organisation are involved in an exchange relationship. According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), POS refers to a general belief that one's organisation values your contribution and cares about your well-being. High levels of POS create feelings of obligation to the employer and make employees feel they have to return the employers' commitment by engaging in behaviours that support organisational goals (Ahmad & Yekta, 2010; Bishop, Goldsby & Neck, 2002).

POS can have a direct influence on an employee's intention to quit (Bishop et al., 2002; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001), implying that, if the employee feels no support from the organisation, his or her intention to quit might increase. Research conducted by Firth et al. (2004) affirms the argument by Bishop et al. (2002) that social support from supervisors indirectly reduces burnout, which in turn reduces the intention to quit among employees. Employees remain with an organisation because of the positive features associated with their jobs. Therefore, employees are committed to an organisation and stay if they are satisfied with their positions and are supported by their managers, and leave if they are not (Taplin & Winterton, 2007; Turnipseed, 2005). Allen, Shore and Griffeth (2003) are in agreement with previous research and report that POS is negatively related to intention to quit. The relationships, however, are mediated by commitment and job satisfaction. This means that, if employees experience high levels of POS they are less prone to experiencing turnover intent.

2.5.7 Occupational stress

Occupational stress is evident when an employee is unable to fulfil the demands of his or her job. Price (1997) divides occupational stress into four dimensions, namely lack of clarity about the demands (role ambiguity), incompatibility in the demands (role conflict), amount of work

required by the demands (role overload), and resources available to fulfil the demands (resource inadequacy). All these dimensions could have an effect on job satisfaction, commitment and intention to quit, of which role ambiguity has been researched most extensively as a cause of occupational stress (Beehr, 1995).

According to Pierce and Dunham (1987), a significant negative relationship exist between organisational commitment and three measures of turnover, namely thinking of quitting, intent to search for new employment, and intent to quit. Several researchers have indicated that occupational stress has a negative influence on organisation commitment, whether it is through role overload, inadequate resources or control (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003; Coetzee & Rothmann, 2005; Jackson & Rothmann, 2006).

Blackmore (2001) argues that the emergence of a knowledge economy has changed the traditional role of the academic in a fundamental way. Besides teaching and research, academics have to act as entrepreneurs, facilitators, marketers and managers. Fisher (1994) argues that such an excess of roles might easily result in role overload, a particular salient stressor for the modern academic. Pienaar and Bester (2006) echo these findings, as they reported that academics in their early career stage identified role conflict and role overload, due to parallel medium teaching, increasing pressure on research outputs, increasing administrative obligations and a shortage of support staff as main problems. Unrealistic deadlines to perform unmanageable workloads are set for academics, which, according to Gillespie et al. (2001), are likely to increase their stress levels. The longitudinal study conducted by Pienaar and Bester (2008) concluded that an academic career is probably developing into one of the most stressful ones and that it no longer enjoys its previous status and prestige.

2.5.8 Organisational commitment

The sheer number of different definitions sheds light on the fact that no real consensus exists regarding the construct of commitment. However, commitment can be considered a multidimensional concept that has been interpreted in a variety of ways (Chew, 2004). Organisational commitment is defined by Siu (2002) as the psychological attachment of

workers to their organisation, while Meyer and Allen (1997) state that commitment relies on the notion that committed employees have a desire to remain employed with their organisation. The main components of commitment, according to Meyer and Allen, are affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Affective commitment refers to employees' emotional attachment to the organisation. As employees build up positive work experiences, affective commitment rises accordingly. According to Chew (2004), researchers have suggested that, for positive work experiences to increase commitment significantly, employees must believe that such work experiences are a result of effective management policies. The results of the study done by Boshoff et al. (2002) indicate if managers want to decrease the intention of employees to quit from their organisation, they should concentrate on increasing affective commitment among their staff members. A management challenge would be to improve the career orientation of employees and to create a desire to continue their careers with the current employer.

Continuance commitment is based on the costs employees associate with leaving the organisation. A high level of continuance commitment may well keep an employee tied to an organisation, but it is unlikely to produce high levels of performance. Generation Y believes in their marketability, therefore it is hypothesised that their continuance commitment might be lower than that of previous generations. Alternative employment opportunities will also have an impact on Generation Y academics, as they will be more willing to move from one employer to another.

Normative commitment is employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation, which develop from familial and societal norms before an individual even enters an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The development of normative commitment might also result from organisational socialisation, especially in organisations that value loyalty and that systematically and consistently communicate that value to employees. The psychological contract of the next generation of employees has shifted from a previous emphasis on job security and loyalty to the current emphasis on employability and loyalty to one's own career and experience (Sutherland, 2005). It therefore could be argued that long-term commitment to a single organisation is not one of the norms of Generation Y employees.

Meyer and Allen (1997) reported a positive relationship between affective commitment and employee retention. Both affective and continuance commitment are expected to increase the likelihood that an individual will remain with an organisation. However, the reasons for remaining differ between affective and continuance commitment. Employees with high levels of affective commitment remain 'because they want to', whereas those who have a strong continuance commitment remain 'because they have to' (Meyer, Bobocel & Allen, 1991). A broad range of indicators could result in lower organisational commitment and higher staff turnover. It is important that employees' need for challenging and meaningful work is satisfied, as well as their need for autonomy, flexibility and independence (Pienaar & Bester, 2008). These, in turn, may relate to work outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, job involvement and job performance, which are negatively related to absenteeism and turnover (Arnolds, 2005; Finegan, 2000).

HEIs, more than any other organisations, however, are dependent on the intellectual abilities and commitment of academic staff. The intellectual and creative abilities of academic staff determine the survival and sustainability of HEIs (Pienaar, 2005). Therefore, in order to function effectively, HEIs are largely dependent on the commitment of academics.

2.5.9 Employee engagement

This section will focus on defining employee engagement, as well as discuss the manifestation of employee engagement in the workplace.

2.5.9.1 Defining employee engagement

Kahn (1990, p. 694) defines employee engagement as "...the harnessing of organisation members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances." Rothbard (2001) furthermore defines engagement as a psychological presence of an employee in an organisation, but goes further to state that it involves two critical components, namely attention and absorption. Attention refers to "... cognitive availability and the amount of time one spent thinking about a role", while absorption "... means being engrossed in a role and refers to the intensity of one's focus on a role" (Rothbard, 2001, p. 694). Engagement is

characterised by energy, involvement and efficacy (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). This is the direct opposite of the three burnout dimensions, namely exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy (Maslach et al., 2001). Engagement is also the extent to which employees 'go the extra mile' and put discretionary effort into their work, not just so they can succeed, but also so that their organisation can succeed (Karsan, 2011). Shuck and Wollard (2010, p. 103) are in agreement that employee engagement is "... an individual employee's cognitive, emotional and behavioural state directed toward desired organisational outcomes".

2.5.9.2 Employee engagement in the workplace

Organisations are alert to the fact that employee engagement is a dominant source of competitive advantage and thus have been drawn to its reported ability to solve challenging organisational problems, which include increasing workplace performance and productivity in the midst of economic decline (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Macey, Schneider, Barbera & Young, 2009). Gilbert (2011) also believes that employee engagement is becoming more important in the workplace and that talent retention can act as a key competitive advantage for organisations over the coming years. According to Gallup, 20% of employees are actively disengaged in an organisation, 50% are not engaged and 30% are engaged. For world-class organisations, on the other hand, 8% are actively disengaged, 29% are not engaged and 63% are engaged (cited in Cook & Green, 2011, p. 23).

A study conducted by Gilbert (2011) reports that managing performance and career opportunities is viewed as the most important engagement driver. An increase in the perception of the driver is what generates an increase in engagement. On the other hand, an engagement threat is a decrease in the perception of the driver, which generates a decrease in engagement. The most important engagement threats were identified as employer reputation and managing performance. Thus, should employees receive the expected reward for their extra effort, they are likely to be more engaged, willing and confident for the next task (Cook & Green, 2011). The authors also concluded that positive thinking helps people to be engaged, as they are more likely to think they can achieve the task and are therefore more likely to attempt it.

Macey et al. (2009) suggest three general requirements for engagement to develop in each employee. This includes the capacity to engage; the motivation to engage; and the freedom to engage. The authors mention that the capacity to engage concerns motivation that flows naturally from a sense of competence and autonomy. Therefore, employees need to feel competent and valued and have a sense of purpose in their work. Organisations contribute to competence and autonomy development by informing employees of what is expected, providing resources to complete work and following up with focused and balanced feedback (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Wagner & Harter, 2006). The motivation to engage involves the communication of job roles and responsibilities and the degree of challenge each job role provides (Macey et al., 2009). Kahn (1990) mentions that work can only be engaging when roles are interesting, challenging and meaningful. Finally, the freedom to engage relates to how the organisation can free employees to engage by organisationally behaving in a way that leads to trust, such as communicating transparency, demonstrating integrity and behaving consistently (Kroth & Keeler, 2009; Macey et al., 2009).

Karsan (2011) highlights that engagement on its own is not enough for business success; it must be accompanied by alignment with the overarching goals of the organisation in order to have an impact on an organisation's effectiveness. Organisational alignment means that people are voluntarily united to pursue a common cause and implies that all employees understand, agree on and work with the same understanding of the organisation's core purpose, values and objectives. It is imperative that organisations recognise that the development of engaged employees across teams and the organisation is a challenging and robust task. However, it is a worthy organisational goal tied to increasing productivity and organisational effectiveness (Shuck and Wollard, 2010). Bakker, Demerouti, Hakanen and Xanthopoulou (2007) note that employee engagement is positively related to organisational commitment and business unit performance (for example, customer satisfaction, loyalty, profitability, productivity, turnover and safety).

Even though organisations are aware of the positive effect engaged employees can have on their organisational success, Bates (2004) reported that employee engagement is on a continued decline worldwide, thus warranting further research. According to Vance (2006), organisation management is increasingly turning toward human resource professionals to develop and support strategies that facilitate engagement-encouraging cultures, as

management wants to embrace employee engagement. Unfortunately, according to Kahn (1990) and Shuck and Wollard (2010), there are limited resources available to human resource professionals, as little scientific research has been done on the experience of being engaged or on how engagement affects an employee's experience of his or her work, and ultimately his or her performance. It has been confirmed that transformational leadership influences employee engagement and performance, and that it plays a significant role in an organisation, even more so in relation to the new generation workforce. Therefore, transformational leadership will be discussed in the following section as an antecedent of intention to quit.

2.5.10 Transformational leadership in the workplace

Leadership is a complex and vital component of organisational effectiveness. Therefore, this section will look firstly at leadership in general, and then place emphasis on transformational leadership, which is the focus of the current study.

2.5.10.1 Leadership

Leadership is conceptualised in terms of four tasks that need to be accomplished in any organisation: providing direction; assuring alignment; building commitment; and facing adaptive challenges (Risher & Stopper, 2002). Leadership literature is filled with theories that confirm the important relationship between positive leadership and group or organisational effectiveness. Good leaders develop sound strategies and structures that support employees, reward their commitment, and minimise their turnover (Waldman, Ramirez, House & Puranam, 2001).

Leaders furthermore provide visions that empower, motivate and encourage high levels of individual and group work performance (Dixon & Hart, 2010). Collins and Porras (1996) linked visionary organisations to performance. More specifically, leaders within an organisation are primarily responsible to create the vision for the organisation for the future, which should be so exciting as to keep the employees motivated. Irvine (2010) agrees that leaders need a consistent method to get employees behind the organisation's vision and to incite passion in them to fully engage in their work, the organisation and their customers.

Avolio and Bass's full-range leadership theory has three broad categories of leader behaviour: transformational, transactional and non-transactional (*laissez-faire*). These categories describe leadership ranging from, at the best, the active and effective to, at the worst, passive and ineffective (Avolio, 1999). According to Rubin, Munz and Bommer (2005), the most passive and ineffective form of leadership, *laissez-faire*, is characterised by a complete abdication or avoidance of leadership. The transactional form of leadership is characterised by leaders engaging in an exchange process with subordinates, in terms of which the leader rewards or punishes subordinates on the basis of their performance. This exchange process can be both constructive and corrective. Corrective exchanges, according to Rubin et al. (2005), involve leaders actively seeking to correct mistakes before or after they occur. Constructive exchanges take the form of contingent rewards, in terms of which leaders promise rewards for satisfactory performance and deliver the rewards when performance is achieved.

According to Arakawa and Greenberg (2007), a leader is one of the most, if not the most, influential individual in an employee's work-life. Leadership in the context of this study refers to the leadership at departmental level (for example supervisors; heads of department), and not at the organisational level (for example deans, vice-rector or rector), as academics will primarily evaluate the leadership style that they experience within the department.

2.5.10.2 Transformational leadership

The work environment has become a place of constant change and this has brought about the need for a 'new leadership' notion to define those leaders who are able to promote, adapt to and survive change (Schlechter, 2005). In contrast to transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership, transformational leadership is defined by Bass and Avolio (1994) in terms of the effects it has on employees. Subordinates respond to the leader with feelings of trust, admiration, loyalty and respect, and are motivated to do more than they are expected to do (Burns, 1978). Dvir, Eden, Avolio and Shamir (2002, p. 735) characterise transformational leadership as:

....leaders who exerts additional influence by broadening and elevating followers' goals and providing them with confidence to perform beyond the expectations specified in the implicit or explicit exchange agreement. Transformational leaders exhibit charismatic behaviours, arouse inspirational motivation, provide intellectual stimulation, and treat followers with individualised consideration.

According to Bass (1985), Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) as well as Engelbrecht and Chamberlain (2005), transformational leadership behaviour represents the most active and effective form of leadership. Leaders are closely engaged with their subordinates, transforming and motivating them to become more aware of the importance of task outcomes. The transformational leader encourages subordinates to approach problems in an innovative manner and creatively think of new ways to carry out their daily responsibilities (Mester, Visser, Roodt & Kellerman, 2003; Schlechter & Engelbrecht, 2006). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) believe that transformational leadership behaviour is often found to have higher quality leader-member relationships than that engaging more frequently in transactional forms of leadership. According to Bass (1985), effective leaders use a combination of transactional and transformational leadership.

Transformational leaders are regarded as active leaders and have four distinct characteristics, according to Bass and Avolio (1994): idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. These four characteristics will be discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

Idealised influence: The leader instils pride and faith in subordinates, provides a vision and a sense of mission, gains respect and trust and sets high standards for emulation. This stimulates strong emotions and identification with the leader in the subordinates.

Inspirational motivation: The leader inspires subordinates to accept challenging goals, provides meaning for engaging in shared goals and arouses team spirit through enthusiasm and optimism. Leaders effectively communicate an appealing vision, using symbols to focus subordinates' efforts and modelling appropriate behaviours. Therefore, a transformational

leader can increase intrinsic motivation by increasing the perception among subordinates that task objectives are consistent with their authentic interests and values.

Individualised consideration: The leader recognises individual uniqueness, links the individuals' current needs to the organisation's needs, and provides mentoring and growth opportunities. Individualised consideration can also include providing support, encouragement and coaching to subordinates.

Intellectual stimulation: The leader encourages subordinates to approach problems in new ways and to creatively think of new ways to carry out their daily responsibilities. Therefore, the leader increases subordinates' awareness of problems and influences subordinates to view problems from a new perspective (Mester et al., 2003; Schlechter, 2005; Schlechter & Engelbrecht, 2006; Yukl, 2006).

In the workplace, Generation Y employees favour an inclusive style of management; they tend to dislike slowness and desire immediate feedback about their performance (Francis-Smith, 2004). Due to the fact that subordinates value transformational leadership behaviours, it was found to be significantly and positively related to reported satisfaction with leadership, effective decision making, overall team effectiveness and intention to quit (Carlos & Taborda, 2000; Flood, Hannan, Smith, Turner, West & Dawson, 2000; Oelofsen, 2002). Generation Y's expects to be treated as equals in the workplace and value a leadership style that involves empowerment, consultation and partnership (Dinnell, 2007). It therefore is postulated that transformational leadership has a definite influence on intention to quit, as well as on job satisfaction, which is the focus of the following section.

2.5.11 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a complex, multidimensional phenomenon with numerous antecedents, which can include satisfaction with the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and co-workers. Furthermore, job satisfaction represents an effective response to specific aspects of the job and is defined as "...a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job including facets of that job" (Silverthorne, 2005, p. 171).

Motivation theories offer various frameworks for analysing job satisfaction, which can be grouped into content and process theories (Winterton, 2004). Content theories address what individuals usually need from work, with examples of Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory being the most influential. Focus will be placed on Herzberg's two-factor theory. Herzberg postulated that employees are motivated by internal values rather than values that are external to the work. This means that motivators (the presence of which create job satisfaction) are generated internally and are propelled by variables that are intrinsic to the work (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). Herzberg divided human needs into two broad categories: those that sustain motivation and those that promote motivation. To produce positive job attitudes and to motivate employees, the theory claims that items originally identified as motivators must be built into all types of jobs (Pinder, 2005). Pinder further states that the content of the work rather than the context, in which the work is carried out, is the important factor.

Conversely, it is largely non-job-related variables (extrinsic) that cause employee dissatisfaction. Herzberg refers to these variables as hygiene factors. Although they do not motivate employees, they nevertheless must be present in the workplace to create content employees (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). The theory further argues that eliminating the causes of dissatisfaction will not result in a state of satisfaction, but in a neutral state. Research as cited by Samuel and Chipunza (2009) reveals that extrinsic factors, such as a competitive salary, good interpersonal relationships, friendly working environment and job security, were communicated by employees as key motivational variables that influenced their retention in the organisation. Therefore, management should not only rely on intrinsic variables to influence employee retention, but rather on a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic variables (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

A number of researchers have criticised Herzberg's two-factor theory. According to Rowley (1996), Herzberg uses satisfaction and motivation interchangeably, and assumes that increased satisfaction leads to increased motivation, but this is not always the case. In studies to determine whether intrinsic factors indeed contribute to job satisfaction, Herzberg's claim, namely that achievement, recognition, advancement, need for autonomy and self-actualisation were the major factors in motivating individuals to perform at their maximum levels, thus leading to high levels of job satisfaction, was confirmed (Graham & Messner,

1998). Job satisfaction is further influenced by the way employees think about their jobs, which in turn affects the way they feel and behave in the workplace. Robbins (2001) suggests that job satisfaction has an impact on organisational commitment, reduced absenteeism and turnover. This is corroborated by Elangovan (2001) and Firth et al. (2004), who have shown that job satisfaction has also been found to be inversely related to turnover, and managers would be well advised to reduce turnover by increasing job satisfaction.

2.5.12 Remuneration, reward and recognition

Remuneration, reward and recognition can be monetary and/or non-monetary and influence the recruitment and retention of employees (Highhouse, Stierwalk, Bachiochi, Elder & Fisher, 1999; Parker & Wright, 2001). However, these studies recognise that remuneration in isolation will not be sufficient to retain employees and that, ultimately, employees stay because they are fond of their colleagues, and are engaged and challenged by work that improves their skills and abilities. Adding to this, Mercer (Mercer Report, 2003) has stated that employees will stay if they are rewarded and experience a sense of accomplishment. Davies (2001) affirms that employees tend to remain with the organisation when they feel that their capabilities, efforts and performance contributions are recognised and appreciated. Compensation "... is the most critical issue when it comes to attracting and keeping talent" (Willis, as cited in Chew, 2004, p. 47). However, according to Curran (2004), although money and material recognition are important, they do not substitute for true appreciation. Cook and Green (2011) confirm the statement by Curran, as they have reported that rewards are not necessarily monetary, but include personal goals, learning social rewards (for example, achieving a goal as part of a team), praise for a job well done, a sense of achievement, a sense of success, the enjoyment of doing the task, and increased status or promotion within the organisation.

The most powerful tool for engaging employees is strategic recognition (Irvine, 2010). Employers should bear in mind that the recognition strategy and reward process of the organisation must appeal to the multiple generations and cultures that characterise today's work styles, expectations and performance goals. Employees are also interested in the value the organisation creates for them, and how the organisation keeps them engaged, challenged

and motivated (Parus, 2002). Maccoby (2010) further reports that, by appreciating and giving recognition to employees, the motivation relationship is strengthened, but it should be borne in mind that some employees are motivated by monetary rewards. Therefore, organisations need to find creative ways to reward employees during skills shortages and employment gaps, while decreasing dependency on monetary compensation (Parus, 2002).

2.6 Partial Theoretical Model: Antecedents of Intention to Quit

In the preceding sections, antecedents identified from the literature to have an impact on intention to quit were discussed. These variables are presented as antecedents of intention to quit in Figure 2.4. As previously mentioned, all antecedents influencing intention to quit cannot be addressed within the delineation of this study; however, the theoretical model grants recognition to the complexity of the phenomenological network evident in the study of intention to quit. Each of these variables plays a significant role in the field of intention to quit, and indicates possibilities for further research.

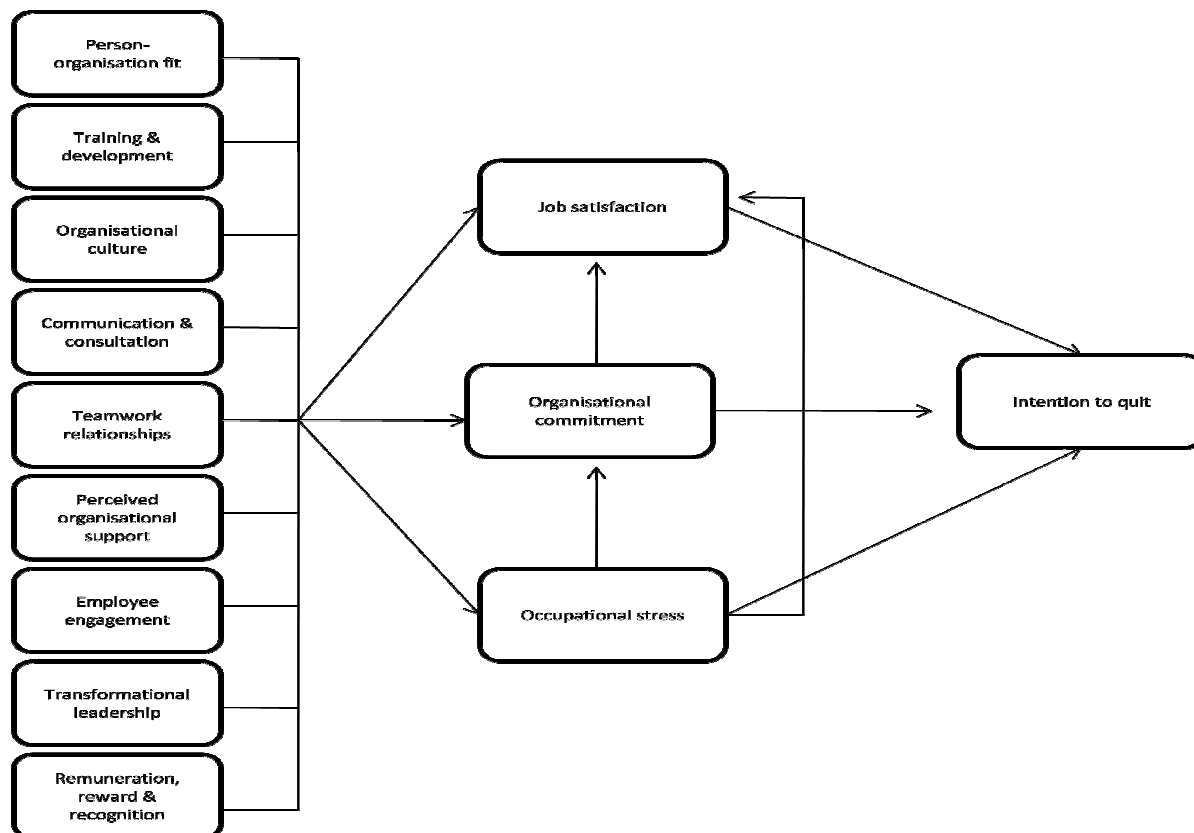


Figure 2.4 Proposed Partial Theoretical Model of Variables influencing Intention to Quit

Due to the scope of this study and evidence regarding the importance of the variables in relation to intention to quit, the empirical component of this study will focus on four antecedents of intention to quit, namely employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition amongst Generation Y academics at HEIs (Figure 2.5).

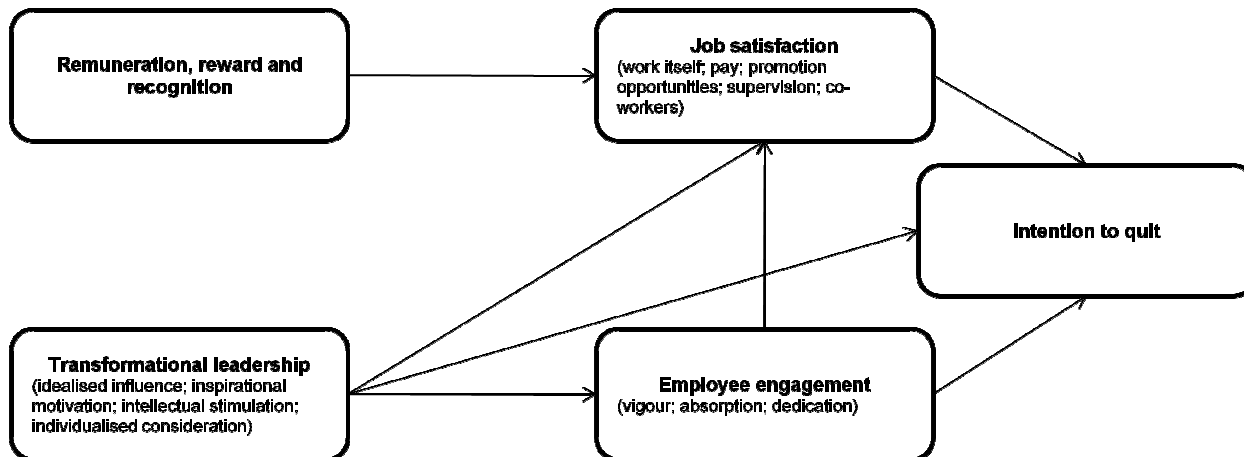


Figure 2.5 Partial Theoretical Model of antecedents of Intention to Quit

In the following sections, each of the variables and its relation to intention to quit and other variables in the partial model will be explicated even further.

2.6.1 Employee engagement and intention to quit

As employee engagement was discussed extensively in Section 2.5.9, this section will focus mainly on the relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction and employee engagement and intention to quit, as depicted in Figure 2.5.

According to Jamrog (2004), organisations must create strategies in order to build a culture that retains and engages their skilled employees and relies less on traditional pay and benefits and more on the creation of a work environment that allows employees to grow and develop. Through growth and development, employees are enriched, which will enhance their satisfaction levels. Direct line managers and supervisors will be key stakeholders to ensure

employee engagement through providing training and career development opportunities, feedback and communication related to the organisation's mission and value statements.

The Institute for Employment Studies' 2003 attitude survey of more than 10 000 employees in 14 organisations confirmed several positive reactions to engagement, namely a positive attitude towards, and pride in, the organisation; a belief in the organisation's products/services; a perception that the organisation enables the employee to perform well; and a willingness to behave altruistically and be a good team player (Marshall, 2011). It furthermore reported that an understanding of the bigger picture and a willingness to go beyond the requirements of the job are also vital characteristics of an engaged employee. The contribution of engaged employees to organisations is undisputed. It is believed that engaged employees who experience high levels of job satisfaction are a great asset to any organisation. Therefore it is possible to formulate the first hypothesis, namely:

Hypothesis 1: Employee engagement has a significant positive influence on job satisfaction

According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), engaged employees are likely to have a greater attachment to their organisation and a lower tendency to leave their organisation. Furthermore, employee engagement positively affects operating income, operating margin, net profit margin, employee retention, absenteeism and quality errors, providing evidence that engaged employees can have a significant positive effect on the organisation's success (Cook & Green, 2011). Clayton (2011) confirms that engaged employees are willing to portray a variety of behaviours that add to organisational success, namely commitment, participation, enthusiasm, initiative, honesty, advocacy and creativity. However, in return the engaged employee expects relationships with their line manager and colleagues, respect, adequate leadership, meaningful work, recognition, and feeling valued and supported. Employee engagement has been found to be positively related to organisational commitment and negatively related to intention to quit, and is believed to also be related to job performance and extra-role behaviour (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003). The question could rightfully be posed whether employee engagement manifests differently for various age cohorts? In her book, *Meet the Millennials*, Leigh Buchanon wrote: "...almost 70% of Generation Y employees stated that corporate social responsibility and being civically

engaged are their highest priorities” (as cited in Gilbert, 2011, p. 26). Therefore it is important that organisations pay attention to employee engagement, as well as to civic engagement. According to Gilbert it can be concluded that, when it comes to employee engagement, generational differences do exist and it is important that employers adopt the belief that, in order to sustain prolonged engagement and decrease the intention to quit amongst their employees, they must understand and carefully manage the engagement drivers and threats. This gives rise to the second hypothesis, namely:

Hypothesis 2: Employee engagement has a significant negative influence on intention to quit

2.6.2 Transformational leadership and intention to quit

Building on the literature on transformational leaders presented in Section 2.5.10, the following paragraphs will focus on the relationship between transformational leadership and related variables in the partial intention to quit model. Managers are responsible for driving the organisational culture, and their ability to influence the development of engagement or disengagement is immense. According to Buckingham and Coffman (1999), engagement within an organisation can thrive in environments where employees feel cared about and valued, which translates into meaningful and safe environments. This is an integral part of a transformational leader. Therefore it can be argued that leaders can influence engagement levels by formulating an engaging vision statement that gives meaning to employees (Cook & Green, 2011).

Hypothesis 3: The experience of positive transformational leadership has a significant positive influence on employee engagement

Transformational leadership is known for empowering subordinates by delegating significant authority to individuals, developing subordinate skills and self-confidence, creating self-managed teams, providing direct access to sensitive information, eliminating unnecessary controls, and building a strong culture to support empowerment (Yukl, 2006). By empowering subordinates and increasing their self-confidence, managers can increase their job

satisfaction. Job satisfaction in this study is seen as a multidimensional phenomenon that also places emphasis on the satisfaction that employees experienced with their supervisors. Thus the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 4: The experience of positive transformational leadership has a significant positive influence on job satisfaction

Schlechter (2005) says numerous scholars have found transformational leadership to be empirically related to a variety of organisational success and performance variables. These include employee satisfaction, organisational commitment, satisfaction levels with line managers, employee effectiveness, lower turnover intent, organisational citizenship behaviour, overall employee performance, effective leadership and trust. Thus, research has proven a distinguished relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, as well as organisational commitment. A study conducted by Larrabee, Janney, Ostrow, Withrow, Hobbs and Burant (2003) reported that job dissatisfaction was a major predictor of intention to quit. As noted, transformational leadership has been linked to job satisfaction (Firth et al., 2004; Tepper, 2000) and it is believed that transformational leadership may reduce the intention to quit of employees by creating a working environment where employees experience job satisfaction. These findings have led to the formulation of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: The experience of positive transformational leadership has a significant negative influence on intention to quit

2.6.3 Job satisfaction and intention to quit

Regardless of the population being surveyed, most researchers tend to agree that employers benefit when employees experience high levels of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has also been tied to increased productivity, creativity, and commitment to the employer. It is believed that one of the primary variables that influence retention is job satisfaction. Pienaar and Bester (2008) and Oehley (2007) have reiterated this relationship by reporting that there are various studies that link low levels of job satisfaction with increased labour turnover.

However, Steers (1977) argues that there is an unresolved debate as to whether job satisfaction has a direct effect on turnover intention, or whether it is moderated through organisational commitment, which might still be unresolved, as many researchers are continuously investigating the linkages. It is very likely that high levels of dissatisfaction could influence employees to consider alternative job options. Whether an employee will really leave an organisation in such a case, or should an intention be apparent, is in most cases determined by alternative opportunities in the labour market (Spector, 1997). Job dissatisfaction not only has an effect on the organisation, as it increases the intention to quit of employees, but it also reduces the contribution of the employee to the organisation, which has a direct effect on the organisation's success (Lok & Crawford, 2003). Therefore,

Hypothesis 6: Job satisfaction has a significant negative influence on intention to quit

2.6.4 Remuneration, reward and recognition and intention to quit

Irvine (2010) reports that the recognition of success in the workplace requires a strategic initiative with actionable objectives and measurable results that integrates positive reception into the organisation's culture. Irrespective of the industry, senior management should continuously explore how to best reward and recognise the achievements of employees, as employees perceive recognition as a sign of appreciation of their contribution.

A survey by Salary.com reported that 34.2% of employees felt that there was insufficient recognition or appreciation of their work, talents and capabilities, and provided this as the reason for leaving their jobs (Janas, 2009, p. 69). Rosser (2004) argues that perceptions of work life, including rewards, have a direct impact on job satisfaction and intentions to leave. Giles (2004) suggests that managers should aim to understand employee motivation and the role of recognition in order to retain their key employees. When employees feel they are appreciated and a priority to their organisation, it might contribute to a positive organisational culture. In order for an organisation to implement a successful reward and recognition policy, it is important to determine from their employees what they value, and to align the policy in order to be sound, fair and competitive.

Park, Erwin and Knapp (1997) argue that, although compensation provides some recognition, non-monetary recognition is also important. Employees may express greater commitment and tend to remain with the organisation when they feel their capabilities, efforts and performance contributions are recognised and appreciated (Davies, 2001). Line managers also play an important role in the perception by employees of remuneration, reward and recognition, as Tulgan (2003) acknowledges that employees rely on their immediate line manager/supervisor to consider, recommend, advocate and convey employees' recognition, raises, promotions and other rewards. A survey conducted at Prudential Financials confirmed that recognition is not only an important part of the employee performance equation, but is equally important in the retention equation (Parus, 2002).

Every generation wants to earn more money, although money is not always the most important part of retaining Generation Y employees (Cave, 2002; Fallon, 2009). Earning a great deal of money appears to be less of a motivator for this generation, whereas contributing to society, parenting well, and enjoying a fulfilled and balanced life appears to be more motivating (Burmeister, 2009; Fallon, 2009; Ferri-Reed, 2010). Dinnell (2007) affirmed that remuneration is important to Generation Y's, but that they also yearn for non-monetary recognition, as it feeds their self-esteem. Roy and Kreiss (2008) highlight that the next-generation workforce does not believe in the old equation of time put in equals promotion, but rather looks at their individual contribution to the organisation and to the team as a metric for promotion and merit rewards. According to Tulgan (2009), the critical element in rewarding Generation Y is to communicate clearly that rewards are tied to concrete actions within their own direct control, thereby replacing the previous reward method, where employees were paid based on the work they completed. As mentioned by Irvine (2010), strategic recognition must be frequent and timely, which will meet Generation X and Y's needs while avoiding the micro-management pitfalls. Subsequently, this study links reward and recognition to remuneration in order to recognise that remuneration alone will not be sufficient to retain and satisfy employees, and that remuneration, reward and recognition could be viewed as an antecedent of job satisfaction and intention to quit. Therefore,

Hypothesis 7: Acceptable remuneration, reward and recognition have a significant positive influence on job satisfaction.

2.7 Concluding Remarks: Chapter 2

In Chapter 2, the intention to quit construct has been presented and the theoretical points of departure have been argued with the use of three intentions to quit models. The unique challenges of intention to quit in higher education, especially with regard to Generation Y academics, led the discussion on the characteristics and profiles of Generation Y employees. Following from this, the various antecedents of intention to quit were dealt with and culminated in a proposed theoretical model of antecedents of intention to quit. In order to delineate the scope of the study, four constructs, namely employee engagement, job satisfaction, transformational leadership and remuneration, reward and recognition were selected and their relationship with intention to quit was discussed in more detail. The hypothesis related to each was stated. The following section will focus on the research methodology that was employed to reach the empirical objectives, including the research design, sample population, measuring instruments, data collection process and data analysis.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research design and methodology that were utilised in the study to empirically evaluate the proposed partial theoretical model of variables influencing intention to quit, as proposed in Chapter 2 (refer to Figure 2.5). The research methodology will serve the following empirical objectives:

1. To determine the relative importance of employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition in predicting intention to quit.
2. To determine the relationships between employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction and remuneration, reward and recognition and intention to quit.

The following sections will provide an in-depth discussion of the research design applied, the sample population used for data collection, the consecutive phases of the study, the measuring instruments used, the actual data collection process, and the data analysis.

3.2 Research Design and Methods

This section of the chapter will focus on the research design used in this study, as well as the research methods, including focus groups, a blog, and a self-administered web-based questionnaire.

3.2.1 Research design

The objective of this study was to ensure that accurate evidence is obtained that can be interpreted to determine whether the research hypotheses can be accepted or rejected with confidence. Due to the limited literature available on the subject of intention to quit amongst

Generation Y academics in South Africa, it was best achieved with an ex post facto mixed method research design including both qualitative and quantitative research phases.

An ex post facto correlation design, in which both the independent and dependent variables are only observed across individuals to establish the extent to which they co-vary, was used for this study. The researcher used neither random assignment nor experimental manipulation of the independent variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). However, concerns regarding the non-experimental method include 1) a low internal validity; 2) excluding the ability to apportion causality; 3) the third variable (the fact that two variables may be correlated not because they are causally related, but because some third variable caused both of them); and 4) the lack of ability to establish directionality (Christensen, 2004). Gravetter and Forzano (2003) noted that correlational studies do, however, have a high external validity, as they do not manipulate, control or interfere with the variables being examined. A mixed methods approach combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (for example, the use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purpose of breadth, in-depth understanding, and corroboration of research problems and complex phenomena. While qualitative research generally focuses on things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them, quantitative research seeks explanations and predictions that could be generalised to other persons or places (Thomas, 2003). Thomas (2003) furthermore mentions that the role of the researcher in quantitative research is to observe and measure, and objectivity is of the utmost importance. Mixed method approaches incorporate the strengths of both methodologies and reduce some of the problems associated with singular methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007; Molina-Azorin, 2011). Therefore, "... a key feature of mixed methods research is its methodological pluralism, which frequently results in superior research compared with mono-method research" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 14). Mixed methods can add insight and understanding that might be missed when only a single method is used, and it may produce more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice.

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) argued that mixed methods provide better opportunities for answering research questions. They highlighted the following advantages:

- Mixed methods research can answer research questions that the other methodologies cannot;
- It provides better inferences; and
- Mixed methods provide the opportunity for presenting a greater diversity of divergent views.

Many researchers have used mixed methods because it seemed intuitively obvious to them that this method would enrich their ability to draw conclusions about the problem under study, as in the current study. This approach enabled the researcher to enhance the scope and depth of the research by capitalising on the best of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The study comprised two phases, namely initial qualitative phases, including two focus groups and a web-based online blog, and secondly, a quantitative phase making use of a self-administered web-based questionnaire. According to De Ruyter and Scholl (1998), qualitative research is often used to study phenomena about which relatively little is known, and to formulate hypotheses. Consequently, the qualitative phase was utilised to gain insight into possible antecedents of the subject of intention to quit among Generation Y academics that were not pertinently identified via the literature. Due to the nature of the sample, limited published literature could contribute to a model of antecedents of intention to quit specifically for Generation Y academics in higher education.

3.2.2 Research methods

The mixed methods design for this study included qualitative and quantitative methods, which included focus groups, a blog and a self-administered web-based questionnaire

Focus groups: Focus groups are used most commonly in the exploratory phase of a research project (Barbour, 2007) to obtain a diverse range of information (Morgan, 1997), and frequently used within the context of qualitative studies for the purpose of developing and refining research instruments. Krueger (1994, p. 6) describes focus groups as a "... carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment". Barbour adds that being actively encouraging of

group interactions relates to running the focus group discussion and ensuring that participants talk amongst themselves, rather than interacting only with the researcher.

Disadvantages of focus groups have been identified by various researches (Goodwin & Happell, 2009; Kevern & Webb, 2001; Mansell, Bennett, Northway, Mead & Moseley, 2004; McHugh & Thoms, 2001; Parsons & Greenwood, 2000) and include the following:

- Hierarchical differences in the group;
- Non-attendance by participants;
- Identifying participants and their contribution to the discussion;
- No clear criteria as to why individuals are included in the focus group;
- Time-consuming method in relation to analysis; and
- Difficulty involved in capturing individual responses. Data may be inaccurately presented, as it presents the group as a whole, which might exclude the views of the less vocal participants. Thus, the opinions of a few may be taken as representing the whole group.

The researcher attempted to overcome these disadvantages by making use of small focus groups. The sample included academics aged between 20 and 30 years in different departments, thus limiting the concern regarding hierarchical differences. The researcher also made sure that all the participants' views were recorded and interpreted accurately by making use of written notes and an audio recorder.

Blog: A blog is a type of website or part of a website, also known as a weblog. It is usually maintained by an individual with regular commentary or descriptions. According to Holtz (2006), a blog is web publishing software that allows users to create and edit the content of a web page with a minimum of technical expertise. Blogs are meant to be interactive, allowing members to leave comments in an interactive format. Although most blogs are for personal and journalistic purposes, interest has increased in applying blogs in education and business in recent years (Godwin-Jones, 2003; Winder, 2006). Blogs have the potential to be used as supplementary communication means, collaborative tools, and instructional resources in educational environments (Tekinarslan, 2008). Blogs engage people in knowledge sharing, reflection and debate, drawing together a virtual group of individuals interested in co-constructing knowledge around a common topic (Boulos, Maramba & Wheeler, 2006).

The two main advantages of blogs are their ease of use and the availability of mainly open source free or low-cost software and hosting options to operate them, and the fact that users can easily subscribe to comments to automatically receive updates (Boulos et al., 2006; Tekinarslan, 2008). Unfortunately, there are also disadvantages to the use of blogs. Blogs are sometimes prone to vandalism due to their free-form nature and the lack of control over the content. Specific precautions can be taken to overcome these disadvantages, for example by setting criteria for the blog (for example, creating a private group) to prevent vandalism, and to exclude individuals who should not have access to the blog. Some individuals might also have limited opportunities to access the internet, making blog participation cumbersome (Tekinarslan, 2008). However, the advantages of blogs outweighs the disadvantages for the purpose of the current study and it was deemed appropriate to include a blog as a method to gain qualitative insights into intention to quit among Generation Y academics.

Web-survey: The study utilised web surveys, which have several unique advantages (Adams & White, 2008; Akl, Maroun, Klocke, Montori & Schünemann, 2005; Huntington, Gilmour, Schluter, Tuckett & Turner, 2009; Kypri, Gallagher & Cashell-Smith, 2004; Nesbary, 2000; Van Gelder, Bretveld & Roeleveld, 2010):

- Web-surveys are relatively inexpensive;
- Responses may be entered and stored in a format conducive to analysis;
- There is increased accuracy in data entry, as well as decreased time;
- Automatic coding saves a great deal of time;
- Improves data quality through validation checks;
- Alerts respondents when they enter implausible or incomplete answers;
- Are returned more rapidly than postal questionnaires, with most respondents completing the questionnaire within a few days;
- Ability to immediately adjust web-based questionnaires to resolve unforeseen problems or to incorporate preliminary results or new developments; and
- The ability to make use of a data management system to automatically send e-mail reminders and invitations for follow-up questionnaires to study participants, although the follow-up of undeliverable e-mails will be time consuming.

However, web surveys also have several unique disadvantages (Couper, 2000; Nesbary, 2000):

- Only individuals with web access can complete the survey, creating coverage problems;
- Web surveys may disproportionately limit the responses of minorities and the poor, creating problems with sampling;
- Unless security measures are in place, anyone may take the survey and thus bias the results;
- Illiteracy is problematic; and
- Technical problems, including slow connections and connect-time costs, might decrease response rates.

Couper (2000) suggests solutions for correcting the coverage error, which include limiting the study to individuals with computers and making computers available to individuals without one. The academics for the qualitative phase were selected by means of stratified random sampling to ensure a good representation of the participating HEIs' demographical profile. The qualitative phase yielded additional insights that supported the development of a more reliable measurement instrument to be administered in the quantitative phase of this study.

3.3 Sample Population

The sample population consisted of Generation Y academics between the ages of 20 and 30 years at seven HEIs in South Africa, four of which are situated in the Western Cape, two in Gauteng and one in the North West Province. The required ethical approval to conduct research at these HEIs was granted. Disturbingly, one institution did not respond to any of the numerous correspondences from the researcher, and thus had to be excluded from the study. Thus, only six HEIs took part in this study, three in the Western Cape, two in Gauteng and one in the North West Province.

Data cleaning: Once the data had been received from the institutions, the researcher had to ensure that the demographic information was correct and in line with the sample population. Of the academic names received (793 academics), 24 had to be excluded due to them being

postgraduate students, tutors, part-time employees, research officers or teaching and research assistants. One hundred and thirty-seven e-mail addresses had to be searched for, as one institution did not provide the information. A total of 73 e-mail address could be retrieved.

Reachable sample: Upon sending the first invitation to take part in the survey, 28 e-mail addresses were found to be undeliverable and failed due to mailer-daemon (unknown user, non-existent domain), and numerous out of office replies were received. Fortunately, five mailer-daemons could be recovered by individual research (internet). This led to an actual reachable sample of $n = 682$.

3.4 Phase One: Qualitative: Focus Groups

In the subsequent section, the generation of the sample for the focus groups, the procedure followed during the focus groups, as well as the analysis of the focus group data are discussed.

3.4.1 Background: Generation of sample for focus groups

Limited research results pertaining to intention to quit of academics in HEIs could be identified in the public domain. It therefore was deemed appropriate to hold focus group discussions in order to generate a deeper understanding of possible antecedents of intention to quit among Generation Y academics. Demographic data (e.g. gender, race, initials and surname) and contact details (e-mail addresses) of all academics between the ages of 20 and 30 years were requested from the human resource departments of the various HEIs in order to contact Generation Y academics and invite them to attend a focus group to be held on their campus.

Only the three HEIs in the Western Cape were selected for conducting focus groups, and information from only one institution was received. The researcher made several attempts (including e-mail and telephonic requests) to gain access to demographic information from the two other institutions that had agreed to take part in this study. During this time, focus groups were scheduled at one institution [11], while attempts to gather the requested data from the

non-responsive institutions were simultaneously pursued. A period of four months from the initial request had passed before two of the non-responsive institutions [I2 and I3] responded. However, by this stage, phase 1 of the study had been completed with the participating institution [I1]. As one institution did not provide contact details of their academics, the researcher had to search for these details on the institution's website and contact some of the departments to gain access to e-mail addresses.

Twenty-three Generation Y academics (20 to 30 years old) from I1 were selected by means of stratified random sampling to take part in the focus group. A letter of invitation signed by the researcher's supervisor was sent to the academics, highlighting the purpose of the study, the importance of their participation as well as reconfirming their anonymity (refer to Appendix A). This was followed up a week later by an e-mail in order to determine whether the academics were interested in participating in the focus groups. Only three academics confirmed their attendance. A reminder was sent in an attempt to increase the number of participants for the focus group at I1. The reminder was not successful and the focus group took place with three participants, which was not ideal. To build on the information gathered from focus group 1 at Institution 1[I1], a second invitation was sent via e-mail to the 20 academics that did not respond to the initial invitation or could not attend the first focus group. Again, only three positive responses were received, and a second focus group was held at I1.

3.4.2 Focus group procedure

The participants were welcomed to the focus group and requested to complete a consent form in accordance with the ethical guidelines for the research project. An audio recorder was used to capture the conversations during the focus groups. The researcher proceeded in a systematic way and gave a Power Point presentation on the antecedents identified by the literature as having an influence on intention to quit. After the ten-minute presentation, the researcher encouraged the participants to voice their views on the antecedents presented and whether they were in agreement that those antecedents would have an influence on Generation Y academics' intention to quit.

The respondents were asked to add any antecedents they deemed to be important factors in the decision-making process of intention to quit. Thereafter, the participants had to identify

four antecedents from the literature and the antecedents identified during the focus group that they foresaw to have the greatest impact on the intention to quit decision. After one hour and thirty minutes, the researcher concluded the focus group by confirming the antecedents identified by the respondents and thanking the participants for their input and valuable time. As the qualitative phase of this study was used for diagnostic exploratory purposes, the integration of views expressed by the respondents was of critical importance and value.

3.4.3 Analysis of focus group data

Understanding the research problem by means of qualitative research methods can be incredibly diverse, complex and nuanced (Holloway & Todres, 2003), and therefore a variety of practices for qualitative data analysis exist. Some of these practices include grounded theory, ethnography, experience narratives, phenomenological approaches, case studies, action research and thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Lichtman, 2011; Massey, 2011; Thomas, 2003). Massey (2011) highlights three forms of qualitative analysis to be associated with focus groups, namely (1) grounded theory, (2) phenomenological approaches and (3) thematic analysis. The thematic analysis approach was deemed most suitable to meet the requirements and aims of this study. Thematic analysis can be described as "... a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 79), and interprets various aspects of the research topic (Boyatzis, 1998). According to Massey (2011), this approach suggests that qualitative analysis involves the search for common themes emerging from the group and from the interplay between the participants. This may reflect a range of individual attitudes, opinions and beliefs. Massey characterises the three levels of data derived from focus group transcripts as articulated, attributional and emergent. Articulated data can be defined as the data (discussion) that arises in direct response to the questions and prompts provided by the facilitator during the focus group. The second level, attributional data, derives from comments and discussions that relate to a priori theories, operating hypotheses or research questions that the facilitator brings to the study. Finally, emergent data is the information that contributes to new insights and hypothesis formulation and is the unanticipated product of individual comments and exchanges among the focus group members. This study will focus on the articulated data and emergent levels, as these include attitudes, beliefs, observations, opinion and preferences that are all referents

to the question posed by the researcher. And, as defined, the emergent level gives insight into new ideas and hypotheses that were not anticipated.

The thematic analysis of the focus group data followed the guidelines proposed by Thomas (2003).

Familiarise yourself with the data. As an audio recorder was utilised to record the focus group discussions, the researcher re-played the discussions in order to gain a general view of the data and to identify initial themes.

Generate initial codes and search and review themes. While listening to the data, broad themes were identified and coded in a systematic fashion across the entire data set. Themes and terms were based in the actual language of the participants and reviewed again to ensure they were in relation to the coded extracts of the entire data set.

Define and name themes. During this phase, the researcher had to do ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, as well as generate definitions for each theme.

The data remained in its original recorder format, as the qualitative phase was only used to assist the researcher in identifying antecedents to be included in the web-based questionnaire (quantitative research phase).

3.5 Phase One: Qualitative: Intention to Quit Blog

After several unsuccessful attempts to reschedule the planned focus groups at the other HEIs [I2 and I3] in the Western Cape, the researcher decided to pursue the virtual route by creating an intention to quit blog. The decision was made based on the response rate for the focus groups, which was extremely low. The aim with the blog was similar to that with the focus group. As Generation Y's are known for their technological savvy (Botelho, 2008; Herbison & Boseman, 2009, Wordon, 2009), a blog was deemed to be a creative alternative to facilitate communication with the sample. The blog is deemed to be less time consuming and they

could access the blog from their cell phones and computers. The participants' identities would still be protected, as the researcher created a private group.

3.5.1 Background: Generation of sample for intention to quit blog

Seventy-two academics from three institutions were selected by means of stratified random sampling and invited to visit the blog and voice their opinions. In total, only seven academics became members of the blog, and three posted comments. The blog was active from 3 February 2011 to 25 May 2011.

3.5.2 Intention to quit blog procedure

The researcher created a private blog on a secure blog website. A description of the study was added to inform participants of the aim of the study and once again confirm their privacy. Thereafter, the researcher invited the seventy-two selected academics from three HEIs via e-mail to join the blog. The e-mail contained an outline of the study, the importance of their participation as well as the link to the blog. Once participants had entered the link, they had to become a member in order to comment. This was put in place to ensure the participants' privacy, and only invited participants could gain access. An initial comment based on the information obtained during the focus groups was placed on the blog by the researcher to evoke comments from the sample population. The statement was as follows:

What will drive you to quit your current academic position? Will it be job satisfaction, organisational commitment, stress, leadership, perceived organisational support, team work, communication, reward recognition and remuneration? Any other suggestions or comments?

The blog was active for five days, and no responses were received, leading to the researcher re-inviting all the participants. Two responses were received on the same day as the invitation was re-sent. The researcher kept on responding to the comments made by the participants, and encouraged those academics to persuade their colleagues to join the group in an attempt to generate postings and a discussion on the blog.

3.5.3 Analysis of intention to quit blog data

The purpose of creating the intention to quit blog was to add to the information obtained during the focus groups. The analysis of the small number of blog responses was similar to the process followed for the focus groups (refer to Section 3.4.3).

The limited insights generated from the qualitative phase served as input for the development of the measurement instrument used in the quantitative phase, which will be discussed in detail in the following section.

3.6 Phase Two: Quantitative: Measuring Instruments

A questionnaire was compiled for the purpose of the study. Numerous scales employed for the measurement of employee engagement, job satisfaction, intention to quit, transformational leadership, and remuneration, reward and recognition were investigated in terms of reliability and validity for possible inclusion in the questionnaire.

Babbie (1990) suggests that survey research methodology be used for descriptive, explanatory and exploratory purposes, firstly because it allows for generalisation from a sample to a population in order to make inferences about some characteristics, attitudes or behaviour of the population, and secondly because of the rapid turnaround time in data collection. The self-administered web-based questionnaire included six sections, based on the literature review and subsequent input of the qualitative phases of the study (refer to Appendix B).

Section A – Demographic information

Section B – Employee engagement (four items)

Section C – Transformational leadership (20 items)

Section D – Intention to quit (four items)

Section E – Job satisfaction (30 items)

Section F – Remuneration, reward and recognition (five items)

The questionnaire was made available in English only. This could be regarded as a limitation; however, given the sample's education level it was not deemed necessary to translate the questionnaire into any other language. The various sections of the questionnaire are discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

3.6.1 Section A: Demographic information

This section of the questionnaire consisted of questions regarding the demographic profile of the sample population. The demographic variables included the following: gender, age, ethnic group, length of service at the institution, highest qualification, job title, department, faculty and institution.

3.6.2 Section B: Employee engagement

The Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA), published in Buckingham and Coffman (1999), was considered to be used to measure employee engagement in this study. According to Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002), the GWA was designed to measure elements in the workplace culture that encourage employee engagement and to reflect both attitudinal outcomes (for example satisfaction, pride, loyalty) and issues within the control of the manager. Twelve core statements were determined after conducting over one million interviews across 25 years of qualitative and quantitative research. The statements measure the core elements needed to "...attract, focus, and keep the most talented employees" (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 28). These twelve statements utilised a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Harter et al. (2002) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .91 (n = 4172) for the GWA. The researcher was advised by Gallup Client Support to rather consider the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), which is a validated scale, as the GWA focuses more on change within the organisation (which was not the primary focus of this study). Therefore, it was deemed appropriate to investigate the UWES as an alternative measure.

The original UWES consisted of 24 items and two sub-scales, namely vigour and dedication. During the psychometric development of the scale, seven items were eliminated, resulting in the remaining 17 items, namely vigour (six items), dedication (five items), and absorption (six

items) (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá & Bakker, 2002). The 17-item UWES was utilised in a South African sample of police officers, with Storm and Rothmann (2003) reporting the following alpha coefficients for the three sub-scales: vigour ($\alpha = .78$), dedication ($\alpha = .89$) and absorption ($\alpha = .78$). There currently are three versions of the UWES, namely the UWES-9, UWES-15 and UWES-17.

The UWES-9 consists of nine statements with three highly correlated sub-scales, namely vigour (three items), dedication (three items) and absorption (three items). A seven-point Likert-type scale (0 = never to 6 = always) is utilised. Previous testing of the UWES-9 (a Dutch language database that included almost 10000 respondents from the Netherlands and Belgium, and an international database that included almost 12000 respondents from nine different countries, including South Africa) confirmed the psychometric properties of the scale. Table 3.1 illustrates the α -values of the UWES scales.

Table 3.1

Cronbach's alpha values of the UWES scales

	UWES-9 (N = 9679)			UWES-15 (N = 9679)			UWES-17 (N = 2313)		
	<i>Total</i>	<i>Md</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Md</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Md</i>	<i>Range</i>
Vigour	.84	.84	.75-.91	.86	.86	.81-.90	.83	.86	.81-.90
Dedication	.89	.89	.83-.93	.92	.91	.88-.95	.92	.92	.88-.95
Absorption	.79	.79	.70-.84	.82	.81	.75-.87	.82	.80	.0-.88

Note: * The dedication scales of the UWES-15 and the UWES-17 are identical

(Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003, p. 14)

The shortened version of the UWES, UWES-9 (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003), was used to measure employee engagement in the current study, as it has sound psychometric properties and is regarded as valid for the measurement of engagement.

3.6.3 Section C: Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership was measured by using an adapted version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Engelbrecht, Van Aswegen & Theron, 2005). The adapted

questionnaire is based on the original model of leadership of Bass (1985) and the later revised model of Bass and Avolio (1994). The original version by Bass (1985) consisted of 45 items.

Even though there are numerous instruments to measure transformational leadership, Pillay, Williams, Low and Jung (2003) note that the MLQ is the most widely used measurement of transformational leadership. According to Bass (1997), the MLQ has been utilised in different sectors and countries, supporting the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The MLQ includes three sub-scales, namely transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership. Only items relevant to transformational leadership were chosen for the composite questionnaire employed in this study. The transformational leadership scale consists of four sub-scales that measure transformational leadership behaviours, namely idealised influence (eight items), inspirational motivation (four items), intellectual stimulation (four items), and individualised consideration (four items). Items are measured on a six-point Likert-type scale (1 = almost never to 6 = almost always). Evidence from Engelbrecht et al. (2005) suggests that the MLQ is a reliable and valid measure of leadership behaviour, generally reporting highly satisfactory Cronbach's alpha values for the transformational leadership subscales ($.75 < \alpha < .87$).

3.6.4 Section D: Intention to quit

Several measures of intention to quit were considered. Cohen (1993) proposed a three-item scale, which measures a subject's intention to leave the organisation. This instrument has been used previously in a South African study by Boshoff et al. (2002), and has demonstrated its utility in a South African organisational setting. Farh, Podsakoff and Organ (1990) proposed a four-item scale and reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .81 (seven-point Likert-type scale).

The development of the Arnold and Feldman (1982) scale included multivariate analysis of the turnover process ($n=654$) among chartered accountants. A working model of actual turnover behaviour was developed and tested. The following variables were measured: demographic variables (four items), tenure (one item), cognitive/affective orientation to current position, including overall job satisfaction (30 items), organisational commitment (15 items),

satisfaction of expectations (one item), existence of perceived conflicting standards (one item), perceived job security (one item), intention to search for an alternative position (two items), perceived existence of alternative positions (one item), and intention to change positions (one item).

The shortened version of the Arnold and Feldman (1982) scale was used to measure intention to quit (four items) in the current study. A five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), measures both the subjects' intention to change organisations as well as their search for alternatives. Oehley (2007, p. 74) reported an alpha coefficient of .85 for the four item intention to quit scale and it was therefore deemed acceptable for use in the current study.

3.6.5 Section E: Job satisfaction

A shortened version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), together with the 15-item Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS), was considered for use in this study. Elangovan (2001) reported a $\alpha = .89$ for the MSQ.

According to Mbebe (2005), after 40 years of research and application, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) remains one of the most widely used measures of job satisfaction. The abridged JDI measures five facets of satisfaction, namely job satisfaction regarding the work itself, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision and co-workers. Russel, Spitzmuller, Lin, Stanton, Smith and Ironson (2004) mention that the JDI treats job satisfaction as a multidimensional construct that allows for the independent measurement of the different dimensions. According to Balzer, Kihm, Smith, Irwen, Bachiochi, Robie (cited in Oehley, 2007), the rationale for the facet approach to measuring job satisfaction is that a job is not a unitary concept and therefore requires separate measures for each aspect of the job. Oehley (2007) supports this by indicating that high internal validity for each of the subscales of the JDI was reported by various researchers, with coefficient alpha values ranging from .86 to .91 for the yes/no format.

Gregson (1990) converted the original adjective checklist JDI (developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin in 1969) into a versatile 30-item Likert-type questionnaire scored from 1 (strongly

disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), with high scores indicating high levels of satisfaction (Gregson, 1990; Stanton, Sinar, Balzer, Julian, Thoresen, Aziz, Fisher, & Smith, 2001). Support for the reliability of the JDI Likert-format scale is found in Buckley, Carraher and Cote (1992), who reported satisfactory internal consistency with alpha coefficient values ranging between .65 and .98. The scale was therefore deemed appropriate for the measurement of job satisfaction in the current study.

3.6.6 Section F: Remuneration, reward and recognition

Few researchers have developed scales to measure remuneration, reward and recognition. Berry (2010) made use of the secondary data obtained from the 2007 Employee Satisfaction Survey to measure compensation fairness using three questions and utilising a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree). Chew (2004) synthesised the research results of numerous researchers into a five-item scale for remuneration, reward and recognition (focusing on intrinsic and extrinsic rewards). This scale was used for the purposes of the current study. Extrinsic rewards measures were designed to measure the employee's view of the economic rewards of his or her job. These include pay, benefits and job security. The scale also measured the degree to which intrinsic rewards, such as recognition, are present in the organisation. Chew (2004) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .76 for the scale.

3.7 Data Collection

Data collection for the quantitative phase of the study was done by means of a self-administered web-based questionnaire, taking cognisance of the various advantages and disadvantages of web-surveys (refer to Section 3.2.2), as well as the length of the questionnaire (McCarty, House, Harman & Richards, 2006). The questionnaire was reviewed by four academics representing the envisaged sample profile to ensure clarity in the wording and understanding of the questions, as well as for face validity. The following sections outline the procedures followed for data collection. This includes the pilot study process and the actual process of data collection.

3.7.1 Pilot study

The researcher compiled the questionnaire on an online survey website. The electronic questionnaire was designed so that only one answer could be given per item and all items had to be answered before the respondent could proceed to the next section. Access to the questionnaire was secured by a username and password to ensure that no unauthorised users could gain access to the platform and manipulate the results. Seven academics were asked for their input on the length and response time, the quality of the questions, and the clarity of the wording (especially if the respondents' first language was not English). The general feedback was that the questionnaire was "... *easy to complete, rephrase certain words, took 15 minutes to complete, all instructions, ratings and response categories were straightforward*".

3.7.2 Data collection – main study

The use of pre-notice in web-surveys increases response rates, as has been indicated by various online survey researchers (Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). The researcher therefore sent an e-mail to the sample population a day prior to the release of the web questionnaire. The e-mail contained information on how important their contributions were to the successful completion of the study, as well as the process that would be followed (refer to Appendix C).

An e-mail request was subsequently sent to all full-time Generation Y academics at the participating institutions. The e-mail included a cover letter informing the participants of the objectives of the study and the necessity of their participation, a confidentiality guarantee, the average time needed to complete the questionnaire, as well as the link to the online questionnaire posted on the web-survey application. Refer to Appendix D for the invitation e-mail. Confidentiality was reiterated and no personal information was requested, in order to obtain more candidate responses. The questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes to complete. The initial request was followed up by three follow-up e-mails within four weeks (refer to Appendix E). All reminders were sent early in the morning, with the expectation of receiving a better response rate. Sufficient time was given for the sample group to complete the questionnaire and submit their opinions. A total of $n = 210$ responses were recorded, although 21 responses had to be deleted as the respondents were not within the parameters

of the sample. The raw data (n = 189, response rate of 27.7%) was extracted from the web questionnaire and exported into an Excel database.

3.8 Statistical Analysis

The statistical methods utilised were chosen to serve the research questions that had been formulated for this study. The questionnaire that was administered comprised a number of questions that were phrased negatively. Hence, these items were reverse scored before data analysis. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), descriptive statistics summarise the general nature of the data obtained. The statistical analysis was done by means of the STATISTICA 10 software program (developed and supported by Statsoft), and LISREL 8.80.

3.8.1 Reliability

Item analysis was performed on all scales (sections) and sub-scales of the measuring instruments. This procedure was followed in order to identify the items that did not contribute to the internal consistency, also referred to as the Cronbach's alpha (α) of each scale or sub-scale. Subsequently, item analysis enabled the researcher to delete items whose removal brought about a substantial increase in the Cronbach's alpha and the overall scale reliability. The guideline of $\alpha > 0.70$ provided by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) was applied in this study.

3.8.2 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Factor analysis is utilised to examine the underlying patterns or relationships for a large number of variables and to determine whether the information can be condensed or summarised in a smaller set of factors or components (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006). Of the two types of factor analysis, namely exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, the latter was applicable to the current study. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a complex and sophisticated set of techniques used in the research process to test specific hypotheses concerning the structure underlying a set of variables (Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). CFA was performed on each scale (employee engagement, transformational leadership, intention to quit, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and

recognition) in the questionnaire using LISREL 8.80. The job satisfaction scale contained too many items for one CFA, therefore two different sets of analysis (namely (1) work itself and pay and (2) promotion opportunities, supervision and co-workers) were conducted in order to determine the construct validity of the scale. According to Oehley (2007), CFA allows researchers to specify a measurement model to assess how well the observed indicators measure the theoretical latent variables they are supposed to reflect. Thus, the fit between the measurement model and the data collected from the sample in the present study was investigated.

Model fit was assessed through the examination of a combination of goodness-of-fit (GOF) measures. Table 3.2 provides a summary of the absolute fit measures and incremental fit measures, and indicates the acceptable values used as guidelines for assessing GOF (Janse van Noordwyk, 2008, p. 114). For the purpose of the current study, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) will be used as goodness-of-fit indices.

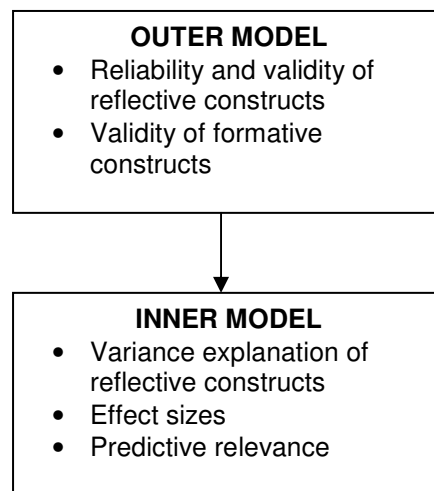
The variance extracted (VE) and construct reliability (CR) for each dimension were also calculated. The cut-off value for VE was set at > 0.5 . A variance extracted value less than 0.5 is an indication of a greater amount of variance in the items being explained by measurement error as opposed to the underlying dimension. The criterion for CR was set at > 0.7 , as it is a measurement of the reliability and internal consistency associated with the measurement items representing each dimension (Hair et al., 2006).

Table 3.2**Summary of goodness-of-fit indices**

Absolute fit measures	
Minimum fit function of chi-square	A non-significant result indicated model fit
Normal theory-weighted least square chi-square	A non-significant result indicate model fit
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	Values between 0.08 or below indicate acceptable fit Values below 0.05 indicate good fit Values below 0.01 indicate outstanding fit
Standardised root mean residual (RMR)	Lower values indicate better fit, with values below .05 indicating good fit
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	Higher values indicate better fit, with values > .9 indicating good fit
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	Higher values indicate better fit, with values > .9 indicating good fit
Incremental fit measures	
Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	Higher values indicate better fit, with values > .9 indicating good fit
Comparative fit index (CFI)	Values closer to 1 indicate better fit, with values > .9 indicating good fit

(Janse van Noordwyk, 2008, p. 114)

PLS path modelling can be utilised to determine the reliability of measurement and structural models. Chin (1998) proposed criteria to assess partial model structures and classified these criteria in a two-step process, which includes (1) the assessment of the outer model and (2) the assessment of the inner model.

**Figure 3.1 A two-step process of PLS path model assessment**

(Adapted from Roux, 2010, p. 67)

Figure 3.1 describes the two-step process. Within the process, the emphasis is firstly placed on assessing the measurement model. This will reveal the measurement model's reliability and validity according to certain criteria that are associated with formative and reflective outer models. It is then only useful to evaluate the inner path model estimates after the calculated latent variable scores show evidence of sufficient reliability and validity (Roux, 2010).

3.8.3 Correlation analysis

A correlation exists if one variable increases and another variable either increases or decreases in a somewhat predictable fashion (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The simple correlation analysis technique is the most popular way of indicating the relationship between two variables (Zikmund, 2003). The correlation coefficient (r) represents the strength of the correlation between two variables by means of a number ranging from -1 to +1. A correlation of $r = 1$ indicates a perfect positive relationship, while $r = -1$ indicates a perfect negative correlation. A value of 0 indicates that the variables are perfectly independent (Zikmund, 2003).

Cohen's values were used to determine whether the relationship between variables is small, medium or large (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3

Cohen's Interpretation of the Magnitude of Significant r

Correlation	Negative	Positive
Small	-0.3 to -0.1	0.1 to 0.3
Medium	-0.5 to -0.3	0.3 to 0.5
Large	-1.0 to -0.5	0.5 to 1.0

(Adapted from Van Tonder, 2011, p. 68)

3.8.4 Standard multiple regression

According to Hair et al. (2006), regression analysis is by far the most widely used and versatile dependence technique. Multiple regression is a family of techniques that can be used to explore the relationship between one continuous dependent variable and a number of independent variables or predictors (Dillon, Madden & Firtle, 1994; Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick

& Fidell, 1996). In order to adequately utilise multiple regression, one needs a sound theoretical or conceptual reason for the analysis and, in particular, the order of variables entering the equation (Pallant, 2005). Pallant adds that, in standard multiple regression, all the independent variables are entered into the equation simultaneously, so that each independent variable is evaluated in terms of its predictive power over and above that offered by all the other independent variables.

A multiple linear regression analysis was carried out to yield an equation in which two or more independent variables (employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, remuneration, reward and recognition, and demographic variables) were used to predict the dependent variable (intention to quit). The advantage and power of multiple regression is that it enables the researcher to estimate the effect of each variable, thereby controlling for the other variables (Salkind, 2007). Multicollinearity is a problem only applicable to multiple regression and "... exists when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictors in a regression model" (Field, 2009, p. 223). Thus, multicollinearity is defined as the correlations among independent variables. This causes problems in interpreting the individual regression coefficients, because the values are affected by the amount of association between the independent variables themselves (Dillon et al., 1994). According to Pallant (2005), multicollinearity exists when the independent variables are highly correlated ($r=.9$ and above). The tolerance level was calculated for each of the variables to determine multicollinearity.

3.8.5 Structural equation modelling and PLS path modelling

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a robust tool as it takes into account aspects of factor analysis, multiple regression and both multiple latent independent and dependent variables (Hair et al., 2006). Berry (2010) reported several advantages of SEM, which include flexible assumptions, ability to test models (compared to testing individual relationships), the capacity to manage difficult data, and integral use of confirmatory factor analysis. SEM was performed to test the partial structural model. This approach was followed due to the restricted sample size. According to Kelloway (2008), SEM allows for the specification and testing of complex models when mediate relationships and causal processes are of interest. As intention to quit is regarded as a complex concept, it was deemed suitable to perform SEM, as SEM is a general statistical model that "... integrates multivariate techniques such as regression and

factor analysis into a powerful refinement of complex concepts” (Larsson & Kallenberg, 1999, p. 52). Absolute fit measures were performed and are reported in Chapter 4. They include goodness of fit (GOF), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI).

In conclusion, PLS path analysis was conducted, as the SEM fit was inadequate. The purpose of this evaluation was to determine the measurement quality of the constructs used in the evaluation of the structural component. To determine whether coefficients are significant, the Smart PLS programme uses the bootstrapping method (Davison & Hinkley, 2003; Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). The concept of triangulation was applied in this study to confirm and cross-validate the findings of the qualitative and quantitative analyses, and to provide the researcher with a greater degree of confidence in reporting the findings. The researcher can be more confident that the results are valid when several methods to investigate the phenomenon of interest are used, and the results provide mutual confirmation (Creswell, 2003).

3.9 Concluding Remarks: Chapter 3

This chapter presented the research design used to empirically evaluate the proposed partial theoretical model (Figure 2.5). Generation Y academics at six HEIs in South Africa were utilised as the sample population, specifically focusing on academics between the ages of 20 and 30 years. This study made use of a two-phase mixed method, qualitative and quantitative approach in order to gain the necessary information on antecedents of intention to quit for the population being researched. Focus groups were conducted, after which an intention to quit blog was created. A self-administered web-based questionnaire was utilised for the quantitative phase of this study. Chapter 4 reports on the results of the analyses of the research data.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The proposed partial theoretical model of intention to quit derived from the literature study in Chapter 2 and the qualitative phase in Chapter 3 hypothesised specific relationships between the variables (see Figure 2.5). In Chapter 3, the research methodology used to test these hypotheses was discussed in detail. The results of the statistical analyses aimed at testing the stated hypotheses are reported in the following sections, and will serve the following empirical objective, namely to determine the relative importance of, and relationships between, employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, remuneration, reward and recognition and intention to quit.

The study comprised two phases, a qualitative (focus groups and intention to quit blog) and a quantitative (self-administered web-based questionnaire) phase, and will be presented and discussed as such.

4.2 Phase One: Qualitative Results

The following section will report on the results of the qualitative phase, which included focus groups and a blog.

4.2.1 Focus groups

This section covers the sample profile of the focus group participants, as well as the findings of the focus group phase.

4.2.1.1 Sample: Focus groups

Two focus groups were held with three participants each. Tables 4.1 and 4.2 depict the profiles of the participants in focus groups 1 and 2.

Table 4.1

Profile of focus group one at Institution One

Participant	Gender	Race	Position	Department	Faculty
1	Male	White	Associate professor	Mathematical Sciences	Science
2	Male	White	Lecturer	Genetics	AgriSciences
3	Female	Coloured	Junior lecturer	Social Work	Arts

Table 4.2

Profile of focus group two at Institution One

Participant	Gender	Race	Position	Department	Faculty
1	Male	Coloured	Lecturer	Mathematical Sciences	Science
2	Male	White	Lecturer	Accounting	Economic and Business Management
3	Female	White	Lecturer	Accounting	Economic and Business Management

Even though the focus group sample population consisted of only six participants, four faculties and three job levels were represented.

4.2.1.2 Focus group results

The participants were in agreement with the intention to quit antecedents as presented in the literature review. From the thematic analysis of the focus group discussion, a further three antecedents of intention to quit were identified, namely academic freedom, burnout, and the availability of alternative positions. Academic freedom was defined by the participants as the freedom to choose which research areas to focus on, as well as some freedom regarding which modules to teach. The participants expressed the opinion that burnout is increasing in the academic profession, but agreed that it is more evident later in the academic career.

Stressors identified to contribute to burnout included the increase in workload; the key performance areas, which include research, teaching and community interaction; and research that must be conducted after hours to ensure a good publication record.

“Working at a university is my dream job, so all they can do to retain me is to give me freedom to teach courses I would like to, as well as give me the necessary research leave to attend conferences.” (white male, associate professor)

“...Universities should consider appointing teaching staff and research staff to decrease the workload stressors. It is difficult to find the balance between teaching and research, as my predecessor quit her position because the workload became too heavy. I am in a very small department, therefore the challenge is so great and I do not find time in my work schedule to handle all the pressures.” (coloured female, lecturer)

The participants viewed their research output levels also to have an influence on the professional perception that senior academics have of their younger colleagues. The importance of the correct balance between the age groups within the department was also raised by the participants. Generation Y academics felt that their positions were regarded as being inferior to those of the more senior academics and that their voice was not heard in meetings.

An interesting viewpoint was on the availability of alternative positions, and the integral role it played in the decision to quit their job. The participants in focus group one strongly agreed that they would not have the intention to quit their current job should they not have an alternative position. *“I do not believe that your predecessors quitted their position without having an alternative position”*(white male, associate professor). These findings concur with the findings of Spector (1997), who found that academics who indicated they would leave the institution would first consider whether or not alternative options were available. However, a participant in focus group two (who was in his notice period) resigned without having an alternative position. He argued that job satisfaction and working in an environment managed by a transformational leader was more important. These conflicting viewpoints confirm that

one cannot generalise and that, even though all the participants were from the Generation Y age group, they still have differing views that are influenced by a wide variety of variables. Of all the antecedents (from the literature and generated by the focus groups), the focus groups identified academic freedom, departmental leadership, job satisfaction and remuneration, reward and recognition as their most important antecedents of intention to quit. The respondents stressed the importance of distinguishing between organisational leadership and departmental leadership. Their view was that departmental leadership would have a greater impact on job satisfaction in the institution than organisational leadership.

4.2.2 Intention to quit blog

Seventy-two academics from three institutions were selected by means of stratified random sampling and invited to visit the blog and voice their opinions. In total, only seven academics became members of the blog, and only three posted comments. The responses on the blog were as follows:

Rocketboi commented that:

...one of the main factors to me would be job satisfaction, to be happy in ones (sic)workplace and have a healthy working environment with balanced contribution from all colleagues and a strong network of support and of teamwork. My reasons for wanting to leave or having the intention of leaving would be due to the lack of leadership within the workplace, be it on departmental level or faculty level. As a Generation Y academic the levels of stress and recognition is (sic)minor factor, from what I see from my colleagues we strive to achieve better not for our own benefit but for that of the students and to create a better working environment.

Rocketboi added to the discussion that:

....another aspect would be the academic status one has in comparison to those who have been the 'academic game' for a while. It's not easy to be taken seriously or be heard as a junior lecturer or lecturer without having all the necessary qualifications. Not being heard when making recommendations for

improvement can be de-motivating, in the corporate world the cycle is in reverse, where the young trainees are trained to become the specialists.

A colleague by the name of Lecturer 1 made the following remarks:

I believe that job satisfaction is very important. I need to feel as though my work has meaning and that others' (sic) respect it too. I agree with Rocketboi that it is difficult for younger lecturers. We may very well end up working for an institution where your colleagues were your lecturers only a few years ago. I also feel working for an institution that is not only concerned with increasing throughput but for their academics as well(sic).

The final comment that was received was posted by another member of the blog:

...areas that would drive me to quit are unfair remuneration between the three Universities in the Western Cape. Also, what constantly drives me to quit is the fact that I have been employed on a contract position for the past four years!!! I work without the comfort of knowing that I have a pension fund, and only recently was able to get medical aid benefits. I have no job security, and experience periods of extreme anxiety at the end of every year as we are not told whether we have a contract for the next year or not, just told to sign very late in December. I do not think that this is fair at all! I am a young person (27) and I need job security to be able to focus on other areas of my life.

From the blog entries the following antecedents of intention to quit can be identified:

- Job satisfaction;
- Team work;
- Healthy working environment;
- Lack of leadership;
- Academic status as junior lecturer or lecturer;
- Unfair remuneration packages between HEIs; and
- Job security

These findings coincide with previous research, as discussed in the literature review (refer to Section 2.5).

The information gathered from the literature review, focus groups and blog assisted the researcher to determine the appropriate antecedents of intention to quit among Generation Y academics to be included in the questionnaire. Due to the unique sample population, the qualitative phase was used to identify new antecedents of intention to quit and/or confirm existing antecedents reported by the literature.

4.3 Phase Two: Quantitative Results

This section of Chapter 4 places emphasis on the results of the quantitative phase of the study. It will cover the sample population, reliability of the results, correlation analysis, multiple regression and, lastly, evaluate the measurement and structural models.

4.3.1 Sample population: Quantitative phase

The sample comprised academics at six HEIs in South Africa, aged between 20 and 30 years. Table 4.3 provides a summary of the demographic profile of the respondents. The percentage of female respondents (60%) was higher than that of male respondents (40%). This result contradicts the gender profile of academics at the 23 HEIs in South Africa in April 2011, with a female representation of 45% and men representing 55% of the sample (Boughey & Botha, 2011, p. 17). The majority of the sample belonged to the white population group (78.31%), followed by the African population group (12.17%). The ethnic group results concur with one of the challenges raised by Badat (2008), namely that Generation Y academics will have to contribute to the transformation of institutional cultures, especially at historically white institutions. The respondents predominantly held a Master's degree (56%) and are in the early career stage (junior lecturer and lecturer: 82%) with a tenure of between zero and three years (65%). The sample is a very good representation of the different faculties (according to size) at most of the HEIs in South Africa. Therefore, it strengthens the confidence that the results can be cautiously generalised to the Generation Y academic population at HEIs in South Africa.

Table 4.3***Demographic profile of respondents – Quantitative phase***

Variables	Categories	N	%
Gender (n = 189)	Male	76	40
	Female	113	60
Ethnic group (n=189)	African	23	12
	Coloured	11	6
	Indian	5	3
	White	148	78
	Other	2	1
Qualification (n=189)	Bachelor's degree	8	4
	Honours	57	30
	Master's	105	56
	Doctoral	19	10
Job title (n=189)	Junior lecturer/junior researcher	68	36
	Lecturer/researcher	87	46
	Senior lecturer/senior researcher	32	17
	Associate professor	2	1
Length of service (n =189)	0 – 3 years	123	65
	3 – 5 years	50	26
	5 years and more	16	9
Faculty (n=189)	AgriSciences	5	3
	Economic and Management Sciences	59	31
	Education	9	5
	Engineering	21	11
	Health Sciences	32	17
	Arts	23	12
	Law	5	3
	Natural Science	33	17
	Other	2	1

4.3.2 Psychometric properties of the measurement instruments

The psychometric properties of the measurement instruments were investigated. As the purpose of this study was to determine the relationships between the various constructs, as well as predicting intention to quit using these constructs, the overall reliability of the scale is of importance. The sub-scale inter-item correlations were also investigated using STATISTICA 10, in order to identify and eliminate possible items that were not contributing to an internally consistent description of the latent variable measured.

The following sections report the results for each of the items of the constructs. First, the sub-scales' inter-item correlations and alpha if deleted were investigated. Secondly, a summary of the item analysis results are presented in Table 4.18.

4.3.2.1 Employee engagement scale

The inter-item correlations and the alpha if deleted statistics for the Vigour, Dedication and Absorption sub-scales of the employee engagement scale are presented in Tables 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6.

Table 4.4

Employee Engagement Scale: Vigour

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 1	.82	.77
Item 2	.82	.76
Item 5	.65	.93

The alpha coefficient for the total sub-scale was .87. No corrective action was taken to improve the alpha.

Table 4.5***Employee Engagement Scale: Dedication***

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 3	.83	.75
Item 4	.79	.80
Item 7	.67	.89

No corrective action was taken to increase the alpha. The alpha coefficient for the sub-scale was .87.

Table 4.6***Employee Engagement Scale: Absorption***

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 6	.55	.78
Item 8	.68	.65
Item 9	.65	.67

The absorption sub-scale did not show any higher alphas if deleted, as the alpha coefficient for the sub-scale was .79. These results are a good indication that the total scale and the respective items of the employee engagement scale could be regarded as having good psychometric properties, thus no items were deleted.

4.3.2.2 Transformational leadership scale

Tables 4.7 to 4.10 display the inter-item correlations and the alpha if deleted statistics for the four dimensions of transformational leadership as measured by the transformational leadership scale.

Table 4.7***Transformational Leadership Scale: Idealised influence***

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 10	.74	.91
Item 12	.66	.91
Item 15	.81	.90
Item 17	.76	.90
Item 19	.74	.91
Item 21	.77	.90
Item 22	.69	.91
Item 28	.67	.91

The alpha if deleted statistics ranged between .90 and .91. The alpha coefficient for the eight-item sub-scale was .92. Therefore, the scale shows highly acceptable internally consistent reliability.

Table 4.8***Transformational Leadership Scale: Intellectual stimulation***

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 11	.72	.90
Item 13	.78	.88
Item 25	.84	.86
Item 27	.79	.87

The alpha if deleted statistics ranged between .86 and .90. The alpha coefficient for the subscale was .90, which is highly acceptable.

Table 4.9***Transformational Leadership Scale: Inspirational motivation***

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 14	.82	.89
Item 16	.83	.89
Item 23	.79	.90
Item 29	.80	.90

The alpha if deleted statistics ranged between .89 and .90. The alpha coefficient for the subscale was .92. Therefore, the scale shows highly acceptable internal consistency reliability.

Table 4.10

Transformational Leadership Scale: Individualised consideration

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 18	.70	.86
Item 20	.70	.86
Item 24	.76	.83
Item 26	.80	.82

The alpha if deleted statistics ranged between .82 and .86. The alpha coefficient for the subscale was .88, which is highly acceptable. No items were deleted from the transformational leadership scale.

4.2.2.3 Intention to quit scale

The inter-item correlations and the alpha if deleted statistics for the intention to quit scale are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Intention to Quit Scale

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 30	.72	.89
Item 31	.71	.89
Item 32	.86	.83
Item 33	.80	.86

The alpha if deleted statistics for the intention to quit scale ranged between .83 and .89. The alpha coefficient for the four item scale was .90. The scale shows acceptable internal consistency and no items were deleted.

4.3.2.4 Job satisfaction scale

The inter-item correlations and the alpha if deleted statistics for the four job satisfaction sub-scales are presented in Table 4.12 to Table 4.16.

The alpha if deleted statistics ranged from .57 to .76 for the work itself sub-scale. The alpha coefficient for the sub-scale was .70. Therefore, the subscale shows acceptable internal consistency. There were two reverse-scored items for the total scale consisting of six items. Item 37 produced low inter-item correlation and its alpha if deleted could increase the alpha coefficient for the work itself sub-scale.

Table 4.12

Job Satisfaction Scale: Work itself

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 34	.66	.59
Item 35 (reversed)	.48	.65
Item 36	.31	.70
Item 37 (reversed)	.16	.76
Item 38	.41	.67
Item 39	.69	.57

No corrective steps were taken by the researcher, as item 37 is the only item in the 30-item job satisfaction scale that produced very low inter-item correlation.

Table 4.13

Job Satisfaction Scale: Pay

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 40	.71	.90
Item 41 (reversed)	.80	.88
Item 42 (reversed)	.83	.87
Item 43 (reversed)	.74	.89
Item 44	.66	.90
Item 45 (reversed)	.68	.89

The alpha if deleted statistics ranged between .87 and .90 for the pay items. The alpha coefficient for the sub-scale was .90, which is highly acceptable.

Table 4.14

Job Satisfaction Scale: Promotion

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 46	.72	.81
Item 47 (reversed)	.67	.82
Item 48	.56	.84
Item 49 (reversed)	.58	.84
Item 50	.72	.81
Item 51 (reversed)	.59	.84

The alpha if deleted statistics ranged between .81 and .84. The alpha coefficient for the subscale was .85. Therefore, the scale shows highly acceptable internal consistency reliability.

Table 4.15

Job Satisfaction Scale: Supervision

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 52 (reversed)	.65	.85
Item 53 (reversed)	.71	.84
Item 54	.58	.86
Item 55 (reversed)	.66	.85
Item 56 (reversed)	.73	.83
Item 57 (reversed)	.68	.84

The alpha if deleted statistics ranged between .84 and .86. The alpha coefficient for the subscale was .87, which is highly acceptable. Most of the items were reverse-scored in the supervision sub-scale of the transformational leadership scale.

Table 4.16***Job Satisfaction Scale: Co-workers***

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 58 (reversed)	.61	.80
Item 59 (reversed)	.72	.78
Item 60 (reversed)	.67	.80
Item 61	.55	.82
Item 62 (reversed)	.49	.83
Item 63 (reversed)	.64	.80

The alpha if deleted statistics ranged between .78 and .83. The alpha coefficient for the subscale was .83. Therefore, the scale shows highly acceptable internal consistency reliability, and no items were deleted. There were five reverse-scored items for the total subscale consisting of six items.

4.3.2.5 Remuneration, reward and recognition scale

The inter-item correlations and the alpha if deleted statistics for the remuneration, reward and recognition scale are presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17***Remuneration, Reward and Recognition Scale***

Item	Inter-item correlation	Alpha if deleted
Item 64	.51	.67
Item 65	.56	.65
Item 66	.51	.67
Item 67	.38	.73
Item 68	.51	.67

All the items in the remuneration, reward and recognition measurement provide moderate levels of reliability. The five-item remuneration, reward and recognition scale has an overall reliability coefficient of .73, which is acceptable.

Table 4.18 presents a summary of the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments. After investigating the coefficient alphas, as set out in Table 4.18, the alphas for all the scales

and sub-scales were found to be acceptable. No further corrective steps were undertaken to increase alpha values.

Table 4.18

Summary of the psychometric properties of the measuring instrument

Scale and sub-scale	Number of items	Mean	Standard deviation	Cronbach's alpha
Employee engagement	9	15.74	2.76	.90
Vigour	3	10.87	1.84	.87
Dedication	3	10.18	1.87	.87
Absorption	3	10.43	1.94	.79
Transformational leadership	20	16.92	4.5	.96
Idealised influence	8	12.61	3.45	.92
Inspirational motivation	4	12.52	3.43	.92
Intellectual stimulation	4	12.87	3.35	.90
Individualised consideration	4	12.76	3.67	.88
Intention to quit	4	9.44	4.15	.90
Job satisfaction	30	18.78	2.69	.75
Work itself	6	22.69	3.50	.70
Pay	6	17.84	5.52	.90
Promotion	6	19.81	4.86	.85
Supervision	6	22.50	4.51	.87
Co-workers	6	23.84	4.14	.83
Remuneration, reward and recognition	5	15.77	3.25	.73

Variance extracted (VE) and construct reliability (CR) were also calculated, as presented in Table 4.19. VE provides an estimate of the variation explained among items, and the cut-off value was set at $> .5$. CR was used to further assess the reliability and internal consistency associated with the measurement items of each scale. The criterion was set at $> .7$ (Hair et al., 2006, pp. 777-778).

Table 4.19
VE and CR of scales

Scale	Sub-scale	Variance extracted (VE)	Construct reliability (CR)
Job satisfaction	Work itself	.40	.78
	Pay	.69	.93
	Promotion	.55	.88
	Supervision	.63	.91
	Co-workers	.58	.89
Employee engagement	Absorption	.60	.81
	Dedication	.76	.90
	Vigour	.79	.92
Transformational leadership	Individualised consideration	.70	.90
	Idealised influence	.65	.94
	Inspirational motivation	.79	.94
	Intellectual stimulation	.77	.93
Remuneration, reward and recognition		.42	.77

A VE of less than .5 indicates that a greater amount of variance in the items is explained by measurement error than by the underlying dimension. Thus, VE provides evidence to determine whether some measurement items should be considered for deletion.

Job satisfaction: The VE for the work itself sub-scale was recorded at .40 and did not meet the set criterion of $> .5$, which implies that further analyses with this sub-scale should be interpreted with caution. The CR met the set criterion, $CR = .78$.

Remuneration, reward and recognition: The VE for the scale was recorded at .42 and did not meet the set criterion of $> .5$. Further analyses with this scale should also be interpreted with caution. CR was calculated as .77, which met the set criterion of $> .7$.

The VE and CR of all the other scales and sub-scales (employee engagement and transformational leadership) met the set criterion of $> .5$ and $> .7$ respectively. This indicates that all the other scales and sub-scales did not record a higher amount of variance in the items, as captured by measurement error compared to the underlying dimension. The CR results indicate that the items provide a reliable measurement of each scale.

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis are discussed in the following section.

4.3.3 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA): Measurement model

According to Chew (2004) and Hair et al. (2006), factor analysis is best suited to identify relationships between a set of items in a scale, all designed to measure the same construct. To further test the construct validity of the various scales, CFA was performed for employee engagement, transformational leadership, intention to quit, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition.

The job satisfaction scale contained too many items for one CFA, (Prof M. Kidd, personal communication, 7 November 2011), therefore two different sets of analysis (namely (1) work itself and pay and (2) promotion opportunities, supervision and co-workers) were performed for the job satisfaction scale in order to determine construct validity. The information obtained for the CFA of the measurement models of each of the constructs is presented in Table 4.20.

The absolute fit measures give an indication of how well the observed covariance matrix reproduces the covariance matrix implied by the model. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is based on the analysis of residuals and focuses on the error due to approximation. As presented in Table 3.2, RMSEA values below .08 indicate acceptable fit, whereas values below .05 and .01 are indicative of good and outstanding fit respectively (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). The RMSEA for job satisfaction 1 (.07) and 2 (.07) demonstrates acceptable fit, whilst the RMSEA for employee engagement (.105), transformational leadership (.092), remuneration, reward and recognition (.13), and intention to quit (.234) fall outside of the set criteria for acceptable fit.

Table 4.20
CFA of the measurement models

Model fit indices	Employee engagement	Transformational leadership	Job satisfaction 1 (W & P)	Job satisfaction 2 (PR, C, S)	Remuneration, reward and recognition	Intention to quit
Absolute fit measures						
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	.105	.092	.066*	.063*	.13	.234
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	.99	1	.99	.98	.98	1
P-value for test of close fit	.00	.00	.09	.05	.01	.00
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	.99	.99	.98	.97	.95	.99
* $p > .05$						
W = Work itself	P = Pay	PR = Promotion	C = Co-workers	S = Supervision		

The GFI statistic assesses how closely the covariance of the implied model reproduces the observed covariance matrix. It is based on the relevant amount of variance and covariance accounted for by the model. The AGFI measure attempts to account for the different degrees of model complexity by considering the degrees of freedom in the model. The GFI value for all the scales exceeded the cut-off value of .9, suggesting good model fit (Kelloway, 2008). The AGFI criterion of $> .9$ for all the scales was also met.

The results from Table 4.20 indicate that the model does not adequately reproduce the observed data. Only the job satisfaction scale indicated acceptable fit based on the RMSEA measure. Nevertheless, all the scales met the set criteria for the GFI and AGFI measures. PLS path modelling was performed on all the total scales to confirm the CFA results (which in most cases reported norms that fell outside the set criteria) or to gain new insight into the goodness of fit of the model.

4.3.4 PLS path modelling: Measurement model

In order to further test the CFA results of employee engagement, transformational leadership, intention to quit, job satisfaction and remuneration, reward and recognition, a partial least square path modelling analyses was performed, yielding the following results (refer to Table 4.21).

Table 4.21

Average AVE and CR for all the total scales

Scale	AVE*	Composite reliability (CR)
Employee engagement	.77	.91
Transformational leadership	.74	.93
Intention to quit	.76	.93
Job satisfaction	.59	.88
Remuneration, reward and recognition	.48	.82

*Average variance extracted > 0.5

CR > 0.7

An AVE value of >.5 and a composite reliability value of >.7 were utilised as the guideline for the PLS path analysis. The AVE (.48) result for the remuneration, reward and recognition scale indicates that a greater amount of variance in the items is explained by measurement error than by the underlying dimension. This should be borne in mind when interpreting further analysis of the remuneration, reward and recognition scale. Based on the results presented in Table 4.21, the measurement model fit of the employee engagement, transformational leadership, intention to quit and job satisfaction scales could be considered as acceptable.

4.3.5 Correlation analysis

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is a standardised measurement of the strength of the relationship between variables. It was used in the current study to determine the strength of the relationships between the constructs: employee engagement, transformational leadership, intention to quit, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient has been developed in such a manner that the value of r falls within the range -1 to +1. The interpretation of -1 (a perfect

negative correlation), +1 (a perfect positive correlation) and zero (no correlation) is simple (Zikmund, 2003). The strength of the correlations is indicated using Cohen's index of practical significance (effect size), as presented in Table 3.3.

The correlations between the constructs are summarised in Table 4.22, using the total scores.

Table 4.22

Summary table of correlations

	Employee engagement (EE)	Transformational leadership (TL)	Job satisfaction (JS)	Remuneration, reward and recognition (RRR)	Intention to quit (ITQ)
EE	1		0.56*		-.44*
TL	.52*	1	.52*		-.37
JS			1		-.68*
RRR			.72*	1	-.55
ITQ					1

* $p \leq .05$ – statistically significant

Employee engagement is positively related to job satisfaction ($r = .56$; $p < .01$), representing a large effect. This means that the more an academic is engaged in his or her position, the higher the level of job satisfaction. Employee engagement is also negatively related to intention to quit ($r = -.44$; $p < .01$), which is a medium effect size. This therefore implies that an engaged academic would have less intention to quit his or her current position.

Transformational leadership is positively related to both job satisfaction ($r = .52$; $p < .01$) and employee engagement ($r = .52$; $p < .01$), and both correlations are of a medium effect size. This means that an increase in experiencing transformational leadership is associated with higher levels of job satisfaction and employee engagement. Transformational leadership is also negatively related to intention to quit ($r = -.37$; $p < .01$), representing a medium effect size. Thus, an increase in the experience of transformational leadership will result in a decrease in the intention to quit.

Job satisfaction is significantly negatively related to intention to quit ($r = -.68$; $p < .01$), representing a large effect size. This means that the more satisfied academics are within their position, the lower their intention to quit.

Remuneration, reward and recognition are significantly positively related to job satisfaction ($r = .72$; $p < .01$), and the coefficient represents a large effect size. This is an indication that an increase in acceptable remuneration, reward and recognition is associated with higher levels of job satisfaction. Remuneration, reward and recognition are also significantly negatively related to intention to quit ($r = -.55$; $p < .01$), which represents a large effect size.

Even though Table 4.22 illustrates that all the independent variables are significantly related to the dependent variable (intention to quit), their unique contribution to the explanation of intention to quit is still unclear. In order to determine whether each of the independent variables contributes significantly to the prediction (i.e. variance) of intention to quit, multiple regression analysis was performed.

4.3.6 Standard multiple regression

The advantage and power of multiple regression is that it enables the researcher to estimate the effect of each variable, controlling for the other variables. That is, it estimates what the slope would be if all other variables were controlled (Salkind, 2007). These results will assist in predicting intention to quit. The regression model includes employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction and remuneration, reward and recognition as the predictors (independent variables), and intention to quit as the criterion (dependent variable). The results of the multiple regression analysis are explicated in Table 4.23.

In the multiple regression summary for the dependent variable, intention to quit, it was found that $R^2 = .45$, which means that approximately 45% of the variance in intention to quit can be explained by the four variables in the partial model.

The standardised beta coefficient (b^*) indicates that remuneration, reward and recognition have an insignificant negative effect on intention to quit ($b^* = -.07, p = .34$). Based on the b^* it is also evident that transformational leadership has an insignificant relationship with intention to quit ($b^* = .01; p = .83$). The latter finding ties in with the previous negative relationship found by Griffith (2003) and Schlechter (2005).

Table 4.23***Multiple regression model summary (dependent variable; intention to quit)***

R ² = .45			
F(4,184) = 37.624 p < 0.0000 Std. error of estimate: .78836			
N=189	b^*	Standard error of b^*	p-value
Employee engagement	-.18	.07	.01
Transformational leadership	.01	.07	.83
Job satisfaction	-.50	.09	< 0.01
Remuneration, reward and recognition	-.07	.08	.34

Employee engagement has a negative effect on intention to quit ($b^* = -.18, p = .01$), which means that the more engaged an academic is, the less he or she will experience the intention to quit. Job satisfaction has a negative effect on intention to quit, ($b^* = -.50, p < .01$), therefore the higher the job satisfaction levels, the lower the intention to quit. This model is significant ($p < 0.00$). The latter two variables (employee engagement and job satisfaction) appear to be the strongest predictors of intention to quit. The negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit and the negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit are supported by the correlation analysis.

When considering all the results it is clear that there might be mediating factors within the model, considering that remuneration, reward and recognition and transformational leadership were significant as single variables, but not within the entire proposed partial model (refer to Tables 4.18 and 4.22).

4.4 Evaluating the Structural Model

Absolute and comparative fit indices were determined in order to estimate how well the theoretical model fitted the data. These measures determine the degree to which the overall model predicts the observed covariance and correlation matrix (Hair et al., 2006). The SEM path model was fitted using LISREL and was found to result in unacceptable fit (RMSEA = .123). No further interpretation or reporting will be done on the SEM results.

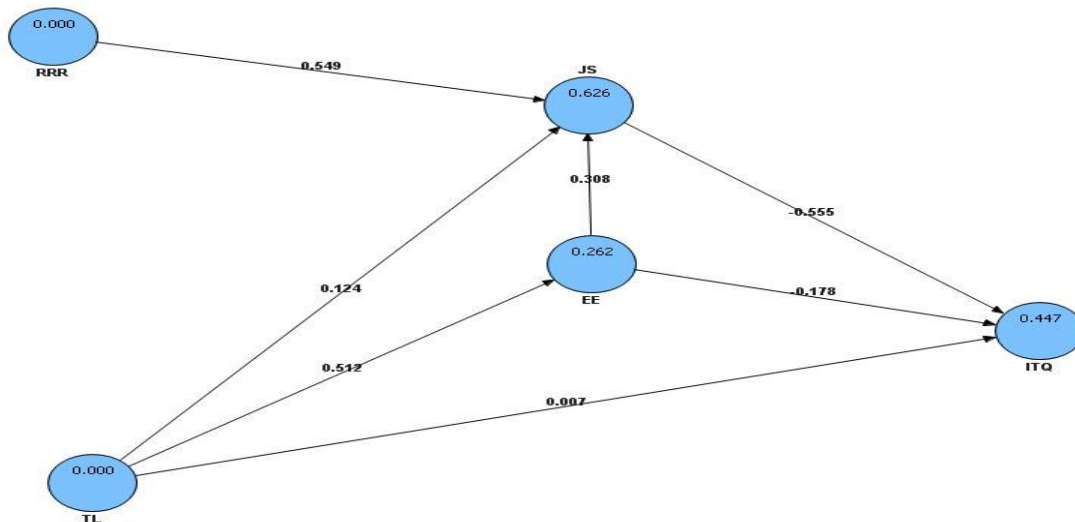
The structural model was also evaluated by using the soft modelling approach to SEM, which involves the use of the partial least squares (PLS) approach. PLS path modelling is normally used for exploration and prediction, and used especially to avoid problems related to small sample sizes. It can estimate very complex models with many latent and manifest variables and has less stringent assumptions about the distribution of variables and error terms (Roux, 2010). According to Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009), the purpose of PLS path modelling is not to test a theory, but rather to facilitate prediction. When using the PLS approach to structural equation modelling, a two-step process is suggested. The first stage evaluates the outer model (which specifies the relationships between a latent variable and its manifest variables – measurement component) (Chin, 1998). The purpose of this evaluation is to determine the measurement quality of the constructs to be used in the evaluation of the inner model (i.e. structural component). From Table 4.18 it can be seen that the measurements used in the evaluation of the inner model provide acceptable levels of reliability. Hence, the evaluation of the inner model can be made without any concern about the quality of the constructs used. The PLS path model results offer an indication of how well the different manifest variables measure the latent variables in the outer model.

In order to determine which paths between the different variables are significant, the bootstrapping method was used. The bootstrapping procedure provides confident intervals for all parameter estimates, building the basis for statistical inference. Commonly, the bootstrap technique provides an estimate of the shape, spread and bias of the sampling distribution of a specific statistic (Roux, 2010). It treats the observed sample as if it represents the population (Davison & Hinkley, 2003; Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). The bootstrapping is used to determine whether coefficients are significant.

Table 4.24***PLS path modelling results***

Path	Path coefficient	Bootstrap lower (95%)	Bootstrap upper (95%)	Significant
Employee engagement to Intention to quit	-.18	-.34	-.02	Yes
Employee engagement to Job satisfaction	.31	.20	.42	Yes
Job satisfaction to Intention to quit	-.56	-.69	-.41	Yes
Remuneration, reward and recognition to Job satisfaction	.55	.45	.63	Yes
Transformational leadership to Employee engagement	.51	.41	.61	Yes
Transformational leadership to Intention to quit	.01	-.13	.15	No
Transformational leadership to Job satisfaction	.12	.00	.25	Yes

In line with the research questions, the PLS path model that was built is depicted in Figure 4.1. The path coefficients are indicated in the figure.



RRR = remuneration, reward and recognition JS = job satisfaction TL = transformational leadership
 EE = employee engagement ITQ = intention to quit

Figure 4.1 PLS path model

The PLS results suggest that, by including employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition in the prediction of intention to quit, 45% of the variance will be explained.

Figure 4.1 indicates that all paths in the structural model are significant, except the path between transformational leadership and intention to quit. It furthermore suggest that transformational leadership explains 26% of the variance in employee engagement, and transformational leadership, employee engagement and remuneration, reward and recognition explain 63% of the variance in job satisfaction in this model. Some significant path coefficients were reported that are supported by findings from the correlation analysis (refer to Table 4.22) and the multiple regression analyses (refer to Table 4.23).

4.5 Concluding Remarks: Chapter 4

This chapter reported on all the results obtained from the sample. The results reported focus on (a) psychometric properties for the measurement instruments; (b) confirmatory factor analysis; (c) PLS path modelling; (d) correlation analysis to test univariate relationships; (e) standard multiple regression; (f) structural equation modelling that did not provide fit on the structural model; and (g) PLS modelling as an alternative. The predictive value of the constructs to predict intention to quit was addressed and will be discussed further in the following chapter. Chapter 5 will focus on a discussion of the reported results, with reference to the relevant literature. The limitations and implications of these findings will also be interpreted and discussed. Recommendations are made for HEIs to rationally and purposefully monitor and manage the retention of Generation Y academics.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction

The overall objective of this research study was to determine antecedents that have a significant effect on intention to quit among Generation Y academics at six HEIs. Equally important was to formulate recommendations to senior management and human resource departments on how to enhance the retention of Generation Y academics.

Chapter 1 focused on the challenges that organisations and HEIs face regarding talent retention. It also provided introductory perspectives highlighting the unique challenges facing the HEIs in South Africa, which have an aging workforce. The chapter concluded with the delineation of the problem statement and research objectives, as well as specifying the outline of the subsequent chapters.

In Chapter 2, various theoretical models pertaining to intention to quit were discussed and, more specifically, the prevalence and challenges of intention to quit in higher education were highlighted. The literature review focused on the development of a phenomenological network to identify variables that could influence the intention to quit of Generation Y academics. Twelve variables formed part of the partial theoretical model. Given the scope of the current study, four variables, namely employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition were identified for discussion in terms of their interrelatedness and their influence on intention to quit.

Chapter 3 presented the research design and methodology that were used in the study to empirically evaluate the proposed partial theoretical model and the hypothesised relationships between the latent variables (see Figure 2.5). The results of the statistical analyses were reported in Chapter 4.

This chapter presents the discussion of the quantitative findings of the current study (as the results of the qualitative phase of the study as well as the demographic profile of the respondents were presented in Chapter 4). The implications of this study for HEIs, together with recommendations for future research, are highlighted to attain the remainder of the objectives that were set for the study, namely:

- To investigate how HEIs can shape their human resource policies and practices to retain employees and reduce the intention to quit among Generation Y academics; and
- To make recommendations to human resource departments and the senior management of HEIs to rationally and purposefully monitor and manage the retention of Generation Y academics.

5.2 Limitations

The discussions, implications as well as the recommendations should take into account the limitations of the study. Although this investigation provided promising results and positive methodological strengths, a few limitations regarding the sample, research design and proposed partial model deserve specific discussion.

The sample included only six HEIs out of the 23 HEIs in South Africa. According to the classification of Boughey and Botha (2011), it was mostly traditional universities that were included in the study (five of the six), and one comprehensive university. The current study excluded universities of technology. This may pose a potential limitation to the generalisability of these results, thus the findings should be generalised with circumspection. In future investigations, a more representative sample of all HEI types could yield interesting results.

The research design that was followed could be considered a further limitation. Due to the cross-sectional design utilised by the current study, causality could not be determined. The study of the relationships between employee engagement, transformational leadership, intention to quit, job satisfaction and remuneration, reward and recognition could further

benefit from a longitudinal design. In this study, an ex post facto design was followed and therefore independent variables could not be manipulated. However, regardless of the limitations, ex post facto designs are used commonly, as large numbers of variables related to society cannot be manipulated. Due to this limitation, both significant and non-significant relationships should be reported.

On the basis of the literature review, numerous variables were identified to influence intention to quit. Due to the delineation of the study, only four variables were included in the partial model. The model did not make provision for mediating and/or moderating variables and non-cognitive factors that could influence intention to quit (for example the psychological capital (PsyCap) construct that includes hope, resilience, optimism and self-efficacy). It was evident from the research results in Chapter 4 that mediating or moderating variables might be present, especially between the relationship of transformational leadership and intention to quit, and that a relationship might exist between remuneration, reward and recognition and intention to quit, based on the literature review in Section 2.6.4. Further antecedents of intention to quit among Generation Y academics (for example, academic freedom and job security) were also raised in the focus groups and blog, but could not be included in the scope of this study. Even though samples for qualitative investigations tend to be small, the sample of the focus groups and blog could be seen as a limitation due to the small size.

The final limitation refers to the exclusion of socio-economic and situational variables, such as alternative job opportunities and other responsibilities, which could include family or community responsibilities. Most participants in the focus groups agreed that they would not have the intention to quit or quit their current job should they not have an alternative position. However, certain family responsibilities (for example a spouse relocating, an infant child, an elderly parent) would have an impact on their decision to quit should no other alternative be available. The following sections discuss the quantitative findings of the study. These results should be interpreted with due regard for the stated limitations of the study.

5.3 Conclusions Regarding the Psychometric Properties of the Measurement Instruments

According to Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000), evidence is needed that the apparent indicators are valid and reliable measures of the latent variables they are linked to. This will enable the researcher to construct valid and credible conclusions regarding the ability of the structural model to explain the pattern of covariance in the hypothesised model.

The psychometric properties of the measuring instruments indicated acceptable to highly acceptable alphas, ranging between .70 and .96. However, the variance extracted (VE) for the job satisfaction sub-scale, work itself, and the remuneration, reward and recognition scale recorded VE values below the set criterion. Therefore, the work itself sub-scale (alpha = .70) and remuneration, reward and recognition scale (alpha = .73) must be used with caution and future analyses must be performed in an attempt to increase the reliability of these measures. The work itself sub-scale is less of a concern, as it formed part of the total multidimensional job satisfaction scale, which yielded acceptable results ($\alpha = .75$).

5.4 Conclusions Regarding the Correlations between Variables

The correlation analyses are interpreted for each construct against the backdrop of the existing literature. The strength of the correlations was assessed using Cohen's index of practical significance (effect size) (refer to Table 3.3).

A significant positive relationship exists between employee engagement and job satisfaction. The observed correlation ($r = .56$) is an indication of a large positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction. This implies that the more an academic employee is engaged in his or her job, the higher the level of job satisfaction. This finding is in accordance with previous research by Buckingham and Coffman (1999) and Shuck and Wollard (2010).

Employee engagement is significantly negatively related to intention to quit. The r-value ($r = -.44$) indicates a definite but medium negative relationship between employee engagement

and intention to quit. The employee engagement literature has consistently pointed to the important role employee engagement plays in relation to intention to quit (Berry, 2010; Demerouti, Bakker, Janssen & Schaufeli, 2001; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Simpson, 2009; Sonnentag, 2003), and the findings of this study parallel that research stream. Berry indicated a strong relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit for the population of academics in HEIs in Australia. Therefore, the results suggest that engaged employees are less likely to experience intention to quit. Engaged employees can be a great asset to the institution, as being engaged positively affects employee retention and absenteeism (Cook & Green, 2011) and contributes to a positive attitude towards, and pride in, the institution. These employees are also willing to perform altruistically, exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and are good team workers. In addition, engaged employees perceive that the institution enables them to perform well, which might lead to their willingness to go beyond the requirements of the job (Marshall, 2011). Teaching, conducting research and being involved in community interaction are all required from an academic. Therefore, HEIs can only benefit from engaged academics, as they are willing to go beyond the minimum requirements of the job.

Transformational leadership displays a significant positive relationship with employee engagement ($r = .52$) and job satisfaction ($r = .52$), and both correlations are of a medium effect. The current findings support the findings of Tims, Bakker and Xanthopoulou (2011), who confirmed that transformational leadership has a significant positive relationship with employee engagement. The correlation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction is in agreement with previous research (Emery & Barker, 2007; Firth et al., 2004; Tepper, 2000; Wang, Chontawan & Nantsupawat, 2011; Yang, 2009). These findings imply that transformational leadership behaviour has a significant association with employee engagement and job satisfaction levels among Generation Y academics at the HEIs that participated in this study. The results of the qualitative phase provided additional support for the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, as the participants stressed the importance of distinguishing between departmental leadership and organisational leadership. They argued that departmental level leadership would have a greater impact on job satisfaction than organisational leadership. The current study focused on departmental leadership when referring to leadership instead of organisational leadership,

therefore departmental leaders should portray transformational leadership behaviour. However, the study does not suggest that organisational level leadership should not also portray transformational leadership behaviour. Conversely, the study conducted by Mester et al. (2003) found that transformational leadership does not correlate significantly with job satisfaction. However, they postulated that both the status and gender of the sample could have influenced the results.

Transformational leadership is also found to be negatively related to intention to quit ($r = -.37$), representing a medium effect. Therefore, should academics experience a transformational leadership style, their intention to quit will decrease. The correlation analysis findings concur with the qualitative research findings, as one of the blog respondents communicated that “My reasons for wanting to leave or having the intention of leaving would be due to the lack of leadership within the workplace...” Previous literature has also reported transformational leadership to be negatively related to intention to quit, as well as being a significant predictor of turnover intention (Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995; Connell, Ferres & Travaglione, 2003; Ferres, Travaglione & Connell, 2002). On the other hand, research conducted by Griffith (2003) among primary school staff found that transformational leadership was not associated directly with staff turnover. It showed an indirect relationship, mediated by staff job satisfaction. Schlechter (2005) also reported no significant relationship between transformational leadership and intention to quit.

A significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and intention to quit ($r = -.68$) is reported based on the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis, representing a large effect. This relationship has been researched heavily (Chen, 2006; Elangovan, 2001; Firth et al., 2004; Hellman, 1997; Mobley, Griffith, Hand & Meglino, 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price, 1997; Rosser, 2004) and the findings support the negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit. Therefore, the lower the job satisfaction levels of academics, the higher the propensity for academics to leave. Participants in the focus groups and respondents of the intention to quit blog reiterated the negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit. From these results and the previous literature, it is evident that Generation Y academics at the respective HEIs would be more likely to remain with the institutions if they experienced job satisfaction in the workplace.

Remuneration, reward and recognition are significantly positively related to job satisfaction ($r=.72$). The r -value indicates a definite large positive relationship between remuneration, reward and recognition and job satisfaction. The results are in accordance with previous findings (Irvine, 2010; Janas, 2009). Based on the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis, remuneration, reward and recognition have a negative relationship with intention to quit ($r = -.55$), which represents a large effect. Respondents of the intention to quit blog provide further confirmation that inadequate remuneration, reward and recognition will have an effect on their intention to quit. It is important to remember that remuneration, reward and recognition policies should include monetary and non-monetary rewards, as both motivate individuals (Dinnell, 2007).

As limited empirical research on the relationship between remuneration, reward and recognition, job satisfaction and intention to quit has been conducted, the current findings add to the knowledge base in the field of remuneration, reward and recognition.

5.5 Conclusions Regarding the Prediction of Intention to Quit: Multiple Regression

The multiple regression analysis indicates that approximately 45% of the variance in intention to quit is explained by the four variables in the partial model, namely employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition. Employee engagement and job satisfaction are significant predictors of intention to quit, but transformational leadership and remuneration, reward and recognition did not reach significance. As evident from Table 4.23, the standard beta coefficients for employee engagement and job satisfaction are negative. Therefore, an engaged academic who experiences job satisfaction is less likely to experience the intention to quit.

Three models of intention to quit were discussed in Chapter 2 (refer to Section 2.2) to establish the theoretical background to the current study. Firstly, the study conducted by Oehley (2007) established that approximately 50% of the variance in intention to quit could be explained in terms of the Oehley model (see Figure 2.1). Another study investigating intention to quit reported that an insignificant negative relationship exists between job satisfaction and

turnover intention (Dhladhla, 2011). Finally, the study by Berry (2010) acknowledged that both employee engagement and compensation fairness relate inversely to turnover intention. Conversely, employee engagement was found to be a much stronger antecedent of turnover intention for the population of academics in higher education. Job satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intent, or between compensation fairness and turnover intent. Two South African studies (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2006; Pienaar & Bester, 2008) conducted among academics at HEIs suggest that job satisfaction and employee engagement should be addressed more proactively and effectively. Their reasons include the decrease in commitment and mental and physical health, problematic collegial relationships and a decrease in the quality of work life, should these antecedents of intention to quit not be addressed. Therefore, should HEIs ignore these issues, it will be to the detriment of the academics' well-being, as well as to the sustainability of the HEI.

5.6 Conclusions Regarding the Prediction of Intention to Quit: PLS Path Modelling

From evaluating the overall fit of the structural model in LISREL, the results indicate that the model did not produce a good fit, as portrayed by the RMSEA measure of fit. As an alternative, the structural model was evaluated using PLS path modelling (refer to Section 4.4). The PLS path coefficients produced significant paths between:

- Employee engagement and job satisfaction
- Employee engagement and intention to quit
- Transformational leadership and job satisfaction
- Transformational leadership and employee engagement
- Job satisfaction and intention to quit
- Remuneration, reward and recognition and job satisfaction

The findings of the PLS path modelling analyses are supported by the Pearson product-moment correlation findings, which reported significant relationships for all of the above paths. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and multiple regression analysis further

showed a significant relationship between transformational leadership and intention to quit, which was not corroborated by the PLS path modelling analysis.

5.7 Revisiting the Research Hypotheses and Summary of the Results

In this section, the results of the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis as well as the path coefficients are discussed. It is important to note that the correlation analysis was performed on the constructs and not on their sub-scales. The PLS path modelling results that are reported focused on the prediction of intention to quit by means of path coefficients.

The paths between the variables employee engagement and job satisfaction (hypothesis one), employee engagement and intention to quit (hypothesis two), transformational leadership and employee engagement (hypothesis three), transformational leadership and job satisfaction (hypothesis four), job satisfaction and intention to quit (hypothesis six), and remuneration, reward and recognition and job satisfaction (hypothesis seven) of the structural model are significant. However, the path between the latent variables transformational leadership and intention to quit are not significant. Therefore, only hypothesis five is rejected. The significance of the path coefficients was determined through the bootstrapping method, as mentioned in Chapter 3.

Hypothesis one: Employee engagement has a significant positive influence on job satisfaction. The Pearson product-moment correlation analysis confirms a statistically significant relationship pertaining to hypothesis one – employee engagement positively correlates with job satisfaction. Significant paths in the PLS path model between employee engagement and job satisfaction provide additional support for hypothesis one, thus hypothesis one can be accepted.

Hypothesis two: Employee engagement has a significant negative influence on intention to quit. The Pearson product-moment correlation analysis confirms a statistically significant relationships pertaining to hypothesis two – employee engagement negatively correlates with intention to quit. The multiple regression analysis supports the hypothesis by indicating a significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to

quit. Based on the PLS path modelling, employee engagement has a negative effect on intention to quit. Hypothesis two is therefore accepted.

Hypothesis three: The experience of positive transformational leadership behaviour has a significant positive influence on employee engagement. The Pearson product-moment correlation analysis found a significant correlation between transformational leadership and employee engagement, therefore confirming this hypothesis. This relationship is echoed by the PLS path modelling results. Hypothesis three is thus accepted.

Hypothesis four: The experience of positive transformational leadership behaviour has a significant positive influence on job satisfaction. The Pearson product-moment correlation analysis confirms a statistically significant relationship pertaining to hypothesis four – transformational leadership positively correlates with job satisfaction. Significant paths in the PLS path model between transformational leadership and job satisfaction provide additional support for hypothesis four, thus hypothesis four is accepted.

Hypothesis five: The experience of positive transformational leadership behaviour has a significant negative influence on intention to quit. The Pearson product-moment correlation analysis confirms a significant correlation between transformational leadership and intention to quit. However, no evidence for the relationship between transformational leadership and intention to quit could be found from the multiple regression analysis. Further support for the multiple regression analysis was found in the PLS path model, which indicates a non-significant path between transformational leadership and intention to quit. Therefore, hypothesis five is rejected.

Hypothesis six: Job satisfaction has a significant negative influence on intention to quit. The Pearson product-moment correlation analysis confirms the statistically significant relationship pertaining to hypothesis six, namely job satisfaction negatively correlates with intention to quit. The multiple regression analysis supports the hypothesis by indicating a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit. The PLS path model reports a significant path between job satisfaction and intention to quit, leading to the acceptance of hypothesis six.

Hypothesis seven: Acceptable remuneration, reward and recognition have a significant positive influence on job satisfaction. The Pearson product-moment correlation analysis confirms a statistically significant relationship pertaining to hypothesis seven, namely that remuneration, reward and recognition significantly correlates with job satisfaction. Further support for this hypothesis is found in the PLS path model, which indicates a significant path between remuneration, reward and recognition and job satisfaction. These results are summarised in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1
Summary of Statistical Analysis

Variables	Cronbach's alpha	CFA RMSEA AGFI	p-value	GFI	Correlation	Multiple regression	PLS – Sig	
Employee engagement (EE)	.90	.105	.00	.99	.99	JS = .56 ITQ = -.44	r = -.18 (p=.01)	JS – Yes ITQ – Yes
Transformational leadership (TL)	.96	.092	.00	1	.99	EE = .52 JS = .52 ITQ = -.37	r = .01 (p=.83)	JS – Yes EE – Yes ITQ – No
Job satisfaction (JS)	.75	.63/.66	.09/05	.99/.98	.98/.97	ITQ = -.68	r = -.50 (p<.01)	ITQ – Yes
Remuneration , reward and recognition (RRR)	.73	.13	.01	.98	.99	JS = .72	r = -.07 (p=.34)	JS – Yes
Intention to quit (ITQ)	.90	.234	.00	1	.99			

Attention now turns to the remainder of the objectives that were set for the study.

5.8 Practical Implications for the Present Study

Employee turnover remains a concern in the current workplace, and even more so in HEIs. The conclusions regarding the current study hold a variety of implications for HEIs. Efforts to curb intention to quit should focus on the specific antecedents found to have a significant relationship with intention to quit. The results of this study indicate that the strongest relationships were evident between job satisfaction and intention to quit, as well as between

employee engagement and intention to quit. However, it is suggested that HEIs consider following the Gestalt approach in order to retain Generation Y academics.

The Gestalt principle focuses on the effects of holistic patterns or configurations on perception (Strickland, 2001). According to Darity (2008, p. 310), natural wholes, according to the Gestalt view, "...are not simply the sum total of their constituent parts". Therefore, the current study suggests that HEIs should look at the retention of Generation Y academics from a holistic perspective, and not only on the basis of certain aspects. The PLS results suggest that by including employee engagement, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition in the prediction of intention to quit, 45% of the variance will be explained. This substantial proportion of the variance explained in intention to quit suggests that the variables included in this model have good predictive utility in understanding the intention of the current sample with respect to quitting. Therefore, HEIs must consider paying attention to all these antecedents. However, it may be neither practical nor possible to address all these concerns at once. Nevertheless, when considering intention to quit, the management of HEIs should prioritise action plans in the short, medium and long-term. Therefore, this study recommends that job satisfaction and employee engagement interventions take precedence over the short term.

On a national level, the management of HEIs should ensure that their strategic human resource plans focus on the retention of Generation Y academics throughout their career cycle. To develop an effective retention strategy for HEIs, cognisance should be taken of the central importance of communication. No strategy within human resources can effectively be executed without purposeful communication. This is even more important for Generation Y academics, as they prefer to understand clearly how they contribute to the success of the institution, what parameters they are working within, and what direction they are working towards. Communication must be specific, and timely, and it should always be ensured that the receiver understands the message (Sujansky & Ferri-Reed, 2009).

Faculties and support divisions in HEIs can no longer work in silos; they need to work in partnership if they wish to retain the next generation of academics. It is also of importance

that the management of HEIs establish whether their institution is receptive to Generation Y academics and, if not, why. Corrective steps should be viewed as a matter of priority.

The following sections will focus mainly on recommendations for improving job satisfaction and employee engagement levels among Generation Y academics at HEIs.

5.8.1 Job satisfaction and Generation Y academics

In this study, job satisfaction is regarded as a multidimensional construct, as it contains several factors, such as satisfaction with work itself, and with pay, the supervisor, promotional opportunities and co-workers. The management of HEIs may need to evaluate the job satisfaction of their academics in order to determine specific factors that either cause dissatisfaction or reduce satisfaction. The institution's context may result in the identification of unique factors between faculties within the institution, or between different institutions. In order for South African HEIs to progress in achieving continuous improvement in their quality, research should be conducted on retention mechanisms and the results should be circulated to the wider higher education community (Mammen, 2006).

From both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the current study it was evident that the job satisfaction of Generation Y academics could improve if attention was paid to the following managerial and job related aspects:

- Involvement in teaching modules that falls within their field of interest and expertise;
- Granting them autonomy in determining the direction of their own research;
- Providing opportunities for continued learning, which should include the availability of research leave and flexible working hours in order to complete their further studies;
- Fostering positive interpersonal relationships between colleagues by providing ample opportunity for discourse;
- Good representation of all age groups within the department, faculty and institution; and
- Preserving and building the reputation and status of the HEI.

Promotional opportunities in an academic's early career are regarded as an indication of growth and development, which could lead to an increase in job satisfaction. Therefore, focus

should also be placed on performance management and promotion opportunities. Regular feedback sessions should be held with young academics regarding their performance and to determine their personal development goals. Normally, promotion and growth in the academic field are dependent on obtaining a PhD qualification, having a sound research record and actively being involved in community interaction. The attainment of these criteria is influenced by the availability of time. Most junior academics carry a large lecture load, resulting in very little time for research. HEIs should caution against becoming 'greedy' institutions (Coser, 1974), where unmanageable pressure is placed on academics to perform equally well in all three key performance areas, namely teaching, research and community interaction. It is recommended that performance contracts be developed based on the individual's career phase and that these are reflective of realistic career goals, enabling Generation Y academics to take ownership of modules at both the undergraduate and postgraduate level, which might serve as motivation. Opportunities could be created for Generation Y academics to form academic communities, where like-minded Generation Y individuals can learn from each other, engage in discourse and form a community of practice.

As Generation Y employees strive for their work to contribute to the greater good of society (Sujansky & Ferri-Reed, 2009), HEIs should re-visit their vision, mission and values in order to attract and retain Generation Y academics. The academic profession exists in order to contribute to the body of knowledge in South Africa and internationally. Therefore, creating a vision, mission and value system that emphasise the contribution the institution makes to the greater good of society could influence the retention levels of Generation Y academics.

5.8.2 Employee engagement and Generation Y academics

The management of HEIs should systematically attend to the employee engagement levels of academic staff by measuring them (for example, by conducting interviews or compiling an employee engagement questionnaire). The resultant interventions should address the most important aspects that have an impact on the employee engagement levels of Generation Y academics. Five focal areas that can be addressed in South African HEIs were identified in previous research (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2006; Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006). Firstly, it is important to ensure that academics have variety, learning opportunities and autonomy in their

jobs. These characteristics will contribute to the meaningfulness of an academic's work, which is an important consideration in the current management culture of HEIs. Secondly, academics must have the resources to do their work. Resources include, but are not limited to, challenging tasks and the availability of assistants. Thirdly, it should be acknowledged that academic leaders play an important role in promoting employee engagement. In addition, interventions should be implemented to ensure organisational support, including role clarity, good relationships with supervisors, clear communication of information and participation in decision making. Lastly, advancement opportunities should be provided that include the remuneration, promotion and training of academics.

Schabracq (2003) has highlighted five ways in which transformational leaders can enhance employee engagement and, potentially, job satisfaction: (a) acknowledge and reward good performance instead of exclusively correcting sub-standard performance; (b) be fair towards individuals; (c) put problems on the agenda and discuss these in an open, constructive and problem-solving manner; (d) coach the staff by helping them with setting goals, planning their work, pointing out pitfalls, and giving advice as necessary; and (e) interview staff members on a regular basis about their personal functioning, professional development and career development. On the basis of the recommendations by Schabracq, institutions should also focus on improving and developing line managers' skills through careful recruitment and development processes (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005; Maccoby, 2007).

Accountability is a robust way to build an engagement culture (Macey et al., 2009). Shuck and Wollard (2010) suggest that accountability could be developed by linking performance appraisals to data-driven metric systems that include equally weighted measures of business performance and organisational culture performance. Should the institution choose to use engagement in this way, two pieces of communication take on great importance, as reported by Harter et al. (2002):

- (1) It must be communicated that the intended use of performance appraisals are to be constructive, not destructive, and they should be used as one of the ways in which engagement is developed, but not the only way; and

- (2) Managers must be provided with the resources and tools they will need to improve low-level scores, such as access to human resource development professionals, training and development or time away from day-to-day responsibilities to focus on improving performance.

It is apparent that many possibilities exist for future studies to explore the relationships between employee engagement, transformational leadership, intention to quit, job satisfaction, and remuneration, reward and recognition. The following section aims to provide some guidance to future researchers in the field of intention to quit in the higher education sector.

5.9 Recommendations for Future Research

Following from the results and limitations of the current study, the following recommendations are made for future research:

- Include more HEIs in South Africa that represent traditional and comprehensive universities, as well as universities of technology;
- Consider a longitudinal design in which inferences in terms of cause and effect could be made over a longer period of time;
- Explore the apparent mediators and/or moderators in the path between transformational leadership and intention to quit;
- Consider a more comprehensive model, which includes factors such as academic freedom, burnout and PsyCap constructs; and
- Take into account the general economic and situational conditions that could affect alternative employment options and, in turn, could influence the respondents' decision on intention to quit.

Overall, this study represents a useful contribution towards understanding the complex nature of Generation Y academics at HEIs and their intention to quit.

5.10 Concluding Remarks: Chapter 5

This study contributes to our knowledge of intention to quit among Generation Y academics in HEIs. It furthermore provides evidence of the complexity and inter-relatedness of variables in the phenomenological network of intention to quit. It is evident that improving both job satisfaction and employee engagement among Generation Y academics is important for the continued growth of HEIs in South Africa. The findings of this study can inform the modification or creation of human resource policies and procedures to retain the new generation of academics in South African HEIs. This, in turn, will ensure the sustainability of HEIs in South Africa, on the African continent, and internationally. I hope that this will stimulate future research on Generation Y academics and their intention to quit at HEIs in South Africa.

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APPENDIX A

Focus group invitation letter



UNIVERSITEIT-SELLENBOSCH-UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

Dear Academic staff member

You are invited to take part in the focus group: **Intention to quit among Generation Y academics at Higher Education Institutions**. This study is being conducted by Ms Anecia Robyn, a Master's student of the Department of Industrial Psychology at Stellenbosch University, under my supervision.

The aim of this study is to investigate antecedents that contribute to the intention to quit among Generation Y academics at higher education institutions. This study will contribute to enhance the shortage of existing literature regarding higher education academia in a South African context and assist higher education institutions management with the necessary tools to develop retention strategies and mechanisms to retain generation Y academics.

Your privacy is highly respected. A voice-recording device will be used to store conversations for analysis. NO visual camera will be used as to secure your anonymity. Only the researcher will have direct contact with you during the focus group. Your anonymity will be secured as no personal information is required from you. Demographic variables will have to be completed which only reflects your gender, age, ethnic group, citizenship, length of service at institution, highest qualifications, job grade, institution, department and faculty. No individual identity can be reconstituted from this data. In addition the data will only be used in terms of aggregate results, reflecting the answers of all respondents. You will be asked to complete a written consent form.

Your participation is of critical value, as it will assist Ms Robyn to complete her MComm thesis and attain her academic qualification. Please confirm by Thursday, 27 January 2011 via e-mail (arobyn@sun.ac.za) response whether you would be willing to participant in the focus group. The focus group will take place on Monday, 31 January at 11:00 on your campus at Main Library on level 9 (work room). You are welcome to contact me if you require any further information (021-8083011 or rdp@sun.ac.za).

Yours sincerely

Prof R du Preez

INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY: SELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

APPENDIX B
Intention to quit survey

Please take a moment to complete this questionnaire. Your answers will guide the researcher to make suggestion to top management on how to retain academics and will be reported in statistical form only. Thank you for your assistance.

For questions, please send an e-mail to aneciarobyn@rocketmail.com

SECTION A

Your biographical information in this study is very important, and is required for statistical purposes only. This information as well as all your responses will not be revealed to any person other than the researcher(s). You are requested to mark with a cross (X) inside the box that contains the information that best describes you.

Gender: Male Female

Age : 20 – 24 25 – 30 older than 30

Ethnic group: African Coloured Indian White Other

Length of service at institution: 0-2 years 3-5 years 6+ years

Highest qualification: Bachelor's degree Honours Master's PhD

Job title: Junior Lecturer/Junior Researcher Lecturer/Researcher

Snr Lecturer/Snr Researcher Associate Professor/Chief Researcher

Department _____

Faculty _____

Institution _____

.....**END OF SECTION A**.....

SECTION B - EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

This section consists of 9 statements that are about how you **feel** at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the "0" (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by marking statement that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

1	At my institution, I feel bursting with energy	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	At my institution, I feel strong and vigorous	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I am enthusiastic about my job	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	My job inspires me	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I feel happy when I am working intensely	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I am proud of the work that I do	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I am immersed in my work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I get carried away when I'm working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

.....**END OF SECTION B**.....

SECTION C - TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The aim of this section is to provide a description of leadership. Please describe the leadership style of your direct supervisor/line manager when answering the following questions. For each statement, please indicate how often the person you report to displays the behaviour described, by using the following 6-point scale (Almost Never to Almost Always)

Almost Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently	Almost Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

10	My immediate supervisor/manager acts in ways that builds my respect	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	My immediate supervisor/manager re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor/manager talks about his/her most important values and beliefs	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	My immediate supervisor/manager seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	My immediate supervisor/manager talks optimistically about the future	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My immediate supervisor/manager instils pride in being associated with him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	My supervisor/manager talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	My supervisor/manager specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	My supervisor/manager spends time supporting and coaching	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	My supervisor/manager goes beyond his/her self-interest for the good of the group	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	My supervisor/manager treats you as an individual rather than just as a member of the group	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor/manager considers the moral and ethical consequences of his/her decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6

22	My supervisor/manager displays a sense of power and confidence	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	My supervisor/manager articulates a compelling vision of the future	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	My supervisor/manager considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	My supervisor/manager gets me to look at problems from many different angles	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	My supervisor/manager helps me to develop my strengths	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	My supervisor/manager suggests new ways of looking at how to complete tasks/assignments	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	My supervisor/manager emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	My supervisor/manager expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	1	2	3	4	5	6

.....**END OF SECTION C**.....

SECTION D – INTENTION TO QUIT

For the following statements, please indicate **HOW FREQUENTLY** you consider the following. Indicate your response by placing a cross (X) in the relevant space. Please respond to all the statements.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

30	Wanting to leave this institution	1	2	3	4	5
31	Searching for another position	1	2	3	4	5
32	Planning to leave this institution	1	2	3	4	5
33	Actually leaving this institution within the next year	1	2	3	4	5

.....**END OF SECTION D**.....

SECTION E – JOB SATISFACTION

The following statements describe how you feel about different aspects of your job. Read each statement carefully and indicate the extent to which you are satisfied with each aspect of your job. There are no *right* or *wrong* answers, therefore please try to respond to ALL statements as honestly as possible. Please mark the box that contains the information that you think best describes the level of your satisfaction with each aspect of your job.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

34	My work is satisfying	1	2	3	4	5
35	My work is boring	1	2	3	4	5
36	My work is good	1	2	3	4	5
37	My work is tiresome	1	2	3	4	5
38	My work is challenging	1	2	3	4	5
39	My work gives me a sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5
40	My income is adequate for normal expenses	1	2	3	4	5
41	I am underpaid	1	2	3	4	5
42	My pay is bad	1	2	3	4	5
43	My pay is less than I deserve	1	2	3	4	5
44	I am highly paid	1	2	3	4	5
45	My income is barely enough to live on	1	2	3	4	5
46	There are good opportunities for advancement at my institution	1	2	3	4	5
47	Opportunities are somewhat limited at my institution	1	2	3	4	5
48	Promotions are based on ability at my institution	1	2	3	4	5
49	My job is a dead-end job	1	2	3	4	5
50	There is a good chance for promotion at my institution	1	2	3	4	5
51	My institution has an unfair promotion policy	1	2	3	4	5
52	My supervisors are hard to please	1	2	3	4	5
53	My supervisors are impolite	1	2	3	4	5
54	My supervisors are tactful	1	2	3	4	5

55	My supervisors are quick-tempered	1	2	3	4	5
56	My supervisors are annoying	1	2	3	4	5
57	My supervisors are stubborn	1	2	3	4	5
58	My colleagues are boring	1	2	3	4	5
59	My colleagues are slow	1	2	3	4	5
60	My colleagues are stupid	1	2	3	4	5
61	My colleagues are intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
62	It is easy to make enemies of my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
63	My colleagues are lazy	1	2	3	4	5

.....**END OF SECTION E**.....

SECTION F – REMUNERATION, REWARD AND RECOGNITION

The following statements relate to the way in which you perceive employee engagement at your institution. Indicate your response by placing a cross (X) in the relevant space. Please respond to all the statements

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

64	Employees are given positive recognition when they produce high-quality work	1	2	3	4	5
65	This institution pays well	1	2	3	4	5
66	This institution offers a good benefits package compared to other institutions	1	2	3	4	5
67	This institution values individual excellence over team work	1	2	3	4	5
68	This institution offers good opportunities for promotion	1	2	3	4	5

.....**END OF SECTION F**.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!

APPENDIX C
Pre-notice e-mail

Dear Academic

I know this is an extremely busy time of the year for all academics. You will shortly receive an invitation to partake in a study that will investigate **Intention to Quit among Generation Y academics at Higher Education Institutions**.

Your valued input is pertinent to the success of this study, as only 180 academic staff members make up the sample.

Best wishes and good luck with all the marking and research projects to be finalized in this time.

Kind regards

Anecia Robyn

APPENDIX D
Survey invitation



INTENTION TO QUIT AMONG GENERATION Y ACADEMICS AT HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Dear Academic Staff Member

You are invited to take part in the survey: Intention to quit among Generation Y academics at higher education institutions. This survey is being conducted by Ms Anecia Robyn, a Masters student in the Department of Industrial Psychology at Stellenbosch University under the supervision of Prof Ronel du Preez.

What would lead you to quit your current academic position?

State your opinion! Within the following survey you have the opportunity to state your opinion and bring it to the attention of Senior Management, what is important to you as a Generation Y academic member within your institution. This can lead to an improvement in your working conditions and career growth as Management might be more informed of what factors are important to retain you. It will take only **15 minutes** to complete the entire web-questionnaire.

The aim of this study is to investigate antecedents that contribute to the intention to quit among Generation Y academics at higher education institutions. The results will assist higher education institutions management with the necessary tools to develop retention strategies and mechanisms to retain generation Y academics.

Privacy and Confidentiality

Within this survey we highly respect your privacy. Your anonymity will be secured as no personal information is required from you as a responder. The statistical information, which is collected as part of the questionnaire, only reflects your gender, age, ethnic group, length of service at institution, highest qualifications, job title, department, faculty, and institution,. No individual identity can be reconstituted from this data. In addition, the data will only be used in terms of aggregate results, reflecting the answers of all respondents.

Your feedback - Results? Your feedback will contribute to possible recommendations to Senior

Management and HR departments to retain Generation Y academics.

Questions?

If you have any questions with regards to this survey please do not hesitate to contact me at aneciारobyn@rocketmail.com

If you decide to participate, please click on the link below.

Thank you for your valued time, input and participation.

Anecia Robyn (researcher)

APPENDIX E
Survey reminder



INTENTION TO QUIT AMONG GENERATION Y ACADEMICS AT HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Good morning,

Have you responded to the study yet?

So far, we do not have enough answers! The platform has been online for 1 week now, but only **XX out of XX** possible respondents have filled in the questionnaire.

Please take part! This survey is supposed to result in recommendations to Senior Management and HR departments in order to develop retention strategies for Generation Y academics. But without your answers no recommendations can be made and no improvement can take place in the work place! It will take only **15 minutes** to complete the entire web-questionnaire.

Just click on this link below!

Your privacy will be secured as no personal information will be required from you as a responder.

You cannot give any feedback on the system/don't want to respond?

If you cannot or don't want to respond to the survey, which is legitimate, please at least respond to this email with a short notice and maybe add your reason.

It is very difficult to interpret the 'no responses'.

You have already responded? Thank you for your feedback!

Kind regards

Anecia Robyn