

**PERCEPTIONS REGARDING ORGANISATIONAL
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN SOUTH AFRICAN RETAIL
FIRMS**

By

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the research contained in this document is a result of my own original and independent work and investigation, except where otherwise stated. All sources are acknowledged and referenced.

This thesis is submitted to the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Philosophiae Doctor in Business Management.

This work has not previously been accepted in substance or otherwise, for any degree and is not concurrently being submitted in candidature for any other degree.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The wholesale and retail industry is a more volatile industry, with respect to cyclical changes and global economic conditions, than many other industries. The growth of technology in this industry has led to informed customers, bringing with them many challenges to retailers, as these retailers have to win customer loyalty by focusing not only on prices and quality, but also on global competition. The heterogeneity as well as the illusive preferences, expectations, personality characteristics, attitudes, and desires of customers have created diverse and fast-evolving customer demand. As a result, retailers need to source highly customer-focused employees who are willing to go beyond their expected call of duties to satisfy customer needs and wants, thereby keeping firms competitive. This behaviour is called organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). OCB involves extra-role performance, which represents behaviours not formally required by any particular job, but which help to develop the social context of all jobs, thus facilitating effectiveness. Thus, retailers who encourage OCB among their employees are more likely to improve the performance of both the organisation and the employees, and increase the organisation's competitiveness in the global economy.

The primary objective of this study is to assess the perceptions of employees regarding OCB within retail firms in South Africa. A positivistic research paradigm was used, in this study, by means of quantitative research. Secondary data in the form of textbooks, journal articles and Internet sources provided the theoretical framework for this study. Primary data was obtained using the survey method, by means of self-administered structured questionnaires. The aim was to target 1000 employees in the retail industry (250 employees from each of the most economically active provinces, namely, the Eastern Cape; the Western Cape, Gauteng and Kwa-Zulu Natal). However, 690 questionnaires were returned and only 554 were usable, which amounts to an effective response rate of 80%. Seven null-hypotheses and a hypothetical model of employee perceptions regarding OCB behaviour in retail firms were tested. The influence of four independent

variables were tested, these are: job perceptions, role considerations, organisational climate and employment considerations on OCB. In addition, three dependent variables, namely, employee commitment, propensity to leave and employee engagement were tested. The Statistica (version 12) computer programme was used to analyse the results by means of advanced statistical techniques (such as exploratory factor analysis, regression and correlation analysis) as well as descriptive analysis and frequency distributions. After various statistical procedures, the model was re-specified, some of the variables were renamed and the hypotheses were adjusted accordingly.

The empirical results revealed that job considerations and employment considerations have a positive influence on both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts, while role considerations and job security were found to have no significant influence on both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. Furthermore, the empirical results showed that OCB related to compassion have a positive influence on both organisational commitment and propensity to resign, while OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts has a positive influence on organisational commitment and its influence on propensity to resign was not significant.

It is envisaged that the results of this study could assist retail firms to understand the variables that influence the organisational citizenship behaviour of employees. In addition, it is further envisaged that the results and recommendations of this study could be used to implement effective strategies in retail firms in order to ensure effective engagement in OCB related behaviour and to create awareness of the importance of employee engagement in organisational citizenship behaviour.

KEYWORDS: Retail firms, organisational citizenship behaviour, job considerations, employment considerations, organisational commitment, propensity to resign

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The wholesale and retail sector is a more volatile sector, with respect to cyclical changes and global economic conditions, than many other sectors. It is the fourth largest contributor to GDP in South Africa, with a contribution of approximately 13.7% (Lehohla, 2011:4), and is one of the major employers in South Africa, providing just over 22% of the total active workforce of the country (Memela, 2012:3).

The growth of technology, which has led to informed customers who are bringing amazing challenges to retailers, as they have to win customer loyalty by focusing not only on prices and quality, but also on global competition. According to Raub (2008:179), in the retail industry, the heterogeneity as well as the illusive preferences, expectations, personality characteristics, attitudes, and likings of customers have created diverse and fast evolving customer demands. As a result, retailers needed to source highly customer-focused employees who are willing to go beyond their expected call of duty to satisfy customer needs and wants, thereby keeping firms competitive. This indicates that employees who do more than their call of duty requires are engaged in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Stoner, Perrewe, and Munyon (2011:97) maintain that OCB involves extra-role performance, which represents behaviours not formally required by any particular job, yet which help to develop the social context of all jobs, thus facilitating effectiveness.

Research findings (see for example Daniels, Joireman, Favy, & Kamdar, 2007 and Wu, Wu, & Zhang, 2005) indicate that OCB promotes the effectiveness of organisational operations and is not only beneficial to the organisation, but to its employees as well. Consistent with this view, Hall, Zinko, Perryman and Ferris (2009:383) postulate that citizenship performance has been associated with positive benefits within and across levels of an organisation, such as, improved co-worker productivity, enhanced inter- and

intra-unit performance and increased organisational performance by creating structural, cognitive and relational forms of social capital (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006:204). Thus, retailers who encourage OCB among their employees are more likely to improve the performance of both the organisation and the employees, and increase the organisation's competitiveness in the global economy.

Although retail industry positions make up an increasingly large percentage of the total jobs in the South African economy (Memela, 2012:7), there is limited research on organisational citizenship behaviour in the retail industry within South Africa. In addition, since the retail industry has a composition of a diverse group of permanent and temporary or casual employees, limited research was found that investigates similarities and/or disparities in their behaviour, and factors that contribute thereto in South African retail firms. Moreover, the antecedents of OCBs in retail settings are not well documented and represent a significant gap in the literature (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005:151). Furthermore, several characteristics of retail jobs, as compared to other organisational behaviour settings, suggest the need to examine OCBs in this context.

In addition, despite the importance of employees' service behaviours influencing customer perceptions of service quality and customer satisfaction, relatively little research has focused attention on identifying factors that affect employees' service behaviours (Ackfeldt & Wong, 2006:728).

This study will thus focus on perceptions regarding OCB within retail firms in South Africa. The first part of this chapter highlights the problem statement, research objectives and questions, as well as the proposed hypothetical model and hypotheses of the study. This is followed by the clarification of the key concepts, the research design and the methodology of the study. The chapter then provides an outline of the demarcation, importance and structure of the study.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

South Africa is the gateway to Africa, and the retail industry has grown with a huge emerging population that is technologically advanced; this has led to a different kind of

customer. The middle-class is increasingly expanding and needs goods and services that international markets offer, as well as those offered domestically. To foster positive interaction, customer satisfaction, loyalty and trust, employees must engage in a constellation of behaviours, some of which are difficult to specify and mandate (Rego & Cunha, 2008:542). Thus, retail firms need to encourage these behaviours so as to enhance the total customer experience.

Retail employees are often boundary spanners with multiple roles to fulfill; they are evaluated on the productivity and quality of their performance; and are typically young and inexperienced workers (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005:151). Due to the seasonal and unpredictably long operating hours of retail firms, they hire a number of employees on a permanent, temporary or casual basis in order to meet with the influx of customers. These employees are expected to provide high customer service and do more than is expected. Some employees are reluctant to go beyond the call of duty because their employment contracts do not provide the benefits and security they need. Consequently, they manipulate their supervisors to offer better employment contracts by refusing to do certain tasks and require that supervisors give such tasks to employees who are perceived as “secure” in their jobs.

Despite an increasing number of non-permanent employees in the retail industry, their motivation and attitudes towards, among others, their employment contracts, their jobs and the organisation, dictate the effort they exert in providing excellent customer service and improving productivity. Rego and Cunha (2008:542) support this view and indicate that some behaviour is more abstract and dependent on employee attitudes and motivations. Thus, employee attitudes towards their employment contracts and other factors in the organisation can influence their behaviour in either a positive or a negative way, depending on their motivation, attitudes and motives.

However, some employees might choose to engage in OCB because it fits a certain situation or the employee is acting out of narrow self-interest (Ariani, 2012:162). Hence, this study aimed to gain greater insight and understanding of the perceptions and

attitudes of retail employees engaging in OCB. The main research question to be addressed in this study is: *What are the perceptions regarding OCB in retail firms?*

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Following the problem statement, the following primary and secondary objectives are identified.

1.3.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study is to investigate perceptions regarding OCB in retail firms.

1.3.2 Secondary objectives

The following secondary research objectives are identified:

- To provide a comprehensive literature study regarding OCB behaviour;
- To develop a measuring instrument to test perceptions regarding OCB in retail firms;
- To empirically test perceptions of retailers regarding OCB in retail firms in South Africa; and
- To provide guidelines to retailers regarding OCB in retail effectiveness.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Given the problem statement and the primary objectives of this study, the following research questions will be addressed:

- What is the impact of *job perceptions* regarding personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion, and decision-making, on OCB?

- What is the impact of *role considerations* regarding role conflict and role ambiguity, on OCB?
- What is the impact of *organisational climate* on OCB?
- What is the impact of *employment conditions* on OCB?
- Does OCB increase *employee commitment and engagement*?
- Does OCB decrease employee *propensity to leave* the job?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Given the differing roles and characteristics of retail employees, with sophisticated technologically advanced customers, as well as the lack of research attention given to the behaviour of employees in this industry in South Africa, the purpose of this study is:

- To examine the potential antecedents of OCBs in retail settings in South Africa;
- To understand what the challenges and benefits of OCB in retail firms are;
- To discover the impact of employment conditions on OCB in the retail industry;
- To ascertain whether employment conditions can decrease employees' propensity to leave their jobs; and increase employees' commitment and engagement; and
- To add, theoretically and empirically, to the body of knowledge in the discipline of organisational citizenship behaviour of the retail industry in South Africa and abroad.

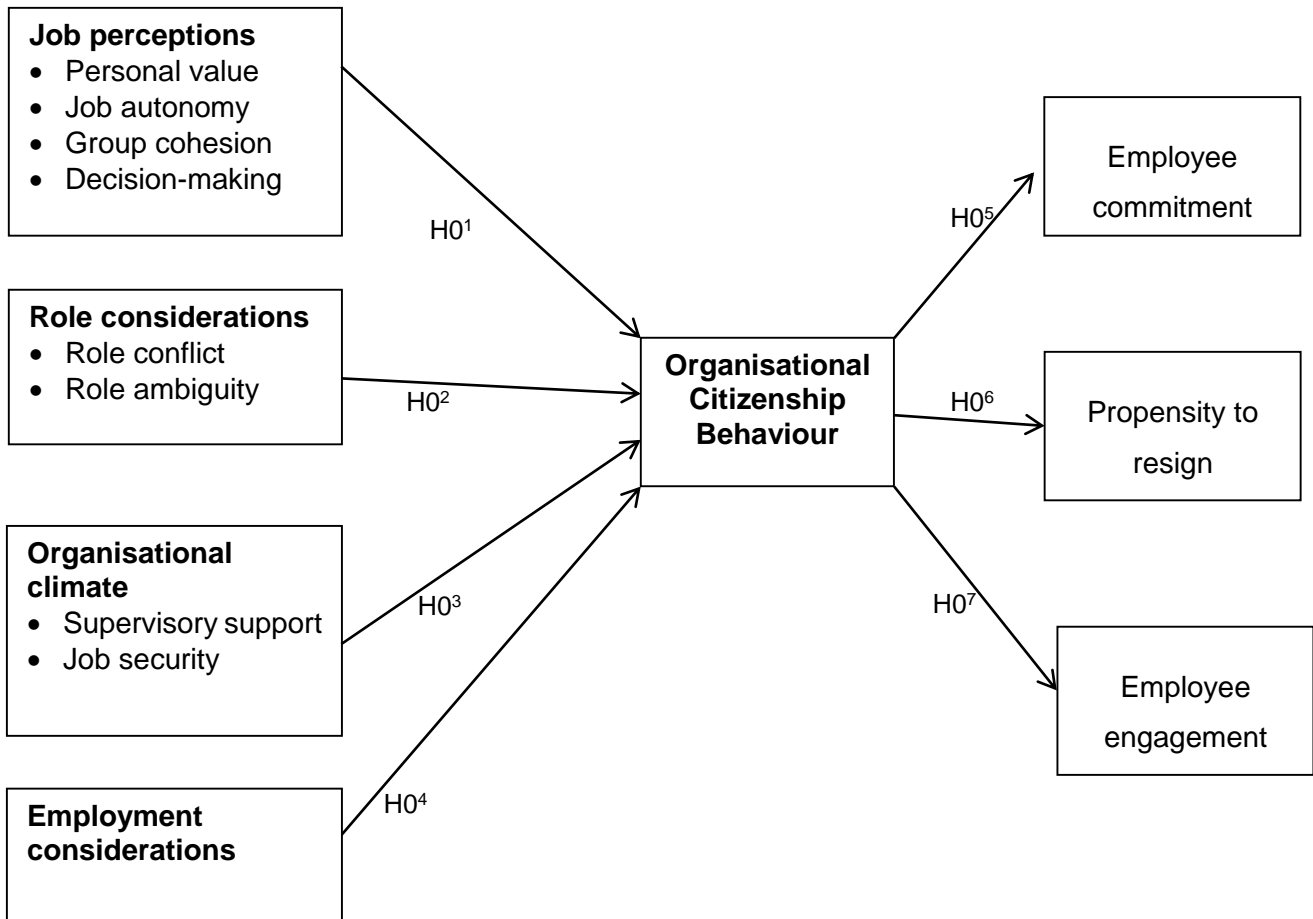
There is limited research that investigates OCB within the retail industry in South Africa. In this respect, it is envisaged that the results of this study will assist retail firms to understand the variables that influence organisational citizenship behaviour. In addition, it is envisaged that the results and recommendations of the study will be used to implement effective strategies that will ensure the effective functioning of the firm through employee commitment and engagement, and ensure employee retention. Moreover, this study will create awareness of the importance of encouraging employees to engage in

organisational citizenship behaviours for the benefit of both the employees, as individuals, and the organisation.

1.6 PROPOSED HYPOTHETICAL MODEL OF THE STUDY

Lavelle, Rupp and Brockner (2007:845) posit that OCB is the outcome of interaction between individuals and contextual variables; in this respect, they pointed out that when employees perceive organisational justice and high quality leader-member exchange relationships, they will exhibit OCB actively on the basis of the positive reciprocity norm. Turnipseed and Wilson (2009:202) concur with this view and alluded to the notion that employees may have greater willingness to cooperate or engage in non-required behaviour when that behaviour advances their interests. Furthermore, employees' interests may be served by cooperating with management and, in turn, receiving rewards, thus defining an idiosyncratic set of reciprocal expectations concerning their obligations (what they owe the employer) and entitlements (what they believe they are owed in return). The hypothetical model was based on four previous studies and models on OCB, namely, Mansoor, Aslam, Javad, Ashraf and Shabbir's model (2012); Chen, Tang and Wang's model (2009); Bell and Menguc's model (2002) and Ackfeldt and Coote's model (2005). The proposed hypothetical model representing the various relationships or factors influencing OCB in retail firms, and the perceived outcomes of engaging in OCB, is depicted in Figure 1.1 below.

Figure 1.1 Proposed hypothetical model of the study



1.7 HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses, as depicted in Figure 1.1, above, have been formulated to represent all the relationships contained in the hypothetical model that will be tested in this study.

1.7.1 First set of hypotheses: Relationships between the independent variables and the intervening variable

H0¹: Job perceptions, as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and decision-making do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

H0²: Role consideration perceptions, as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict, do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

H0³: Organisational climate perceptions, as depicted by supervisor support and job security, do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

H0⁴: Employment consideration perceptions do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.7.2 Second set of hypotheses: Relationships between the intervening variable and the dependent variables

H0⁵: Organisational citizenship behaviour perceptions do not influence employee commitment.

H0⁶: Organisational citizenship behaviour perceptions do not influence the employees' propensity to resign.

H0⁷: Organisational citizenship behaviour perceptions do not influence employee engagement.

1.8 LITERATURE OVERVIEW

1.8.1 Clarification of key concepts

- Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

Organ *et al.* (2006:34) define organisational citizenship behaviour as the discretionary individual behaviour that promotes the effective operation of an organisation, but is not

formally recognized by the organisation's reward system. The citizenship is often marked by its spontaneity, voluntary nature, constructive impact on results, unexpected helpfulness to others, and the fact that it is optional. Turnipseed and Wilson (2009:204) emphasize that behaviour is classified as "organisational citizenship" if it is discretionary and not an enforceable requirement of the job; is not directly recognized by the formal reward system; and, it contributes to organisational effectiveness. Contrary to this view, Peng and Zhao (2012:76) suggest that OCB does not only refer to selfless and voluntary behaviour, but also contains a variety of self-interested behaviours. Vigoda-Gadot (2007:80) defines this behaviour as compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB), through the redefinition of OCB boundaries.

The literature review provides empirical evidence that OCB leads to organisational effectiveness and is beneficial to employees; this is evident in the work of Daniels *et al.* (2006); Wu *et al.* (2005) and Hall *et al.* (2009:389). Moreover, OCBs make organisational practices more effective by bridging gaps in organisational routines and harmonizing teamwork (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005:152). Thus, Rego, Ribeiro and Cunha (2010:216) maintain that there is no effective organisation without the cooperative and spontaneous behaviours of its members. However, Organ *et al.* (2006:34) argue that although other scholars suggest that OCBs are most likely caused by varied overlapping motives, which include self-serving reasons, these might also include selfless and altruistic bases, which is the point of departure for this study.

- Retail firm

Retailing is the set of business activities that adds value to the products and services sold to consumers for their personal or family use (Levy & Weitz, 2012:6). Furthermore, retailing involves the sale of products and services such as overnight lodging in a motel, a doctor's exam, a haircut, or a home-delivered pizza. Not all retailing is performed in stores; there is also non-store retailing like internet sales, direct sales, catalog sales, and DVD rentals. For the purpose of this study, a retail firm will be referred to as a business organisation that is selling products and/or services for consumers' personal, family or household use (Berman & Evans, 2012:4).

1.8.2 Dimensions of OCB

Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff and Blume (2009:122) argue that the literature has focused primarily on understanding the relationship between OCB and other constructs, rather than carefully defining the nature (dimensions) of citizenship behaviour itself. Thus, the conceptualization of OCB could be manifest in a better way by discussing the dimensions of OCB. A significant amount of research has been conducted by various authors to identify behaviours that are associated with OCB (Akan, Allen, & White (2009:99); Organ *et al.* (2006)). The dimensions that were identified include (amongst others) helping behaviour or altruism, conscientiousness, compliance, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty or boosterism, individual initiative, and self-development.

Redman and Snape (2005) refer to helping behaviour, or altruism, as the act of helping a fellow worker on an assigned task or problem; thus, going beyond job requirements to help others with whom the individual comes into contact. Redman and Snape (2005) further refer to conscientiousness as the discretionary behaviours that go beyond the basic requirements of the job, in terms of obeying work rules, attendance and job performance. Compliance refers to an individual's implicit acceptance of the rules, regulations, and the procedures of their team, even when they are not being directly monitored (Akan *et al.*, 2009:102). Sportsmanship refers to the willingness of employees to tolerate organisational difficulties, inconveniences, and co-worker behaviours, accepting work-related problems without complaining excessively, maintaining a positive attitude, and others (Organ *et al.*, 2006). Organisational loyalty refers to support for organisational objectives, defense of the corporate image to stakeholders, positive representation of the company to various communities, and efforts to improve corporate reputation (Organ *et al.*, 2006). Individual initiative refers to internal involvement, sharing ideas and opinions, making constructive suggestions, sharing information and knowledge to improve practices, open questioning of the status quo, inefficient management habits, and others. Soon, Ng, and Goh (2005) refer to self-development as the voluntary behaviours that employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills and abilities.

The five-factor dimensions, for the purpose of this study, will be used; these include altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue. Empirical studies have supported this five-factor structure (Mansoor *et al.*, 2012:568; Shin & Kim, 2010:117 and Salavati, Ahmadi, Sheikhesmaeili, & Mirzaei, 2011:398-399). Though a meta-analysis, LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002:52) suggested that scholars should think of Organ's (1988) OCB as a latent construct and consider the OCB dimensions as imperfect indicators of the same underlying construct, where OCB is the focal construct of interest, and focusing on its specific dimensions should therefore be avoided. However, a meta-analysis conducted by Hoffman, Blair, Meriac and Woehr (2007:562) suggested that efforts to operationalize OCB are best viewed as indicators of a general OCB factor.

1.8.3 Importance of OCB in retailing

In retailing, as in any service organisation, spontaneous cooperative actions seem especially relevant (Ackfeldt & Wong, 2006) as most aspects need non-mandated employee behaviour that can be critical to customer satisfaction (Rego & Cunha, 2008:542). Although helping customers is an in-role behaviour for retail employees, as they are evaluated on their ability to interact with customers (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005:157), employees are also expected to go beyond their call of duty in order to promote the positive image of the organisation (Rego & Cunha, 2008:542) and increase customer satisfaction and loyalty to the company. Employees who help customers and behave courteously towards them may foster a sense of gratitude in customers, thus causing them to repeat the service acquisition (Rego & Cunha, 2008:545).

The creation of customer value, in the interaction between the customer and the employee, is important in retail as it keeps customers returning and generates positive word-of-mouth communication, which attracts new customers (Levy & Weitz, 2012:500). Committed employees are more motivated to assist the retailer in achieving its goals, such as improving the satisfaction of customers and building customer loyalty, and are less likely to leave the company (Levy & Weitz, 2012:220). Concurring with this view, Rego and Cunha (2008:545) indicate that conscientious and committed employees are

more likely to take a diligent approach to solving customer problems and will be less inclined to shirk responsibilities, to pass problems along to others or to accept suboptimal solutions for customers, as this will tarnish the image of the organisation.

When employees behave as good organisational citizens towards each other. For example, when more experienced employees voluntarily help new colleagues to learn the job, it is likely that the new workers become more productive, which enhances the efficiency of the retailer and promotes a positive internal climate (Rego & Cunha, 2008:542-544). This behaviour may, in turn, have a positive impact in the way customers are served. The positive climate may result in better interactions with customers, thus increasing service quality and customer attraction (Rego & Cunha, 2008:545). Rego and Cunha (2008:544) further assert that citizenship behaviours enhance team spirit, morale and cohesiveness, thereby reducing the need for employees (or managers) to spend time and effort in maintaining group functions like conflict management. Furthermore, given that good organisational citizens may be expected to show fewer withdrawal behaviours, productivity will be higher and personnel costs lower (Rego & Cunha, 2008:544). Thus, management support is of utmost importance and managers can start by ensuring that roles are clearly defined in order to minimize conflict.

1.9 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A research design provides the basic direction, or recipe, for carrying out the project (Hair, Babin, Money & Samouel, 2003:57). In this section, the proposed research paradigm, methods of collecting and analysing data, the population of the study and the sampling techniques employed in the study, as well as the design, reliability and validity of the measuring instrument are discussed.

1.9.1 Research paradigm

The positivistic research paradigm is employed for this study. The positivistic research paradigm, also called the quantitative, objectivist, scientific, experimentalist or traditional research paradigm, is an epistemological position which asserts that knowledge of a social phenomenon is based on what can be observed and recorded rather than

subjective understandings (Matthews & Ross, 2010:27). The positivistic paradigm is carried out within the framework of a scientific method; that is, an approach that uses objectively agreed upon criteria and procedures to achieve results that have statistical reliability (Pellisier, 2007:23). Furthermore, it ensures the application of methods and principles of science to the study of human behaviour and human events. A positivistic approach, therefore, means that quantitative data are collected; aspects of the social world, social phenomena, are measured; causal relationships between different aspects of the social world are sought and large data sets and statistical analysis are used (Matthews & Ross, 2010:27).

1.9.2 Research approach

Given the nature of the study, the research approaches followed in this study are exploratory and descriptive. The aim is to explore a relatively new area and describe respondents' perceptions regarding OCB in the retailing industry.

1.9.3 Population

Population refers to the total number of cases that can be included as research subjects (Matthews & Ross, 2010:154). Collis and Hussey (2003:56) note that a population is any precisely defined set of people, or collection of items, under consideration. The population in this study is comprised of all retailers in South Africa. According to Memela (2012:4), there are 80 353 retailers in South Africa, and retailers make up 70% of the country's economically active enterprises.

1.9.4 Sampling

A sample refers to a listing of units from which the actual sample will be drawn (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:138). There are two different approaches to sampling in a spectrum, namely, probability samples and non-probability or purposive samples. A probability sample is a sample that can be shown to be highly representative of the whole population,

or all the potential cases, in terms of relevant criteria. A non-probability or purposive sample is a sample of selected cases that will best enable the researcher to explore the research questions in depth (Matthews & Ross, 2010:154).

For the purpose of this study, non-probability sampling is used, specifically, convenience sampling. Convenience sampling gives researchers the freedom to choose whomever they find (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:423). The reason for this choice is that respondents are available and accessible. Another sampling method that will be used in this study is snowball sampling. In snowball sampling, respondents refer the researcher to others who possess similar characteristics and who, in turn, identify others (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:425). This is particularly important in this study as retail employees from different retail firms may have similar experiences. Quantitative research requires a large number of respondents in order to support the statistical analysis of the data; therefore, convenience snowball sampling seems to be the best sampling method for this study.

1.9.5 Questionnaire design

Questionnaires are used as the primary data collection method in this study. A questionnaire is a list of carefully structured questions, chosen after considerable testing, with a view to eliciting reliable responses from a chosen sample (Collis & Hussey, 2003:173). This method of data collection is chosen because questionnaires are inexpensive to administer, can be administered to many people and a significant amount of data can be collected (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:48). In this study, self-administered structured questionnaires with closed-ended questions, in a simple and concise language, is used. This method is consistent with the measuring tool used in previous studies (Ackfeldt & Wong, 2006:733; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005:154; Dimitriades, 2007:469).

The questionnaire consists of four sections:

- Section A of the questionnaire investigates the role of the independent variables on OCB, using an ordinal scale by means of a five-point Likert-type scale.

- Section B of the questionnaire assesses general perceptions regarding OCB (5 dimensions), according to a five-point ordinal Likert scale.
- Section C analyses the impact of OCB on dependent variables (outcomes), using a five-point ordinal Likert-type scale.
- Section D of the questionnaire seeks demographical information that will provide clear insight into the background information of the respondents, using a nominal scale.

1.9.6 Data Collection

Collis and Hussey (2003:160) refer to data as known facts or things used as a basis for inference or reckoning. Data is gathered by means of two main components, namely, secondary and primary data collection.

1.9.6.1 Secondary data

Secondary sources for the literature review was obtained through conducting international and national data searches, through the use of journal articles, textbooks and the Internet.

1.9.6.2 Primary data

The primary data for this study was obtained using the survey method, by means of self-administered structured questionnaires. In this regard, the aim is to target 1000 employees in the retail industry (250 employees each, from the Eastern Cape, Western Cape, Gauteng and Kwa-Zulu Natal). Ethical clearance was obtained from the NMMU before the empirically study is conducted.

1.9.7 Data analysis

The data analysis stage was started by calculating descriptive statistics (e.g. mean, mode, median and standard deviation) and frequency distributions. In this study, exploratory factor analysis was used to measure whether the items measure various

constructs under consideration, thus assessing the construct validity of the measuring instrument. Factor analysis looks at patterns amongst variables in order to ascertain whether an underlying combination of the original variables can summarise the original set (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:573). In other words, the original variables will be described in terms of their common underlying dimensions (Hair *et al.*, 2003:361). Reliability testing will be done by calculating Cronbach's alpha values. Multiple regression analysis was also used to analyse the statistical data collected. Multiple regression is a statistical tool used to develop a self-weighting estimation equation that predicts values for a dependent variable from the values of independent variables; to control confounding variables to better evaluate the contribution of other variables, and to test and explain causal theory (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:575-575). Correlations among variables was also tested. The data was captured on an Excel spreadsheet and the computer programme, Statistica, was used to analyse the data.

1.9.8 Reliability and validity of the measuring instrument

1.9.8.1 Validity of the measuring instrument

Validity means that the data collected to address the research questions is a close representation of the aspects of social reality of the study in question (Matthews & Ross, 2010:53). In other words, it is the extent to which the measure captures what it is supposed to capture (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:78). The validity of the measuring instrument will be tested by assessing content and construct validity in this study. Content or face validity is generally used to measure whether the scale measures what it is supposed to measure (Hair *et al.*, 2003:174) and was tested by means of a pilot study and expert judgment. Construct validity assesses what the construct or scale is actually measuring. In order to assess construct validity, convergent and discriminant validity was assessed. Convergent validity assesses the extent to which the construct is positively correlated with other measures of the same construct, while discriminant validity assesses the extent to which the construct does not correlate with other measures that are different from it (Hair *et al.*, 2003:174).

1.9.8.2 Reliability of the measuring instrument

Reliability means that another researcher would expect to obtain the same findings if they carried out the research in the same way (Matthews & Ross, 2010:53). In other words, a measure is reliable to the degree that it produces consistent results (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:321). Cronbach's alpha is calculated to confirm the internal reliability of the measuring instrument and to evaluate the internal consistency between the items measuring each construct in the theoretical model.

1.10 SCOPE AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study aims to identify potential antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour in 1000 retail settings within South Africa (250 employees each from the Eastern Cape Western Cape, Gauteng and Kwa-Zulu Natal). The study seeks insight into the impact of organisational citizenship behaviour on employee commitment, employee propensity to leave their jobs and employee engagement.

1.11 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study follows a logical structure and will consist of the following eight chapters:

- Chapter one serves as the introductory chapter where the problem statement, research objectives, research methodology, hypothetical model and hypotheses are outlined.
- Chapter two presents an overview of the retail environment in South Africa, and globally.
- Chapter three examines a theoretical perspective of OCB.
- Chapter four focuses on the nature of employment conditions in retail firms.
- Chapter five presents the proposed hypothetical model of OCB in retail firms and the operationalization of the research variables.
- Chapter six presents the research design and methodology adopted in this study. Furthermore, it provides an outline of the research paradigm, research approaches,

study population, sampling, data collection and analysis, as well as the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument.

- Chapter seven analyses and interpret the results of the empirical study.
- Chapter eight concludes the study by outlining the main conclusions and recommendations regarding strategies that retail firms can adopt in order to encourage organisational citizenship behaviours amongst employees, in order to improve organisational effectiveness and employee retention.

1.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed to introduce the study and topic. Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was defined as discretionary behaviour that promotes the effective operation of an organisation, but is not formally recognised by the organisation's reward system. This citizenship is often marked by its spontaneity, voluntary nature, constructive impact on results, unexpected helpfulness to others, and the fact that it is optional.

The problem statement, research questions, hypothetical model and hypotheses were outlined in this chapter. In addition, a brief literature overview of OCB was provided and the research design and methodology of the study were highlighted. The last part of this chapter covered the demarcation of the study and the structure of the research.

Chapter 2 will highlight the nature of the retail environment in South Africa and globally.

CHAPTER TWO

OVERVIEW OF THE RETAIL ENVIRONMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Technological advances and economic turmoil are reshaping the face of the retail landscape faster than some retailers are able to react (Geddes, 2012:1). This is due to consumers' vastly different and more sophisticated expectations of products, services, value, and the environment. Consequently, consumers use social media to determine their shopping behaviour and the value they place on their shopping (Tompkins, 2013:26). Geddes (2012:4) further avows that consumers have changed their shopping experience as they become more technologically and socially connected; empowered; informed; do not manage their time effectively; and are environmentally aware. Hence, retailers are expected to adapt to ever-changing technological trends.

The empowered customers compare prices or review websites and embrace digital technology, which has changed the way retailers interact with customers. Subsequently, retailers, globally, are forced to approach markets from a multi-channel perspective as consumers are increasingly willing to purchase online (Kearney, 2013:2), driving e-commerce and mobile commerce to outpace physical retail in nearly every market. Conversely, while the growth of online shopping has changed the face of retailing, and has been impressive, the vast majority of retailing still happens in shops (Jenkins, 2011:5). This is because consumers prefer the touch and feel experience (Levy & Weitz, 2012:61) and most customers go online before they go shopping to look at potential purchases; what they are prepared to pay; the brands they want to buy; and the shops they intend to visit (Bennett, 2011:7). This integration, between retailers' online operations and bricks-and-mortar shopping, enables retailers to attract customers and increase sales (Mathlaga, 2013:8). Moreover, the integration needs employees who are well averse with technology and instore shopper experience. Therefore, retailers who harness multichannel activities increase their understanding of their customers and improve conversion rates and profitability (Zablan, 2011:2).

Retailers have redefined their role in general, especially in the value chain. Their role has gained the attention of manufacturers as they act as gatekeepers who decide which new products should be on the shelves of their stores. This redefinition of roles is driven by the major drivers of change in retailing, which include the changing demographics and industry structure; expanding computer technology; emphasis on lower costs and price; emphasis on convenience and service; focus on productivity; added experimentation; and continued growth of non-store retailing (Bajaj, Tuli, & Srivastava, 2010:2). Axiomatic to this change is the necessity of marketers of consumer products to identify the needs and motivations of their partners in the marketing channel. Due to the fact that the retail environment is dynamic and constantly changing, retailers need to understand the basics of retailing, where the retail outlet is heading, and analyze the variables that could affect the success of the firm.

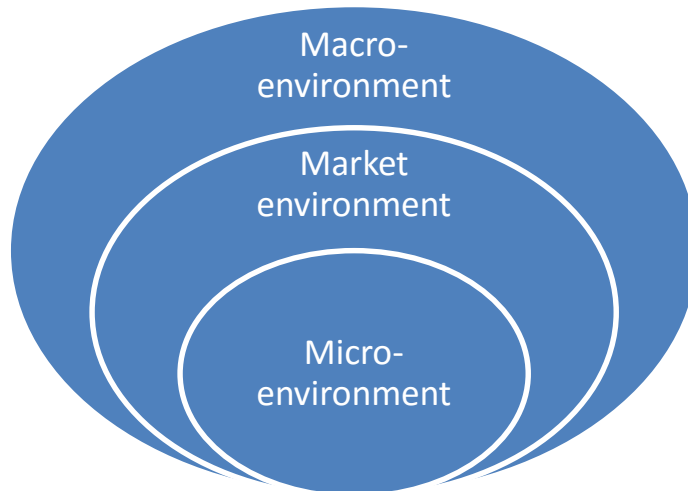
This chapter begins with a discussion of the business environment, the key industries in South Africa, and reasons for this study's focus on the retail industry. The nature and importance of retailing and its characteristics are deliberated upon in this chapter. It then follows with a discussion of the classification of retail institutions; the theories of structural change to various retail institutions as well as the factors influencing this change; and how retailers respond to these changes. The social and economic significance of retailing is then discussed. This is followed by an outline of the South African retail environment, its regulatory bodies, and the role it plays in the South African Economy. Trends, challenges and future prospects of retail in South Africa are then discussed, followed by a comparison of the South African retail landscape with Brazil, Russia, India and China (BRIC). This chapter concludes with a discussion of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and the legal, ethical and social responsibility issues in retailing.

2.2 THE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

Du Toit, Erasmus, and Strydom (2010:105) define the business environment as all the internal and external factors, or variables, which have an impact on the continued and

successful existence of the business organisation. It consists of the micro-environment, the market environment, and the macro-environment as shown in Figure 2.1, below.

Figure 2.1 The business environment



Source: Adapted from Cant & Manley (2013)

2.2.1 The micro-environment

The micro-environment consists of all the variables that are controllable and internal to the firm. It is the sum total of all factors and variables which occur internally in the business and are influenced in a direct or indirect way by management decisions (Strydom & Nieuwenhuizen, 2007:2). Businesses need to control these variables in order to be successful (Cant, 2013:28). Furthermore, the strategy and the products and/or services of the firm must be developed or adapted according to the context of the external environment. The aim is to align the strengths of the organisation with the opportunities presented in the external environment.

The micro-environment may be viewed as an environment with three sets of variables, namely, the vision, mission and objectives of the business; its management; and its resources, as explained below. These variables have a fundamental influence on the

establishment and growth as well as the continued existence of the business (Strydom & Nieuwenhuizen, 2011:31).

2.2.1.1 The vision, mission and objectives of a business

The vision, mission and objectives of a business are the reason for its existence. The vision statement answers the question: What do we want to become? The mission statement is developed to answer the question: What is our business? The mission statement distinguishes one business from other similar firms, and serves as the foundation for the development of long-term objectives, which are the specific results an organisation seeks to achieve (Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:109). An organisation's objectives and mission statements are influenced by the external environment.

2.2.1.2 Management

Management includes all the functions within the business; that is, all major activity areas, such as finance, marketing, operations, public relations, human resources, purchasing, general management and administrative management (Van Aardt, Barros, Clarence, Janse van Rensburg, Radipere, Rankhumise, Venter & Visser, 2013:18). Other important aspects include the organisation's infrastructure, such as information systems to support decision-making and communication (Van Aardt, Van Aardt, Bezuidenhout, & Mumba, 2008:105). Employees are of paramount importance in this variable. In taking the business forward, the business needs to ensure that employees are in place to carry out the required work across all relevant departments. The people working for a business are in contact with customers and will therefore affect customer perceptions of the store, which means that they could influence customers to the extent that customers may never visit the store again (Cant, 2013:29). It is thus important for a business to employ the right person from the start as employees are the face of the organisation, and they can either attract or drive customers away.

2.2.1.3 Resources

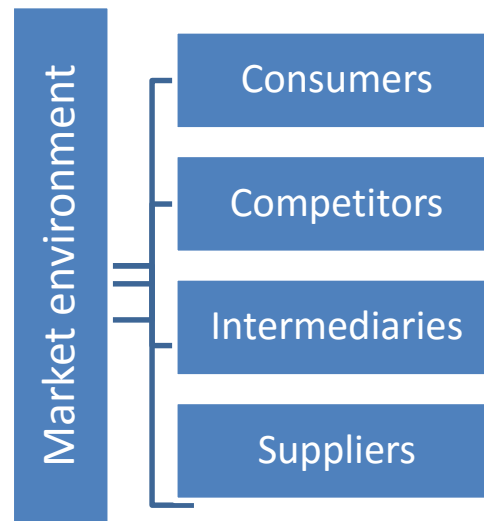
Resources are the production means of the organisation, and comprise of tangible resources, intangible resources and organisational capabilities (Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:110). Tangible resources refer to production facilities, raw materials, financial resources, property and computers; intangible resources include brand names, patents, trademarks, the company reputation, technical knowledge, organisational morale and accumulated experience; while organisational capabilities refer to the ability to combine resources, people and processes in particular ways.

A business has to utilise opportunities to ward off threats in the external environment (Strydom & Nieuwenhuizen, 2011:33), as these resources can be at risk from threats; for example, a particular production process may be threatened by a new technology or a new invention. Conversely, these threats are not generic to all businesses; while some business organisations are threatened by a specific variable in the external environment, it may provide an opportunity for other organisations (Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:110). Therefore, it is imperative to understand that the threats encountered by the firm might be unique to that firm, since the micro-environment varies from one business organisation to the next.

2.2.2 The market environment

In the market environment, both the organisation and the environment directly influence each other. In other words, the marketplace has a direct influence on the activities of the firm, while the firm also exerts an influence on the variables in the marketplace. The market environment consists of consumers, competitors, intermediaries and suppliers, as shown in Figure 2.2, below:

Figure 2.2 The market environment



Source: Adapted from Cant (2013)

Figure 2.2 shows the composition of the market environment, and is discussed below:

2.2.2.1 Competitors

Businesses engage in two types of competition: intratype and intertype. In intratype competition, department stores compete against other department stores, while supermarkets compete against other supermarkets; in intertype competition, businesses compete against businesses that sell similar merchandise using different types of outlets (Levy *et al.*, 2014:22). However, many business are increasing the variety of merchandise they offer in order to include merchandise not typically associated with their type of store so that they are able to appeal to a broader group of consumers, resulting in scrambled merchandising. Scrambled merchandising increases intertype competition, and the distribution costs will be affected due to sales being scattered over more businesses (Berman & Evans, 2013:145), which makes it difficult for businesses to monitor and identify their competitors. However, competitive positioning, which differentiates a business from its competitors, makes it possible for businesses to constantly analyse their competitors' positioning so as to outsmart them in the market environment. Therefore, to

develop and implement a firm strategy, businesses need to understand the nature of competition in the marketplace (Levy & Weitz, 2012:30).

2.2.2.2 Suppliers

Suppliers play a major role as far as the supply of products and/or services are concerned. Businesses are dependent on other businesses to supply the products and/or services they offer to customers (Van Aardt, *et al.* 2013:19). In striving to satisfy the customers, good supplier relations is key to businesses. Thus, businesses need to work well with their suppliers in order to secure favourable purchase terms, new products, good return policies, prompt shipments, and cooperation (Berman & Evans, 2013:94). In most instances, a business's success is reliant on the performance of its suppliers and on the efficient workings of those relationships (Allen, 2011). Consequently, some businesses adopt a growth strategy, namely, vertical integration strategy, where a business acquires a supplier, for greater control and certainty (Rwigema, Urban, & Venter, 2008: 422). Therefore, it is imperative for businesses to select the right suppliers and establish good working relationships with them, as the relationships are the foundation of a store's merchandise lines, prices, promotional plans, and so on (Cant, 2013:35).

2.2.2.3 Customers

Firm environments communicate the stores' image and purpose to customers, evoke emotional reactions, impact the customers' ultimate satisfaction with the service, and motivate them to spend money and time in the store (Custers, de Kort, IJsselsteijn, & de Kruiff, 2010:332). It is thus imperative for businesses to ensure that, in order for them to develop and implement an effective firm strategy, they understand the reasons behind customers' shopping decisions, the choice of a store, and the choice of merchandise in that store (Levy *et al.*, 2014:22). Hence, businesses increase their loyalty-base amongst all customers, especially in growing markets, by focusing their strategies on how customers perceive offerings in order to better understand and cater for their markets

(Cant & Manley, 2013:8). In order for businesses to understand customer demands, they need to analyse customer-buying habits by answering five questions, namely, Who? Where? When? What? and How?

2.2.2.4 Intermediaries

Intermediaries play a decisive role in bridging the gap between the manufacturer and the consumer (Cant, 2013:27); they include wholesalers, businesses, commercial agents and brokers. Intermediaries are agents or deal makers who act on behalf of suppliers (Co, Groenewald, Mitchell, Nayager, van Zyl, Visser, Train, & Emanuel, 2007:122). Decision-making by management, in respect of intermediaries, is complicated by the dynamic and ever-changing nature of intermediaries (Du Toit, et al. 2010:113). Relationships with intermediaries complicate management's decision-making as they often involve entering into long-term agreements that may have certain implications for their marketing strategy. New trends in turnover or consumption are responsible for the development of new types of intermediaries (Cant, 2013:28). Thus, businesses perform the role of intermediaries.

There are firms that manufacture and sell directly to consumers, like Apple and Nike, for example. These firms are performing their own production, wholesaling and business activities. However, some businesses, like Makro and Builders' Warehouse, function as both businesses and wholesalers, that is, they perform retail activities when they sell to consumers, but they engage in wholesaling activities when they sell to other businesses (Berman & Evans, 2013:9). Therefore, businesses need to determine the right strategy that will ensure the effective and efficient delivery of products and services to the end-user.

2.2.3 The macro-environment

The macro-environment is comprised of elements that are uncontrollable by the entrepreneur, and can shape and constrain a business's activities. This environment

consists of the economic, technological, social, institutional or political, and physical factors in the external environment.

2.2.3.1 Social environment

Customer demographic patterns and trends are of particular interest to businesses, as changes to these factors might have implications for their businesses (Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:123). Businesses need to be aware of the population growth patterns and population size of the area they trade in, the age distribution of the population, education levels of consumers, their location, household and disposable incomes and the structure of the households (Cant, 2013:28). This information helps businesses to properly plan for the supply of products and services in order to fulfil the needs and wants of additional customers. In addition, the business also needs to know the cultural values and norms of the population, and understand the diversity of their customers' needs and wants. Therefore, businesses need to regularly examine their customer base in terms of population and lifestyle trends, customer shopping behaviours, loyalty, and the mix of new and existing customers.

Another social variable with clear implications for management is the changing role of women in developed societies. According to Manyi (2008), women constitute 45.8% of the economically active population of South Africa. Consequent to this, changes in the shopping patterns and behaviours of customers become evident, as households have more disposable income and women have higher buying power.

2.2.3.2 Technological environment

Technology has changed the face of firms as it has become a useful tool in streamlining operations and improving the offering to the customer (Terblanche, 2013:44). It is an important tool in building and maintaining relationships. Consumers are increasingly using technology-driven tools when they shop (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:537), as the

businesses' interaction with consumers via the internet – using either computers, laptops, tablets or smart phones – is on the rise. Internet channels provide a better shopping experience for customers as they browse the web for ideas, compare prices and find a variety of shops they want to visit.

New technologies have given rise to new forms of retailing, made transactions more efficient, increased productivity and improved control of the operations. The use of computers to speed up operations has created advancement opportunities for businesses to stay focused in attaining the competitive edge. Businesses use optical scanners to provide accurate stock reports, and show balances that can be used to evaluate current inventory levels, sales volumes as well as profit margins. Businesses also use a Universal Product Coding (UPC) system to ensure that they always have stock of products that customers need; in addition, they make use of electronic data interchange (EDI) to order stock, which can be ordered using the just-in-time (JIT) re-order philosophy. Both the business and customers can also use electronic funds transfer (EFT) to pay suppliers and the firm respectively. This process eliminates the need to carry cash and other paper-based transactions.

2.2.3.3 Physical environment

The physical environment involves issues such as pollution, the ozone layer, the greenhouse effect and the depletion of natural resources. There is a general need for businesses to become more involved in environmental issues by limiting gas emission, minimizing pollution, and finding alternative strategies to save energy (Cant & Manley, 2013:21). Customers are also reluctant to buy products that are not environmentally friendly. Thus, businesses need to ensure that the products they sell, as well as the buildings in which they operate, are not harmful to the environment.

2.2.3.4 Economic environment

In the economic environment, the business needs to consider the inflation rate, interest rates, unemployment rates, the economic cycle, , gross national product (GNP) and national debt (Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:119). All these factors in the economic environment have an impact on the operations of the firm, and on customer buying behaviour. The rapid growth of GNP increases inflation, while slow growth leads to recession. Thus, businesses prefer a moderate and steady growth in GNP. At the same time, an increase in interest rates and an increase in inflation entails an increase in the price of merchandise, which leads to a decline in the demand for products (Cant & Manley, 2013:13). Businesses therefore need to be aware of the fluctuations in interest rates, as these will have a direct impact on their expenditure patterns.

2.2.3.5 Institutional or political environment

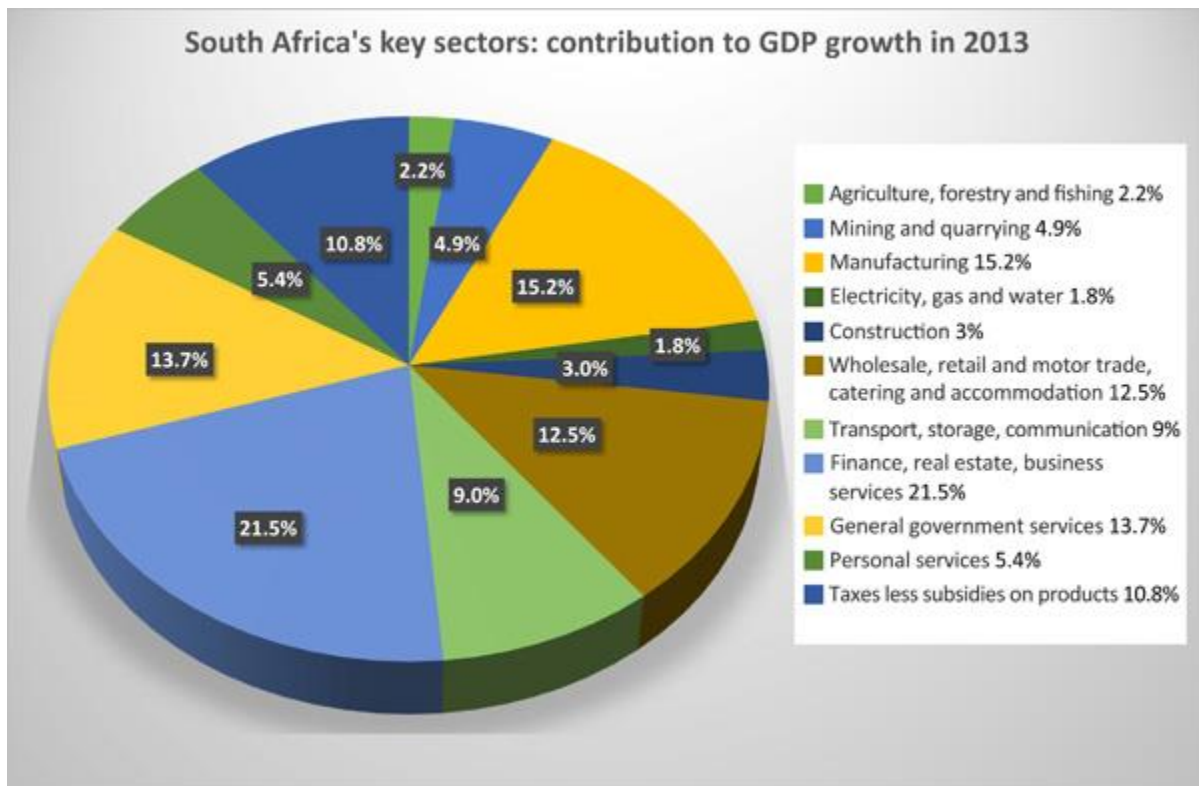
The institutional or political environment involves government interventions in the annual budget, taxation, import control, export incentives, price control for goods and services, health regulations, as well as incentives for development in a certain direction or region. An increase in petrol price will lead to an increase in distribution or transportation costs. This increase could directly impact the prices that businesses set for their products. Axiomatic to transportation cost increases, customer spending impacts the business's profit margin in a negative way. Thus, despite the fact that businesses do not have control over these factors, they need to be prepared for them and they need to take these factors into account during the strategic planning phase.

Hence, the external or macro-environment is of vital importance to the business as the strategy and the products of the firm must be developed, or adapted, according to the situation in the external environment (Cant & Manley, 2013:28).

2.3 KEY BUSINESS INDUSTRIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

The South African economy was traditionally rooted in the primary sector, which consisted of mining. However, due to structural shifts in output, economic growth has been driven, primarily, by the tertiary sector; this includes wholesale and retail trade, as well as tourism and communications (Lehohla, 2013). In addition, South Africa has moved towards becoming a knowledge-based economy, with a greater focus on technology, e-commerce, financial, and other services. According to Statssa (2013), the key business industries that contributed to the country's GDP in 2013 are as depicted in Figure 2.3, below:

Figure 2.3 South Africa's key business sectors



Source: Statistics South Africa (Statssa) (2013)

Figure 2.3, above, shows that in the second quarter of 2013, finance, real estate and business services were the main contributors to GDP at 21.5 percent, followed by

manufacturing at 15.2 percent, general government services at 13.7 percent, while wholesale, retail and motor trade, catering and accommodation contributed 12.5 percent.

However, the fourth quarter showed a shift in the largest industries, as manufacturing slowed down; this is outlined below:

- Finance, real estate and business services at 21.2 percent;
- Wholesale, retail and motor trade, catering and accommodation at 18.3 percent;
- General government services at 17.3 percent; and
- Manufacturing at 11.7 percent.

According to Lehohla (2013), the highest real annual economic growth per region, as measured by the gross domestic product per region (GDPR), was recorded in the Western Cape, Gauteng, and KwaZulu-Natal. The report credited the economic performance of the Western Cape to the growth in the wholesale, retail and motor trade; catering and accommodation industry (3.8 percent); finance, real estate and business services (3.6 percent); general government services (3.1 percent); and personal services (2.3 percent). Meanwhile, the economic growth of Gauteng was credited to the growth in the wholesale, retail and motor trade, catering and accommodation industry (3.9 percent); finance, real estate and business services (3.8 percent); and the transport, storage and communication industry (3.0 percent) and general government services (2.9 percent).

As can be deduced from the discussion above, the wholesale, retail and motor trade; catering and accommodation industry is one of the main drivers of economic growth. Hence, the retail industry has been chosen as the subject of investigation, for this study.

2.4 THE NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF RETAILING

Retailing is the last stage in the distribution channel. Retailers buy products from wholesalers and/or manufacturers, and resell them to consumers. Manufacturers make one basic type of item and sell their entire inventory to a few buyers, but consumers usually want to choose from a variety of goods and services, and purchase them in limited quantities (Levy *et al.*; 2014:6). The manufacturer rarely has any direct contact with the consumer and relies mainly on the distribution channel, in which the retailer plays a significant role. Since manufacturers need to sell their merchandise, they select retail formats that are well-matched with their business strategy, brand image, and market profile in order to ensure a competitive advantage (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:4). Therefore, retailers provide a link between producers or manufacturers and end consumers; they also add value that manufacturers cannot, while providing an assortment of merchandise from various producers or manufacturers, thus giving customers a wide choice of products.

2.4.1 Retailing defined

Retailing involves the sale of merchandise, from a fixed location, for direct consumption by the customer (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:1). It encompasses all the activities and steps needed to transfer merchandise from manufacturers into the hands of customers, or to provide services to customers. Levy, Weitz, and Grewal (2014:7) assert that retailing consists of a set of business activities that add value to products and services sold to consumers for use or consumption by customers, their families or their households. It is an activity that ensures that customers derive maximum value from the buying process, and is responsible for matching the individual demands of the consumer with supplies from all the manufacturers (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:2). It can therefore be deduced that any business that sells products and/or services to the consumer for their household or family use, and consumption, is a retailer. This includes the activities of a medical practitioner, a hairdresser, a video rental store, a car dealership, a restaurant, a grocery store, and so forth.

2.4.2 Functions performed by retailers

Retailers are a key component in a supply chain that links manufacturers to consumers. They organize the availability of merchandise in large scale and supply them in relatively small scale to the customers, when the customer wants it, in a location selected by the customer, and at a fair price. A retailer is, thus, a business, agent, or agency, that focuses its marketing efforts on the final consumers with the intention of selling goods or services to them (Berman & Evans, 2013:33). A retailer is instrumental in ensuring that the goods, merchandise, or services reach the ultimate consumer.

Retailers overcome discrepancies which exist between consumers and producers or manufacturers. These discrepancies, as identified by Terblanche (2013:19-20), are:

- Spatial gaps – products and services are available at locations which can be reached conveniently by consumers;
- Time gaps – products and services are available when consumers wish to purchase them;
- Quantity and assortment gaps – breaking bulk and providing limited product offerings of various different manufacturers, agents and wholesalers;
- Ownership gaps – use of credit and credit cards issued by banks makes it easier for consumers to acquire ownership;
- Information gaps – advertising and promotional activities fill the information gap; and
- Value gaps – various services are rendered that can add value to a product or service.

Thus, retailers perform major functions to close these gaps by providing the accessibility of the location and convenience of timing, size, information, and lifestyle support, in accordance with the needs of customers. This is illustrated in Figure 2.4, below, and elaborated upon in the ensuing discussion.

Figure 2.4 Retailers' functions



Source: Adapted from Bajaj, Tuli, & Srivastava (2010:14)

2.4.2.1 Sorting

Despite manufacturers' preference for producing one kind of product and selling the entire inventory to a few buyers, consumers prefer to buy an assortment of products, in small quantities. Retailers bridge this gap, and balance the demands at both ends of the value chain spectrum, by buying large quantities of products from different sources and selling them to consumers in small units (Levy *et al.*, 2014:7). This sorting process allows retailers to add to the value of the products and services offered to the customers.

2.4.2.2 Arranging assortment

Retailers provide assortments which enable customers to choose from a wide selection of products, brands, sizes, and prices in one location, rather than visiting manufacturers who specialize in producing specific types of products (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:14). Thus, retailers need to consider the profitability associated with a particular merchandise mix, store image, layout, and the level of compatibility between the existing merchandise.

2.4.2.3 Breaking bulk

This allows manufacturers to sell their merchandise in large quantities in order to reduce transportation costs, thus enabling retailers to break bulk and consumers to purchase the merchandise in smaller, more useful quantities (Terblanche, 2013:20). However, little attention is given to this function due to the introduction of new product categories, such as fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) and ready-to-wear apparel (Bajaj, *et al.* 2010:15).

2.4.2.4 Holding stock

Retailers hold and maintain appropriate levels of inventory to ensure that products are available when consumers want them (Levy *et al.*, 2014:8). Holding inventory can have negative consequences if retailers hold high levels of unwanted stock, in which case the retailer's cost of operation will also be high. In contrast, holding too little stock will hamper the sales volume and, consequently, result in an inevitable loss of customers (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:15). However, efficient consumer response systems like quick response and just-in-time deliveries can reduce the burden of holding high levels of stock by ordering more frequently, in lower quantities (Berman & Evans, 2013:418).

2.4.2.5 Providing additional services

Retailers provide a multitude of services to customers, which gives retailers a competitive advantage. These services may be an 'add-on' to the products and services that will make it easier for consumers to buy and use particular products (Levy *et al.*, 2014:8). For example, retailers offer credit, home delivery, after-sales services and information regarding new products. These services go beyond just selling the products and/or services, but gives the consumer the satisfaction they need, thus making shopping a convenient and enjoyable experience.

2.4.2.6 Providing additional services

Retailers provide augmented services that differentiate the retailer from its competitors (Bajaj et al., 2010:16). For example, retailers offer free gift-wrapping services to customers during seasonal occasions like Valentine's Day, Christmas and Easter, while some retailers' stores offer 24-hour service. When retailers perform these activities, they continuously create value for their customers through a combination of service, price, accessibility, and experience (Levy et al., 2014:7).

2.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF RETAILING

Retailing can be distinguished from other business activities, such as manufacturing, in the following ways (Bajaj et al., 2010:11):

- There is direct end-user interaction in retailing;
- It is the only point in the value chain to provide a platform for promotions;
- Sales at the retail level are generally in small unit sizes;
- Location is a critical factor in the retail business;
- In most retail businesses, services are as important as core products;
- There are a larger number of retail units compared to other members of the value chain. This occurs, primarily, to meet the requirements of geographical coverage and population density. The characteristics of retailers are based on the retail mix or the elements retailers use to satisfy their customers' needs.

Broadly, retailers can be differentiated on the following criteria (Levy & Weitz, 2012:30-34):

- Type of merchandise sold;
- Variety and assortment of merchandise, which consists of all the products offered by the firm, defined in terms of its breadth and depth;

- Prices and the cost of offering breadth and depth of merchandise and service, which refers to the price-cost relationship on merchandise sold and services offered to customers;
- Services offered, which is the extent of customer service the firm offers; and
- Type of ownership, in other words, retail firms may be independently owned, chain-owned, franchisee-operated, leased departments, owned by manufacturers or wholesalers, or consumer-owned.

These elements of the retail mix are particularly useful for classifying retailers, that is, for identifying the type of retail business.

2.6 CLASSIFICATION OF RETAIL INSTITUTIONS

The classification of retail institutions is necessary in strategic planning, so as to enable retailers to better understand and enact their own strategies; select an organisational mission; choose an ownership alternative; define the goods and services category; and set objectives (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:118). According to Berman and Evans (2013:123), a retail institution is the basic format or structure of a business. The institutional debate shows the relative size and diversity of different kinds of retailing, and indicates how retailers are affected by the external environment.

Retail institutions can be classified into three categories, namely, ownership-based, store-based retail strategy mix, and non-store-based retail strategy mix together with nontraditional retailing, as illustrated in Figure 2.5, below. The classification is not mutually exclusive as some institutions may be correctly placed in more than one category. For example, Edgars is part of a chain, has a store-based strategy, and has a website. This enables retailers to communicate with consumers through multiple channels. Omniretailing is a term frequently used to emphasize multichannel retailing. It refers to a coordinated multichannel retail offering that provides a seamless customer experience when using all of the retailer's shopping channels (Berman & Evans, 2013: 67).

Figure 2.5 Classification of retail institutions



Source: Berman & Evans, 2013

Figure 2.5, above, shows three classifications of retail institutions. Depending on the objectives of a retailer, choosing the most suitable ownership type provides significant opportunities for growth. The store-based retail strategy mix comprises of food-oriented and general merchandise-oriented retailers, while the non-store-based retail strategy mix

provides store-based retailers the opportunity to employ a variety of strategies in order to communicate with their customers so as to enhance the image of the retailer and improve customer experience.

Conversely, Bajaj *et al.* (2010:51) assert that retail units can be classified into various formats based on the following criteria:

- Nature of ownership – there are three basic legal forms of ownership: sole proprietorship, partnership, and limited liability company (private and public);
- Operational structure – this can be classified into independent trader, multiple or chain stores; franchising, and the consumer cooperative;
- Length and depth of merchandise – retail units differentiate themselves on the basis of the range and variety of merchandise they store;
- Nature of service – this classifies retailers according to the level and kind of services they extend to their customers;
- Type of pricing policy – this is composed of retailers who emphasize low prices rather than the service aspect of their retailing mix, or those who prefer to price their offerings above the competition and generate business through convenient location, premium merchandise mix, or distinctive image;
- Type of retail location – due to limited parking facilities and traffic congestions in central business district sites, many retailers have suburban locations, whilst others have preferred to locate in ‘cluster’ locations in downtown centres.
- Method of customer interaction – traditionally, the retailer’s interaction with customers has been conducted via face-to-face contact in retail stores. However, retailers also generate sales through non-store retailing operations such as mail order catalogues, telephone selling, vending machines, door-to-door selling, or mobile vendors.

For the purpose of this study, Berman and Evans’s (2013) classification of retail institutions will be used.

2.6.1 Retail institutions characterized by ownership

Retail firms may be independently owned, chain-owned, franchisee-operated, leased departments, owned by manufacturers or wholesalers, or consumer-owned. Each ownership format serves a different marketplace niche (Berman & Evans, 2013:124):

- Independently owned retailers capitalize on a much targeted customer base and please customers in a friendly, informal way. Moreover, they use word-of-mouth communication as a tool to lure customers into their businesses. These retail firms are owner managed;
- Chain retailers operate multiple retail units under common ownership, thus benefitting from their widely known image and from economies of scale, as well as mass promotional strategies;
- Franchisors have strong geographic coverage due to franchisee investments;
- Leased departments enable store operators and outside parties to join forces and enhance the shopping experience, while sharing expertise and expenses;
- Manufacturer or wholesaler-owned retailers give a firm greater control over sources of supply, but do not provide consumers with a wide choice of products; and
- Consumer-owned cooperatives provide members with price savings.

An independent retailer owns one retail unit (Berman & Evans, 2013:124). Due to the extensive entrepreneurial activity involved in retailing, there are a large number of retail start-ups that are owner-managed (Levy *et al.*, 2014:60). For example, 80 percent of the total retail establishments in India are independently owned, thus accounting for 97 percent of the total store sales (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:119), and over 12 million independent outlets are operating in the country (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:55). Independent retailers are very flexible and have direct contact with customers; as a result, they can react to market changes and customer needs quite speedily (Levy *et al.*, 2014:60). However, they have limited bargaining power with suppliers as they often buy in small quantities (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:120). Consequently, due to low economies of scale, their transportation, ordering, and handling costs are higher. Thus, independent retailers form

buying groups in order to offset the disadvantages of economies. A popular example of this kind of outlet, in South Africa, is the 'spaza' shop.

A retail chain is a company that operates multiple retail units under common ownership and name; it usually has centralized decision-making for defining and implementing its strategy (Berman & Evans, 2013:126). Moreover, due to the fact that retail chain stores are considerably large, they are responsible for three-quarters of the total US store sales and employment. Retail chains range from comprising two stores to over a thousand stores (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:120). Even though the number of chain firms is small, their popularity is rising and their relative strength of chain retailing is great. Furthermore, retail chains have several advantages. These include: strong bargaining power with suppliers, due to the volume of purchases; no middle-men, as they buy directly from manufacturers; they can quickly and easily attain new brands, or sell private brands; they have a wider geographic coverage; and invest considerable time and resources in long-term planning, as well as monitoring threats and opportunities (Bajaj, *et al.* 2010:56).

Sinha and Uniyal (2012:120) argue that chain retailers suffer from limited flexibility, as they need to be consistent in terms of prices, promotions, and product assortments; have high investments in fixed assets and rent, and employees; and have reduced control, poor communication, and time delays.

Franchising is a contractual agreement that allows the franchisee to operate a retail outlet using the business trademark, service mark, or trade name and format of the franchisor, for a one-time franchise fee and an ongoing royalty fee, typically expressed as a percentage of gross monthly sales (Levy *et al.*, 2014:61). In franchising, there is a more interactive relationship between franchisors and franchisees. The franchisees receive assistance on site location, quality control, accounting systems, startup practices, management training, and responding to problems (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:59). However, Berman and Evans (2013:131) point out that the cancellation clauses in the contract may give franchisors the right to void agreements if provisions are not satisfied. Moreover, the hours of operation and days of the year that the business is allowed to close may be

dictated by the franchisor; this gives the franchisee little room to make decisions about the franchise firm. KFC is an example of a franchise store.

Sinha and Uniyal (2010:121) define a leased department as a department in a retail store that is rented by an outside party. Leased departments, also called 'stores within a store', are used to broaden their offerings into product categories that are often on the fringe of the store's major product lines (Berman & Evans, 2013:131). The proprietor of a leased department is usually responsible for all aspects of its business (including fixtures) and normally pays the store a percentage of sales as rent (Bajaj et al., 2010:62). Leased departments are run in a manner similar to that of an exclusive company store, except that they are located in another store. Leased departments help stores in generating greater traffic and provide one-stop shopping which, in turn, reduces costs as many of them are shared (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:121). However, Berman and Evans (2013:132) point out that leased departments may face inflexibility due to restrictions imposed by the operations of the main store; moreover, the main store may seek to replace the existing lessee with newer companies. Hence, there is a constant rise in rent or leases are not renewed when they expire, even when lessees are successful. An example of a leased department is the availability of MTN shops at Edgars stores.

A vertical marketing system (VMS) consists of all the levels of independently-owned businesses along a channel of distribution. The process allows businesses to manage and coordinate various companies, formally or informally, in order to gain a larger market share. The purpose of a VMS is to eliminate competition and conflict that typically arises in the conventional marketing system (Kotler, Armstrong, & Tait, 2013:362). This leads to a higher efficiency and reduction in product costs, as companies no longer pursue their individual financial goals. It is made up of three channels, namely, independent, also known as a corporate VMS; partially integrated, also known as a contractual VMS; and full integrated, also known as Administered VMS. These VMS channels are shown in Table 2.1, below.

Table 2.1 Vertical marketing systems

Type of channel	Channel functions	Ownership
Independent	Manufacturing	Independent manufacturer
	Wholesaling	Independent wholesaler
	Retailing	Independent retailer
Partially integrated	Manufacturing	Two channel members own all facilities and perform all functions
	Wholesaling	
	Retailing	
Fully integrated	Manufacturing	All production and distribution functions are performed by one channel
	Wholesaling	
	Retailing	

Source: Berman & Evans (2013)

Table 2.1 above shows vertical marketing systems, functions and ownership. Independent systems have separately owned manufacturers, wholesalers, and retailers. These are often used if the manufacturers or retailers are: small, and seek intensive distribution; have customers that are widely dispersed, unit sales that are high, and low resources; seek sharing costs and risks; and desire task specialization (Berman & Evans, 2013:133). However, because the firms are independently owned, manufacturers or wholesalers do not have any control over the retailers in terms of the type, quantity, and territorial aspects of retailing of any products (Kotler *et al.*, 2013:364).

While in a partially integrated system, two separately-owned firms, usually manufacturers and retailers, perform all the production and distribution functions. It is commonly used by the manufacturer and a retailer, in the absence of the wholesaler, especially if both the manufacturer and the retailer are large, seek selective or exclusive distribution, and desire greater channel control (Berman & Evans, 2013:133). For example, furniture stores use this system.

Alternatively, with the fully integrated system, single firms do all the production and distribution functions. That is, leadership is assumed through the size and power of one or a few dominant channel members. This system can be costly and requires a lot of expertise. Manufacturers of a top brand can obtain strong trade cooperation and support from resellers (Kotler *et al.*, 2013:365).

Consumer cooperatives involve businesses owned by consumers who invest, elect officers, manage operations, and share savings or profits (Berman & Evans, 2013:134). Consequently, even when these stores sell at the same prices, consumers tend to gain. They are formed to guard against the malpractices that many retailers indulge in, in terms of higher prices or inconsistent quality (Sihna & Uniyal: 2012:122). However, due to a lack of expertise in buying, handling, and selling goods and services by consumers, as well as the cost savings and low selling prices that have not met expectations, consumer cooperatives are limited in number.

2.6.2 Retail institutions characterized by store-based retail strategy mix

Retail institutions may be classified on the basis of store-based strategy mix and divided into food-oriented and general merchandise retailers. These retail institutions are also called goods retailers.

2.6.2.1 Food-oriented retailers

The food-oriented strategic retail formats consist of the following: convenience store, conventional supermarket, food-based superstore, combination store, box (limited-line) store, and warehouse store. The characteristics of each of these retail formats are illustrated in Table 2.2, below:

Table 2.2 Store-based food-oriented retailers

Type	Retail mix elements			
	Location	Merchandise	Service	Prices and promotion
Convenience store	Neighbourhood	Medium width and low depth of assortment: average quality	Average	Average prices and moderate
Conventional supermarket	Neighbourhood	Extensive width and depth of assortment; average quality; manufacturer, private, and generic brands	Average	Competitive prices and heavy use of newspapers, flyers, and coupons; self-service
Food-based superstore	Community shopping centre or isolated site	Full assortment of supermarket items, plus health and beauty aids and general merchandise	Average	Competitive prices and heavy use of newspapers, flyers; self-service
Combination store	Community shopping centre or isolated site	Full assortment of supermarket items and drugstore items or supermarket and general merchandise; average quality	Average	Competitive prices and heavy use of newspapers and flyers; self-service
Box (limited-line) store	Neighbourhood	Low width and depth of assortment; few perishables; few national brands	Low	Very low prices and little or no promotion
Warehouse store	Secondary site, often in industrial area	Moderate width and low depth; emphasis on manufacturer brands bought at discounts	Low	Very low prices and little or no promotion

Source: Adapted from Berman & Evans (2013)

Terblanche (2013: 56) asserts that food retailing has changed rapidly from the time when consumers would go to a counter and request goods which were taken off the shelf and handed to them, and has evolved into conventional supermarkets.

A conventional supermarket is a large, self-service retail food store offering groceries, meat, and produce, as well as non-food items such as health and beauty aids and general merchandise. Self-service enables supermarkets to both cut costs and increase volume (Berman & Evans, 2013:151). Spar Supermarket is an example of a conventional supermarket.

Food-based superstores are large stores that combine a supermarket with a full-line discount store. These stores achieve operational efficiencies and cost savings through large-scale operations (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:122). The stores offer a broad variety and a deep assortment of merchandise. Spar Superstore is an example of superstore.

Warehouse stores or clubs are retailers that offer a limited and irregular assortment of food and general merchandise, with little service, at low prices for ultimate consumers and small business. They appeal to one-stop food shoppers, concentrate on special purchases of popular brands, use cut-case displays, offer little service, post prices on shelves, and are located in secondary sites (Terblanche, 2013:57). An example of a warehouse store, in South Africa, is Makro.

Convenience stores provide a limited variety and assortment of merchandise at a convenient location. These stores allow consumers to make purchases quickly as they are small in size, open for longer hours, while offering the ease of shopping and the impersonal nature of many large supermarkets (Berman & Evans, 2013:151). Convenience stores are usually more expensive than supermarkets because they bring stores to communities (Terblanche, 2013:57). An example of a convenience store is 7-Eleven.

A combination store unites supermarket and general merchandise into one facility. It has an advantage over other stores because consumers like one-stop shopping and will travel to get there (Berman & Evans, 2013:151). In addition, impulse sales are high. Combination stores are large, which leads to operating efficiencies and cost savings. Pick 'n Pay Hypermarket is an example of a combination store.

Box (limited-line) stores focus on a small selection of items, moderate hours of operation, few services, and limited manufacturer brands (Berman & Evans, 2013:151). Customers carry the merchandise in their own bags. The stores depend on low-priced private label brands and price their merchandise below that of supermarkets (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:123). A spaza shop in the township is an example of a box store.

2.6.2.2 General merchandise retailers

The major general merchandise strategic retail formats include: specialty store, traditional department store, full-line discount store, variety store, off-price chain, factory outlet, membership clubs, and flea market. The characteristics of these general merchandise retailers are illustrated in Table 2.3, below:

Table 2.3. General merchandise retail mixes

Type	Retail mix elements			
	Location	Merchandise	Services	Prices and promotion
Specialty store	Business district or shopping centre, or regional mall	Very narrow width of assortment and extensive depth of assortment; average to good quality	Average to excellent	Competitive to above average prices, and heavy use of displays; extensive sales force
Traditional department store	Business district, shopping centre, or isolated store	Extensive width and depth of assortment; average to good quality	Good to excellent	Average to above average prices, and heavy advertising and catalog use, direct mail, personal selling
Full-line discount store	Business district, shopping centre, or isolated store	Extensive width and depth of assortment; average to good quality	Slightly below average to average	Competitive prices. Heavy use of newspapers; price-oriented; moderate sales force
Variety store	Business district, shopping centre, or isolated store	Good width and some depth of assortment; below-average to average quality	Below average	Average prices and use of newspapers; self-service
Off-price chain	Business district, suburban shopping strip, or isolated store	Moderate width but poor depth of assortment; average to good quality; lower continuity	Below average	Low prices and use of newspapers; brands not advertised; limited sales force
Factory outlet	Out-of-the-way site or discount mall	Moderate width but poor depth of assortment; some irregular merchandise; lower continuity	Very low	Very low prices and little promotion; self-service

Source: Berman & Evans (2013)

Traditional department stores are retailers that carry a broad variety and deep assortment of goods, offer customer services, and organize their stores into distinct departments for displaying merchandise (Levy *et al.*, 2014:48). A department store often serves as an anchor store in a shopping centre, has a strong credit card penetration, and is usually part of a chain. Edcon's Edgars is an example of a department store.

Full-line discount stores offer a wide range of general merchandise at value-based prices. They have a clear customer focus. They offer both private and national brands. Game stores serve as an example of a discount store. They reduce costs through a very low level of service, private brands, as well as fixtures and ambience (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:124).

Specialty stores concentrate on a limited number of complementary merchandise categories and provide a high level of service. They offer deep and narrow assortments of merchandise and sales associate expertise. Category killers and do-it-yourself (DIY) stores belong to this category. Category specialists are big box stores that offer a narrow but deep assortment of merchandise. They predominantly use a self-service approach and are category killers, that is, they are specialists in their category of merchandise and can kill a category of merchandise for other retailers (Berman & Evans, 2013:154). Although category specialists compete with other types of retailers, competition between them is intense. CNA and American Swiss are examples of specialty stores.

Off-price retailers offer an inconsistent assortment of brand-name merchandise at a significant discount, off of the manufacturers' suggested retail price. Most of this merchandise is bought opportunistically from manufacturers that have overruns, cancelled orders and forecasting mistakes which cause excess inventory, closeouts, and irregulars (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:125). Levy *et al.* (2014:56) concur and assert that manufacturers view these stores as an opportunity to improve their revenues from irregulars, production overruns, and merchandise returned by retailers; while others view

it as simply another channel in which to sell their merchandise. Mr Price Clearouts is an example of an off-price store.

A variety store handles a wide assortment of inexpensive and popularly priced goods and services such as gift items, health and beauty products, toys, imitation jewellery, and greeting cards (Berman & Evans, 2012:158). They do not carry full product lines and their transactions are often on a cash basis (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:125). Clicks is an example of a variety store.

A flea market is a form of street-selling where many retail vendors sell a range of products at discount prices. According to Berman and Evans (2013:161), flea markets appeal to consumers because of the credibility of permanent flea markets, consumer interest in bargaining, the broader product mix, the availability of brand-name goods, and their low prices. However, in contrast, Cant (2013) avows that many traditional retailers believe that flea markets represent an unfair method of competition for the following reasons: the quality of merchandise may be misrepresented; consumers may buy items at flea markets and return them to other retailers for higher refunds; suppliers are often unaware that their products are sold there; sales taxes can be easily avoided; and operating costs are quite low.

2.6.3 Retail institutions characterised by non-store based strategy mix and non-traditional retailing

According to Bajaj *et al.* (2010:82), non-store retailers approach their customers and market their merchandise with methods other than the store. Examples of these methods are: the broadcasting of commercials on electronic media, the broadcasting and publishing of direct-response advertising (internet), the publishing of traditional and electronic catalogues, door-to-door (direct selling), in-home demonstration, temporary display of merchandise (stalls in exhibitions, trade fairs, periodic markets, etc.), and vending machines. Non-store retailers are patronized by time-conscious consumers,

consumers who cannot easily go the stores, and compulsive buyers (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:125). They offer consumers the convenience of making purchases anytime throughout the year, and delivery at a location and time of their choice.

Non-store based retailers include direct marketing, direct selling, vending machines, online store (internet), and non-traditional retailing that comprises video kiosks and airport retailing.

Direct marketing involves a consumer's exposure to goods or services through a nonpersonal medium such as direct mail, TV, radio, magazine, and so on. The consumer then orders by mail, phone, or fax, and increasingly by computer, smart phone, or tablet (Berman & Evans, 2013:166). Consumers who shop by mail are more likely to: live in areas away from malls; while phone shoppers are more likely to live in upscale metropolitan areas; want to avoid traffic and save time. Some of the advantages of direct marketing include convenience, as customers can shop when it is convenient for them; low overheads and reduced cost of sales; as well as customer reach which is not restricted by geographic location (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:85). Glomail is an example of a direct marketer.

Direct selling involves personal contact between the salesperson or retailer and customers at any convenient place, be it their homes, offices, or clubs, as well as phone solicitations which are initiated by retailers (Berman & Evans, 2013:173). It is considered highly interactive in nature as salespeople demonstrate merchandise benefits and/or explain a service, take an order, and deliver the merchandise (Levy *et al.*, 2014:71). However, providing this high level of personalized information and extensive demonstrations is costly. Avon uses direct selling to reach their customers.

A vending machine is a cash- or card-operated retailing format that dispenses goods (such as beverages) and services (such as electronic arcade games) (Berman & Evans, 2013:176). Vending machines are typically strategically placed at convenient, high traffic locations; they are available 24 hours a day, and have replaced many services which

previously required a human interface (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:89). However, Sinha and Uniyal (2012:126) caution that due to the fact that items in a vending machine cannot be explained, and the difficulty of returning unsatisfactory merchandise, many consumers are reluctant to purchase expensive items from vending machines. Thus, vending machines mainly sell low priced items as high priced items will also require many coins, and these machines are not designed for that. Coca-cola, for example, place their vending machines in hospitals, universities, airports, and so on.

Electronic retailing (online), also known as e-tailing or internet retailing, is a retail format in which the retailer and customer communicate with each other through the internet (Kim, Kim, & Kandampully, 2007:866), whether they use a traditional computer, laptop, tablet or smartphone. It is the fastest growing retail format. After an electronic dialogue between the retailer and the customer, the customer can order the merchandise; the merchandise is delivered to an address of the customer's choice (Sinha & Uniyal, 2010:126). Some of the advantages of internet retailing are: retailers can avoid expensive capital investment on stores and in-store fittings, sales persons, and inventory holding costs; it depends on IT integration from store-front to order processing all the way back to the supplier, thereby reducing costs; and, it widens the market to be served and provides both a national and international presence (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:83). Consequently, more traditional store-based retailers utilise e-tailing to provide and enhance a better shopping experience for their customers (Levy *et al.*, 2014:69).

Merchandise kiosks are small selling spaces, typically located in the walkways of enclosed malls, airports, college campuses, or office building lobbies, some of which resemble a miniature store or cart that could be easily moved (Levy *et al.*, 2014:198). Furthermore, Berman and Evans (2013:183) add that some kiosks are video-operated freestanding, interactive electronic computer terminals that display products and related information on a video screen. In video kiosks, customers place orders, complete transactions, typically with a credit card, and arrange for shipping (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:133). Kiosks provide an opportunity for mall operators to generate rental income to

otherwise vacant space and offer a broad assortment of merchandise for visitors (Levy *et al.*, 2014:198).

Airport retailing is one of the most popular retail formats due to high-pedestrian traffic. As passengers arrive earlier for their flights, thus giving them more time to shop. In addition, a cutback in airline food services has more people seeking sustenance in the airport (Levy *et al.*, 2014:198). According to Berman and Evans (2013:185), airport retailing has the following distinct features:

- There is a large group of prospective shoppers;
- Air travellers are a temporarily captive audience at the airport and looking to fill their waiting time, which could be up to several hours, and they tend to have above-average income;
- Sales per square foot of retail space are much higher than at regional malls; however, rent is higher than in malls;
- Airport stores are smaller, carry fewer items, and have higher prices than traditional stores;
- Replenishing merchandise and stocking shelves may be difficult at airport stores because they are physically removed from delivery areas and space is limited;
- The sales of gift items and forgotten travel items, from travellers not having the time to shop elsewhere, are excellent.

The discussions above on the classification of retail institutions focused on classification by ownership, store-based retail strategy mix, and non store-based retail strategy mix. These classifications are more based on the sale of goods; that is, the sale of tangible (physical) products. Another form of retailing is service retailing, which involves transactions in which consumers do not purchase or acquire ownership of tangible products (Berman & Evans, 2013:67).

Service retailing encompasses such diverse businesses as personal services, hotels and motels, auto repair and rental, as well as recreational services. Organisations such as banks, hospitals, health spas, legal firms, entertainment firms, and universities that offer

services to consumers traditionally have not considered themselves retailers; however, due to increased competition, these organisations are adopting retailing principles in order to attract customers and satisfy their needs (Levy & Weitz, 2012:49). In concurring, Berman and Evans (2013:67) assert that, due to these businesses offering services which entail final consumer use, they should be classified as retailers. Furthermore, Berman and Evans (2013) classify service retailing into three basic categories:

- Related-goods services, whereby consumers lease and use goods for specified periods of time, but ownership is not obtained and the goods are returned when the rental period is up. For example, Avis car rentals;
- Owned-goods services, whereby goods owned by consumers are repaired, improved, or maintained. For example, watch repairs; and
- Non-goods services, whereby intangible personal services are offered to consumers who then experience the services rather than possess them. For example, travel agents and personal trainers.

Service retailing is much more dependent on personal interaction and word-of-mouth communication than goods retailing. However, Levy *et al.* (2014:57) maintain that some retailers provide both merchandise and services for their customers, but the emphasis placed on the merchandise in comparison to the service differs across retail formats. For example, optical centres and restaurants sell both goods and services. In addition to selling frames, contact lenses and spectacles, optical centres provide services like eye examinations and spectacle fitting. Similarly, restaurants offer food plus a place to eat, music in the background, ambience, and table service.

According to Berman and Evans (2013:58), the differences between services and goods retailers lie in the nature of their offerings, as discussed below:

- Intangibility – services are less tangible than products, in other words, consumers cannot see or touch them, and they are performances or actions rather than objects. For example, activities performed by a dentist cannot be seen or touched by a patient.

- Simultaneous production and consumption – contrary to products that are manufactured in a factory, stored and sold by a retailer to customers, service providers create and deliver the service as the customers consume it. This simultaneous production and consumption can create problems for retailers as retailers do not get a second chance to satisfy the needs of their customers. Thus, it is critical for service retailers to get it right the first time.
- Perishability – services are perishable; in other words, they cannot be saved, stored, or resold. Once consumed, they cannot be retrieved. In contrast, merchandise can be held in inventory until a customer is ready to buy it.
- Inconsistency – due to the fact that products are produced by machines in large quantities with very tight quality control, customers are reasonably assured of quality and that the products are identical. In contrast, because services are performances produced by people, no two services will be identical.

The retail format that a consumer chooses to patronize depends on the benefits that the consumer seeks. Bartel (2004:184) argues that organisations that compete in goods and service delivery often use a relationship management strategy in which they seek to build long-term relationships with customers, by providing high-quality service. These organisations survive and prosper because they satisfy a group of consumer needs more effectively than their competitors and, thus, consumers patronize different retail types when they have different needs.

In affirmation, Sweeney, Soutar, and Johnson (1999:83) suggest that many successful retailers differentiate their offerings not through the goods they sell, but through the services they offer. This is particularly true since the goods that are sold are often nearly identical. Moreover, the quality of service is important, since service quality is recognized as an important strategic retailing weapon, particularly in developing defensive marketing strategies. However, Ibrahim and Najjar, (2008:6) argue that retailers are forced to

increase their relationship efforts since they compete on the basis of similar marketing tactics and strategies. Hence, since most retailers offer both merchandise and services to customers and, for the purpose of this study, service retailing is not considered in isolation, but rather incorporated into the foregoing discussions of all the retail institutions.

As consumer needs and competition change, new retail formats are created and existing formats evolve. New firms introduce innovative approaches to retailing, and transform the industry as they enter, develop, and grow. The emergence, growth, and decline of retail institutions have led to the development of theories that explain these changes; this will be discussed in the section below.

2.7 THEORIES OF STRUCTURAL CHANGE IN RETAILING

In retailing, change is not a matter of chance; it is a certainty (Bajaj et al., 2010:49), and complacency is not appropriate. The retailing industry is dynamic and keeps changing. These changes are brought about by ever-changing customer requirements, economic development of the nation, falling borders, new technologies, and entrepreneurs (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:6). At different times, different retail formats have been popular. Strong retail formats have become marginal and new retail formats have often emerged to dominate the retailing scene. Several theories have been propounded to explain such developments, namely, cyclical theories, conflict theories, and environmental theories, all of which are discussed below.

2.7.1 Cyclical theories

According to Fernie, Fernie and Moore (2013), cyclical theories' change follow a pattern and all phases are associated with identifiable and adjusted attributes, such as price or assortment. There are three primary components associated with the cyclical theory: wheel of retailing, retail life cycle and retail accordion.

2.7.1.1 The wheel of retailing

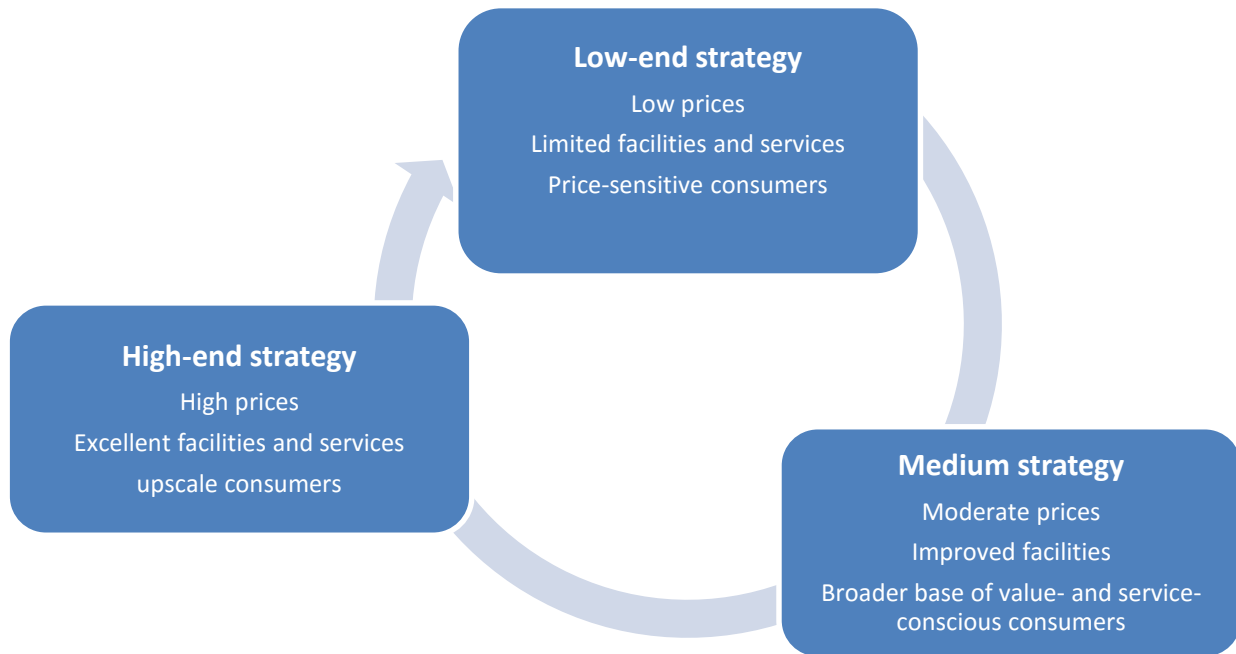
According to this theory, retail innovators often first appear as low-price operators with low costs and low profit margin requirements. Then, over time, they upgrade the products they carry, improve their facilities and customer service, and increase their prices (Cant & Manley, 2013:4). In contrast, Bajaj *et al.* (2010:49) warn that not all retail institutions can be categorized according to the wheel of retailing as not all stores begin as low-price, low-service outlets. In addition, changes to the retail environment increase the likelihood that retailers will seek to remain where they are, rather than move up the wheel.

The wheel of retailing is grounded on four principles (Berman & Evans, 2013:243):

- There are many price-sensitive shoppers who will trade customer services, wide selections and convenient location for lower prices;
- Price-sensitive shoppers are often not loyal and will switch to retailers with lower prices, while prestige-oriented customers patronize retailers with high-end strategies;
- New institutions are frequently able to have lower operating costs than existing institutions; and
- As retailers move up the wheel, they typically do so to increase sales, broaden the target market, and improve their image.

As the low-end retailer upgrades its strategy in order to increase sales and profit margins, a new form of discounter takes its place, as shown in Figure 2.6:

Figure 2.6 The wheel of retailing



Source: Adapted from Berman & Evans, 2013.

As the cycle continues into the next generation, new competitive opportunities develop to allow for new low-price discounters to progress.

2.7.1.2 Retail life cycle

The retail life cycle concept states that retail institutions pass through identifiable life stages, namely, introduction, growth, maturity, and decline, as shown in Table 2.4, below. This concept highlights the proper retailer response as institutions evolve.

Table 2.4 The retail life cycle

	Life cycle stage			
	Introduction	Growth	Maturity	Decline
Sales	Low/growing	Rapid acceleration	High, leveling off	Dropping
Profitability	Negative to break-even	High yield	High/declining	Low to break-even
Positioning	Concept innovation	Special need	Broad market	Niche
Competition	None	Limited	Extensive/saturation	Intensive/consolidated

Source: Adapted from Berman & Evans, 2013.

In the introductory stage, as depicted in Table 2.4 above, a firm alters at least one element of the strategy mix from that of traditional competitors, which leads to increased sales and a rise in profits. However, new institutions might not be accepted by shoppers, which will result in losses due to heavy investments. In the growth stage, both sales and profits exhibit rapid growth as existing firms expand geographically, paving the way for new firms of the same type to enter the market.

In the maturity stage, sales growth is slow. Although overall sales continue to go up, this takes place at a much lower rate than it does in prior stages. This stage is brought on by market saturation caused by the high number of firms in an institutional format, competition from newer institutions, changing societal interest, and inadequate management skills to lead mature or larger firms. In the decline stage, industry-wide sales and profits fall, many firms close down and newer formats attract consumers who were previously committed to that retail type.

2.7.1.3 The retail accordion

The retail accordion theory, also known as the general-specific-general theory, suggests that some businesses go from outlets that offer an array of products to establishments that provide a narrow selection of goods and services (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:6). These establishments later return to a generalized outlet store.

According to this theory, the merchandise mix of retailers offers an explanation for retail structure change. It focuses on the width of product assortment sold by retail outlets and claims a general-specific-general cycle. The cycle begins by retailers selling a wide assortment of goods followed by a more focused range, and vice-versa (Terblanche, 2013:30). Additionally, as time passes, the retail institution becomes specialized by carrying a limited line of merchandise with a deep assortment. At some point, every retail institution returns to the inventory profile of the old operation with a broad assortment of many lines of merchandise (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:7).

However, the limitations to this theory are that it is not applicable to retail institutions. This is because small, specialty, retail institutions tend to resist expansion of their merchandise lines because they specialize in a particular merchandise line and their customers do not expect a broad assortment of merchandise at a small specialty store (Berman & Evans, 2013:155).

2.7.2 Conflict theory

A well-known conflict theory that has been the basis for the common concepts between many conflict theories is the Dialectic theory, also called the Melting Pot theory. According to this theory, a new value proposition by one retailer gives rise to two new retailers with the same proposition (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:7). That is, retail firms adapt mutually to the emerging competition, and tend to adopt the plans and strategies of the opposition.

While an existing retail institution is challenged by its competitor because it has a competitive advantage over the existing retail institution, it imitates the characteristics of the competitor in order to upgrade its existing characteristics and, finally, creates a new retail institution (Terblanche, 2013:26). This adaptation results in the two retailing institutions displaying many similarities in terms of product and service offerings, facilities and prices, to such an extent that these two initially opposing retailing institutions become indistinguishable, or at least very similar, and constitute a new retail institution.

However, some retail institutions do not react to a new retail institution and continue with business as usual (Sinha & Uniyal, 2012:7). Retail evolution relies on the retail institution's intentions to change and evolve into a new institution type when faced with a need, conflict or other forces (such as the environment).

2.7.3 Environmental theory

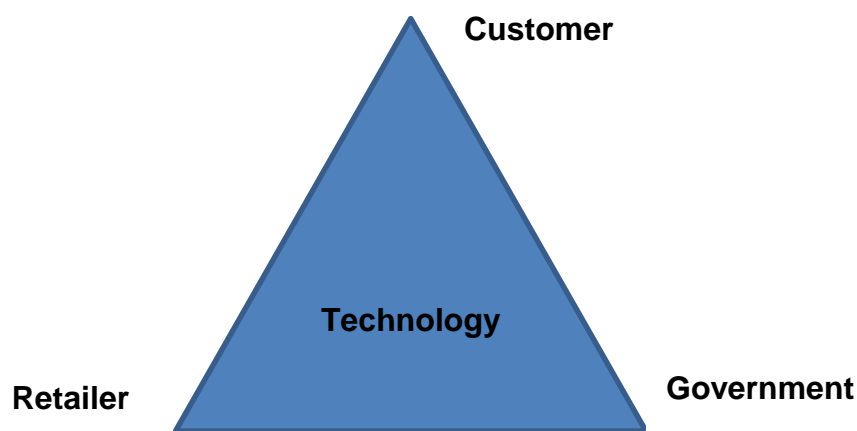
The environmental theory is based on the perception that the retail environment is the key influence to retail changes; moreover, it implies that to survive change and competition, retail institutions need to evolve by adapting or adjusting to the environmental changes (Fernie, Fernie, & Moore, 2013:42). A well-known theory of the environmental theory is the Natural Selection theory, which proposes that a retail institution can survive only when it best adapts to environmental changes (Bajaj et al., 2010: 50). The environmental theory explains how variables in the environment affect retail evolution; however, it does not explain patterns of change or changes over an extended period.

However, retail institutions are not legally required to be evolved, even when their environments change. Retail evolution depends entirely on a retail institution's intention to either adapt to or reject the environmental changes (Berman & Evans, 2013:148).

2.8 THE CHANGING RETAIL ENVIRONMENT

Retailing is a dynamic industry. New firms introduce innovative approaches to retailing, and transform the industry as they enter, develop, and grow. To understand the retail environment, it is important to understand the interrelationships between the relevant factors, as illustrated in Figure 2.7:

Figure 2.7 Factors influencing retail change



Source: Fernie, Fernie, & Moore (2013)

Changes in the consumer environment, which consist of demographic, socio-economic and lifestyle trends, have impacted upon retail change, while government has been a major agent of change (Levy, *et al.* 2014). At the same time, retailers are regulated by an array of laws and ordinances that impinge on their operations, such as hours of operation, licensing laws, location issues, prices, as well as labour and economic laws. Consequently, retailers respond to these interactions by influencing customers and government through product choice and format development (Fernie, *et al.* 2013:2). In addition, retailers rapidly embrace the IT revolution through sharing data with their suppliers and communicating with their customers; they also apply new technologies to ensure the efficient design, manufacture and distribution of products at lower costs.

According to analysts from Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu Limited (DTLL) (2011), the following key trends were observed:

- Consumer spending has weakened, especially for discretionary goods, and is impacted by factors such as interest rate uncertainty, rising petrol prices, and high unemployment;
- Business costs, both variable and fixed costs, have increased due to a rise in commodity prices and global demand;
- Evolving technology and an increasing number of interactive devices is profoundly changing consumer shopping behaviour;
- Intensification of competition through a shrinking market and an increasing number of players converging from other industries, or other countries; and
- Retailers' sustainability agenda and policies significantly contribute to commercial performance as businesses are seeking to become environmentally friendly and appeal to green customers.

2.8.1 The retail response

The retail response to these changes in consumer behaviour has made the retail industry one of the most dynamic in modern economies. Innovations in format development and operating practices have enabled retailers to compete or even survive in a changing retail environment (Fernie *et al.*,2013:3). Retailers responded by using stores as a destination to augment brand experience and as showrooms for a limitless range; empower store associates to possess a high degree of product knowledge and demonstrate strong

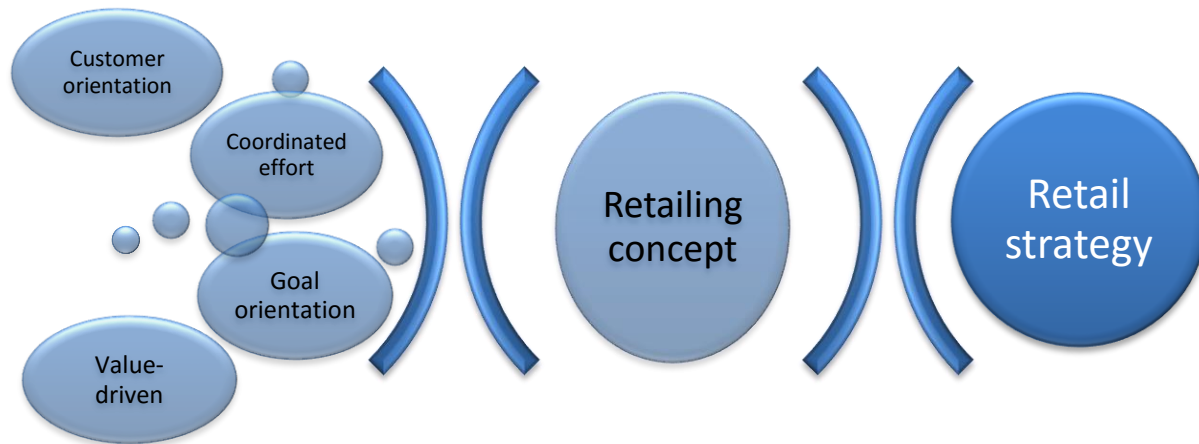
interpersonal skills; use technology as an enabler of store experience; and have connected stores for connected consumers (Deloitte, 2011:8).

For a retailer to achieve success, there must be a proper balance of all the strategies that will satisfy customer needs. Thus, retailers apply the retailing concept as an important strategic guide that will direct their efforts towards achieving their goals.

2.9 THE RETAILING CONCEPT

The retailing concept justifies a retailer's existence by re-emphasising the focus on the satisfaction of consumer needs and wants, whilst striving to meet their business objectives (Terblanche, 2013:22). It demands the identification and establishment of consumer needs and the development of ways in which to satisfy such needs. Berman and Evans (2013:43) view the retailing concept as a means of communicating with shoppers and viewing their desires as critical to the firm's success; having a consistent strategy; offering prices perceived as good value for money by customers; and working to achieve meaningful, specific, and reachable goals. However, the retailing concept does not deal with a firm's internal capabilities or competitive advantages as it is only a guide that offers a broad planning framework (Bajaj et al., 2010:27). The retailing concept covers four principles, as illustrated in Figure 2.8, below. These principles are: customer orientation, coordinated effort, value-driven, and goal orientation.

Figure 2.8 Applying the retailing concept



Source: Adapted from Berman and Evans (2013)

Figure 2.8 shows the four principles of the retailing concept, which are explained below:

- Customer orientation

This principle of the retailing concept refers to the process of identifying the attributes and needs of the retailer's customers and endeavours to satisfy them to the fullest. Retailers are increasingly realizing the importance of becoming more customer-centric and managing their customer relationships better (Levy *et al.* 2014:291). Furthermore, retailers concentrate on developing customer loyalty and increasing their market share by providing more value to their best customers by using targeted, personalized merchandise, services, and promotions.

- Coordinated effort

The retailer integrates all plans and activities to maximise efficiency, that is, every activity is aligned to the organisational goals and is designed to maximise efficiency

and deliver value to the customer (Bajaj, 2012:27). Effective strategy implementation guides the retailer to coordinate its efforts towards achieving its organisational goals (Levy *et al.*, 2014:124).

- Value-driven

The retailer offers good value to customers as customers' perceived value assesses the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given (Sweeney, *et al.* 1999:79). Besides the products and services that retailers offer, they also add value and are more efficient in adding this value than manufacturers and wholesalers (Levy *et al.*, 2014:7). Additionally, through stimulation, retailers encourage consumers to convert their evaluation of the store to purchases; they follow-up by offering superior after-sales service, which adds value to customers and the firm's offerings. Concurring, Ward, Davies, and Kooijman (2003:290) suggest that retailers have to establish mechanisms by which they are able to increase the likelihood of approach behaviours being stimulated amongst their target market, thereby attempting not only to draw in target customers, but also to convert them into purchasers.

- Goal orientation

The retailer sets goals and then uses its strategy to attain them. Retailers need to have common goals with vendors and buyers in order for a successful relationship to develop (Levy *et al.*, 2014:462). Moreover, employers who set realistic goals and who have common goals with their employees, motivate them to achieve the organisational goals. This is particularly important since customer-contact sales employees are the fundamental link in operationalizing policy, through their everyday interactions with customers (Boles, Babin, Brashear, & Brooks, 2001:1).

The retailing concept means communicating with shoppers and viewing their desires as critical to the firm's success; having a consistent strategy; offering prices perceived as fair

by customers; and, working to achieve meaningful, specific, and reachable goals (Berman & Evans, 2013:43).

The successful application or implementation of the retail concept leads to the provision of excellent and satisfactory levels of service quality. Moreover, the retail concept can be used to measure a retailer's performance through three parameters: total retail experience, customer service, and relationship retailing.

2.9.1 Total retail experience

Total retail experience encompasses all elements in a retail offering that encourage or inhibit consumers during their contact with a retailer (Berman & Evans, 2013:44), from parking to checkout. If some part of the total retail experience is unsatisfactory, consumers may decide not to patronize a retailer. Thus, it is important for retailers to ensure that every element in the experience aims to fulfil customer expectations. In some retailers, this could mean the presence of plush interiors and air conditioning, while in other it could mean ample stock on-hand when there is a promotion. Thus, the consumer enjoys a total retail experience, leading to the establishment and development of a long-term relationship with the retailer (Terblanche, 2013:8).

2.9.2 Customer service

Customer service refers to the identifiable, both tangible and intangible, activities undertaken by a retailer in combination with the basic goods and services it provides. It is part of the value-driven approach discussed above. Among the factors that drive a firm's customer-centric approach are store hours, parking, shopper friendliness of the store layout, credit acceptance, and so forth (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:28). Satisfaction with customer service is affected by expectations and past experience, and people's assessment of customer service depends on their perceptions, not necessarily reality (Levy *et al.* 2014:130). Thus, a number of outstanding retailers now wonder whether "the

customer is always right". Despite this view, retailers can develop customer loyalty by offering excellent customer services (Berman & Evans, 2013:61), and ensuring that each encounter is perceived by the customer as the best, because customers share their experiences with their friends, and word-of-mouth may lead to a number of customers refraining from patronizing a particular retailer.

2.9.3 Relationship retailing

With relationship retailing, retailers seek to establish and maintain long-term bonds with customers, rather than act as if each sales transaction is a completely new encounter (Ibrahim & Najjar, 2008:6). This means focusing on the total retail experience, monitoring satisfaction with customer service, and staying in touch with customers (Berman & Evans, 2013:47), even after the sale. This is particularly important because it is much harder to lure new customers in than it is to make existing ones happy, thus a win-win approach is critical (Bajaj *et al.*, 2010:29). Additionally, due to advances in computer technology, developing a customer base with information on people's attributes and past shopping behaviour, is much easier.

2.10 SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC SIGNIFICANCE OF RETAILING

2.10.1 The role of retailing in developed economies

Retail sales in 2011 were more than \$4.3 trillion worldwide (Levy *et al.*, 2014:13). Consumer spending plays a critical role in the economies of the United States of America and other developed countries. When consumers spend more money buying goods and services from retailers, the economy of the country flourishes. However, if consumers feel uncertain about their financial future and decide to refrain from buying, the economy slows down. Moreover, retailers are large employers. For example, according to Levy *et al.*, (2014:12), in 2011, more than 14 million people were employed in retailing in the US; this is approximately 11 percent of the country's workforce.

2.10.2 The role of retailing in developing economies – the bottom of the pyramid

Retailers also need to focus on the opportunities available, by serving the needs of the population at the lowest end of the income distribution. Serving these customers provides the important social benefit of reducing worldwide poverty. Consumers in this low income consumer segment, also known as the base of the pyramid or bottom of the pyramid (BoP), have a potential spending power of more than \$5 trillion (Levy *et al.*, 2014:14). The growth of this segment, especially in BRICS, has motivated firms to enter the BoP market. However, entry into this market is challenging. For example, communicating and completing a transaction with people in the BoP market may be a challenge as people in this market may not have access to mass media, internet, mobile phones, or credit cards, as so those in more affluent markets. This is because most people in BoP live in rural areas, specifically in remote villages that are not connected to the outside world through adequate roads. It is thus suggested that, to successfully do business in this market, retailers need to engage in innovative approaches that will be sustainable.

2.11 THE SOUTH AFRICAN RETAIL ENVIRONMENT

The retail industry in South Africa is classified under the tertiary sector, within the wholesale and retail industry. According to Fouche and Wilkinson (2012:3), South Africa is the African continent's most sophisticated and the biggest in the retail market in sub-Saharan Africa. Thus, internationalization of the retail business, whereby retailers can expand their businesses beyond national borders, is seen as an opportunity for retail growth in the country. Furthermore, it is the 20th largest in the world, with a wide array of shopping malls and retail developments, as well as a sizable food and non-food manufacturing sector.

The major segments of the retail market are in Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape. Collectively, these provinces make up 63.8% of the country's wholesale industry

and 72.6% of its retail industry (Mazwai & Dikgole, 2013:16). This is because the majority of Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) and Wholesale and Retail (W&R) firms are located in these provinces. In addition, about 86% of the industry is made up of small enterprises, 9.5% of medium enterprises and 4.5% of large enterprises. According to Kearney (2010), South Africa was ranked 26th out of 30 developing countries with a score of 42.2 in 2011.

According to Statssa (2013), the retail industry forms part of the major trade division which includes wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles, motor cycles, personal and household goods, as well as hotels and restaurants. The retail industry is composed of 7 clusters, which are:

- General dealers;
- Retailers of food, beverages and tobacco in specialised stores;
- Retailers in pharmaceutical and medical goods, cosmetics and toiletries;
- Retailers in textiles, clothing, footwear and leather goods;
- Retailers in household furniture, appliances and equipment;
- Retailers in hardware, paint and glass; and
- All other retailers; that is, retailers in reading material and stationery, jewellery, watches and clocks, personal and households, and second-hand goods.

South Africa has a wide range of retailers that have evolved to serve the needs of a marketplace characterised by many different groups of potential customers, in terms of race, income and culture. In this context, there are neighbourhood convenience stores, small general dealers, speciality stores handling a single product line, exclusive boutiques, chain stores, department stores, cash and carry wholesale-retail outlets and co-operative stores serving rural areas (Terblanche, 2013:40). Furthermore, these retailers are situated in urban, semi-urban and rural areas, and vary from large, sophisticated hypermarkets to small, uniquely South African spaza stores. However, the major retail players in South Africa are Edcon Pty (Ltd), Pick n Pay Holdings Ltd., Shoprite Holdings Ltd, Spar Group Ltd, Woolworths Holdings Ltd, and Massmart Holdings Ltd.

In the 2012 Global Powers of Retailing report, by Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu Limited (DTTL) in conjunction with STORES Media, Shoprite was ranked 92nd in the retail sales rank, Massmart 126th, Pick n Pay was ranked 133rd, Spar 179th and Woolworths 222nd out of the 250 largest retailers worldwide, with an average profit margin of 3.9 percent. (DTTL, 2012)

However, other retailers in the clothing and fashion retail chains that have a noticeable presence in the country are Mr Price, Truworths international and the Foschini group, but these will not be discussed further because they, respectively, contribute smaller shares in the industry.

2.11.1 Edcon Pty (Ltd)

Edcon Pty (Ltd) is the largest clothing, footwear and textiles (CFT) retailing group in South Africa. Edcon is estimated to have 31 percent market share of the CFT retailing group (Mtawa, 2014), and has about 1,228 stores operating in South Africa, Botswana, Namibia, Swaziland and Lesotho. Through its recent acquisitions, Edcon retail business has added top stationery and houseware brands as well as general merchandise to its CFT portfolio. The company also provides credit facilities and financial service products to the Group's over four million card holders.

According to the 2013 first quarter report by Nkomfe (2012), Edcon's retail business is structured under two divisions. The first is the Department stores division, which includes Edgars, CNA, Boardmans, Prato, Red square and Temptations, which serve middle and upper income customers. The second division is the Discount Division, which includes Jet, Jet Mart, Jet shoes, Legit and Blacksnow, which serve lower to middle income customers.

2.11.2 Pick n Pay Holdings (Ltd)

Pick n Pay is one of the largest Mass Grocery Retail (MGR) companies in Africa with a market share of 30 percent in South Africa, and it operates 794 outlets made up of hypermarkets, supermarkets and family stores (Bradshaw, 2011). In addition, according to the 2010 Pick n Pay annual report, it employs approximately 49,000 people and operates in seven African countries outside South Africa. The group offers three private label ranges, which are: No name, Pick 'n Pay brand and Finest.

2.11.3 Shoprite Holdings Ltd.

According to the 2013 first quarter report, by Nkomfe (2012), the Shoprite group of companies is also one of Africa's largest food retailers, with a market share of 30 percent in MGR. The company operates 1,303 corporate and 427 franchise outlets in 16 countries across Africa, and employs more than 95,000 people, of which approximately 11,000 are outside the country. Shoprite caters, primarily, to the middle to lower-end of the consumer market. Some of its store formats and retail brands include Shoprite supermarkets, Checkers supermarkets, Usave stores, MediRite Pharmacy, House & Home and the OK franchise division.

2.11.4 Spar Group Ltd.

The Spar Group is the third largest MGR by market share, with a share of approximately 78 percent (Louw, Jordaan, Ndanga & Kirsten, 2008). Furthermore, it operates six distribution centres, and supplies goods and services to approximately 800 stores in the country. Stores that are under the Spar group include Build It, Pharmacy at Spar, Tops, Kwikspar and Superspar.

2.11.5 Woolworths Holdings Ltd.

According to Luiz, Bowen & Beswick (2011), Woolworths is the fourth largest MGR in the country, with 11 percent market share. This company has approximately 23,304 employees. Woolworths owns 295 stores and has 145 franchised stores. It offers its own product brand of clothing, food, home and beauty. It operates in 18 countries, with store formats that include full line stores which stock a complete range of Woolworths products. The Woolworths food stores only sell Woolworths foods.

2.11.6 Massmart Holdings Ltd.

The Massmart group consists of nine wholesale and retail chains with 265 stores in South Africa and 13 in other countries; it has about 1 percent market share of the MGR, and employs over 30,000 staff members nationwide (Montandon, 2015). Brands under the Massmart umbrella include, amongst others: Game, Dion, Makro, Builders Warehouse, Dion Wired, Builders Express, Builders Trade Depot, Jumbo Cash and Carry and Cambridge Food. The group has, in May 2011, been purchased by Walmart at R19.2 billion (bn). Walmart is America's retail giant and has purchased 51 percent of Massmart. According to the 2012 Global Powers of Retailing report, Walmart was ranked first in the retail industry all over the world, with its revenue standing above the US\$400bn mark over South Africa's GDP of approximately US\$350bn. The entry of Walmart into the local retail industry has caused a lot of pressure on retailers and suppliers of retail goods to do things better and faster in order to remain in the market.

2.12 REGULATORY BODIES OF SOUTH AFRICAN RETAILERS

Currently, the retail industry does not have a regulatory board that oversees all operations of the industry. However, retailers are members of the following associations:

2.12.1 The Consumer Goods Council of South Africa

The Consumer Goods Council of South Africa (CGCSA) is a section 21 company that represents over 11,000 member companies that are in the retail, wholesale and manufacturing of consumer goods (Igumbor, Sanders, Puoane, Tsolekile, Schwarz, Purdy, Swart, Durão & Hawkes, 2012). The CGCSA's mission is to promote partnership amongst its stakeholders across the consumer goods industry in resolving shared non-competitive matters in the most efficient manner, to the ultimate benefit of the consumer.

2.12.2 The South African Retail Council

The South African Retail Council (SARC) is a new unit within the CGCSA which will focus particularly on retailers' interests (retrieved from www.cgcsa.co.za on 3 August 2013). The SARC is said to focus on areas of economic and legislative affairs as well as labour relations that impact on the retail industry. It offers its members the following benefits:

- Advocacy: members are said to enjoy a single voice in the industry, to government and other stakeholders;
- Networking: members are envisaged to enjoy a platform for networking opportunities through seminars, workshops and conferences; and
- Information and Resources: members would receive regular updates on industry position statements, policy papers and government submissions.

2.12.3 The Franchise Association of South Africa

The Franchise Association of South Africa (FASA) represents franchisors, franchisees and the professional organisations that service the franchise industry (retrieved from www.fasa.co.za on 3 August 2013). Amongst others, members of FASA include those in the retail industry, fast-food and restaurants, and real estate services. Some of its members in the retail industry are the Ceramic Tile Market (CTM), OK franchise division,

Pick n Pay supermarkets and Verimark Direct. FASA is the only recognised representative body of the franchise industry and it aims to ensure that its members practice ethical franchising and that the franchising business environment is continually developed and expanded upon in the country. FASA is also a member of the World Franchise Council.

2.12.4 The Council of Shopping Centres South Africa

The Council of Shopping Centres South Africa (CSCSA) is a professional body specifically dedicated to members of the retail and property industry. It is a non-profit organisation aimed at setting standards and promoting the development of the industry by creating communication opportunities, providing information and education, encouraging ethical and professional behaviour and safeguarding the interests of its members (retrieved from www.sacsc.co.za on 3 August 2013). Membership in CSCSA is open to retail property investors, retailers, tenants, researchers, property financing institutions, brokers, property professionals and developers. The key focus areas for development by CSCSA are:

- Developing national and local specialised forums;
- Retailer training and development;
- Facilitating the creation of partnerships with retailers;
- Improving communications with members and specific interest groups;
- Boosting Chapter activities and support through forums;
- Growing and developing representativity through forums;
- Promoting shopping centre development within rural and urban areas;
- Expanding retail performance indices; and
- Promote shopping centre retailing as a career of choice.

2.13 THE ROLE OF RETAILING IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN ECONOMY

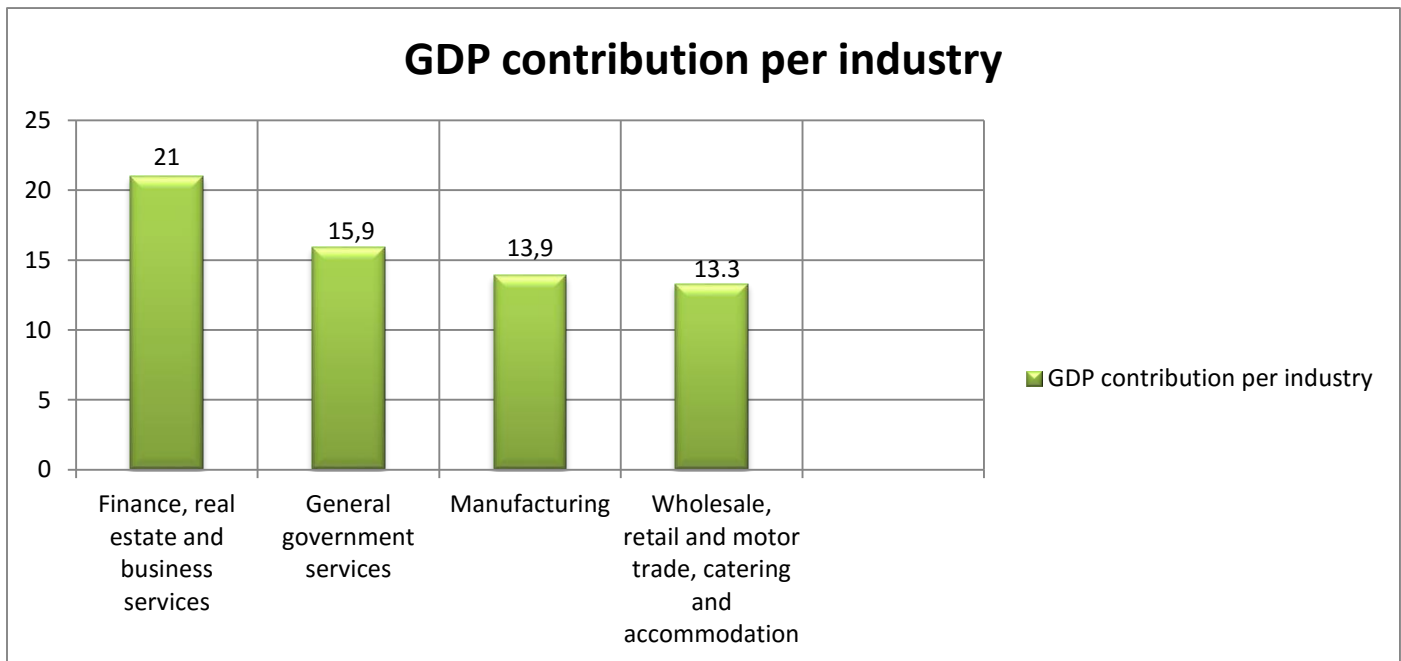
The activities of retailers are important to both consumers and retailing because they are responsible for the creation and finalisation of a multitude of transactions. The efficient and competent manner in which retailers meet consumer demands has given retailers a great deal of power and control in the marketing channel (Terblanche, 2013:33). Retailing is responsible for the growth of the economy in most countries. In South Africa, many people are self-employed and operate in the informal sector. This is due to the low barriers to entry and the limited skills required to operate informal retail stores.

Other retailers move beyond their own borders in order to establish shops in other countries, for example, Walmart in South Africa. The markets in foreign countries prove to be attractive to retailers for a number of reasons, including, growth opportunities, less competition and tax or other incentives offered by the foreign country. However, a wide range of factors must be considered before a retailer can enter a foreign market. These factors are discussed in greater detail below.

2.13.1 Retail contribution to GDP

The retail trade industry contributes 13,3% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the country and is one of the largest contributors, as shown in Figure 2.9:

Figure 2.9 Largest industry contributors to GDP



Source: Adapted from Statssa (2013)

Figure 2.9, above, shows the industries that are the largest contributors to the GDP; the wholesale, retail and motor trade, catering and accommodation sector is the fourth largest contributor. Although the retail industry has seen an increase in its monetary value, the total GDP has decreased due to increases in other industries' contribution share to GDP (Nkomfe, 2012:23). Whilst the Business Monitor International (2012) (BMI) believes the catalyst to this trend is the underlying economic growth, rising disposable incomes, falling unemployment, increasing urbanization and the emergence of the Black middle class as drivers of the expansion of the retail industry.

2.13.2 Retail sales

Xiao and Qi (2008) assert that the management of sales is of paramount importance to retail organisations and retail policy due to competition and globalization, since sales forecast plays a huge role in commercial enterprises. Table 2.5, below, shows a

composition of the retail trade sales per trade type, at constant prices, from May to July 2013. The retail sales amount per retail trade type is weighted against the total retail sales amount in order to determine its position in the retail industry. The percentage change between May to July 2012 and May to July 2013 is then calculated. The percentage point that each retail type contributes to the total percentage change, between May to July 2012 and May to July 2013, is also depicted in the table below:

Table 2.5 Composition of the retail trade sales at constant prices

Type of retailer	May – July 2012 (R million)	Weight	May – July 2013 (R million)	% change between May – July 2012 and May – July 2013	Contribution (% points) to the total % change
General dealers	61 576	39,3	62 657	1,8	0,7
Food, beverages and tobacco specialised stores	14 103	9,0	14 414	2,2	0,2
Pharmaceuticals and medical goods, cosmetics and toiletries	12 227	7,8	12 135	-0,8	-0,1
Textiles, clothing, footwear and leather goods	32 163	20,5	35 000	8,8	1,8
Household furniture, appliances and equipment	8 368	5,4	8 208	-1,9	-0,1
Hardware, paint and glass	12 315	7,9	13 270	7,8	0,6
All other retailers	15 881	10,1	16 289	2,6	0,3
Total	156 633	100,0	161 973	3,4	3,4

Source: Adapted from Stassa (2013)

Table 2.5, above, shows that retail trade sales increased by 3,4% in the three months ending July 2013 in comparison to the three months ending July 2012. The main contributors to this increase were:

- retailers in textiles, clothing, footwear and leather goods (8,8% and contributing 1,8 percentage points);



- general dealers (1,8% and contributing 0,7 of a percentage point); and
- retailers in hardware, paint and glass (7,8% and contributing 0,6 of a percentage point).

The growth in retail sales in textiles, clothing, footwear and leather goods could indicate emerging middle class spenders and the use of online shopping to enhance the shopping experience of these young consumers.

2.13.3 Retail contribution to society

The wholesale and retail (W&R) sector is one of the largest employers in South Africa, providing just over 24% of all jobs in 2013 (Mazwai & Dikgole, 2013:15). Table 2.6, below, shows the number and gender of people employed formally and informally in the wholesale and retail industry. Formal employment means that employees are employed in registered firms, while informal employment refers to employment in unregistered firms.

Table 2.6 Retail employment by gender

Sector			Formal	Informal
W & R	1 485 000	1 370 000	1 894 000	961 000

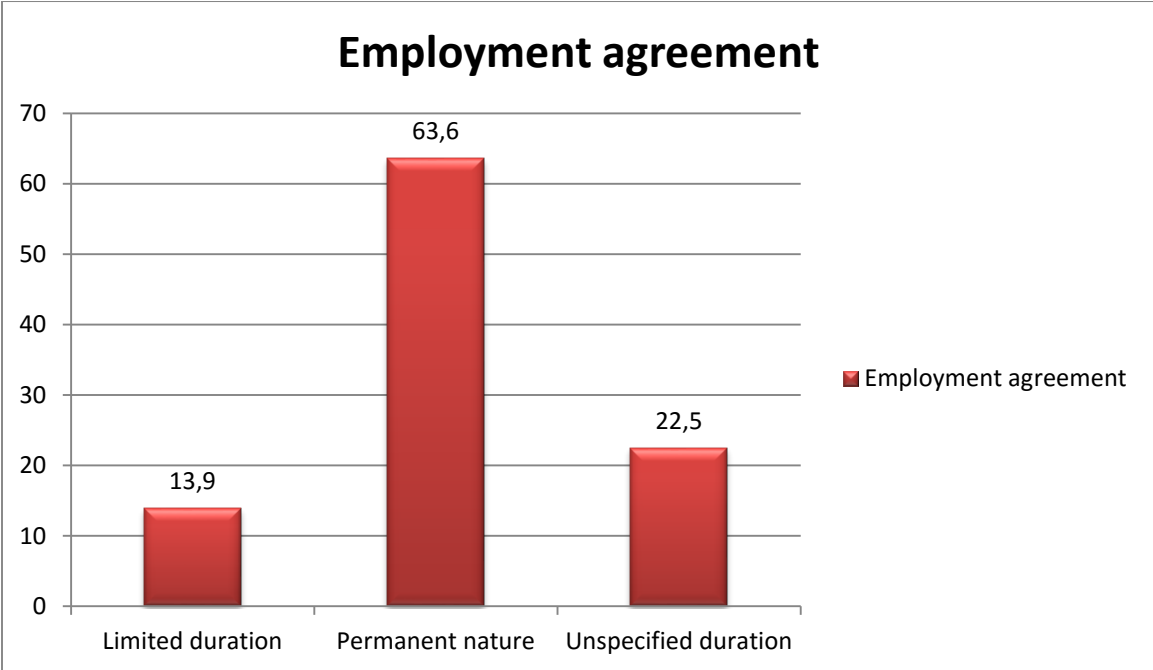
Source: Adapted from Statssa (2013)

Table 2.6, above, shows that the wholesale and retail sector employs 2 855 million people, thus comprising 24% of the country's total labour force. Males make up 52% of the W&R sector and females 48%, while the national average is 56% males and 44% females. There are 66% of people in the W&R Sector who are in formal employment, whilst 34% are in informal employment (Statssa, 2013). The informal sector is made up of a number of different retail concepts such as taverns, tuck-shops, hawkers, spaza

shops and take-away stalls. According to White (2011), the informal sector consists of approximately 750 000 outlets, which produces sales figures in the region of R32 billion. This indicates that there is a growing trend of informalization of the sector.

Employees in the wholesale and retail industry are hired on various employment agreements. Due to seasonal fluctuations and demand, a firm might require additional employees who are hired on a temporary or casual basis, as seen in Figure 2.10, below:

Figure 2.10 Employment agreements in retail



Source: Adapted from Statssa (2013)

Figure 2.10, above, shows that in the wholesale and retail sector, 63,6% of job opportunities are on permanent contract, followed by temporary and casual jobs with 22,5% and 13,9%, respectively. This indicates a mix in the composition of the workforce, due to competitive pressures for increased flexibility and reduced costs (Stamper and Van Dyne, 2001:517).

Table 2.7, below, shows the number of people employed in the wholesale and retail trade sector in each province:

Table 2.7 Retail employment by province

Provincial employment in Wholesale and Retail Trade 2013 (000')	
Province	Employment
Gauteng	934
Eastern Cape	275
Western Cape	368
North West	138
KwaZulu-Natal	498
Free State	136
Limpopo	252
Northern Cape	46
Mpumalanga	208
Total	2 855

Source: Adapted from Statssa (2013)

Table 2.7, above, shows that there is a high density of employees in Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape. Collectively, they comprise 63% of total employment in the industry, followed by the Eastern Cape, which also has a relatively high number of people employed in the industry. This could be due to urbanization, as potential employees leave their small towns to live in urban areas.

2.14 TRENDS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN RETAIL INDUSTRY

Coterminous with this important role played by the retail industry, retail firms have undergone substantial changes due to globalisation and ever-changing technology, in order to keep up with knowledgeable, sophisticated and technologically advanced consumers. The industry is growing at a rapid pace and the factors that contribute to this

growth include the emergence of Black middle class consumers and the availability of consumers with disposable income to boost the industry (Nkomfe, 2012). Retailing is also growing at a rapid pace in townships, where new shopping centres are opening up and major retailers compete to serve customers in these locations (Terblanche, 2013:34). Moreover, the demand for retail is driven by factors which include customer related aspects, which are population size and growth, existing quality of retail space, household income and expenditure patterns, consumer preferences and seasonal aspects. In addition, private labels are growing significantly as they play a vital role in the retail space. Currently, the South African private label market is in line with that of US and is above the global average (Pearson, 2013:29).

2.14.1 Technological trends

Competition has led to firms introducing more efficient supply chains and logistics, and advanced technology, in order to reduce the cost of doing business and enhance the customer experience (PwC, 2012:15). This competition translates into more power and choice for consumers, as customers use the internet and social media to determine how they shop, buy and the value of their experience (Tompkins, 2013:26).

Furthermore, consumers are becoming more vocal as they can compare products, prices and customer experiences online, in real time. Consequently, retailers are forced to maintain three simultaneous channels: in-store, online and mobile (smartphone or tablet) (Memela, 2012:1). In this view, growth in Internet access is speeding up as more consumers are connected and the market gets more competitive. Nevertheless, there is still significant potential for South African retailers to pursue e-commerce as only higher-end retailers are giving e-commerce much attention (PwC, 2012:21), due to low penetration and the high cost of broadband internet.

According to Mathlaga (2013:8), since smartphones are outselling PCs and feature phones, South African shoppers have become more dependent on their mobile devices. Tablets will continue to make inroads and we can expect to see even more innovation in

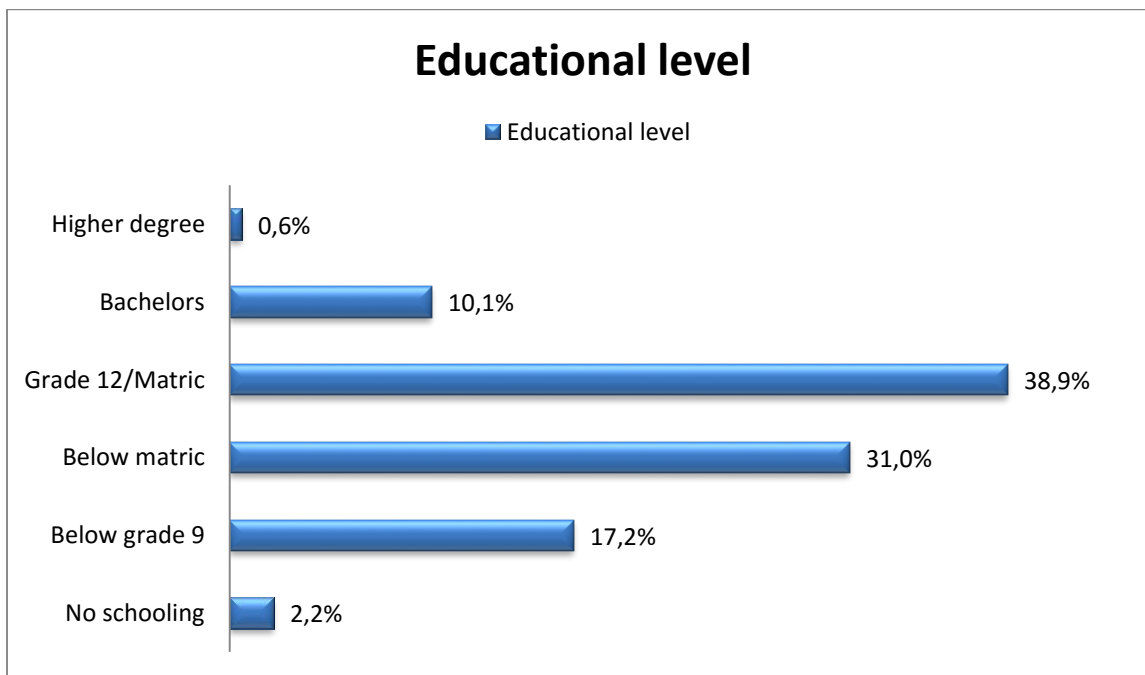
the form of applications aimed at providing consumers with greater shopping convenience.

In addition, Mayne (2013:22) postulates that the battle for market share with regard to e-tailing has begun, amongst SA retailers, and is further exacerbated by increased competition from international retailers such as Walmart, Zara and Topshop, as well as international online portals. Significantly, these online services have started offering cash-on-delivery, as well as credit payment options, thus making the lure so much more enticing for consumers. Furthermore, sales are expected to increase by 55.7% in 2015, and mobile sales will account for 15% of all retail e-commerce.

2.15 CHALLENGES IN THE RETAIL INDUSTRY

The industry faces a challenge of skills shortages, as depicted in Figure 2.11:

Figure 2.11 Educational levels of W & R employees



Source: Mazwai & Dikgole (2013)

Figure 2.11, above, shows that 50.4% of retail employees in South Africa do not have matric, and only 10.7% have higher education qualifications. This has skills development implications for the retail industry and the W&RSETA. Thus, retail firms need to formulate strategies that will minimize the skills shortage, by designing training and skills development programmes, which bridge the gap between tertiary education and the workplace, while maintaining the competitiveness and profitability of their businesses (Memela, 2012:3).

In addition, the following are some of the challenges that are prominent in the retail industry (Nkomfe, 2012:34-35):

- Customers' changing buying habits (South African consumers are becoming more health conscious and brand conscious);
- Imminent entry of far larger foreign retailers (for instance, Walmart) may find local retailers, that are not modernized, struggling to compete in the market;
- Rising food prices could see retailers reporting lower sales figures;
- Logistical challenges, due to a very wide spread of consumer demographics;
- Skills shortage is a major problem in the industry. The W&RSETA has identified retail store managers, retail buyers, merchandisers and sales managers as some of the scarce skills in the industry; and
- Retailers face increased operational costs. With the rising cost of electricity and transport, retailers will soon encounter new pressures on their profit margins contracting.

2.16 FUTURE PROSPECTS FOR RETAILING IN SOUTH AFRICA

The industry is also full of possibilities which include (Nkomfe, 2012:35):

- Internationalisation of the retail business, whereby retailers can expand their businesses beyond national borders;

- Online sales have increased, which indicates that South Africans are changing their attitudes regarding the use of credit cards online;
- With consumers demanding more convenience, supermarkets can take advantage by increasing the amount of ready to eat food items in their deli's, fresh food departments, home meal replacements and bakery departments;
- The value of the retail industry is forecast to increase from an estimated R622.91bn in 2011 to R938.59bn by 2015;
- Due to the high unemployment rate in the country (25.2%), wage rates are comparatively low;
- There is lots of room for growth in the food retail industry;
- There is a demand for longer store hours or even 24-hour shopping; and
- Given the relatively developed infrastructure and institutions in South Africa, multinational companies view the country as a hub where they can establish and expand business to the rest of the Sub-Saharan African region.

2.17 COMPARISON OF SOUTH AFRICAN RETAIL LANDSCAPE WITH BRICS

South Africa is one of the emerging economies in the world. In 2010, South Africa became a member nation of the BRIC group of countries (Brazil, Russia, India and China) and since then it was called BRICS, with the 'S' standing for South Africa. Thus, to get a clear and concise picture of the South African retail landscape, it is fitting to compare South Africa with other emerging markets.

2.17.1 Economic and social trends

The Brazilian retail industry remains attractive to large retailers as cities in the north-east and centre-west regions present the biggest opportunities. Retail sales accounted for US\$514.5 billion in 2011, with a GDP growth rate of 19.2% (Wood & Copestake, 2012:5).

Coterminous with the boom in retail sales, the expansion in the number of shopping centres has been strong.

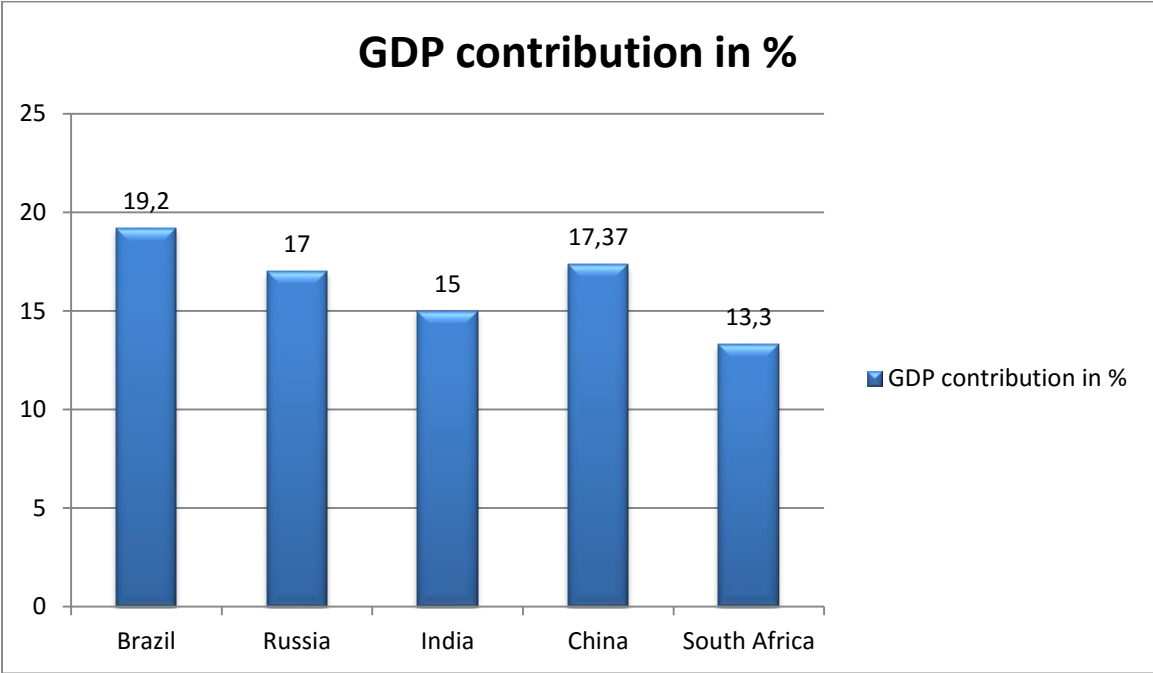
The retail industry contributes 17% to the Russian gross domestic product (Fontes, 2013) and retail sales amounted to \$330,3 billion, which is an increase of 3,7% year-on-year (Rosstat, 2013). White (2011:2) credits the consumer boom, low cost housing and utility in Russia as the source of the country's resource-driven economic prosperity. The retail industry represents 11% of total jobs in Russia (White, 2011:8).

The Indian retail trade industry is amongst the largest contributors to the country's GDP. Retailing accounts for about 15% of India's GDP (Ajvani & Deshpande, 2013:1). The size of the retail industry is more than US\$350 billion (Tare, 2012:2) and employs over 10% of the national workforce (Jaswante, 2012:1), which translates to over 35 million people.

The retail industry in China contributes 17,37% to the country's GDP (Euromonitor, 2012:81). According to data released from China's National Bureau of Statistics, retail sales of consumer goods totalled US\$2.88 trillion (Gu, 2012) and the retail sales growth was at a rate of 48,49%. Moreover, future retail growth figures indicate that China will account for 36% of global retail sales and out of the top 10 global cities in retail sales growth, three will be in mainland China (Sun & Ma, 2009:19).

Figures 2.12 and 2.13 present retail contribution to BRICS GDP and retail sales, respectively.

Figure 2.12 Retail contribution to GDP

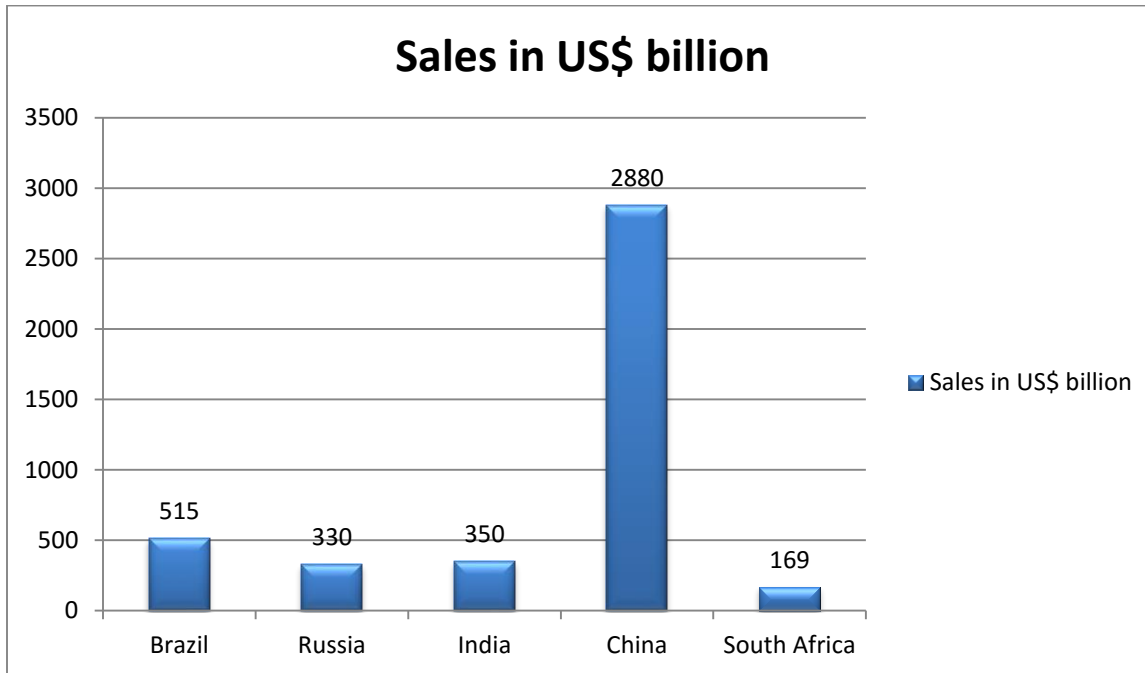


Source: Author's own illustration

The figure above shows retail contribution to the GDP of BRICS per country. Brazil has the highest contribution of 19,2%, while South Africa's retail contribution to GDP is 13.3%.

Figure 2.13, below, shows retail sales in BRICS nations.

Figure 2.13 Retail sales



Source: Author's own illustration

Figure 2.13, above, indicates that in terms of retail sales, China shows sales of \$2.8 trillion, which is significantly higher than that of other BRICS nations. This could be due to the growth in the middle- and upper-classes, as well as the increase in disposable income of Chinese consumers, which has increased their spending behaviour (Chin & Chow, 2012:14). This growth can be credited to the Chinese government's drive to stimulate domestic demand and, as a result, retail spending grew by 17.1% in 2011. Moreover, the rise in the Chinese household income has led to more organized retail and chain retail stores (Sun & Ma, 2009:19), which drives consumer spending to greater heights.

2.17.2 Technology trends

Brazilian internet retailing has shown impressive growth due to an increase in access to broadband internet and the falling prices of computers. Additionally, women make up to

50% of online purchases and Brazil's online retail market is the largest in Latin America, as broadband speeds are relatively low (Wood & Copestake, 2012:8).

Online shopping proves to be an opportunity for retailers in Russia, although retailing in the country can neither be confirmed to be primarily store nor online (Twardzik, 2013). Hence, retailers use multichannels in order to meet the influx of sophisticated consumers.

Indian online retailing has increased to around 6% of the total e-commerce segment, as it offers consumers the convenience of ordering merchandise to their doorstep (Jaswante, 2012:2). In addition, the higher penetration of credit cards has boosted the growth of the organized retail industry, especially the young population's increasing fancy for plastic money, hence, an increase in online retailing.

According to Kearney (2013), Chinese e-commerce has grown such that it represents as much as 10% of retail revenues in some categories. This growth has further enhanced retailers' strategies to satisfy customer needs.

2.18 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB) IN RETAIL

A retail firm is important because it builds a strong economy, provides employment, generates more opportunities, provides choice to consumers, and encourages independent, creative and entrepreneurial thinking to existing and potential retailers (Co *et al.*, 2007:7). Retail firms hire employees who are the major drivers of the firm's success, increased retail sales, and industry growth. These retail stores are very dependent on employees to achieve their objectives and face the competition (Ajvani & Deshpande, 2013:2). Retail managers and other retail employees are responsible for the effective utilization of organisational assets to generate sales and, as one of the drivers of retail sales growth, excellent customer service needs to be at the forefront (Berman & Evans, 2013:56, 486). Thus, to foster sales growth, firms need to encourage employees to engage in OCBs for the customers' total retail experience and to gain a competitive advantage. This can be achieved by aligning employee behaviour with customer

satisfaction in order to achieve the desired state of corporate goal attainment. Human Resource Management (HRM) is responsible for aligning the capabilities and behaviours of employees with the short- and long-term goals of the retail firm (Levy *et al.*, 2014:236). In addition, employees play a major role in differentiating a retailer's offering by enhancing a customer's experience through the information and assistance they provide. The differentiating advantages gained through HRM are difficult for competitors to duplicate.

Retailers use employment branding to attract and retain the "best and brightest" employees. Employment branding involves undertaking marketing research so as to understand what potential and current employees are seeking as well as what they think about the retailer. It further involves developing a value proposition and an employment brand image; communicating that brand image to potential employees; and fulfilling the brand promise by ensuring that the employee experience matches the image created (Levy *et al.*, 2014:249).

Retail firms need to motivate and coordinate employees to engage in OCB by developing a strong organisational culture. An organisational culture is a set of values, traditions, and customs of a firm, which guides employee behaviour (Levy *et al.*, 2014:253). Since these guidelines are not written down but are traditions passed along by experienced employees to new employees, making OCB part of the organisational culture could have a positive impact on the functioning of the organisation. Thus, retailers who have a strong organisational culture give employees a sense of what they ought to do on their jobs and how they should behave in order to be consistent with the firm's strategy. An ethical and reputable organisation attracts the best employees who effectively and efficiently work towards achieving organisational goals, thus leading the organisation to success.

2.18.1 Legal, ethical, and social responsibility issues in retailing

Berman and Evans (2013:72) define ethics as the retailer's moral principles and values; while Levy *et al.* (2014:28) define ethics as the principles governing individuals and companies that establish appropriate behaviour and indicate what is right and wrong.

Conversely, Burns (2009:25) argues that although it is generally understood that ethics depend upon beliefs such as cultural, philosophical, or religious beliefs of what is right or wrong, which beliefs should form the basis for ethics is still questionable. However, what is ethical varies from country to country and from industry to industry. For example, offering bribes to overcome bureaucratic roadblocks is an accepted practice in Middle Eastern countries but is considered unethical, and even illegal, in Western countries (Levy *et al.*, 2014:28). A retailer that has a sense of ethics acts in a trustworthy, fair, honest, and respectful manner with each of its constituencies (Berman & Evans, 2013:73).

Retailers are the only type of business firm that must continually interact with consumers in order to succeed (Burns, 2009:24). Consequently, situations and practices that are regarded as potentially ethically troubling, are particularly visible to consumers and to society as a whole. Thus, ethics in the selling relationship between retail salespeople and consumers, and between retailers and vendors, is important to the retailer as it may have an effect on the retailer's long-term success.

Roman and Ruiz (2005:26) observe that the ethical behaviour of retail salespeople affects the quality of relationships with consumers and the degree of satisfaction that consumers experience. Thus, unethical firms are at risk of losing loyal customers. Despite satisfying the desires of managers, retail salespeople also need to satisfy the desires of consumers. Due to clashes between the desires of managers and customers, retail salespeople may find themselves in situations where they are tempted to resort to ethically questionable practices (Burns, 2009:26). This is increased by the individual's need to achieve organisational goals because of the pressures received from managers. Thus, the ethical perceptions of potential new hires may be a major hiring concern, since accurate appraisal of an individual's ethical perceptions may be difficult to obtain using customary screening procedures.

Retailers attempt to satisfy customer needs through their interaction with vendors. Gillman (1985:6) states that while the vendors and buyers profit from kickback arrangements, retailers and consumers pay for it. Thus, Burns (2009:288) argues that

ethically questionable practices in retail buying have the potential of negatively affecting both a retailer's product assortment and their in-stock position. This requires more ethical retailers to protect the rights of customers through consumerism. Consumerism involves the activities of government, business, and other organisations to protect people from practice which infringe upon their rights as consumers (Berman & Evans, 2013:75). The introduction of the Consumer Protection Act (N0. 68 Of 2008) in South Africa has given customers an upper-hand over businesses that engage in unethical practices. Hence, the will of the community is seen to prevail (Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:11).

Although most business decisions are not regulated by laws, what is deemed to be clearly wrong or unethical by society is punishable through the legal systems of the individual countries (Levy *et al.*, 2014:28). Thus, many firms develop their code of ethics based on their country's legal system, in order to guide their employees to make ethical decisions.

The social responsibility and environmental movements are some of the important movements that firms who seek to serve the long-run interests of their customers and communities undertake (Kotler *et al.*, 2013:37). However, some organisations resist these movements, and budge only when they are forced to do so by legislation or due to organised consumer outcries.

Despite selling goods and services, retailers engage in socially responsible activities, which involves an organisation voluntarily engaging in business practices that meet or exceed the ethical and legal expectations of its stakeholders, that is, employees, customers, the community, and society in general (Berman & Evans, 2013:74). These organisations go the extra mile to support their communities, environment, and social causes. These activities promote a positive image to customers, build employee morale, and save money, as it is a win-win scenario for both the company and its stakeholders. Many stores are building environmentally friendly stores and reduce costs by reducing energy consumption, using alternatives to electricity, and/or selling products that have little to no adverse effects on the environment.

2.19 CONCLUSION

Retailing is a major part of economies and commerce worldwide. Retail sales and employment are vital economic contributors, and retail trends often mirror trends in a nation's overall economy. It encompasses all of the businesses and people involved in physically moving and transferring ownership of goods and services from producer to consumer. In comparing the South African retail landscape with other emerging economies (BRICS), all five nations have reported a boom in online sales and an increase in sales over the years. Coterminous with this boom, has been an expansion in the number of shopping centres as a result of technologically advanced and sophisticated customers. However, brick-and-mortar stores still prove to be important to consumers for the ultimate shopping experience.

In the next chapter, a theoretical perspective of OCB will be discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the nature, importance, classifications, theories of structural change and factors influencing this change, as well as retailers' responses to these changes, were discussed. Furthermore, the South African retail environment, and its comparison to BRIC (Brazil, Russia, India and China) was deliberated upon. Retailers, like all organisational practitioners, are more concerned with achieving organisational effectiveness. The success of an organisation is influenced by employees who, besides performing their jobs, contribute their time and energy by providing assistance (Rahman, Sulaiman, Nasir, & Omar, 2013:85) to achieve organisational effectiveness.

Kegans, McCamey, and Hammond (2012:74) noted that, as behaviours are dynamic, they can influence the efficiency and effectiveness of an organisation. When employees, for example, show discretionary kindness (high level of helpfulness) towards a customer, such behaviour can lure the customer to the organisation, thus resulting in greater customer loyalty (Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006). In other words, high levels of helpfulness have greater impact on customer attitudes towards the employee, the service and the organisation. Similarly, when employees perceive that they are treated fairly and receive compassion from the organisation or supervisor, they are more likely to act selflessly and engage in citizenship behaviours as a means of reciprocity (Peng, Hwang, & Wong, 2010:289).

In this chapter, a theoretical perspective on OCB will be discussed. The chapter will include a discussion on the nature of OCB in terms of its definitions, dimensions, antecedents, and the benefits and challenges of OCB, as well as OCB in various settings. The chapter will conclude by discussing the importance of OCB in the retail industry.

3.2 THE EVOLUTION OF OCB

Organisational citizenship behaviour is a construct that was proposed by Organ (1977) in an attempt to understand the behaviours that represent performance in the “satisfaction-causes-performance” controversy. Subsequent studies focused on the antecedents of OCB, such as, job attitudes (Bateman and Organ, 1983), job cognitions (Organ and Konovsky, 1989), and positive effects and moods (Smith, Organ and Near, 1983). The common aspect of all these studies is the argument that citizenships stem from an individual’s discretionary desire to help others or the organisation.

Interest in citizenship-like behaviours grew to a variety of different fields and disciplines, including human resource management (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Paine, 1999); hospital and health administration (Bolon, 1997); community psychology (Burroughs & Eby, 1998); industrial and labour law (Cappelli & Rogovsky, 1998); strategic management (Kim & Mauborgne, 1998); international management (Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998); military psychology (Deluga, 1995); economics (Tomer, 1998); and leadership (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996).

Organ (1988) coined the concept as the “good soldier syndrome”, which is characterised by its importance in the success and effective functioning of every organisation. This led to various studies that examined predictors of OCB, for example, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and perceptions of justice (Williams & Anderson, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993); state or trait personality characteristics (Moorman & Blakely, 1995); and leadership behaviours (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990). Satisfaction, fairness, and commitment showed the strongest relationships with OCB (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Organ (1990) suggests that fair perception plays a significant role in creating organisational citizenship behaviours. The basis behind this theory is the idea that if employees perceive that they are being treated fairly, they will want to reciprocate the fair treatment that their organisation offers them.

In the last two decades, literature reviews have focused primarily on attitudinal and dispositional factors as antecedents of citizenship; individual and organisational

performance as consequences of citizenship (LePine *et al.*, 2002; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) and, recently, on the motivational and contextual antecedents of OCB. Consequently, a number of frameworks were developed, examining the relationships between OCB and other constructs in order to understand various types of OCB, its predictors and its consequences. However, it is acknowledged that there is a lack of research that identifies why employees engage in OCB in an organisational context, in the first place (Jahangir, Akbar, & Haq, 2004:76).

3.3 FRAMEWORKS OF OCB

Drawing from the evolution of OCB, various authors developed various conceptual and theoretical frameworks of OCB. Some of the recent developments are illustrated in Table 3.1, below:

Table 3.1 Theoretical and conceptual frameworks of OCB

Author(s)	Framework	Outcome
Sutharjana, Thoyib, Taroena, and Rahayu, 2013	The role of OCB in improving service quality, patient satisfaction, and patient loyalty.	Service quality and patient satisfaction mediate the effect of OCB on patient loyalty.
Beal III, Stavros, and Cole, 2013	The role of resistance to change as a moderator of the predictive relationship between psychological capital (PsyCap) and OCB.	Resistance to change moderates the positive effect of PsyCap on organisational citizenship behaviour.
Hui, Ping, Yee, Chan, Sheng, and Khan, 2013	Relationships between OCB and interactional justice, performance-based pay, and internal career orientation.	There is a positive relationship between interactional justice and OCB, performance-based pay and OCB, and

		internal career orientation and OCB.
Mohanty, 2013	The impact of organisational culture on OCB.	Organisational culture is positively correlated to OCB.
Sunaryo and Sunoyo, 2013	The relationship between public service motivation, job satisfaction and OCB.	Public service motivation has a positive and significant effect on job satisfaction, and leads to OCB.

Source: Author’s own illustration

Table 3.1, above, shows the recent frameworks on OCB developed by various researchers.

3.4 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR DEFINED

Since Bateman and Organ’s (1983) study, debate continued over the precise definition or operationalization of OCB. This is because studies focused on the relationships between OCB and other constructs, rather than defining the nature of the construct itself (Jahangir, *et al.* 2004:77). Subsequently, an immense amount of research was conducted by various authors to identify behaviours that are associated with OCB (Organ *et al.*, 2006; Akan, *et al.* 2009:99). Organ (1988) argues that OCB is distinct from related constructs (such as organisational commitment) developed by organisational researchers. What distinguishes OCB from other constructs is that supervisors cannot demand or force their subordinates to perform OCB. Similarly, the employees do not or cannot expect any kind of formal rewards for these discretionary behaviours. Organ (1988:4) defines OCB as behaviours of a discretionary nature that are not part of the employee's formal role requirements but which, nonetheless, promote the effective functioning of the organisation. In other words, OCB concerns employees’ most voluntary and spontaneous contributions, which manifest their willingness to make extra efforts on

behalf of the organisation, beyond prescriptions (Raineri, Paille, & Morin, 2012:156). Furthermore, OCB is viewed as certain actions of employees that are not formally recognized by the remuneration system of the organisation, but are beneficial to the success of the organisation. However, Organ (1997) notes that supervisors do regularly take into account and reward OCB exhibited by the subordinates both directly and indirectly (e.g. preferential treatment, performance ratings, promotions, etc.).

Subsequently, Organ (1990) redefines OCB as roles demonstrated by employees out of their own responsibilities, but employees are not bound by their employment contracts to perform them. Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997:263) suggest that such citizenship behaviours enhance organisational performance, as “they ‘lubricate’ the social machinery of the organisation, reduce friction, and increase efficiency”. Li, Kung, and Wang (2012:676) concur with this view by stating that OCB is the spontaneous behaviour of employees that is beneficial to the sustainable functioning of the organisation.

Organ, *et al.* (2006) define OCB as ‘Individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation’. Conversely, a study by Bergeron (2007) suggests that there may be some implicit expectation for recognition from the formal reward system, through higher salaries or other career outcomes. Jain (2012:87) concurs and argues that OCBs could regulate an individual’s impression of a supervisor or a coworker over a period of time, and could in turn lead to recommendations for a salary increase or promotion. This discussion stems from an important assertion, by Organ's (1988) founding work on OCB, that these behaviours are often internally motivated, arising from within and sustained by an individual's intrinsic need for a sense of achievement, competence, belonging or affiliation.

In addition, some researchers such as Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Mishra (2011) have shown that, although OCB activities are voluntary and not considered for formal remuneration by the organisation, they can be considered during an employee’s performance appraisal and interview sessions. However, the findings of these studies

reveal that there was no specific measure given to the OCBs of those who engage or do not engage in OCB activities.

Daniels, *et al.* (2006) define OCB as a behaviour that exceeds routine expectations, and positively impacts the organisation (Poncheri, 2006), or its members. The citizenship of organisational members is often recognized by its impulsiveness, and the fact that it is optionally performed by employees without the expectation of compensation, while constructively impacting the results of the organisation. According to Turnipseed and Wilson (2009:204), behaviour is classified as organisational citizenship if it is discretionary and not an enforceable requirement of the job; not directly recognized by the formal reward system; and, contributes to organisational effectiveness. Meanwhile, Ehrhart (2004:62) refers to OCB as behaviour that supports the 'core-task behaviours', and Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks (1995) define the key characteristics of OCB as behaviours that are discretionary or "extra-role", such that, the employee has a choice to perform these behaviours or not.

Conversely, other studies viewed OCB differently. Peng and Zhao (2012), for example, suggest that even though OCB is referred to as spontaneous and voluntary action, it is also performed out of self-interest, as some employees are able and willing to be actors in order to achieve their own self-centred goals.

Furthermore, Vigoda-Gadot (2007) argues that some behaviour is not based on the genuine, spontaneous "good will" of the individual; instead, it is in response to pressures exerted on employees by supervisors or co-workers whose goals are to increase production by involving them in duties that are over and above their job description. This form of OCB, which is called 'compulsory citizenship behaviour' (CCB), does not increase organisational performance (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006); instead, it reduces organisational effectiveness. Organ, *et al.* (2006) argue that although other scholars contend that OCBs are more likely caused by varied overlapping motives that include self-serving reasons, they might also include self-less, altruistic bases.

Previous research has addressed OCB in a variety of related contexts including contextual performance, pro-social behaviour, and extra-role behaviour. Borman and

Motowidlo (1993,1997) propose the 'contextual performance' construct related to OCB, that contribute to the effectiveness of the organisation by shaping the organisational, social, and psychological context that serves as a catalyst for task activities and processes. The taxonomy of contextual performance includes persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort, as necessary, in order to complete one's own task activities successfully, volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of one's own job, helping and cooperating with others, following organisational rules and procedures, and endorsing, supporting, and defending organisational objectives (Jahangir, *et al.* 2004:78). Organ (1997) suggests that OCB should be defined along the lines of contextual performance, because Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) construct of "contextual behaviours" has provided a more tenable definition of OCB.

Alternatively, Organ *et al.*, (2006:31) describe pro-social behaviour as any behaviour in an organisational setting aimed at improving the welfare of someone to whom the behaviour is directed, while extra-role behaviour is described as any behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation and exceeds role expectations. Extra-role behaviours are important to organisations, as organisations which rely entirely on written roles and behaviours cannot survive in today's dynamic time (Wyss, 2006), where innovation and spontaneity are always needed.

The behavioural characteristics of OCB have been assigned a variety of labels, as illustrated in Table 3.2, below.

Table 3.2 Behavioural characteristics of OCB

Behaviour	Author(s)
Spontaneous behaviour	Katz and Kahn, 1966
Behaviours that are not specified by role prescription, but which facilitate the accomplishment of organisational goals	Bateman and Organ, 1983
Individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the	Organ, 1988

aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation	
Civic organisational behaviour	Graham, 1991
Pro-social organisational behaviour	George, 1991
Extra-role behaviour	Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks, 1995
Organisational spontaneity	George and Jones, 1997
Contextual performance	Borman and Motowidlo, 1997

Source: Adapted from Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000.

Table 3.2, above, shows the behavioural characteristics of OCB as proposed by various authors. However, Podsakoff, *et al.* (2009:122) argue that the literature has placed greater focus on understanding the relationship between OCB and other constructs, rather than carefully defining the nature (dimensions) of citizenship behaviour itself. This could lead to a stream of literature that may prove of little worth to the field in the long run. Thus, the conceptualization of OCB could be manifest in a better way by discussing the dimensions of OCB.

3.5 DIMENSIONS OF OCB

Previous studies use the terms dimensions, forms or types of OCB interchangeably. A review of literature on OCB shows a lack of consensus regarding the dimensions of the construct. Since Bateman and Organ (1983) coined the term 'OCB', almost thirty different forms of OCB have been identified by various researchers. However, drawing from the research conducted by Organ (1988), the most relevant dimensions comprise of a five-factor OCB framework and include: altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship. The literature review describes unanimous acceptance of these five dimensions (Dash & Pradhan, 2014:20). The five-factor OCB framework is described in Table 3.3, below, as depicted by Organ (1990), and how it can be applied in a business setting.

Table 3.3 Five-factor OCB framework

OCB Dimension	Description	Business setting examples
Altruism	Voluntary actions that help a fellow employee in work-related problems.	Help a co-worker understand a new computer software program.
Civic virtue	Voluntary participation in, and support of organisational functions of both a professional and social nature.	Voluntarily become a member of an organisational forum; attend company social events, like a company sponsored charity event.
Conscientiousness	A pattern of going well beyond minimally required role and task requirements.	Leave work late to complete a task or to wait for the next shift to start smoothly.
Courtesy	The discretionary enactment of thoughtful and considerate behaviours that prevent work-related problems for others.	Notify employer if one is going to be late or absent from work; notify coworkers in advance of committing to actions that will affect them.
Sportsmanship	A willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions that result in an organisation without complaining and doing so with a positive attitude.	Refrain from complaining about having to work overtime to complete a project, having a deadline moved up, annoying but not harmful work conditions (e.g. uncomfortable temperature), or having one's ideas and suggestions rejected.

Source: Adapted from Organ (1990).

Table 3.3, above, shows the five-factor framework of OCB as proposed by Organ (1990). Empirical studies have supported the five-factor structure (see Mansoor, *et al.* 2012:568; Shin & Kim, 2010:117; Salavati, *et al.* 2011:398-399). Although a meta-analysis by LePine, *et al.* (2002:52) suggests that scholars should think of Organ's (1988) OCB as a latent construct and consider the OCB dimensions as imperfect indicators of the same underlying construct, OCB is the focal construct of interest, and focusing on its specific dimensions should be avoided. However, a meta-analysis conducted by Hoffman, Blair, Meriac and Woehr (2007:562) suggests that current operationalizations of OCB are best viewed as indicators of a general OCB factor. Thus, for the purpose of this study, Organ's (1988) five-factor framework, as depicted in Table 3.3, above, will be used.

However, various authors identified two to seven dimensions, as illustrated in Table 3.4, below. However, the dimensions developed by other scholars are overlapping in nature and, in some other cases, the dimensions are inadequate to describe the entire framework of OCB (Dash & Pradhan, 2014:20).

Table 3.4 Dimensions of OCB

AUTHORS	DIMENSIONS
Smith, <i>et al.</i> (1983)	Altruism General compliance
Organ (1988)	Altruism Conscientiousness Sportsmanship Courtesy Civic virtue
Lin (1991)	Identification with the organisation Assistance to colleagues Harmony Righteous Discipline Self-improvement
Williams and Anderson (1991)	Individual-directed OCB (OCBI) Organisation-directed OCB (OCBO)
Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994)	Obedience Loyalty Participation

Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997)	Identification with the company Altruism towards colleagues Conscientiousness Interpersonal harmony Protecting company resources
Hannam and Jimmieson (2002)	Organisational compliance Protecting organisational resources
Markoczy and Xin (2004)	Sportsmanship Courtesy
Buentello, Jung, and Sun (2007)	Civic duties Counter-productive work behaviour Time management
Yaghoubi, Salehi, and Moloudi (2011)	Non-visual factors (altruism, courtesy and conscientiousness) Virtual factors (sportsmanship and civic virtue)

Source: Author's own illustration

Table 3.4, above, shows the dimensions of OCB as proposed by various authors.

Thus, based on an examination of the different types of citizenship-like behaviour that have been identified in the literature and due to the overlap of many behavioural concepts, Podsakoff *et al.*, (2000:526) organize them into seven themes: helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development. These themes are illustrated in Table 3.5, below.

Table 3.5 Themes of organisational citizenship behaviour

OCB THEME	DESCRIPTION
Helping behaviour	Organ <i>et al.</i> (2006:35) refer to altruism as voluntary helping actions aimed at helping, supporting or encouraging other employees, efforts to avoid interpersonal conflict, promotion of cooperation amongst employees, helping others in the case of absence or work overload, technical support to coworkers, clients, and others.

Sportsmanship	Rego, Ribeiro, and Cunha (2010:4) refer to sportsmanship as tolerating the inconveniences and annoyances of organisational life without complaining or filing grievances.
Organisational loyalty	According to Organ <i>et al.</i> (2006), organisational loyalty refers to support for organisational objectives, defense of the corporate image to stakeholders, positive representation of the company to various communities, efforts to improve corporate reputation.
Organisational compliance	Organisational compliance refers to an individual's implicit acceptance of the rules, regulations, and procedures of the organisation, even when no one monitors compliance (Akan <i>et al.</i> , 2009:102).
Individual initiative	Ozturk (2011) refers to individual initiative as the employees' willingness to perform task-related behaviour at a level that surpasses expectation and minimum requirements. This theme is similar to Organ's (1988) conscientiousness dimension of OCB.
Civic virtue	Akinbode (2011:382) explains this as the responsible, constructive involvement of an employee in the political processes of the organisation.
Self-development	Soon <i>et al.</i> , (2005) refer to self-development as the voluntary behaviours that employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills and abilities.

Source: Author's own illustration.

Table 3.5, above, defines the seven themes of OCB as proposed by Podsakoff *et al.* (2000).

Redman and Snape (2005) refer to helping behaviour, or altruism, as the act of helping the fellow worker on an assigned task or problem; that is, going beyond job requirements to help others with whom the individual comes into contact. Redman and Snape (2005)

further refer to conscientiousness as the discretionary behaviours that go beyond the basic requirements of the job in terms of obeying work rules, attendance and job performance. Compliance refers to an individual's implicit acceptance of the rules, regulations, and procedures of their team even when they are not being directly monitored (Akan *et al.*, 2009:102). Sportsmanship refers to the willingness of employees to tolerate organisational difficulties, inconveniences, and co-worker behaviours, accepting work-related problems without complaining excessively, maintaining a positive attitude, and others (Organ *et al.*, 2006). Organisational loyalty (boosterism) refers to support for organisational objectives, defense of the corporate image to stakeholders, positive representation of the company to various communities, and efforts to improve corporate reputation (Organ *et al.*, 2006). Individual initiative refers to internal involvement, sharing ideas and opinions, making constructive suggestions, sharing information and knowledge to improve practices, open questioning of the status quo and inefficient management habits, and others. Soon, *et al.* (2005) refer to self-development as the voluntary behaviours that employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills and abilities.

Since citizenship is established through the discretionary efforts of employees to exceed prescribed instructions and tasks (Paille & Grima, 2011:479), it is exhibited on two major targets. The first target are the members of the organisation, while the second target is the organisation. Williams and Anderson (1991) call behaviour that is directed at individuals in the organisation OCBI, and behaviour that is concerned with helping the organisation as a whole is OCBO. According to OCBI, citizenship is revealed as helping, and may reflect traits such as altruism, conscientiousness and courtesy. In terms of OCBO, citizenship is expressed through civic virtue and sportsmanship.

3.6 ANTECEDENTS OF OCB

Previously, OCB studies focused primarily on dispositional and attitudinal predictors, whereas more recent research has broadened its perspective by considering social ties and networks as antecedents at the meso level, as well as contextual and organisational antecedents at the macro level. This is illustrated in Table 3.6, below.

Table 3.6 Antecedents of OCB

Category	Authors	Predictors of OCB
Disposition	Organ and Ryan, 1995; Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, and Mount, 1998; Podsakoff <i>et al.</i> , 2000; LePine and Van Dyne, 2001; Ilies, Scott, and Judge, 2006	Personality, agreeableness, positive and negative affectivity, employee's reciprocity, and conscientiousness
	Kamdar <i>et al.</i> , 2007	Dispositional empathy and helpfulness
Attitudes	Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng, 2001; Ilies <i>et al.</i> , 2006	Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, justice and fairness perceptions, positive affect
Motivation	Rioux and Penner, 2001	Positive treatment at work; pro-social values, motivated by helping others; organisational concern, motivated by a sense of pride for being associated with the organisation; impression management, motivated by looking good in order to obtain rewards.
	Van Dyne and Farmer, 2004	Expressive motives, which include helping for expression of role identity, ego protection, and self-enhancement. Instrumental

		motives, which include economic and cost-benefit considerations.
	Bowler and Brass, 2006	Impression management
	Organ, 1988; Morrison, 1994; Pond, Nacoste, Mohr, and Rodriguez, 2007	Reciprocity, perceived organisational support, psychological contract
Task characteristics	Farh <i>et al.</i> , 1990; Williams and Anderson, 1991; Podsakoff <i>et al.</i> , 2000.	Job autonomy; intrinsically satisfying tasks; task interdependence
Social relationships	Podsakoff <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Anderson and Williams, 1996; Kamdar and Van Dyne, 2007; Settoon and Mossholder, 2002	Interpersonal relationship, leader supportiveness, transformational leadership, contingent rewards
	Bowler and Brass, 2006; Kamdar and Van Dyne, 2007; Ng and Van Dyne, 2005	Intensity of friendship, team member exchange, group cohesiveness, cooperative group norms

Source: Author's own illustration

Table 3.6, above, shows the antecedents of OCB as proposed by various authors. Beham (2011:65) asserts that employees engage in an exchange relationship with the organisation and reciprocate favourable treatment by engaging in positive behaviour such as OCB. Grojean, Dick, Christ, and Wieseke (2006) contend that the employee's perception of the organisation (as evidenced by the employee's attitude towards it) would likely prompt the employee to either perform or withhold such performance. Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997), as well as Kaufman, Stamper, and Tesluk (1999), concur and postulate that employees form general beliefs concerning how much an

organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being. However, Spector and Fox (2010) argue that several OCBs are not employees' voluntary actions but are caused by the job environment. In other words, employees repay a favourable work environment and conditions by performing better and exhibit positive attitudes and behaviours. Inversely, if the work environment and conditions are perceived to be unfavourable, negative attitudes and behaviours are exhibited.

Furthermore, employees may engage in citizenship behaviours that are observable and can be rewarded by their immediate supervisors, through either promotion or monetary rewards. Although OCB efforts cannot be enforced, and their absence cannot be penalized, they are important for the efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation as these efforts result in time savings and problem solving (Turnipseed & Rassuli, 2005), and provide socio-emotional support by boosting morale or developing a nurturing culture.

Several studies that focus on the antecedents of OCB, grouped them into four major categories (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000:526), namely, task characteristics; organisational characteristics; leadership behaviours; and individual (employee) characteristics. These are briefly discussed below.

3.6.1 Task characteristics

According to Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1997), task characteristics directly impact OCB, and they moderate the effect of OCB on group performance. An interesting, and probably the most relevant, treatment of the direct relationship between task characteristics and OCB is a study conducted by Farh, *et al.* (1990), which shows that task characteristics are strong predictors of OCBs. Given the concomitant effects of this relationship on psychological states, such as 'meaningfulness of the work' and 'sense of responsibility', a direct relationship between task variables and OCB is postulated. Farh *et al.* (1990:717) further show that task scope directly impacts OCB in the form of altruism, compliance and job autonomy, in order to enhance OCB. Thus, an employee with job tasks that are

intrinsically motivating and produce a firm sense of enhanced meaning (Todd & Kent, 2006:255) would be expected to function in the best interests of the organisation and be considerate towards fellow workers who also share in the welfare of the organisation.

Podsakoff, *et al.* (1996) confirm that task characteristics such as feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks, have strong positive relationships with OCB, while task routinization is negatively correlated. These findings are in line with the meta analysis conducted by Podsakoff, *et al.* (2000), which reports that task routinization reduces OCBI, while intrinsically satisfying tasks enhance OCB. Todd and Kent (2006:264) find a strong relationship between OCB and job-efficacy, although job-efficacy is related to the overall interpretation of citizenship behaviour. Thus, when employees feel competent in their jobs, they are more likely to lend an overall helping hand. Generally, task characteristics tend to positively influence OCB.

3.6.2 Organisational characteristics

Perhaps the most investigated organisational characteristic is perceived organisational support (POS). A study conducted by Shore and Wayne (1993) shows that POS is a predictor of citizenship behaviours. Alternatively, Eisenberger, Armeli, Lynch, and Rhoades (2001) argue that employees with higher levels of POS feel more obligated to help the organisation reach its objectives and, thus, engage in more organisationally spontaneous behaviours (OCBs). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) further add that the relationship between POS and extra-role performance directed at the organisation is higher than other categories of performance. Thus, based on the norm of reciprocity on organisational support theory, employees feel obligated to care about the organisation and help meet its objectives through exhibition of positive attitudes and behaviours towards the organisation (Asgari, Silong, Ahmad, & Samah, 2008:229-239).

Wong, Wong, and Ngo (2012:289) argue that POS exerts a direct effect on OCB and that POS is an important mechanism that links distributive justice to OCB. Miao (2011:107) concurs and suggests that if an organisation is given adequate training, resources, and

support from management, it is more likely that its members would feel supported, and would want their organisation to succeed by helping it to succeed.

Several group characteristics received empirical support in terms of their influences on the OCB of employees. In their examinations of group characteristics and their influence on OCB in terms of group cohesiveness, the quality of the relationship amongst group members, the quality and quantity of group performance, group potency, perceived group support, and causes of group performance, Choi and Sy (2010), Choi (2009), Chen, *et al.* (2009), and Bachrach, Bendoly, and Podsakoff (2001) reveal that group characteristics are positively related to OCB.

3.6.3 Contingency theories of leadership

a) Transformational leadership

Sani and Maharani (2012:102) maintain that transformational leaders inspire followers to achieve extra-ordinary outcomes by providing both meaning and understanding. The leaders inspire followers to perform beyond expectations by encouraging followers to transcend their own self-interests, raising their level of consciousness concerning outcomes, and raising or expanding followers' needs levels (Goodwin, Whittington, Murray, & Nichols, 2011:411). The leaders stimulate employees' recognition of the higher order function and meaningfulness of their behaviours, including OCBs, so as to realize collective interests (Shanker, 2012:66). Conger (1999), Felfe and Schyns (2004), Jiao, Richards, and Zhang (2011), Humphrey (2012), and Organ *et al.* (2006) found that transformational leadership has a positive and direct effect on OCB. However, Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, and Chen (2005:429) suggest that the effects of transformational leadership on follower performance and OCB are based on each follower's personal experiences, and how each follower interprets these behaviours.

Due to the confirmed effectiveness of transformational leadership, it is seen as an economic benefit for companies; as a result, researchers and organisational managers

are increasingly interested in training and developing transformational leaders (Abrell, Rowold, Weibler, & Moenninghoff, 2011:208). In addition, addressing the developmental needs of leaders facing a challenging and continuously changing environment, as well as developing transformational leaders, is seen as highly beneficial. However, transformational leadership might not be applicable to lower levels of management, due to the restrictions on the middle manager's role (Kent & Chelladurai, 2003:40).

Conversely, Sani and Maharani (2012) show that transformational leadership had no effect on the OCB of university lecturers. These findings are consistent with other scholars' studies (Logomarsino & Cardona, 2003; Danserau & Cho, 2010). However, transformational leadership is a stronger predictor of a lecturer's job performance than organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

b) Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is defined as an exchange process between leaders and followers for the sake of their own interests, with leaders providing followers praise, rewards, and resources or the avoidance of disciplinary action in exchange for followers' acceptance and compliance with leaders' expectations (Jiao *et al.*, 2011:14). In other words, leaders give rewards to subordinates for their efforts, or punishments, based on the follower's performance (Humphrey, 2012:249). Transactional leaders motivate followers to perform beyond expectations by activating followers' higher order needs, fostering a climate of trust, and inducing followers to transcend self-interest for the sake of the organisation (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999:898).

Mackenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001:121) argue that a positive relationship between transactional leadership and OCB exists if managers provide positive feedback contingent on citizenship behaviours. Consistent with this argument, Podsakoff, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) confirm a significant, direct link between contingent reward behaviour and OCBs. Mackenzie *et al.* (2001:121) argue that if rewards are administered on a contingent basis, then employees will perceive that they are treated fairly, and trust

their managers, thus increasing the likelihood that they would be willing to engage in extra-role behaviours (Farh *et al.*, 1990:717).

Conversely, transactional leadership is not likely to trigger extra-role behaviours (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004), but is explicitly designed to clearly define and reward in-role performance (Podsakoff, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990:109). Thus, followers act rationally by only committing to as much as will be rewarded.

c) Path-Goal theory

According to the path-goal theory of leadership, a leader attempts to initiate structure in the work environment and to clarify, for the subordinate, the path leader to performance goals. This is done so that the likelihood of personal payoffs is increased (Sagie & Koslowsky, 1994). Studies on path-goal theory focus on role clarification behaviour, specification of procedures and supportive leader behaviours. Many scholars, for example, argue that instrumental and supportive leader behaviours (Malik, 2013; Schnake, Cochran, & Dumler, 1995) influence extra-role behaviours because employees are likely to perceive them as helping behaviours on the part of the leader; in return, employees will feel obligated to reciprocate. Berber and Rofcanin (2012:198) claim that, since supportive leader behaviour involves employee benefits, and instrumental leader behaviour reduces uncertainty regarding the requirements of the tasks, employees reciprocate these helping behaviours and engage in citizenship behaviours.

d) Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory

Ibrahim, Ghani, and Salleh (2013:92) explore the extent to which the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX) affected the subordinate's OCB and job satisfaction, and the role played by job satisfaction in mediating this relationship. The results show that the quality of LMX has a positive impact on the subordinates' exhibition of citizenship behaviour, and that job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between LMX and

citizenship behaviour. These findings are consistent with Peng and Chiu's (2010:583) results that reveal that employees who perceive that their organisation (supervisor) provides a relatively advantageous feedback environment, feel valued; this value may, in turn, inspire employees to repay the organisation through exhibiting behaviours that are beneficial to the organisation.

Furthermore, Karriker and Williams (2009:112) reveal that LMX significantly mediates the relationship between organisational justice and OCB. This implies that fair relational treatment leads to perceptions of high quality relationships with the organisation, thus leading to positive employee behaviours that benefit the supervisor as well as the organisation directly. Consistently, Kent and Chelladurai (2001:153) contend that, due to the fact that OCB might be a form of impression management (Bolino, 1999), and a political tactic to influence the immediate supervisor's leadership behaviours, there is a strong relationship between middle-manager LMX and OCB.

3.6.4 Individual characteristics

The noteworthy research in individual characteristics focused on the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB, job involvement and interesting work, as well as commitment. The relationship between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviours is embedded in the belief that satisfaction influences performance (Berber & Rofcanin, 2012:196), and focus on employee attitudes and dispositions (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988). Initial studies on the antecedents of OCB, conducted by Smith, Organ and Near (1983) and Bateman and Organ (1983), prove that job satisfaction is the best predictor of OCB. Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, and Purcell (2004) concur, and note that the relationship between employee OCB and job satisfaction is more than twice as strong as the relationship between job satisfaction and employee productivity. Moreover, it is argued that when work is interesting and employees are highly involved in their work, employees are more likely to engage in OCBs, whereas, when employees are engaged in very repetitive and highly standardized tasks, citizenship levels are markedly lower.

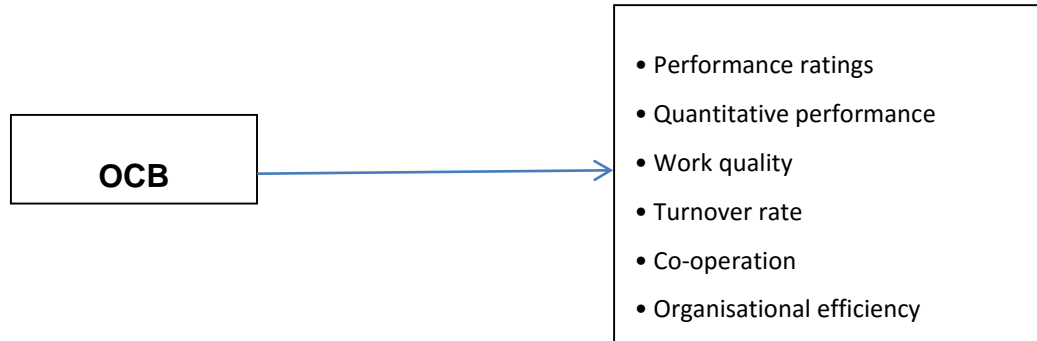
However, other empirical studies note that the relationship between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviours is largely grounded in the concepts of social exchange (Tekleab & Chiaburu, 2011) and psychological contracts (Bordia, Bordia & Tang, 2010; Edwards, 2010; Addae, Parboteeah, & Davis, 2006). According to social exchange theory, when employees are motivated from intrinsic and extrinsic satisfiers, they reciprocate and even go beyond the formal requirements of their tasks (Parzefall & Salin, 2010:766). Further studies emphasize that fairness, trust, and commitment variables reinforce the relationship between satisfaction and citizenship behaviours (Guh, Lin, Fan, & Yang, 2013; Duffy & Lilly, 2013; Fu, 2013). The above-mentioned arguments emphasize that employee attitudes are noteworthy antecedents of citizenship behaviours.

Conversely, Bolino and Turnley (2005) note that dissatisfaction with, or disinterest in, one's in-role responsibilities can push employees to focus on other tasks and can encourage these employees to volunteer for special assignments in order to avoid their normal duties. Spector and Fox (2010) and Daniels *et al.* (2006) provide evidence for dissatisfaction with one's personal life that may act as a driving force for employees' extra task performance. Therefore, employees perform beyond their official job requirements when they are satisfied with their jobs, when they derive intrinsic motivations out of their tasks and when they are supported by their leaders.

3.7 CONSEQUENCES OF OCB

Previous studies examined the consequences of OCB for individual, group, and organisational performance. Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1997) demonstrate the positive effects of citizenship for those who exhibit OCB, and for those who are the targets of citizenship at the individual level of analysis. Furthermore, MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Paine (1999) assert that those who exhibit OCB are rated as higher performers by their supervisors. Moreover, George and Bettenhausen (1990) demonstrate that group pro-social behaviours (OCBI) are positively related to store sales. At the macro level of analysis, Schnake and Hogan (1995) demonstrate that OCB is related to organisational flexibility and efficiency. Figure 3.1, below, illustrates some of the consequences of OCB.

Figure 3.1 Consequences of OCB



Source: Adapted from Swanson & Niehoff (2001); and Podsakoff *et al.* (2000)

According to Figure 3.1, the consequences of OCB include, amongst others, turnover rate, performance ratings, and so on.

Allen and Rush (1998) contend that individuals who engage in organisational citizenship behaviour receive more positive performance evaluations as well as a major share in the reward allocation done by the management. In addition, citizenship behaviour promotes amicable and informal interpersonal relationships amongst employees; these lead to better synchronization and cooperation amongst employees, while ultimately improving the service offered to customers. Such behaviours are directly proportional to team solidarity, and these actions of solidarity and cohesion are inversely proportional to employee turnover (Kaur, 2011:89).

In addition, a growing body of research into organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) suggests that employees demonstrate greater role performance when they experience a strong connection to their organisation, have a sense of ownership over its continued success, are loyal to their role and work colleagues, and have found a sense of meaning and purpose (Van Dyne, *et al.* 1994) in their daily work.

3.8 THEORY ASSOCIATED WITH ORGANISATION CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

3.8.1 Social Exchange Theory

According to Elstad, Christophersen, and Turmo (2011), the social exchange theory is a theoretical explanation of OCB, as employees use social exchange theory as a mechanism that guides how they ought to behave. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005:874) argue that social exchange theory (SET) is amongst the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behaviour. Social exchange refers to an unstipulated exchange where two parties trust that they will each reciprocate benefits received, and it occurs without any formal contract (Parzefall & Salin, 2010:766). In addition, social exchange is discretionary, and the form, degree or time of reciprocation is neither specified nor enforceable. Additionally, although the norm suggests similarity in terms of help received and returned, the value placed on the exchange relationship is idiosyncratic (Raineri *et al.*, 2012:150). This means that people tend to reward volitional and positive dispositions towards themselves, by returning the benefits they perceive having received.

Research suggests that social exchange theory is the catalyst between family-friendly environments and positive job-related attitudes (Sahibzada, Hammer, Neal, & Kuang, 2005; Sinclair, Hannigan & Tetrick, 1995). Additionally, according to Organ (1988) and Podsakoff, *et al.* (1997), social exchange theory can be extended to positive organisational behaviour in that, taken together, citizenship behaviours improve group performance because they help people to work together.

3.9 BENEFITS OF OCB ON INDIVIDUALS AND ORGANISATIONS

3.9.1 Benefits of OCB on individuals

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Hui (1993), and other scholars, found that individuals who engage in OCBs enhance managerial evaluations of overall performance, are more likely to get rewards by being recommended by supervisors (both part-time and full-time employees), could get awards, and could be considered for promotions (Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; 1993). Additionally, employees who show OCBs are more likely to be assigned to high profile tasks and they may be given greater opportunities for advanced training. Leadership literature has also clearly established that employees who reflect OCBs are more likely to receive individualized support from their leaders (Allen & Rush, 1998), and they are more likely to establish closer leader-member exchange relations.

3.9.2 Benefits of OCB in organisations

Waltz and Niehoff (1996) noted that OCB represents a set of desirable organisational behaviours, which demonstrate multi-dimensional relationships with positive organisational consequences. The argument that OCB affects organisational performance is a view which is espoused in Organ's (1988) original definition of the construct. Banu, Amudha, and Surulivel (2012:581) argue that OCB is important for the effective functioning of an organisation because its ultimate goal is to make all the employees work towards achieving organisational goals, rather than accomplishing their duties. However, Ibrahim *et al.* (2013:92) posit that it is always dependent on the leaders' capabilities and capacity to influence their subordinates towards accomplishing organisational goals.

Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) and Allen and Rush (1998) suggest that OCBs might increase the performance of an organisation. They propose the following means by which OCB can contribute to organisational success:

- Increasing co-worker or managerial productivity;
- Realising resources so that they can be used for more productive purposes;
- Coordinating activities within and across work groups;
- Reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions;
- Strengthening the organisation's ability to attract and retain the best employees;
- Increasing the stability of the organisation's performance; and
- Enabling the organisation to adapt more effectively to environmental changes.

In addition, Podsakoff *et al.* (1997) suggest that OCBs may enhance organisational performance by keeping the group cohesion at highest levels across the entire organisation. Furthermore, VandeWaa and Turnipseed (2012:2) stress that discretionary behaviours benefiting the organisation are valuable because they create a harmonious, pleasant work environment; advance the organisation; and there is no direct cost for these actions.

3.10 CHALLENGES OF OCB

Various studies have shown that low OCB affects the organisational duties of the employee. LePine, *et al.* (2002), for example, prove that there is a link between low OCB and a lack of organisational commitment. Ladebo (2005) concurs, and posits that employees with low OCB are more likely to refuse performing their tasks and tend to leave the organisation.

Halbesleben, Harvey, and Bolino (2009) note that a drawback to increased OCB is that those who engage in OCBs experience greater work interference with their families, since it takes away family time and makes it more difficult to fulfil family obligations. This view is consistent with Organ and Ryan's (1995) view, which stressed that being a good organisational citizen could contribute to employee stress and work overload. Additionally, extra-role behaviours may create family conflicts, specifically due to working longer hours than prescribed.

Bolino and Turnley (2003) assert that employees may find citizenship behaviours more fulfilling than their normal work activities. As a consequence, employees may underperform in their jobs, due to focusing all their efforts in personal gratification through OCBs, at the expense of task-related behaviours. Furthermore, Bolino (1999) and Bolino and Turnley (2005) argue that employees may feel pressured to continually increase their acts of citizenship in order to be seen as good organisational citizens. To sustain this image in the organisation, employees may feel stressed, overloaded and distracted by the various tasks and responsibilities granted to them. Furthermore, Bolino and Turnley (2005) acknowledge that employees may provide poor quality of service and advice to their peers, which could lead to more harm than good. Therefore, although the idea of an employee who works fulltime, and overtime when asked, and who takes little or no time seems attractive, the result could lead to poor productivity and efficacy for the organisation.

Conversely, Chovwen and Ogunsakin (2013) argue that discretionary behaviour is assumed to be prevalent in the private sector because of the inherent differences in terms of climate, policies and practices. However, in the public sector, especially government ministries and parastatals, problems of nonchalant attitudes and reluctance in taking initiative are prevalent. This is because most public servants consciously and strongly hold onto the belief that government work does not require more commitment than considered necessary; moreover, the poor supervision and failure on the part of managers and supervisors to create a committed workforce that is ready to ensure standard performance and productivity (Chovwen & Ogunsakin, 2013) further aggravates

this problem. Thus, public organisations have to overcome these challenges in order to ensure effective and efficient service delivery.

3.11 CONTEMPORARY ISSUES ON OCB

3.11.1 OCB and burnout

Inandi and Buyukozkan (2013:154) examined whether the OCBs of primary school teachers predict the level of burnout they experience. The results show that all dimensions of OCB, that teachers show through work environment and caring about colleagues, have an effect on their burnout levels. Moreover, the results reveal that handling negative environmental factors in a positive way can, more or less, decrease burnout. However, in Du Plooy and Roodt's (2010:1) study to determine whether work engagement, burnout, OCB and work alienation are predictors of turnover intentions, it was revealed that individuals who exhibit work engagement and OCB qualities were less likely to experience turnover intentions, whilst those who exhibit burnout and work alienation symptoms were more likely to experience turnover intentions. Thus, organisations need to encourage employees to further engage in OCBs and in work-related activities, while reducing employee turnover intentions through engaging in strategies that decrease employee burnout and work alienation.

3.11.2 OCB, organisational justice, organisational trust and support

Burns and DiPaola (2013:4) examine the strength of the relationship between organisational justice and OCB, and their effects on student achievement. The study found a significant relationship between organisational justice and OCB, as well as a link between OCB and student achievement.

In contrast, Guh *et al.* (2013:818) propose a mediating effect of institutional trust and affective commitment on the relationship between organisational justice and OCB. The results reveal a positive relationship between organisational justice and institutional trust, and an indirect effect of organisational justice and affective commitment through institutional trust. In addition, affective commitment was found to have a positive relationship with OCB, and institutional trust indirectly affects OCB through affective commitment.

However, Duffy and Lilly (2013:192) found that the perceptions of organisational trust or support do not lead to a rise in OCB from employees with high power or achievement needs. The study investigated McClelland's needs for affiliation, achievement and power as possible moderators in the relationship between OCB and organisational trust, and perceived organisational support (POS). The study focused on organisational citizenship behaviour exhibited towards the organisation (OCBO). The findings indicate that individuals with a high need for affiliation will not be motivated to engage in behaviours that benefit the impersonal aspects of an organisation. In addition, high power needs redirect employees away from OCB, even when the employee's perception of the organisation is positive. However, Duffy and Lilly (2013:193) argue that, while low needs may boost the relationship between OCB antecedents and OCB, high needs for achievement and power impede that relationship.

Meanwhile, Lv, Shen, and Cao (2012:129) explore the role of organisational justice in mediating between conscientiousness and OCB. Their results show that the participants' perception of organisational justice significantly mediated the relationship between conscientiousness and the dimensions of OCB.

3.11.3 OCB and sponsorship

Khan, Stanton, and Rahman (2013:279) examine how beliefs and attitudes towards sponsorship in general, and specific attitudes towards the sponsorship activity of the employer, influence employees' perceptions of their employer as well as their behaviour within the organisation. The findings reveal that employees' beliefs and attitudes, which

are associated with extra-role behaviours, influence their sponsorship-linked attitudes towards their employer. Moreover, these attitudes proved to be favourable to the employer. Thus, employers who sponsor employees' development, and/or a good cause, are seen as preferred employers by prospective employees as these activities improve the reputation of the organisation, as well as the behaviour of employees within the organisation.

3.11.4 OCB and organisational commitment

Fu (2013:1195) tested the direct effect of organisational commitment on the OCB, and analyzed the moderating role of high-performance human resource practices (HRP) at the organisational level. The study found that when the flight attendants' affective commitment was stronger, they were more likely to exhibit OCB; when airlines actively adopted high-performance HRP, the flight attendants were more likely to exhibit OCB; and when airlines valued high-performance HRP, the relationship between the flight attendants' organisational commitment and OCB was stronger.

In confirmation, a study by Huang, You, and Tsai (2012:513) suggests that organisations can foster the caring, law and code, and rules climate types; satisfaction with coworkers; and affective and normative commitments that increase OCBs, while preventing organisations from developing the type of instrumental climate and continuance commitment that decreases it. The purpose of the study was to examine which types of ethical climates, facets of job satisfaction, and the three components of organisational commitment influence different dimensions of OCBs.

3.11.5 Organisational politics and OCB

Chang, Rosen, Siemieniec, and Johnson (2012:395) examine the joint moderating effects of employees' conscientiousness and self-monitoring of the relationship between perceptions and organisational politics as well as OCBs. The study found a significant

three-way interaction between perceived politics, conscientiousness and self-monitoring in predicting citizenship behaviours. High self-monitoring alleviated the negative effects of political perceptions on the OCB of highly conscientious employees, while perceived politics were negatively related to the OCB of employees.

Hsiung, Lin, and Lin's (2012:258) study also explains how perceptions of organisational politics (POP) influence OCB through the mediation of job satisfaction, and careerism. The study reveals that through the mediation of job satisfaction, POP has an inhibiting effect on OCB; in addition, through the mediation of careerism, POP has a nourishing effect on OCB. Thus, despite the fact that POP showed both a positive and negative relationship to OCB, it is through mediating factors that employees minimize the impact of organisational politics on their performance. Hence, they continue to engage in OCBs despite the politics.

3.11.6 Impression management, emotional intelligence and OCB

Jain (2012:86) examined the moderating impact of impression management, as a motive, on the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and OCBs. The results show that impression management motives have a negative moderating impact on the relationship between EI and OCBs. Thus, impression management motives reduce the positive impact of emotionally intelligent behaviour on OCBs. Furthermore, VandeWaa and Turnipseed (2012:1) investigated the relationship between positive discretionary behaviour and emotional intelligence, and found that emotional intelligence is linked to discretionary organisational behaviour. This implies that discretionary behaviour may function in a compensatory manner in order to enhance emotional movement.

Moreover, Kim and Lee's (2012:545) study to distinguish OCB from other types of work behaviours, and to examine the determinants of these behaviours, found that an employee's collectivism was positively associated with both his or her OCBs and impression management behaviours. De Leon and Finkelstein (2011:401) concurred with this view and found that collectivism is an important antecedent to other motives for engaging in OCB and to the development of a citizen role identity, as well as to OCB

itself. Furthermore, collectivism was also found to be strongly correlated with OCB, motivated by a concern for coworkers, while individualism was associated with a commitment to the well-being of the institution rather than that of its employees (Finkelstein, 2012:1638). Moreover, it was suggested that organisations should offer diverse citizenship opportunities for employees, and allow them to fulfil their own goals in order to promote and sustain OCBs.

3.12 APPLICATION OF OCB IN DIFFERENT SETTINGS

The existence of relations between OCB and organisational effectiveness (measured by financial efficiency indicators and customer service indicators) has been highlighted in different settings: schools, sports organisations, insurance agencies, paper mill work crews, pharmaceutical sales teams, government, and limited-menu restaurants (Podsakoff, *et al.* 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994; Waltz and Niehoff, 1996).

3.12.1 Application of OCB in education

According to Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000), in the school setting, the application of OCB includes suggesting improvements in academic issues or talking favourably about the school to outsiders. Furthermore, it refers to all those helping behaviours extended to colleagues, supervisors and students, such as lending a colleague a hand with work overload or preparing special assignments for higher and lower level students. During organisational changes, when job definitions are ambiguous, schools have to be more dependent on teachers who are willing to contribute to successful change (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005), regardless of the formal job requirements.

Garg and Rastogi (2006) show that OCB is higher amongst teachers in private schools than it is amongst those in public schools; this difference is indicated by the behaviour that always develops creativity, innovation, flexibility in the school environment, open communication, and a bureaucratic leadership style. Oplatka (2006) concurs and

contends that teachers with high OCB take it upon themselves to offer innovative suggestions on how to improve the teaching-learning process, participate in extra-curricular activities and help colleagues with workload, if the need arises. Munene, Mulira, and Kasekende (2008) argue that teachers who exhibit OCB make lessons enjoyable for students, stay after school time to offer extra lessons especially to learners' work collaboratively, emphasize professional activities rather than personal ones, and use their talents and efforts (Pooja & Rastogi, 2006) to benefit all the school's participants. In addition, teachers exhibit OCB by doing administrative tasks, providing emotional assistance and taking on unrewarded roles in the school, and by improving the quality of education by striving for continuous improvement, amongst others. Elstad, Christophersen, and Turmo (2012:175) concur; they suggest that quality improvement can be realized through strengthening human relationships between leaders and educators, and not through leadership. In addition, educators place greater value on social exchange than they do on reward exchange. Thus, educators' perceptions of interaction with the employer is influenced by their feelings of obligation (Elstad *et al.* 2012:185).

Moreover, Burns and DiPaola (2013:4) suggest that OCB has a positive effect on student achievement and that it is strengthened by organisational justice. Furthermore, educators perceive their leaders as having little or no impact on student performance outcomes, due to their focus on the educational institution's governance and managerial tasks. Despite this perception, leaders view themselves and their colleagues as having a greater degree of influence.

In contrast, Mohammad, Habib, Adnan, and Alia (2010) postulate that, in the Higher Education Institute (HEI) setting, if the lecturer's perception of organisational justice in the workplace increases, the level of citizenship behaviour towards the organisation, supervisor, students, and colleagues, also increases.

3.12.2 Application of OCB in government

Government organisations often provide services with more far-reaching consequences than those involving direct contact with customers; they are also held accountable for the indirect consequences of their actions (Durant, Thomas, Brown, & McClellan, 1986). These organisations are subject to greater scrutiny by society, so all of their major decisions must be transparent. Their decisions may even require achieving consensus amongst and consultation with the most important groups in civil society (Moe, 1994). Ibrahim *et al.* (2013:92) contend that, since local government is accountable to the community it serves, it is important to establish relationships and foster those aspects of job satisfaction which encourage OCB amongst local government employees. OCB is particularly critical in enhancing governmental effectiveness, since it can supplement formal bureaucratic operations (Vigoda & Golembiewski, 2001) that may be somewhat restricted by limited administrative resources or protocols. Additionally, Sunaryo and Suyono (2013) argue that public grievances, such as red tape in bureaucracy, time consuming processes, the behaviour of public servants, and so on, are indicators of poor service delivery by the public service. Thus, in order to improve the public service, the behaviour of public servants is key, as capability and professionalism in doing their job has to be shown. Therefore, the “spirit of serving” should become a habit in the workplace (Sunaryo & Suyono, 2013:385).

In a state and public protection setting, such as police services and military units, personnel go beyond the call of duty and put their lives in danger for the safety and security of the state, the public, and their colleagues. This group of employees exhibits OCB by, amongst other things, staying after work to aid a member of the community who needs help, filling in dockets to ensure the efficiency and effectiveness of operations, visiting families who are distressed as a protective measure, accepting humiliation from individual members of society in order to protect the reputation of their profession, and so on. Van Scotter, Motowidlo and Cross (2000) demonstrate that contextual performance explains significant additional variance beyond task performance in rewards; examples of these are: medals received, promotability ratings, and informal rewards.

In contrast, Hsiung *et al.* (2012:258) reveal that when employees' careerism is increased and job satisfaction is decreased, the perception of organisational politics (POP) is simultaneously nourished and inhibits the performance of citizenship behaviours. Similarly, when engaging in OCB, public employees seek ways to enhance organisational performance by contributing to a better organisational culture and providing for better public service. Thus, Chen and Kao (2011:361) suggest that authorities should create a good working environment that will improve the self-efficacy of employees, and stimulate them to engage in more OCBs that are beneficial to the organisation and the public.

3.12.3 Application of OCB in healthcare

Baghersalimi, Keldbari, and Alipour (2011) contend that OCB plays an important role in strengthening morale and in the betterment of patients, and that it is most required and more important in the hospital because patients need special care and positive behaviour on the part of medical personnel (doctors, nurses, pharmacists, etc.) in handling their cases. Kegan *et al.* (2012:79) argue that organisations can promote OCBs at any stage of employment, irrespective of the age or years of experience of members of the workforce.

According to Obamiro, Ogunnaike, and Osibanjo (2014:39), in the healthcare setting, altruism is required in hospitals because it is essential for medical personnel to work as a team, and interact with one another, in order to achieve the delivery of quality service. Moreover, conscientiousness helps medical staff to obey the rules of their professions, maintain punctuality at work, attend to patient timeously and reduce waiting time. Lv *et al.* (2012:1299) postulate that healthcare professionals who have a high degree of conscientiousness and who perform diligently in their jobs, will be less likely to face conditions of inequity in their workplace, than those who are less conscientious.

For medical staff, sportsmanship is a spirit that enables them to tolerate different patient and coworker behaviours. Furthermore, courtesy is applied in healthcare by employees who consult with each other before taking action, so as to avoid creating problems for

colleagues; moreover, with civic virtue, doctors coordinate their duties with hospital programmes or do things that are not required in their duties, but which enhance the corporate image of the hospital. Thus, Tsai and Wu (2010:3564) suggest that hospital administrators should reduce turnover intention by meeting healthcare workers' needs and promote their OCB by influencing an organisation's ethical climate, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment (Huang *et al.*, 2012:525). Eisele and D'Amato (2011:4) concur and confirm that OCB is influenced by organisational climate appraisals, like the perceived appraisal of organisational policies, procedures and practices, as well as individual factors such as employees' perceptions of themselves.

3.12.4 Application of OCB in sport

Husin *et al.* (2012:143) investigated the influence of HRM practices (support at work, training, reward system, supervisory assistance, and performance appraisal) on OCB on the part of employees; this was associated with perceived service quality. The results found that the effect of HRM practices impact employee OCB, which transfers to perceived service quality, and it was determined that supervisory assistance had the largest correlation with OCB. Thus, in service operations, the quality of service offered to customers is strongly related to employees' OCB, and is cultivated by organisational HRM practices.

Conversely, Afshardoust, Feizabadi, Zakizadeh, and Abdolhoseyni (2013:871) aver that employees with higher levels of OCB exhibit less absenteeism, less turnover, and more efficient and productive organisation which leads to greater customer satisfaction.

3.12.5 Application of OCB in manufacturing

Lee, Iijima, and Reade (2011) examined the predictors of employee preference for performance-related pay (PRP) and the consequences thereof for OCB. The results found no significant association between employee preference for PRP and a willingness to engage in OCB. In other words, employees would prefer PRP over a seniority pay system, without negative consequences for OCB. This suggests that, where seniority-

based pay is a norm, there could be a shift in the system towards one that assesses individual performance. Therefore, it seems employees embrace PRP differently, especially employees who are able to uphold cherished norms of cooperation and harmony, while working under some form of individualized compensation schemes (Lee *et al.*, 2011:215).

3.12.6 Application of OCB in the service industry

In service firms, the employees who make direct contact with the customer represent the organisation and produce the service (Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996); their attitude and behaviour influence consumer satisfaction and service quality (Parasuraman, 1987). Customers' perceptions of the services that service organisations provide have an effect on the future intentions of customers, and corporate profitability (Bambale, 2011:5). Thus, Castro, Armario and Ruiz's (2004) study demonstrate that front-line-service employees' OCB results in more effective service delivery to organisational standards and enhanced customer perceptions of service quality.

Service quality is said to be enhanced when employees view each other as customers and enthusiastically help each other, without complaint or expectation that they should receive any reward, so that the external customer is better served (Albrecht & Zemke, 1985). This altruistic behaviour is exhibited when, for instance, an employee helps another employee who is apparently overloaded or absent, and customers continue to receive quality service without delay or concern regarding poor service. Posdakoff *et al.* (1997) concur; they argue that when experienced contact employees help less skilled or new employees solve their service-related problems, and find more efficient ways of performing their service, it is likely that customers' perceived service quality may be improved.

Contact employees are boundary spanners who interact with external customers on an ongoing basis. Thus, Bambale (2011) contends that attending, and actively participating in, meetings provides opportunities for employees to: learn from various experiences of other employees during service encounters; identify their own problems in providing service; learn how to improve customer service; and, to share fellowship. Moreover,

suggestions made by these employees may be the basis for developing new services, controlling services and improving service quality. Conversely, in the case of a maternity hospital, service quality is generated by several functions that doctors, midwives and nurses perform, as well as technological systems and patient engagement that contribute to the service quality created (Sutharjana, Thoyib, Taroena, & Rahayu, 2013:288).

In a hotel setting, organisational citizenship includes, but is not limited to, a front office agent who treats a customer with special care because the customer is sick; a housekeeper who helps a new housekeeper to finish her assigned rooms; and, a restaurant waitress who helps store the leftover food in the refrigerator (Ma & Qu, 2011:4).

3.13 THE IMPORTANCE OF OCB IN RETAILING

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) assists the development and maintenance of social capital within the organisation. This, in turn, produces higher levels of organisational performance (Shanker, 2012:67). In retailing, as in any service organisation, spontaneous cooperative actions seem especially relevant (Ackfeldt & Wong, 2006) as most aspects need non-mandated employee behaviour that are critical to customer satisfaction (Rego & Cunha, 2008:542). Although helping customers is an in-role behaviour for retail employees, as they are evaluated on their ability to interact with customers (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005:157), employees are also expected to go beyond their call of duty in order to promote the positive image of the organisation (Rego & Cunha, 2008:542) and increase customer satisfaction and loyalty to the company. Employees who help customers and behave courteously towards them may foster the sense of gratitude in customers, thus leading them to repeat the service acquisition (Rego & Cunha, 2008:545).

Customer value created in the interaction between the customer and the employee is important in retail as it keeps customers returning and generates positive word-of-mouth communications, which attracts new customers (Levy & Weitz, 2012:500). Committed employees are more motivated to assist the retailer in achieving its goals, such as

improving the satisfaction of customers and building customer loyalty, and are less likely to leave the company (Levy & Weitz, 2012:220). Rego and Cunha (2008:545) concur and indicate that conscientious and committed employees are more likely to take a more diligent approach to solving customer problems and will be less inclined to shirk responsibilities, to pass problems along to others or to accept sub-optimal solutions for customers, as this will tarnish the image of the organisation.

When employees behave as good organisational citizens towards each other, for example, when more experienced employees voluntarily help new colleagues to learn the job, it is likely that the new workers become more productive, which enhances the efficiency of the retailer and promotes a positive internal climate (Rego & Cunha, 2008:542-544). This behaviour may, in turn, have a positive impact on the way in which customers are served. The positive climate may result in better interactions with customers, thus increasing service quality and customer attraction (Rego & Cunha, 2008:545).

Rego and Cunha (2008:544) further assert that citizenship behaviours enhance team spirit, morale and cohesiveness, thereby reducing the need for employees (or managers) to spend time and effort in maintaining group functions like conflict management. Furthermore, given that good organisational citizens may be expected to show fewer withdrawal behaviours, productivity will be higher and personnel costs lower (Rego & Cunha, 2008:544). Thus, management support is of utmost importance and managers can start by ensuring that roles are clearly defined, in order to minimize conflict.

3.14 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, a theoretical perspective of OCB was discussed, with special attention given to the nature of OCB in terms of its definitions, dimensions, antecedents, and the effects of OCB on individual and organisational outcomes. The application of OCB in different settings, as well as the importance of OCB in retail, was also discussed. The next chapter will focus on employment conditions in retail firms.

CHAPTER FOUR

EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS IN RETAIL FIRMS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Retailing is a major economic activity and a major employer. The wholesale and retail trade is the biggest employer of people in South Africa. In 2013, the wholesale and retail industry employed over 22.8% of the labour force (Lehohla, 2013:12), and contributed 13.3% towards the country's GDP. Retailing is a labour-intensive activity, with employees coming into contact with customers of the business quite frequently. Retail firms hire employees who are the major drivers of the firm's success, increased retail sales, and industry growth. These retail stores are very dependent on employees to achieve their objectives and face the competition (Ajvani & Deshpande, 2013:2). Despite the retailers' dependency on employees, retail industry human resource management remains a rather neglected area (Samli & Ongan, 1996), and this poses a challenge to retail firms.

The changing economic and socio-economic environment has put organisations under pressure to increase flexibility in their employment system (Kalleberg, 2003:479). Sverke and Hellgren (2002) concur and postulate that increasing globalization, lower production costs, increase in competition, economic regression and industrial restructuring have led to an increase in downsizing and labour cost reductions. Consequently, organisations reacted to these developments by adapting the workforce to the changing environment through increasing flexibility. Furthermore, firms have resorted to employment contracts that have major implications for work, with a transition from relatively fixed and stable labour markets to much greater flux and heterogeneity (Gamble & Huang, 2008), thus resulting in a flexible labour market. Labour market flexibility refers to the extent to which different elements of the labour market can adjust to changing circumstances (Barker, 2007:127-134). Moreover, firms embark on labour market flexibility to increase profitability and growth, even though it creates a crisis for workers by reducing their wages, removing their benefits and removing their legal protection and access to trade unions.

In this chapter, the South African labour market is discussed in terms of its composition, employment contracts, labour law, business industries, sectors and their economic contribution to the country, as well as the educational levels of the South African labour force. The chapter then focuses on the employment conditions in the country's retail firms, focusing on gender, wages, working hours, educational levels, and legislation. The relationship between OCB and employment conditions are then discussed, with a specific focus on terms of employment contracts, working hours, and remuneration.

4.2 THE SOUTH AFRICAN LABOUR MARKET

This section focuses on the South African labour market in terms of the composition of its labour force, employment laws, industries, employment sectors in the country's labour market, as well as the employment contracts associated with the labour market.

4.2.1 The composition of the South African labour force

The South African workforce is composed of all the people who are either working or available to work, and who are actively seeking work. It is apparent that not everyone of working age (15-64 years) participates in the work force. According to Lehohla (2013), in 2013, the overall percentage of the working age population that participated in the work force was approximately 57.1%, and it is evident that not everyone in the work force is necessarily working. Thus, the work force is composed of both the employed and the unemployed. The employed are members of the workforce who currently hold jobs. The overall number of South Africans employed in 2013 was 15,177,000 people (Lehohla, 2013:vi), which accounts for 43.3% of the working age population of the country; this is an increase of 4.5% from the previous year. This increase was due to the creation of 123 000 jobs in the informal sector and 64 000 jobs in the formal sector. However, both the Agricultural and Private households industries shed jobs.

The unemployed are defined as members of the work force who are actively seeking work, but are unable to find it (Saunders, 2013). South Africa has one of the highest rates

of unemployment in the world. According to Statistics South Africa (Statssa) (2013), the overall unemployment rate of South Africa in 2013 was 24.1%. This figure includes people who have given up looking for work, which accounts for 2,200,000 discouraged work-seekers, thus indicating a 4.4% decline year-on-year, and people who are not economically active (12,815,000 people), which shows an increase of 1.3% quarter-to-quarter.

In 2008, the South African economy declined due to the global financial crisis, with the largest job losses occurring in the first three quarters of 2009. However, in 2013, employment increased each quarter, reaching 15.2 million in the fourth quarter (Lehohla, 2013:vii). Although this is the highest level of employment since 2008, the increase in the working-age population resulted in the absorption rate being below the levels reached in the pre-recession period. Those most affected by job losses were the youth and those with lower levels of education.

According to Statistics South Africa (2013), in the last quarter of 2013, 27.1% of African people and 23% of Coloured people were unemployed, whereas only 7.2% of White people and 12.5% of Asian people in the country were unemployed. Unemployment is higher amongst women – 26.3% of females are unemployed, whilst 22.4% of males are unemployed. In addition, there is a very high rate of youth unemployment, and over 48.9% of 15-24 year olds in the workforce are unemployed. Furthermore, unemployment is lowest amongst the 45-54 (8.4%) and 55-65 (8.4%) age groups; while unemployment is highest amongst those who left school without completing Grade 12 and lowest amongst those with a Diploma or a Degree. The unemployment rate varies per province. The Eastern Cape and North West provinces have the highest unemployed working age population, at rates of 43.3% and 42.2%, respectively. The Western Cape (22.1%) and Gauteng (28.9%) provinces have the lowest rates of unemployment (Lehohla, 2013:28). In this regard, the Western Cape (54.1%), Gauteng (52.5%) provinces also have the highest employment rates in the country.

4.2.2 The nature of employment contracts on the South African labour market

Global competition, technological innovations and the movement towards leaner and flatter organisations have redirected the focus of employers from long-term, stable employment to one of employment flexibility. The basis of the employment relationship is the contract of employment, which is the agreement between two or more legal persons, in terms of which one of the parties (the employee) undertakes to place his or her personal services at the disposal of the other party (the employer) for an agreed period, in return for a fixed or ascertainable wage, and which entitles the employer to define the employee's duties and to supervise the manner in which the employee discharges them (Grojan, 1999:23-4). There are two types of employment contracts, namely, the fixed-term and the indefinite-period contracts. The fixed-term contract clearly specifies a start and finish date for the contract, while the indefinite-period contract does not have a specified date for the termination of the contract, termination thus occurs by agreement only by the giving of notice or by dismissal (Venter & Levy, 2012:189).

The South African labour force is employed on a permanent (indefinite-period), limited (fixed term), and unspecified duration of employment agreement. According to Lehohla (2013), permanent employees are employees appointed on an open-ended contract with no stipulated termination date, and who are entitled to benefits such as paid leave and medical aid contributions paid by employers; while employees hired on a limited duration are temporary employees who are appointed on a short-term contract basis for periods normally not exceeding one year. Such contracts would typically stipulate a termination date, but could be renewed by mutual agreement between the employer and the employee. These contracts exclude the self-employed with an enterprise, but temporarily not at work.

In contrast, employees on an unspecified duration of employment contract are casual employees who fall neither within the 'permanent employee' category nor within that of a 'temporary employee'. Such employees, typically, work daily or hourly. Employers can dispense with their services at very short notice, usually not exceeding a period of one

week. Casual employees are not entitled to benefits such as paid leave and medical aid contributions paid by employers. According to Hosking and Western (2008:7), the growth of part-time and casual employment in the labour market is driven by the behaviour of women who seek non-standard working arrangements, to allow for paid work to be combined with unpaid work in the home. This behaviour is due to the fact that many mothers adjust their employment to be accommodating of family responsibilities. Nonetheless, while women have historically been over-represented in part-time and casual jobs, the prevalence of non-standard work arrangements has been increasing amongst men, albeit from a low base. Consequently, Statistics South Africa (2013) shows that there were over 8 million people employed on a permanent basis in 2013, 57% of which were men; over 2 million of these employees are on a limited duration contract, and 54% of these men fall into this category. Moreover, there were over 3 million people on an unspecified duration contract, 52% of which were men.

4.2.3 South African labour laws

There are various laws in South Africa that govern the way businesses are run. These include laws to regulate the form and functions of businesses, such as the Companies Act (No. 71 of 2008); laws that provide for various forms of tax; laws dealing with intellectual property; specific forms of contracts; and many other laws that impose direct and indirect duties or obligations on a business. Labour laws are one set of laws that a business has to take into account. This section briefly discusses labour laws which impact upon employment relationships, and makes reference to: the Skills Development Act (SDA); Skills Development Levy Act; Labour Relations Act; Basic Conditions of Employment Act; Employment Equity Act; Occupational Health and Safety Act; Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act; Unemployment Insurance Act; and the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment. These Acts are not discussed in terms of their importance, rather in terms of the sequence that a prospective employee would follow when entering the organisation up to the point at which the employee exits the organisation. Thus, the Employment Equity Act will be addressed first, and Unemployment Insurance Act last. Moreover, Broad-Based Black Empowerment is

discussed due to its importance and the emphasis by government on the promotion of Black business ownership and empowerment. That is, the inclusion of black people into participating in the economy of the country.

4.2.3.1 The Employment Equity Act (EEA)

The Employment Equity Act (EEA) is Act No. 55 of 1998, and focuses on the eradication of unfair discrimination in any form of hiring, promotion, training, pay, benefits, and retrenchments in organisations (Nel, Kirsten, Swanepoel, Erasmus, & Poisat, 2012:174). Equality in the workplace is a fundamental principle entrenched by the Constitution and labour legislation, specifically in the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 and the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998. Affirmative action and employment equity are two related concepts that are fully formulated as law in the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998. Affirmative action precedes employment equity both in time and legislative enactment.

Affirmative action generally reflects labour market policy aimed at addressing past imbalances that are a direct result of discrimination, while employment equity reflects labour market policy aimed at preventing future discrimination. The Act aims to: promote the constitutional right of equality and the exercise of true democracy; eliminate unfair discrimination in employment; ensure the implementation of employment equity to redress the effects of discrimination; achieve a diverse workforce broadly representative of the South African people; promote economic development and efficiency in the workforce; and give effect to the obligations of the Republic as a member of the International Labour Organisation (Venter & Levy, 2012:237).

Nel, van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono, & Werner (2004) postulate that equality in the workplace is achieved by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination. It is also committed to implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, in order to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational

categories and levels in the workforce. Protected 'categories of people' are blacks (i.e. Africans, Indians/Asians and Coloureds), women, and people with disabilities.

4.2.3.2 The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA)

According to Jordaan, Kulula, and Strydom (2012), the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA) No. 75 of 1997 prescribes the minimum or floor of terms and conditions of employment. It, inter alia, provides for the maximum working hours that an employee can be expected to work in a week, the minimum paid annual leave and sick leave that an employee would be entitled to and the minimum premiums to be paid for working overtime, or for working on a Sunday or a public holiday. It also sets out the minimum notice period to which an employee would be entitled in the event of termination of employment.

Furthermore, the Act applies to all employees and employers, including public servants and to the State as employer. It does not apply to members of the National Intelligence Agency; members of the South African Secret Service; members of the South African National Academy of Intelligence; unpaid volunteers working for a charitable organisation; and the directors and staff of Communications security (Comsec).

Additionally, employees who work fewer than 24 hours a month for an employer (casual employees); senior managerial employees; and sales staff who travel to the premises of customers and who regulate their own hours of work, are partially excluded.

4.2.3.3 The Labour Relations Act (LRA)

According to Jordaan, Kalula, and Strydom (2012), the purpose of the Labour Relations Act (LRA) No. 66 of 1995 is to advance economic development, social justice, labour peace and the democratization of the workplace by fulfilling the primary objectives of the Act. These primary objectives are to realize and regulate the fundamental rights of

workers and employers in the Constitution. In other words, its main purpose is to establish a framework to regulate key aspects of the relationship between employer and employee at both an individual and a collective (trade union) level.

Furthermore, the Act's overall purpose is to give effect to and regulate certain constitutional rights; to give effect to the country's obligation as a member state of the International Labour Organisation (ILO); to provide a framework for and promote orderly collective bargaining; to promote employee participation in decision-making in the workplace; and to promote the effective resolution of labour disputes.

4.2.3.4 The Occupational Health and Safety Act (OHSA)

The Occupational Health and Safety Act (OHSA) No. 85 of 1993 makes provision for the health and safety of people at work and in relation to their use of operating equipment and machinery; the protection of other people against threats to their health and safety arising from the activities of people at work; as well as the establishment of an advisory council for occupational health and safety, and related matters (Venter & Levy, 2012:251).

According to Jordaan, Kalula, and Strydom (2012), each employee is required to take reasonable precautions at work for his or her own safety and health, and that of other people who may be affected by his/her actions or failures. Likewise, each employer is required to establish and maintain a work environment that is safe and without risk to the health of its employees; and operate its organisation in such a way that people who are not employees and who are directly affected by the activities of the organisation are not exposed to threats to their health and safety as a result. However, there are separate acts for mining, shipping merchants, and labour brokers.

4.2.3.5 The Skills Development Act (SDA)

One of the key issues facing the South African labour market is an excess of unskilled labour. The government, in its efforts to redistribute wealth more equitably across South Africa, has pushed for an increase in skilled labour. According to Saunders (2013), in 2012 unskilled labour accounted for 28.9% of all labour in the country. The government has sought to up-skill the labour force by introducing the Skills Development Act (SDA) No. 97 of 1998, which was amended in 2003 and 2006.

According to Landis and Grossett (2008), the SDA seeks to develop the skills of the South African workforce and thereby increase the quality of working life for workers; improve the productivity of the workplace; and promote self-employment and the delivery of social services. Moreover, the Act also seeks to encourage employers to use the workplace as an active learning environment and to provide opportunities for new entrants to the labour market to gain work experience. Special focus is given to improve the employment prospects of previously disadvantaged persons through education and training.

Du Toit, *et al.* (2010:342) aver that the objectives of the SDA are to be achieved by establishing a stronger institutional and financial framework than that which previously existed under the Manpower Training Act. Furthermore, the Act relies on a coalition between government, organized labour and organized business to fulfill its aims. The National Skills Authority (NSA), which replaced the National Training Board, is an advisory body to the Minister of Labour; it has the responsibility of ensuring that national skills development strategies, plans, priorities and targets are set and adhered to. The Act also created the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs). These authorities deal with the creation and implementation of policy at the sector level and include organized business and labour. One of the practical matters that SETAs deal with is establishing learnerships to help grow the skills base in their sectors.

4.2.3.6 The Skills Development Levies Act (SDLA)

Landis and Grossett (2008) indicate that the rationale for a national levy scheme for skills development is premised on the assumption that effective skills formation requires a strong link between occupation-based education and training, and the workplace. Some employers are reluctant to empower their employees through training due to fear of high labour turnover. Thus, the Skills Development Levies Act (SDLA) No. 9 of 1999 provides a regulatory framework to address the current low level of investment by companies in training, and establishes a compulsory levy scheme for the purpose of funding education and training, as envisaged in the Skills Development Act.

Furthermore, the Act introduces a levy equivalent to 1% (one percent) of employers' payroll per month, which employers pay to the Commissioner for the South African Revenue Service. In some cases, monies are paid directly to the particular SETA.

Twenty percent of the funds collected, plus money received from fiscus, is allocated to the National Skills Fund, and is used to fund national skills priorities. Eighty percent of the funds collected are paid to the SETA in order to fund the performance of their functions and pay for their administration.

4.2.3.7 The Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act (COIDA)

The Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act (COIDA) is Act No. 130 of 1993, and allows for compensation to be paid to an employee who, as a result of his/her activities at work, becomes ill or injured, partially or totally disabled, killed or contracts an occupational disease (Venter & Levy, 2012:253). In addition, in the event that the employee dies as a result of the accident, injury or disease, the compensation is to be paid to his/her dependents. Grojan (1999) asserts that this statute ensures that employees or their dependants who have been disabled due to injury, illness or death arising from the performance of work, are compensated from a fund specially created for that purpose.

The Act applies to all employers and all full-time and part time employees, and provides a system of no-fault compensation for employees, irrespective of whether their injury or illness was by their own negligence, due to their employer's negligence, or that of any other person (Venter & Levy, 2012:254). However, employees may not institute a simultaneous claim for damages against the employer or any other person for the damage suffered.

4.2.3.8 The Unemployment Insurance Act (UIA)

The purpose of the Unemployment Insurance Act (UIA) No. 63 of 2001 is to establish, from contributions made by employees and employers, an insurance fund against which employees, on becoming unemployed, or their beneficiaries, may draw, thus negating the effects of unemployment (Venter & Levy, 2012:256). It is a compulsory insurance scheme through which the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) is established. Employees contribute one percent of their monthly wage to the UIF, which is administered by the Department of Labour; employers also contribute one percent of their labour bill of all the employees who are contributors, in terms of the Act (Nel, *et al.* 2004:117). The contributors are workers who earn more than the annual, monthly, or weekly maximum earnings ceiling (Nel, *et al.* 2012:185).

4.2.3.9 The Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE)

There is consensus that national wealth should be more widely created and evenly distributed amongst all population groups. The main aim of B-BBEE (No. 53 of 2003) is to address inequalities resulting from the systematic exclusion of black people (that is, Africans, Indians and Coloureds) including women, youth, people with disabilities and people living in rural areas, from meaningful participation in the economy (Venter & Levy, 2012:243). In other words, it is intended to restore the imbalances caused by oppressive policies (pre-1994) that economically excluded Black South Africans from actively

participating in and owning big businesses, and thwarted attempts by black entrepreneurs to do so, by utilizing integrated socioeconomic strategies.

Laws have been put in place and funds made available for black people to own businesses. However, ownership is only one facet of the empowerment process; in order to be meaningful, empowerment must be broad-based. More black people are becoming professionals, managers, technicians or engineers through active learnerships and skills development programmes. Both the private and public sectors are involved in reaching BEE objectives and measuring progress in reaching a more equitable society. The Broad-Based Black Empowerment Act (2003) aims to achieve BEE objectives.

In 2007, the Codes of Good Practice on B-BBEE were gazetted as an implementation framework for B-BBEE policy and legislation, making them binding on all organs of state and public entities. This means that, as per section 10 of the BEE Act, government must apply the Codes when entering into decisions affecting the following areas:

- Procurement
- Licensing and concessions
- Public private partnerships ('PPP's')
- The sale of state-owned entities

In order to do business in South Africa, companies must satisfy the empowerment criteria. Sectoral charters and the balanced scorecard are the main elements in achieving goals and assessing progress (DTI, 2007). The government is flexible in dealing with foreign investors on a case-by-case basis. It is possible to compensate for business ownership by ensuring that black business is supported in procurement and training. In addition, social responsibility initiatives should be emphasized. The B-BBEE balanced scorecard is comprised of seven elements, as depicted in Table 4.1 below:

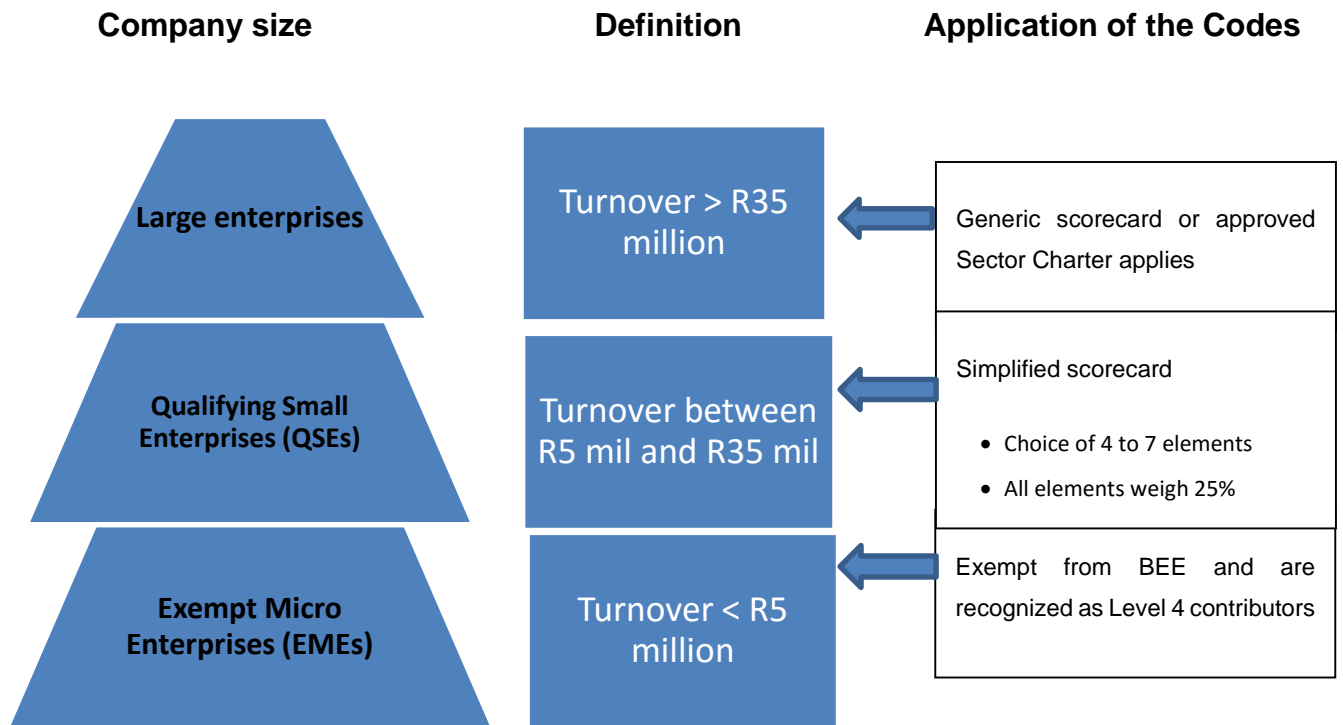
Table 4.1 Elements of the B-BBEE balanced scorecard and their weights

ELEMENTS	POINTS
Ownership	20
Management control	10
Employment equity	15
Skills development	15
Preferential procurement	20
Enterprise and supplier development	15
Socioeconomic development	5

Source: Davies (2013)

Table 4.1, above, shows the seven elements of the B-BBEE balanced scorecards. The BEE Codes aim to bring more black players into the ownership and running of companies. According to Davies (2013), companies with turnovers of under R5 million annually are exempted from the BEE measures. Those with turnovers of between R5 and R35 million have to adhere to four of the seven codes. Large companies are scored according to all seven, as illustrated in Figure 4.1, below.

Figure 4.1 BEE applications of the Codes of Good Practice



Source: Adapted from Davies (2013)

Figure 4.1, above, shows the application of the Codes of Good Practice as gazetted by the Department of Trade and Industry.

4.2.3.10 The effectiveness of employment laws on South African employment relationships

South African employment laws are important in achieving the goals set out by the International Labour Organisation (ILO). The fundamental goal of ILO is the achievement of "decent and productive work for both women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity" (Cohen & Moodley, 2012:320). This is achieved by means of policy and institutional intervention strategies.

In South Africa, decent work programmes prioritise job rich growth, sustainable enterprises, including formalization of the informal sector, and skills development. A small set of indicators proposed by ILO (2014) is used as a basis for monitoring the country's profile of decent work, namely, economic and social context; employment opportunities; adequate earnings and productive work; decent hours; combining work, family and personal life; work that should be abolished; stability and security of work; equal opportunity and treatment; safe work environment; social security; and promotion of social dialogue and representation of employers and workers.

With regard to the economic and social context, a wide range of legal, policy and programmatic interventions, such as B-BBEE, emerged since the 1994 elections and have attempted to address the imbalances of the past and create an inclusive society characterised by shared and equitable economic growth. These interventions have created a lot of employment opportunities for South Africans, despite the country's low levels of self-employment.

While South Africa does not have a single national minimum wage, minimum wages are set for some sectors which are considered vulnerable through ministerial and sectoral determinations in terms of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA). This initiative addresses decent work programmes in terms of adequate earnings and productive work. Moreover, BCEA sets ordinary hours of work at 45 hours per week, and a week of 48 hours suggests regular overtime work, thus ensuring that employees work decent hours.

In terms of combining work, family and personal life, the BCEA provides some relief for women employees in respect of their reproductive role by providing for a minimum of four consecutive months of maternity leave when they give birth, or adopt a child. Furthermore, the Unemployment Insurance Act is also drawn upon during this period of child birth or adoption (and other unemployment conditions), and provides for a proportion of the wage or salary to be paid to employees who have contributed to the Fund.

With regard to work that should be abolished, forced labour is outlawed in the Constitution, and the BCEA sets age 15 as the minimum possible age for legal employment of a child. It also prohibits the employment of a child who is under the minimum school-leaving age.

Stability and security of work have become an ever more important concern in light of general shifts in the workplace away from permanent employment. Thus, the Labour Relations Act plays a vital role in ensuring that employees are not unfairly dismissed, and that employers adhere to good labour practices at all times. Employees can refer their dispute to a statutory or bargaining council, or the Commissioner for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA), if they feel that they have been dismissed or otherwise treated unfairly.

The Employment Equity Act is a key instrument for achieving equal opportunity and treatment in respect of employees, and focuses on race and gender alongside disability. In addition, the Skills Development Act ensures that all employees are given equal opportunities and treatment in terms of training and promotion opportunities.

According to Cohen and Moodley (2012), the Department of Labour's plans are underway to employ health and safety inspectors to ensure a safe working environment for all employees. At the same time, compensation for injuries and work-related diseases is provided for by the Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act, and is funded primarily through levies paid by employers.

In terms of social security, South Africa does not have a national law that provides for work-related pension benefits. However, Lehohla (2013) suggests that 49 percent of the total labour force contributes to pension or retirement funds and have employers who contribute to a pension fund on their behalf, and 32 per cent are entitled to medical aid benefits from their employers.

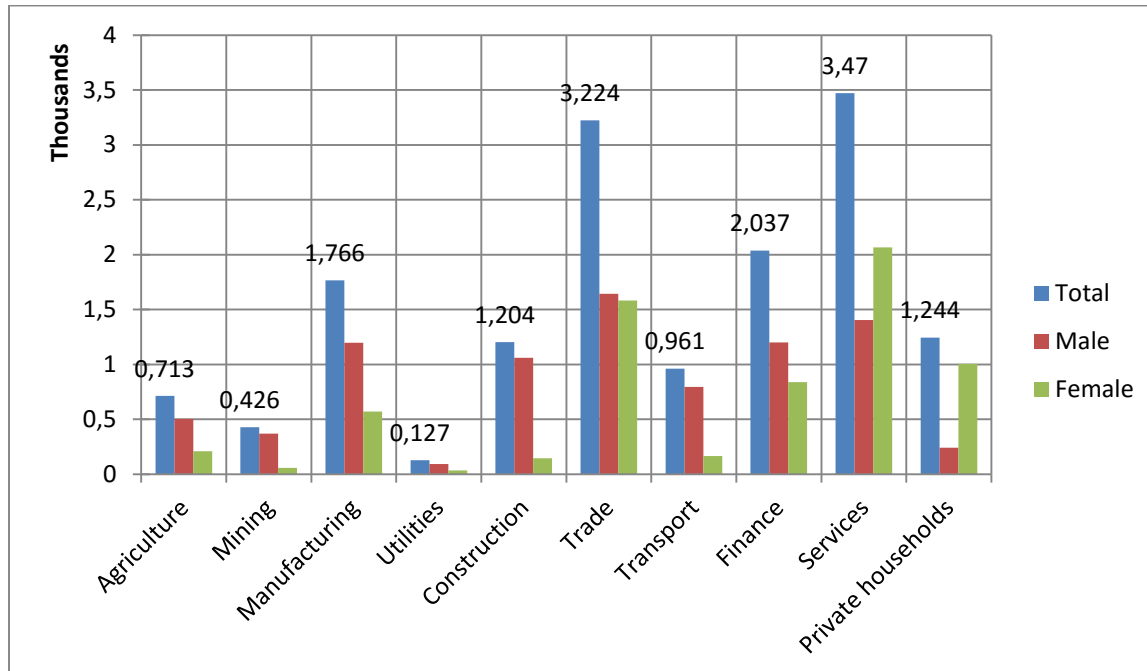
Freedom of association related to employment is considered important enough in South Africa to be included in the Bill of Rights in the Constitution. This sets a firm basis for the promotion of social dialogue and representation of employers and workers. According to the Department of Labour, in 2013 there were 190 trade unions and 164 employers' organisations registered with the Department of Labour (Statssa, 2013). Moreover, The National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) is South Africa's foremost 'social dialogue' forum for the country's traditional social partners.

4.2.4 Industries in the South African labour market

According to Statssa (2013), the industries contributing to the South African labour market include mining, construction, agriculture, trade, utilities, manufacturing, transport, finance and other business services, community and social services, as well as private households.

The number of people employed in each industry varies greatly. Some have progressed better than others in terms of growth in the last few years. Lehohla (2013:24) noted that community, social and personal services (CSP) is the biggest employer of people in South Africa, employing 22.9% of the labour force, followed by trade, which employs over 21% of the workforce. Furthermore, job losses were observed in five industries; of these, the agriculture, finance and other business services, and private household industries shed the most jobs (27 000, 23 000 and 20 000, respectively).

Figure 4.2 Employment by industry and gender



Source: Statistics South Africa (2013)

Figure 4.2, above, shows the number of people employed in the South African labour force, characterised by industry and gender. The mining industry is one of the male-dominated industries. The industry employed 426 000 people in 2013, of which 87% were men. The North West province dominates this industry and employs 169,000 people, followed by Mpumalanga and Limpopo which employ 89,000 and 69,000 people, respectively. These provinces are responsible for platinum, gold and diamond extractions in South Africa, and make a significant contribution to the country's GDP.

While the construction industry employs 1,204,000 people, of which, 88% are men. Construction is prevalent in Gauteng, the economic hub of the African continent, and employs over 310,000 people. KwaZulu-Natal employs 221,000 people, while the Western Cape employs 163,000 people.

Agriculture, however, has one of the lowest numbers of employed people, with just over 713,000 people. The industry employs 71% men and 29% women. It is prevalent in the Western Cape, employing over 162,000 people, followed by Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal at 102,000 and 96,000 people respectively. The trade industry is, however, the second largest employer in South Africa, employing over 3,224,000 people, of which 49% of the labour force is comprised of women. This is the industry in which most women are employed, although long hours might be a problem for them. The industry is dominant in the Gauteng province, employing over 1,011,000 people in 2013. KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape are the second and third largest employers in the trade industry, at 567,000 and 496,000, respectively.

The Utilities industry employs 127,000 people, 72% of which are men. The industry is prevalent in Gauteng and Mpumalanga, and employs 37,000 and 30,000 people in these regions, respectively. The manufacturing industry, however, employs 1,766,000 people, 68% of which are men. It is predominant in the Gauteng province, employing 654,000 people, followed by KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape at 345,000 and 318,000 people, respectively.

The transport industry employs 961,000 people, of which, 83% are men. In Gauteng, the industry employs 359,000 people, while in KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape it employs 198,000 and 133,000 people, respectively. The community and social services industry is the largest employer in South Africa, employing over 3,470,000 people. The industry is dominated by women, who constitute 60% of its workforce. It is predominant in the Gauteng province, employing 1,057,000 people, while in KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape it employs 572,000 and 445,000 people, respectively.

Meanwhile, the finance and other business services industry, as the third largest employer in South Africa, employs over 2,037,000 people, with 59% of those employed in the industry being men. It is prevalent in Gauteng province, in which it employs 930,000 people, followed by the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal which employ 361,000 and 282,000 people, respectively. The private household industry, however, employs over

1,244,000 people, 82% of which are female employees. It is prevalent in Gauteng, employing 360,000 employees, followed by KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape at 223,000 and 120,000 people, respectively.

As can be deduced from the statistics above, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, and the Western Cape, followed by the Eastern Cape, have the most economically active people in South Africa, although unemployment rates are high in all the provinces in the country. It is also evident that men dominate all the industries in the South African labour market, except the community and social services, and private household industries.

4.2.5 Employment sectors

There are basically two sectors in the South African labour market, namely, the formal and the informal (non-agricultural) sectors. It is important to acknowledge the importance of employment in unprotected or unregulated jobs, in addition to jobs in informal enterprises (Heintz & Posel, 2008:27; ILO, 2002), as it contributes to the economic growth of the country.

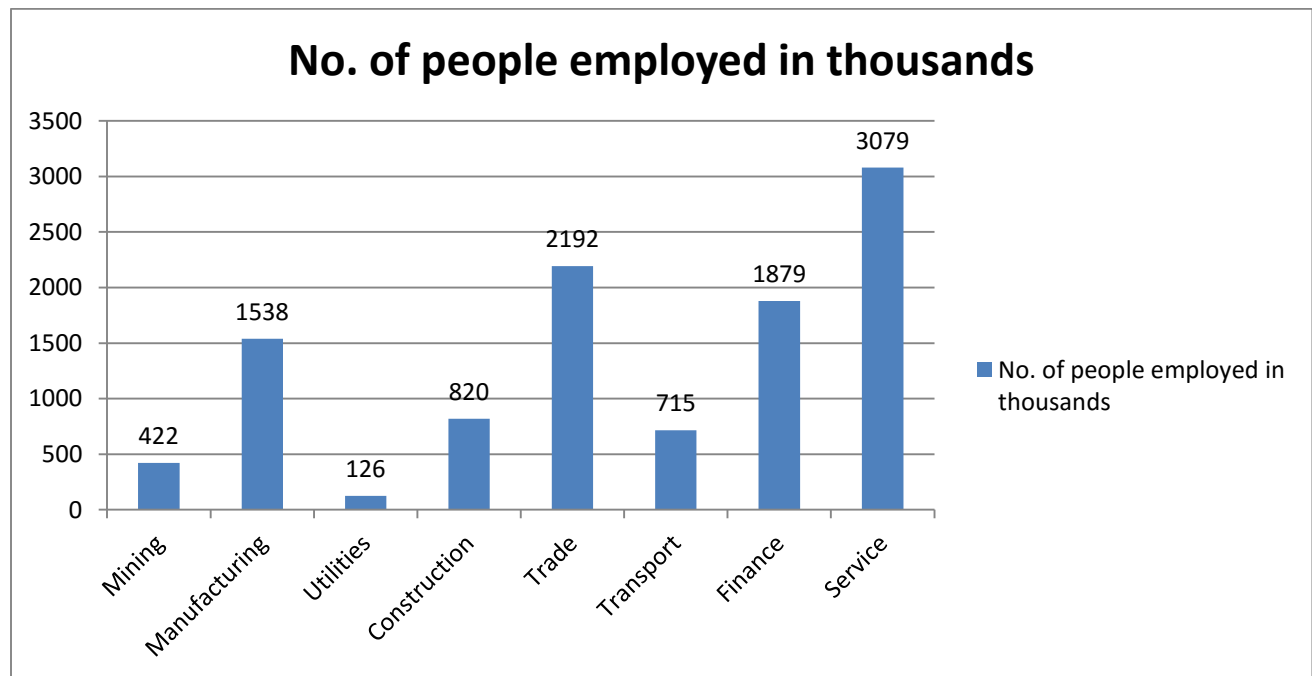
Husmanns (2004:2) is of the opinion that the informal sector or economy is primarily defined in terms of the characteristics of the people involved, or their jobs, rather than by the characteristics of the enterprise for which they work. In contrast, Venter and Levy (2012:157) define it in terms of the primary characteristics of the enterprise and they refer to informal sector employment as employers that are private unincorporated enterprises; that is, they have no legal personality and do not produce books of account. In other words, they are not likely to be registered under specific forms of national regulatory legislation.

Alternatively, according to Statistics South Africa (2013), formal wage employees are identified as employed persons with either a written contract or who receive paid leave and a pension contribution. This definition includes the self-employed, if their enterprises are registered to pay Value Added Tax or they have a registered business. Wills (2009:6)

asserts that, with regard to agricultural work, there is flexibility with respect to its inclusion or exclusion in estimates of informal employment. However, according to ILO (2002), excluding it is typically preferred.

In South Africa, in 2013, there were 10,8 million people employed in the formal sector and 2,5 million people in the informal sector, overall, as shown in Figure 4.3:

Figure 4.3 Employment in the formal sector characterised by industry

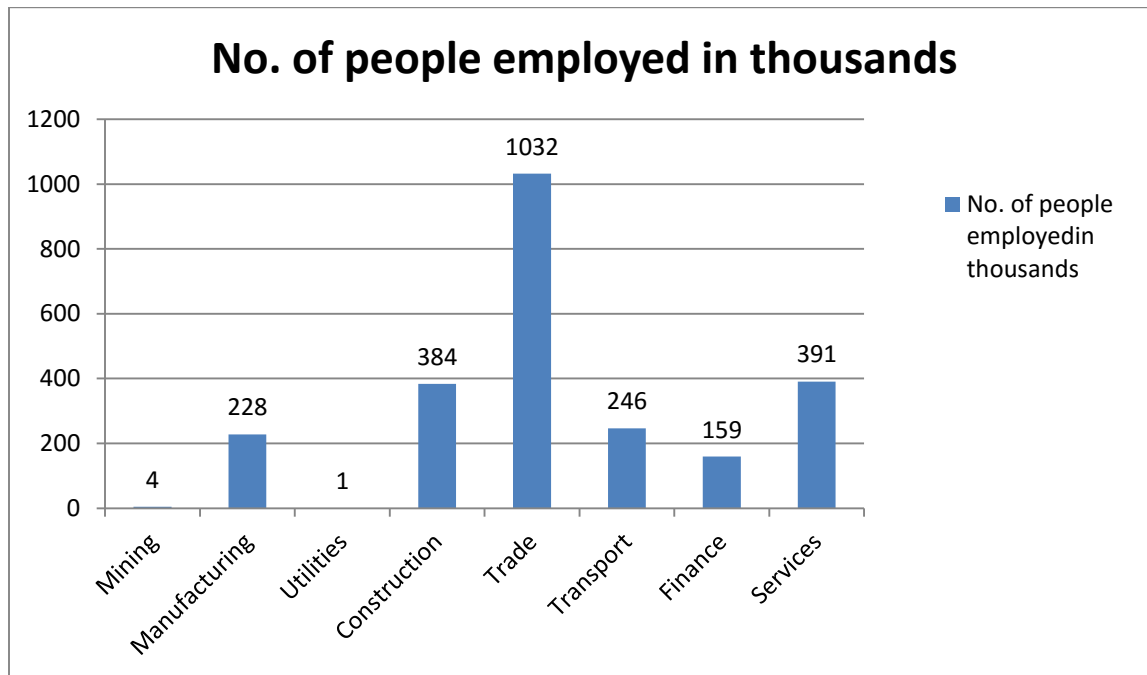


Source: Statistics South Africa (2013)

Figure 4.3, above, shows the number of people employed in the formal sector, characterised by industry. In the third quarter of 2013, formal sector employment increased across all the industries, except in the Manufacturing industry where 77 000 jobs were lost. The largest increases were observed in the Trade, and Community and social services industries, which showed increases of 174 000 and 169 000, respectively. This resulted in a gain of 507 000 jobs in the formal sector.

In contrast, the informal sector shows reduction in employment in some industries, as shown in Figure 4.4:

Figure 4.4 Employment in the informal sector characterised by industry



Source: Statistics South Africa (2013)

Figure 4.4, above, shows year-on-year employment changes in the informal sector by industry. Compared to a year ago, employment gains were concentrated in the Community and social services and Construction industries, with increases of 50 000 and 40 000 jobs observed in each industry. Job losses were observed in the Trade and Utilities industries (58 000 and 1 000, respectively), while employment in the Mining industry remained unchanged.

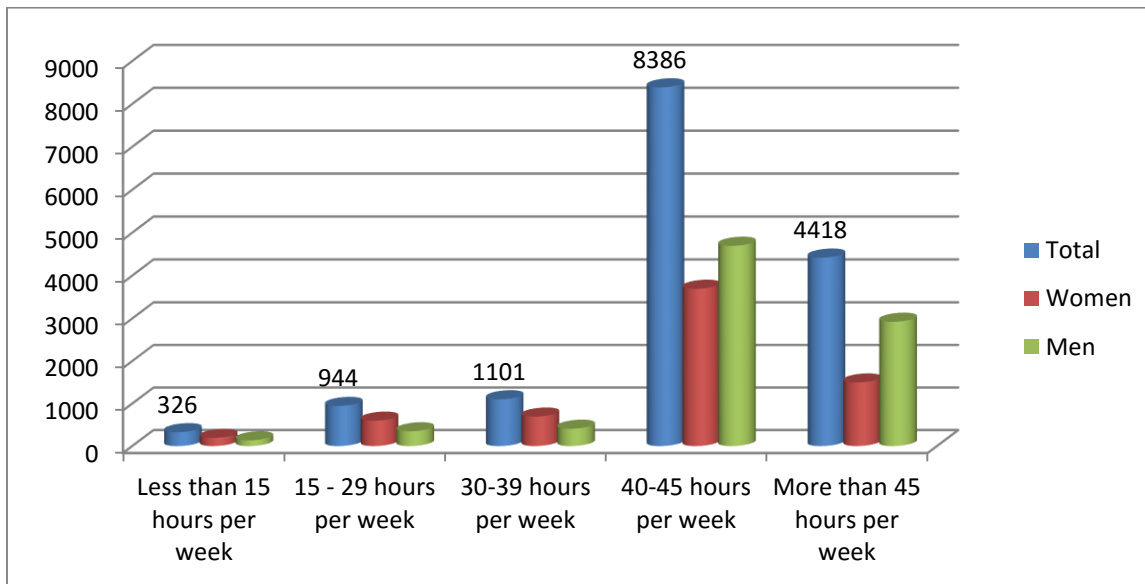
4.2.6 The level of education of the South African labour force

According to Statssa (2013), in the fourth quarter of 2013, employed people who had either tertiary education, completed their secondary education, or had not completed their secondary education were over 3 million, 4 million, and 5 million, respectively. Moreover, those who had either no schooling, less than primary education completed, or completed their primary education were 368,000, over 1.1 million, and 634,000, respectively. Furthermore, of the unemployed people in South Africa, over 2.3 million have not completed their secondary education, and over 1.6 million have completed their secondary education.

4.2.7 Working hours of the South African labour force

There are more permanently employed people than there are temporarily employed people in South Africa; they work 40 to 45 hours per week, as illustrated in Figure 4.5, below:

Figure 4.5 Employed people characterised by their working hours and gender



Source: Adapted from Statssa (2013)

Figure 4.5, above, shows the working hours of employed people in the country, and their gender. Out of the 15,1 million people employed in South Africa, 55% work 40-45 hours per week, which represents permanently employed people; moreover, 56% of this group are men.

From these statistics, it is evident that only a few women work long hours, possibly due to family commitments. Thus, it is suggested that the employment conditions lead to women's preference of non-standard employment.

According to the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA), employees who are members of the National Intelligence Agency; members of the South African Secret Service; members of the South African National Academy of Intelligence; and the directors and staff of Communications security (Comsec), are excluded from the BCEA; and senior managerial employees; as well as sales staff who travel to the premises of their customers and who regulate their own hours of work, are partially excluded from the BCEA. This group of people can work more than 45 hours a week, if necessary; they represent 29% of the total number of employed people in the country, of which, 66% are men.

4.2.8 The role played by trade unions in the labour market

According to Nel, *et al.* (2012:46), a trade union is a continuing permanent organisation created by the workers to protect themselves at their work, to improve the conditions of their work through collective bargaining, to seek to better the conditions of their lives, and to provide a means of expression for the workers' views of matters of society. The relationship between the employer and the trade union entails an acknowledgement of their conflicting interests and an appreciation of the need to compromise. The development of an atmosphere of trust and cooperation between the parties, and the establishment of a working arrangement to accommodate each other's needs, is of utmost importance in this relationship.

South Africa's trade union movement has played an influential role in determining labour market and industrial relations policies in the country. Post-1994, the trade union movement succeeded in making employers appreciate the benefits of negotiating with employees through their representative unions, and managed to conclude agreements such as union recognition, wages, conditions of service, workplace restructuring and retrenchments. Consequently, trade unions are recognized in the Constitution, which provides for the right to join trade unions, and for unions to collectively bargain and strike (Nel *et al.*, 2004:138).

Moreover, it is unanimously acknowledged that strong trade unions are necessary for effective collective bargaining (Kenny, 2007), which is an important way of regulating industrial relations and determining workers' wages and benefits. Although collective bargaining is only one of the activities carried out by trade unions, it is usually of such importance that the prevailing structure of collective bargaining has had a decisive influence on the structure (Fiorito, Gramm, & Hendricks, 1991) and government of trade unions. Thus, the Labour Relations Act has given workers and their unions redress through mediation, conciliation and arbitration.

There are three types of trade unions, namely, occupational, industrial, and general unions. Occupational unions derive their members from employees in a certain occupation, work in a variety of industries, and are regarded as horizontal in character (Bendix, 2010:164). Occupational unions include craft unions, promotion unions and white-collar unions; they function on the principle of common skills. Alternatively, industrial unions define their domain in terms of specific industries or groups of industries, and members' work in that industry, irrespective of trade or profession. Industrial unions function on the principle of commonality of workers' circumstances in a specific industry, and include mineworkers, autoworkers and steelworkers, amongst others; while general unions do not restrict members in terms of skills or industry, and function on the principle of commonality of worker interests (Nel *et al.*, 2012:48-49).

The role and goals of trade unions generally fall into three major categories: economic gains and improved working conditions for members; procedural controls to ensure job security for employees and freedom from arbitrary action by employers; as well as political influence to drive state policies and ensure that legislation is labour-friendly (Grobler, 2005). The primary goal of most trade unions is to negotiate higher wages and benefits for their members. However, Venter, Levy, Holtzhausen, Conradie, Bendeman, and Dworzanowski-Venter (2011:92) categorize trade union objectives into five categories: economic (including social welfare), job security, working conditions and job regulation, individual development and socialization, and socio-political goals. According to Nel *et al.* (2004:138), the objectives of trade unions are to protect and promote the particular goals or interests of individual workers or groups of workers. Hence, the workers' membership indicates their belief in the union, namely, that it will decrease their frustration and anxiety, improve their opportunities, and lead to the achievement of a better standard of living.

There are three prominent trade union federations in South Africa, with affiliates operating in the different sectors of the economy (Davies, 1985). These are: the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), with 187 affiliated unions; the Federation of Unions of South Africa (FEDUSA), which has 20 affiliated unions; and the National Council of Trade Unions (NACTU), which has 20 affiliated unions. There are many other trade union federations, such as The Confederation of South African Workers' Union (CONSAWU), but these operate on a smaller scale than the three union federations mentioned above. However, although all the union federations and their respective affiliates compete for membership, they co-operate in forums such as National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC). Trade union federations, employer bodies, the government and civic organisations are represented in Nedlac, which debates and tries to reach consensus on social and economic policy issues (Buhlungu, 2006) and aims at ensuring a balanced and fair working environment for all.

Venter *et al.* (2011:106) note that the four largest trade unions in South Africa are all members of COSATU: National Union of Mineworkers (NUM), National Education, Health

and Allied Workers Union (NEHAWU), South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU), and National Union of Metalworkers of South Africa (NUMSA). These unions support each other during strikes and engage in secondary strike actions, forcing the employers whose employees are taking part in the support action, to urge the primary employer to settle the issue (Nel *et al.*, 2012:519).

According to Lehohla (2013), in South Africa, 21% of the total labour force belongs to unions; this is comprised of 26% women and 30% men. The Mining and Utilities industries are the most unionized industries, with the salary negotiations of most employees in these industries undertaken between unions and employers, at 77,3% and 54,1%, respectively. In contrast, in other industries, larger proportions of employee salary increases are determined solely by the employer.

4.3 EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS IN SOUTH AFRICAN RETAIL FIRMS

South African business firms are regulated under various laws in South Africa, some of which include the labour laws discussed above. Likewise, retail firms adhere to South African employment laws for the effective management of people (Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:329).

According to the Mdladlana (2003), the employment of all wholesale and retail employees is governed by the Sectoral Determination 9 legislation in the Wholesale and Retail sector. The determination sets minimum wages, working hours, number of leave days, and termination rules. It applies to all employers and workers in the industry, including those associated with merchandising, warehousing, or distribution operations. It does not apply to workers who are covered by another sectoral determination or bargaining council agreement. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA) applies in respect of any matter not covered by this sectoral determination.

The wholesale and retail sector is characterised by high levels of casualization. Atypical forms of employment prevail, together with labour brokering, permanent temporary employees, temporary managers and supervisors in the workplace, especially retail outlets (Mazwai & Dikgole, 2013:19). Furthermore, it is important to note that data on the size and shape of the labour market, in the wholesale and retail sector, is notoriously scarce for the following reasons: a significant number of employers are operating in the informal sector; a large number of employees are working in the formal sector in atypical forms of employment and go unrecorded; a number of small and micro-employers are not registered with the South African Revenue Service (SARS) or the national bargaining councils; a number of employers are not registered to pay skills levies because they are exempted or simply do not pay levies; employer bodies and trade unions are not compiling reliable employment and employee data in the form of reports; and poor participation rates in the levy grant system by employers and incorrect information on the SARS database.

Nevertheless, the employment conditions in South African retail firms are discussed in terms of the number of people employed in the industry by age, gender, educational level, dominant provinces, employment contracts, working hours and retail earnings.

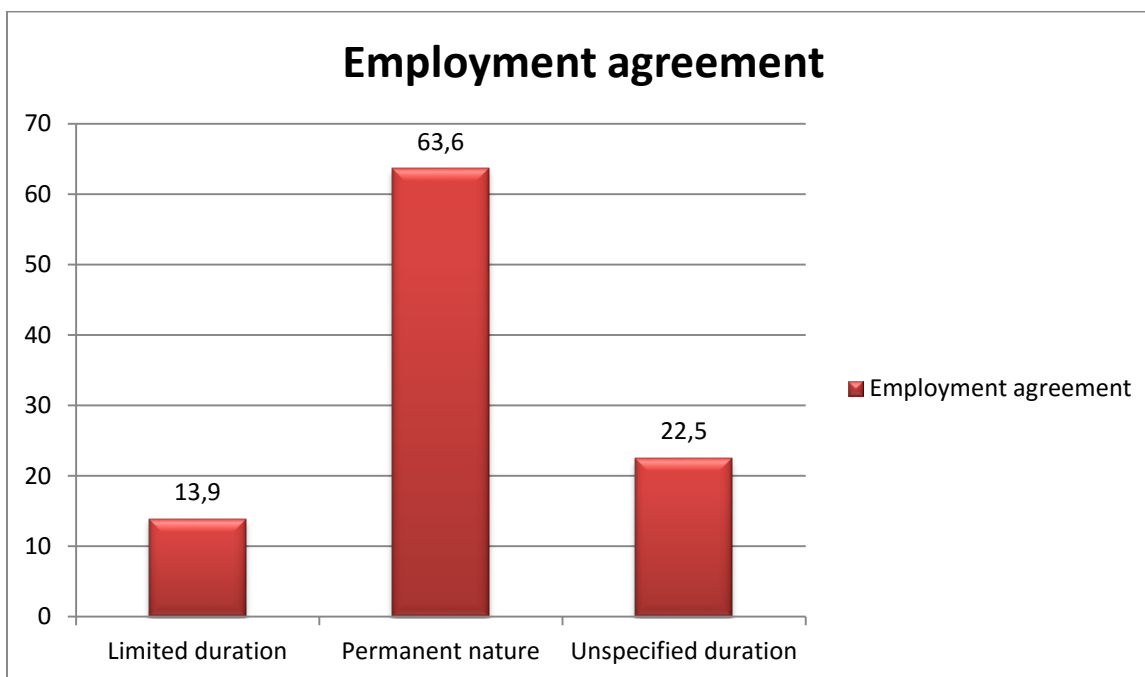
4.3.1 Retail employment

As discussed in Chapter 2 of this study, the wholesale and retail (W&R) sector is one of the largest employers in South Africa, as it employs 22.8% of the country's labour force (Lehohla, 2013:12). Males make up 52% of those employed in the W&R sector and females make up 48%, while the national average is 56% males and 44% females. Moreover, 66% of the people in the W&R sector are in formal employment, whilst 34% are in informal employment (Mazwai & Dikgole, 2013:15).

4.3.2 Employment agreements

Organisations meet fluctuations in demand and maintain flexibility by hiring non-standard workers, such as temporary agency workers, on-call workers or independent contractors (Aletraris, 2010:1130). Likewise, employees in the wholesale and retail industry are hired on various employment agreements. Due to seasonal fluctuations and demand, the firm might require additional employees who are hired on a temporary or casual basis, as seen in Figure 4.6 below. From an organisation's point of view, contingent (temporary) workers offer flexibility and a chance to vary the size of the workforce without the psychological burden of laying off employees (Van Dyne & Ang, 1998:693).

Figure 4.6 Employment agreements in retail



Source: Statssa (2013)

Figure 4.6, above, shows that in the wholesale and retail sector, 63,6% of job opportunities are on permanent contract, followed by temporary and casual jobs with 22,5% and 13,9%, respectively. This indicates the mix in the composition of the workforce due to competitive pressures for increased flexibility and reduced costs (Stamper and Van Dyne, 2001:517). Hosking and Western (2008:8) concur and assert that employers

increasingly use non-standard work practices to lower labour costs through a close matching of staffing levels to market demand, and through a reduction in spending on employee benefits.

4.3.3 Retail working hours

In South Africa, retail working hours are set according to Part D of the Sectoral Determination 9: Wholesale and Retail sector legislation, as briefly explained below:

An employer may not require or permit an employee to work more than 45 ordinary hours in any week; or on agreement, 40 ordinary hours in any week; and an employer may not require or permit an employee to work more than nine ordinary hours on any day if the employee works for five days or less in a week; or eight ordinary hours in any day if the employee works for more than five days in any week.

An employee who works 27 hours or less per week is employed on condition that the employee is paid the relevant hourly wage rate, in terms of Table 4.5 below, plus 25% for any ordinary hours worked by the employee, including ordinary hours of work performed on Sundays. In addition, the employee is granted at least two days off during every week.

4.3.4 Retail earnings

The wholesale and retail sector is one of the lowest paid sectors in South Africa, while total earnings for individual workers depend on the number of hours worked, which can vary considerably according to the category of employment (Kenny, 2011:49). However, the sector is governed by the Sectoral Determination 9: Wholesale and Retail sector legislation, which stipulates the minimum wages to be paid to employees. The minimum wages are reviewed every year and the minimum wages for 2014 to 2015 are depicted in Table 4.2, below. According to Mazwai and Dikgole (2013:25), in 2012 there were discrepancies in gross earnings (see Table 4.2) earned by workers on a monthly basis,

which led to many strikes. Gross earnings are payments for ordinary-time, standard or agreed hours during the reference period for all permanent, temporary, casual, managerial and executive employees before taxation and other deductions for the reference period (Mazwai & Dikgole, 2013). This includes salaries and wages; commission if on retainer, wage or salary was also paid; employer's contribution to pension, provident, medical aid, sick pay and other funds; allowances, etc. This, however, excludes earnings of sole proprietors or partners of unincorporated businesses; commission where a retainer, wage or salary was not paid; payments to subcontractors and consultants who are not part of the enterprise; and severance, termination and redundancy payments.

Table 4.2 Monthly earnings of South African labour force in 2012

Distribution of monthly earnings 2012								
	No. of employees	Bottom 5%	Bottom 10%	Bottom 25%	Median	Top 25%	Top 10%	Top 5%
	'000	Rands						
All industries	11 198	600	900	1 500	3 000	7 500	15 000	20 000
W & R sector	2 033	800	1 027	1 733	2 750	5 200	11 000	15 400

Source: Mazwai & Dikgole (2013)

Table 4.2, above, shows that the median monthly earnings in the W&R sector is R2 750 compared to the national average for all industries, which is R3 000. In addition, the bottom 5% of employees earned R800 compared to the top 5% who earned R15 400; the bottom 25% earns R1 733. Moreover, there is a need to improve the earning power and skills of the bottom 25% in order to improve productivity and growth in the industry. The wide disparity in income equality is an obstacle to growth and exposes the industry to the risk of labour unrest (Mazwai & Dikgole, 2013:25).

Table 4.3 Wholesale and retail sector minimum wages

Table 1: Area A	Minimum wages for the period 01/02/2014 to 31/01/2015				Table 2: Area B	Minimum wages for the period 01/02/2014 to 31/01/2015			
	R.p.h	R.p.w.	R.p.m.	27 hrs R.p.h.		R.p.h.	R.p.w.	R.p.m.	27 hrs R.p.h.
Assistant Manager*	28.68	1 290.77	5 592.90	29.73	Assistant Manager***	24.06	1 082.65	4 691.13	25.10
Cashier*	16.73	752.67	3 261.33	17.32	Cashier***	13.99	629.40	2 727.21	14.59
Clerk*	19.83	892.27	3 866.20	20.54	Clerk***	16.73	752.71	3 261.51	17.46
Displayer*	20.59	926.70	4 015.37	21.33	Displayer***	16.13	726.05	3 145.98	16.81
Gross vehicle mass:<3 500 kg*	15.10	679.57	2 944.60	15.65	Gross vehicle mass:<3 500 kg***	12.46	560.84	2 430.14	12.98
Gross vehicle mass: 3 501 < 9 000 kg *	18.27	822.00	3 561.72	18.93	Gross vehicle mass: 3 501 < 9 000 kg ***	15.08	678.44	2 939.70	15.71
Gross vehicle mass: 9 001< 16 000 kg*	19.94	897.45	3 888.67	20.66	Gross vehicle mass: 9 001< 16 000 kg***	18.22	819.84	3 552.38	19.00
Gross vehicle mass:16 001>*	21.91	986.12	4 272.84	22.70	Gross vehicle mass: 16 001>***	20.07	903.16	3 913.40	20.92
Forklift operator **	14.65	659.40	2 857.17	15.18	Forklift operator ****	11.98	539.23	2 336.50	12.51
General Assistant**/Trolley collector	13.43	604.17	2 617.87	13.90	General Assistant****	11.93	536.83	2 326.08	12.41
Manager*	31.45	1 415.27	6 132.37	32.57	Manager***	26.09	1 174.06	5 087.21	27.22
Merchandiser*	15.71	706.93	3 063.13	16.28	Merchandiser***	13.16	592.27	2 566.30	13.71
Security Guard**	13.65	614.17	2 661.20	14.15	Security Guard****	13.47	606.04	2 625.96	14.04
Sales Assistant*	19.83	892.27	3 866.20	20.54	Sales Assistant***	16.73	752.71	3 261.51	17.46
Sales Person*	19.83	892.27	3 866.20	20.54	Sales Person***	16.73	752.71	3 261.51	17.46
Shop Assistant*	15.71	706.93	3 063.13	16.28	Shop Assistant***	13.16	592.27	2 566.30	13.71
Supervisor*	24.39	1 097.41	4 755.09	25.27	Supervisor***	20.43	919.35	3 983.54	21.28
Trainee Manager*	26.35	1 185.60	5 137.21	27.29	Trainee Manager***	21.84	982.67	4 257.91	22.77
All job categories marked * above received 4.80% increase All job categories marked ** above received 5.8% increase					All job categories marked *** above received 5.80% increase All job categories marked **** above received 6.8% increase				

Source: Retrieved from www.labour.org.za on 15 February 2015.

Table 4.3, above, shows the minimum wages for the period 2014 to 2015.

4.3.5 The role of trade unions to South African retail firms

Venter *et al.* (2011:125) postulate that, where wages are determined by collective bargaining, there will be higher levels of pay than there would be if employees had to rely on the natural generosity of spirit that may (or, arguably, may not) exist amongst employers. Retail workers are members of a variety of trade unions: Federal Council of Retail and Allied Workers (FEDCRAW), Food, Cleaning and Security Workers' Union (FOCSWU), Care Centre, Catering, Retail and Allied Workers' Union of South Africa (CCRAWUSA), South African Food, Retail & Agricultural Workers' Union (SAFRAWU), and Transport Action, Retail and General Workers' Union (THOR), amongst others.

Trade unions are responsible for wage negotiations in most industries. However, in the retail trade, the majority of salary increments are decided upon solely by the employer, as illustrated in Table 4.4:

Table 4.4 How salary increment is negotiated in the retail trade

Negotiating parties	Percentage
Individual and employer	12.3
Union and employer	16.8
Bargaining council	2.6
Employer only	63.5
No regular increments	4.3

Source: Adapted from Lehohla (2013)

Table 4.4, above, shows how salary increments are negotiated in the retail trade. A large proportion (63,5%) of employees' salary increases, in the trade industry, is determined solely by the employer. This could be due to the fact that union membership is highest amongst full-time employees, with casual and part-time employees experiencing poor

representation (Kenny, 2011:50). The main union in the retail industry is the South African Commercial, Catering and Allied Workers Union (SACCAWU).

4.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCB AND EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS

4.4.1 Employment conditions

Employment conditions in this study include employment contracts, remuneration/compensation, working hours and overtime.

4.4.1.1 Employment contracts

Employment contracts entail employment arrangements where employees are hired on a full-time or part-time contract basis. The benefits include the ability to adjust the workforce size rapidly, as demand for the firm's products or services shifts; there may be less need to invest in training and development of contract staff; and contract workers may not incur the range of substantial indirect staff costs (Guest, 2004:1-2). Stamper and Van Dyne (2001:517) argue that this mix in the composition of the workforce is due to competitive pressures for increased flexibility and reduced costs.

Due to the dire need of firms to retain customers and to gain a competitive advantage, a third of wholesale and retail firms' workforce is temporary (part-time and casual employees). Temporary employees are perceived as a necessity for gaining a competitive advantage as firms try to create innovative ways of maximizing employees' work efforts (Cho & Johanson, 2008:308).

Employees are likely to stay in their jobs as a result of a lack of suitable alternative employers (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005:153). When these employees experience positive emotions, they replicate them in virtuous behaviours, which foster social capital (Rego,

et al. 2010:217). However, part-time employees are less likely to be engaged in virtuous acts because they do not get incentives from the organisation (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006:352). Rather, part-time employees perceive their coworkers' OCBs as an inducement that they do not expect from their employment, which would influence their performance, whereas full-time employees see OCBs as inevitable duties (Cho & Johanson, 2008:312).

Conversely, when part-time employees perceive a greater relational contract with the employer and foresee the possibility of extending their contracts with the organisation, they believe that they receive similar socio-emotional inducements as their permanent counterparts, from the organisations for which they work (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006:354). As a consequence, these part-time employees would increase individual and organisational performance (Rego, *et al.* 2010:217). Thus, in order to encourage OCBs in retail firms, managers have to nurture their relationship with both permanent and temporary employees.

Research has shown that part-time employees differ in several aspects from full-time employees, and attitudinal and behavioural differences between part-time and full-time employees are assumed (Van Emmerik, 2004:73). Stamper and Van Dyne (2001:530) tested the differences in the organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) of full- and part-time employees, and showed that part-time employees exhibited less helping OCB than full-time employees. Chambel and Castanheira (2006:352) concur and posit that, because temporary workers do not receive inducements from the organisations (for example, promotions and long-term employment), they make a lower contribution to the organisation than permanent employees. In contrast, part-time employees perceive employers' appreciation for their work and wellbeing as extra inducements (Cho & Johanson, 2008:321).

4.4.1.2 Reward system

Rewards refer to all monetary and nonmonetary compensations and incentives provided by organisations to employees, in return for their contributions in terms of their physical and mental efforts as well as abiding by the rules and regulations of the organisation (Husin, Chelladurai, & Musa, 2012:145). In addition, these rewards can be used to elicit desired behaviours from employees. Thus, organisations that strategically design their reward system can generate the desired employee behaviours and commitment to the effective delivery of services (Husin *et al.*, 2012:145). Consistent with this view, Anis, Rehman, Nasir and Safwaqn (2011:268) affirm that employees are offered financial and non-financial compensation in order to induce employees to accomplish desired goals against their behaviour. In other words, employees are compensated for creativity and innovation that yields positive business results. It is evident, therefore, that if employees perceive equity in the organisation's reward system, they engage in OCBs, thereby enhancing organisational effectiveness and yielding positive business results.

4.4.1.3 Working hours

Working hours refer to the correspondence between working hour preferences and actual working hours, whether this is wanting to work more hours or wanting to work fewer hours. Actual work hour behaviour can be seen as a function of hours preferred by the employee, number of hours as agreed upon in the employment contract and environmental forces (Van Emmerik & Sanders, 2005:714). Long opening hours and seasonal demands, in retail settings, require a range of contractual arrangements and shift patterns. Van Emmerik (2004:79) examined the relationship between a mismatch of working hours and OCBs, and found that working more hours than preferred and initially agreed upon, is associated with the withdrawal of engagement in OCBs directed towards the supervisor, but not OCBs directed towards colleagues.

4.4.1.4 Overtime

Working long hours are referred to as overtime. Van Emmerik and Sanders (2005:712) suggest that different employees' needs cause them to prefer to work a different number of hours than they actually work. For examples, there are employees who prefer to spend less time at work and those who prefer to work longer hours. Employees may feel compelled to work more hours due to financial strain, job insecurity, or employer pressure (Van Emmerik & Sanders, 2005:713). In addition, those who prefer to spend less time at work could be feeling domestic strain (for example, family care responsibilities). Even though these long working hours might be voluntary, they can undermine the very quality of living standards they are presumed to boost (Van Emmerik & Sanders, 2005:713). Since employees need more time to engage in OCBs (Van Emmerik & Sanders, 2005:714), it is evident that working long hours reduces flexibility in the employee's lifestyle and the employee's willingness to engage in extra-role activities.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the employment conditions in retail firms. The chapter began by discussing the nature of the South African labour market, followed by the employment conditions in South African retail firms, and concluded by linking employment conditions in retail firms with OCB.

The next chapter focuses on the hypothetical model of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE THEORETICAL MODEL OF OCB IN RETAIL FIRMS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters laid the foundation for the hypothetical model discussed in this chapter. Chapter Two explained that retailing is important to global economies as it contributes to economic development and growth. Chapter Three illustrated the importance of the organisational citizenship behaviours of employees, in retailing, in order to ensure organisational effectiveness. Chapter Four showed that employment conditions could encourage employees to engage in citizenship behaviours that are beneficial to both the individual employee and the organisation.

In this chapter, a hypothetical model representing the various relationships or factors influencing OCB in retail firms, and the perceived outcomes of engaging in OCB, will be presented. The independent variables, as well as the dependent and intervening variables, which form the basic building blocks of the model, will be discussed, together with the resulting hypothesized relationships. The identified variables are grouped into 3 categories: independent, intervening and dependent variables. The independent variables are: *job perceptions, role considerations, organisational climate, and employment conditions*. The intervening variable is *organisational citizenship behaviour*, and the dependent variables are: *employee commitment, propensity to resign, and employee engagement*.

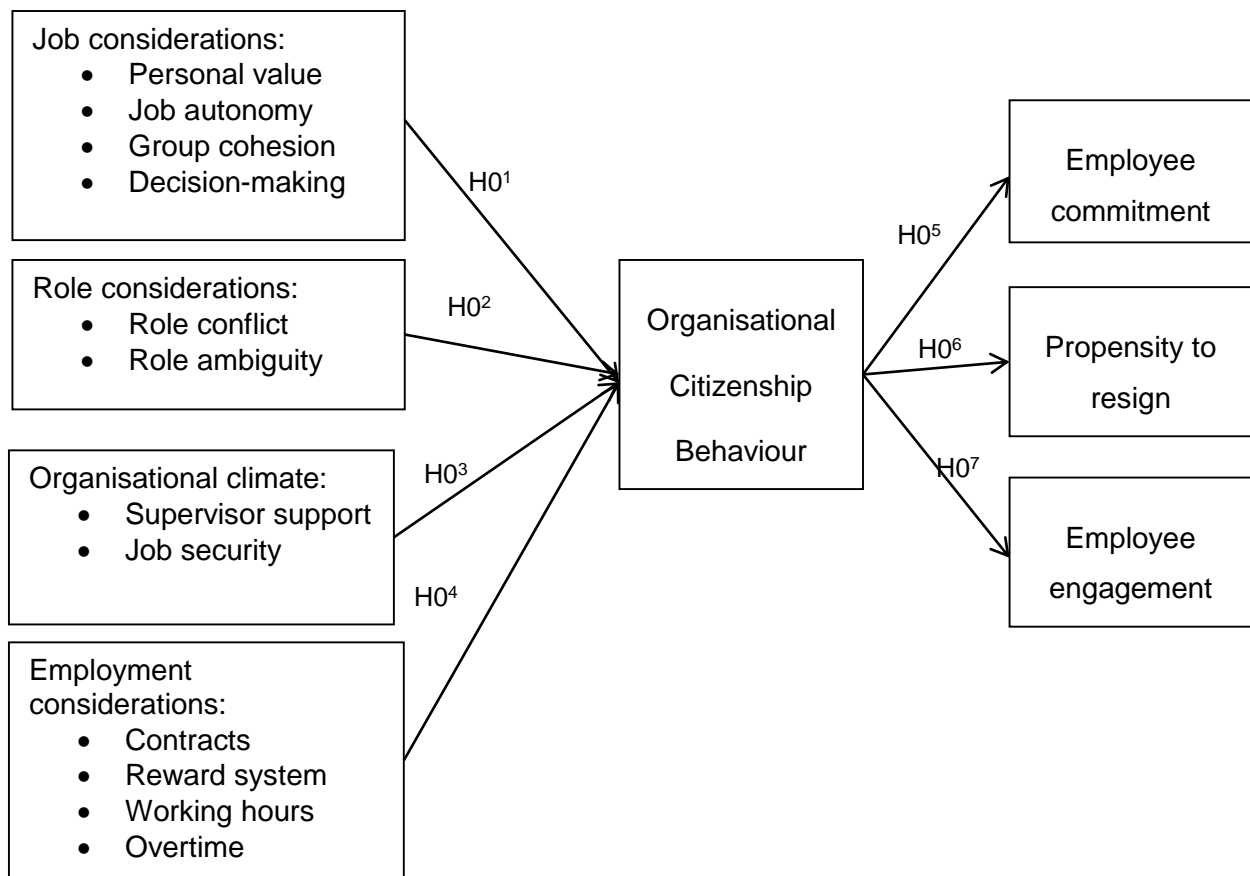
5.2 THE MODELLED INFLUENCE OF OCB PERCEPTIONS

The hypothetical model (Figure 5.1 below) proposed in this study is based on the models of Mansoor *et al.* (2012); Chen, *et al.* (2009); Ackfeldt and Coote (2005); and Bell and Menguc (2002), as well as the literature review. There are four main categories of constructs relevant to the hypothetical model, namely, job perceptions, role considerations, organisational climate and employment conditions. The independent

variables, which could possibly influence OCB in retail firms, are derived from four constructs. Various studies, for example, Dash and Pradhan (2014), adopted a similar approach in developing a model that investigated the determinants and consequences of organisational citizenship behaviour. In this study, prior research based on several studies was integrated into a comprehensive model.

In this study, four main categories of constructs are identified: job considerations, role considerations, organisational climate, and employment considerations, as shown in Figure 5.1, below.

Figure 5.1 The proposed hypothetical model



Source: Author's own construction

For the purpose of this study, the attempt to categorize factors that influence OCB in retail firms reflects the judgement of best fit; it does not imply, in any way, that it is an exhaustive and conclusive list of factors that can influence OCB in retail firms. Likewise, in this study, the relationships between the independent variables, that is, job considerations, role considerations, organisational climate, and employment considerations and the intervening variable, namely, organisational citizenship behaviour, is investigated. The relationship between the intervening variable and dependent variables, that is, employee commitment, propensity to resign, and employee engagement, is then sought.

Several researchers have focused on different dimensions of OCB. Moon, Van Dyne, and Wrobel (2005) demonstrate the usefulness of distinguishing between dimensions of OCB because of the different antecedents and consequences for different OCB dimensions. Similarly, McNeely and Meglino (1994) have explored the differences between various antecedents of organisationally and interpersonally focused forms of OCB, such as helping colleagues. They report that contextual factors, such as equality in rewards and recognition, predict organisationally-focused OCB, such as being loyal to one's organisation, whereas individual differences, such as concern for others, predict more interpersonally-focused OCB.

A number of hypotheses can be formulated with regard to relationships between the various individual variables themselves, for example, between job considerations and role considerations, or job autonomy and group cohesion. However, Cooper and Schindler (2006:45) warn that unless a researcher curbs the desire to include additional elements, a study can become diluted by trivial concerns that do not answer the basic questions posed by the problem statement. This study focuses on investigating the factors which influence OCB in retail firms and the perceived outcomes of engaging in OCB, thus, the hypotheses are formulated to address only these relationships.

5.2.1 Discussions on the hypothesized model

5.2.1.1 Job considerations

In this study, job considerations that are hypothesized to influence OCB are personal values, job autonomy, group cohesion, and decision-making, all of which are discussed below.

a) Personal values

Schwartz and Rubel (2005:1010) define value as a belief, pertaining to desirable end states or modes of conduct that transcend specific situations, guides the selection or evaluation of behaviour, people and events and is ordered by importance relative to other values so as to form a system of value priorities. However, Florea, Cheung, and Herndon (2013) regard personal values as deep-seated, pervasive, core-beliefs or guiding principles that transcend specific situations to direct or propel human behaviour in decision-making. Alleyne, Cadogan-McClean, and Harper (2013) postulate that values are instrumental in the formation of attitudes, and the execution of purposive behaviours in many circumstances or issues, because they are central to an individual's thought processes. Seppala, Lipponen, and Bardi (2012:140) demonstrate that employees who identify significantly with their work unit express their personal values of openness to change by expressing ideas for improvements, and implementing these ideas, only when they feel that they have power in their work unit.

Research has suggested that values are powerful determinants of behaviour and motivation (Devero, 2007; Townsend, 2009), as well as attitudes and other variables; for example, attitudes towards gender relations (Feather, 2004:3), voting (Caprara, Schwartz, Capanna, Veccheione, & Barbaranelli, 2006:5) or religion. In the study of politics, authors such as Barker and Tinnick (2006:251) and Jacoby (2006:721) suggest that values are a critical foundation of public opinion, influencing not just citizen behaviour but eventually the shape of party systems across advanced industrial democracies. Thus, Lan, Ma, Cao, and Zhang (2009) argue that personal values, although individualistic in

nature, are largely influenced by societal and cultural factors and tend to vary across nations.

According to Glew (2009), personal values have been considered important antecedents of behaviour. Hitlin and Piliavin (2004) argue that people's value priorities play an important role in understanding and predicting their attitudinal and behavioural decisions. Moreover, individuals are motivated to behave in accordance with their values in order to avoid the unpleasant sensation that accompanies value-behaviour incongruence. Thus, it is suggested that, in some cases, significant discrepancies may exist between the personal values held by individuals and the behaviours that they exercise due to circumstances or fear of retribution (Alleyne *et al.*, 2013:50).

In contrast, Lee and Trail (2011:603) point out that behaviours are consequences of tradeoffs between opposing values, which are concurrently associated with behaviour. Moreover, Parks and Guay (2012:150) maintain that because values relate to how individuals feel they ought to behave, they should have a motivational impact on behaviour in general. Thus, Seppala *et al.* (2012:140) argue that if personal values can be pursued by promoting group goals, identification may enhance value driven behaviour.

Ng and Burke (2010) found that employees' personal values are related to attitudes towards sustainable business practices. Furthermore, values are distinguished from attitudes in that values are global beliefs that underlie attitudinal processes, while attitudes are cognitive and affective orientations towards specific objects and situations. Thus, it may be argued that an individual's values may propel him/her to behave (Baird & Zelin, 2007) in a certain manner.

Personal values are also related to ethical decision-making and behaviour (Akaah & Lund, 1994; Fritzsche & Oz, 2007) as well as the adoption and implementation of socially responsible policies (Hemingway & Maclagan, 2004). Thus, the adoption and successful implementation of high-performance human resource practices that contribute to organisational sustainability may depend on employees' personal values.

Florea *et al.* (2013:395) demonstrate that nurturing certain values, such as altruism, empathy, positive norm of reciprocity and private self-effacement amongst employees supports the implementation of sustainable management practices in organisations. These, in turn, contribute to the attainment of organisational sustainability goals. If, for example, altruism is kept in high regard as indicated by management behaviour and the code of conduct, then employees are likely to be concerned about others in addition to their own self-interest. This value is likely to influence their work behaviour, directing their efforts towards organisational citizenship behaviour and a genuine concern for organisational stakeholders. Thus, there has been an emergence of practices that validate behaviours in which generosity, mutual support, long-term interests, and collective success receive more support than those associated with individual, short-term objectives.

Some studies, such as the work of Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005) and Schwartz and Rubel (2005), show differences between the personal values of males and females. Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005), for example, show that benevolence (kindness) and universalism are more significant for female university students rather than power, which is more significant for males; their study also shows that females prefer values such as benevolence, security and universalism. Likewise, Lan, *et al.* (2009) demonstrate that male accounting practitioners and students rated “achievement” much higher than their female counterparts; whilst Giacomino and Akers (1998) report that females rated the values “mature love” and “broadmindedness” significantly higher than males, who rated the value type “power” significantly higher than their female counterparts. In contrast, prior research, such as Fagenson (1993), reveals very little gender differences in individuals’ personal value systems.

Triana, Kim, and Garcia (2011), however, demonstrate that personal value for diversity decreases the negative relationship between perceived discrimination against minorities at work and citizenship behaviour towards minorities, such that those with a high personal value for diversity exhibit more OCBI towards minorities than those with a low personal

value for diversity. Likewise, Rocca (2005) shows that values have a strong influence on behaviours that are under relatively more voluntary control, such as OCBs.

Therefore, for the purpose of this study, personal values are defined as the entrenched, prevalent, core-beliefs and guiding principles that surpass certain situations, to channel positive behaviours in making constructive decisions.

Against this background of findings, it is hypothesized that personal values are essential for the effectiveness of organisations.

b) Job autonomy

Dierdorff and Morgeson (2007:1231) refer to job autonomy as factors that include individual responsibility and dealing with opportunities for exercising individual initiative; it entails increased exploration and motivation to attempt and to master new tasks. Somech and Oplatka (2009:429) postulate that job autonomy reflects the extent to which a job allows the freedom, independence, and discretion to schedule work, make decisions, and select the methods used to complete tasks.

It is an important aspect of the broader construct of control in the workplace (Liu, Spector, & Jex, 2005:326) and is particularly important in situations characterised by turbulent or uncertain environments. Peng *et al.* (2010:289) suggest that relaxing strict behavioural controls allows employees to reciprocate particularly supportive organisational relations with behaviours that are of benefit to the business (that is, OCB). The study further demonstrates that job autonomy has positive moderating effects on the relationship between both job satisfaction and OCB; that encouraging autonomy within the workplace heightens employees' sense of self-efficacy or the motivation to try out and master new tasks; and that increasing autonomy provides workers with greater discretion in terms of how they select the methods used to cope with the immediate and multiple needs of users. It has been assumed that discretion in the job is important because greater discretion enables individuals to integrate more job aspects into their role if they so choose (Morgeson, Delaney-Klinger, & Hemingway, 2005). Thus, it is imperative to foster

an autonomous atmosphere in the external work environment, in order to encourage OCB.

Further, Jinyue (2007) demonstrates that autonomy has a substantial connection with OCB, and has a positive impact on identification with the company, altruism and conscientiousness. Likewise, Chen and Chiu (2009) show that, through the mediation of job involvement, job autonomy has a positive influence on employees' OCB. These results are consistent with findings by Cappelli and Rogovsky (1998) that show that job autonomy and OCB are related. In contrast, an earlier study by Chiu and Chen (2005) found no relationship between job autonomy and OCB. The explanation for these findings is that when employees' job autonomy is high, it reduces the need for employees to depend on others for help; in return, they are less likely to display OCB to others (Chiu & Chen, 2005:535). This independence is contrary to OCB theory where individuals are united by actions connected with the actions of other people within an organisation (Melé, 2012:95). Thus, job autonomy is said to be indicative of discretionary effort on the part of the organisation. Hence, it is presumed that job autonomy will encourage employees to engage in OCBs.

Previous experiments and investigations, such as Baard, Deci, and Ryan (2004); Deci, Ryan, Gagne, Leone, Usunov, and Kornazheva (2001) demonstrate that a work environment that supports autonomy permits employees to develop their feeling of being self-determinate, develop higher levels of self-regulated motivation, work performance, trust in their supervisors, and loyalty towards the firm. As a result, employees will, in return, engage in voluntary behaviours, which are beneficial to both the employee and the organisation. Cirka (2005) concurs and shows that employees, who perceive that their leader stimulates them to perform autonomously, feel psychologically empowered and subsequently show stronger OCB (i.e. helping and voice). Autonomy is particularly important for the expression of discretionary effort as without having some autonomy in the job, job roles would be prescribed, which would leave no latitude for the employee and discretionary effort would not be expressed (Lloyd, 2008:31). Thus, autonomy is regarded as a motivating factor.

Mohsan, Nawaz, Khan, Shaukat, Islam, Aslam, Arslan, Chouhan, and Niazi (2011:499) suggest that the more the jobs possess autonomy, amongst other characteristics, the more the employees are satisfied and committed, the more they are involved in their respective jobs, and the more they perform citizenship behaviours that lead to organisational effectiveness. Equally, DiPaola and Hoy (2005:43) propose that, in order to encourage OCB, teachers should be given autonomy to experiment and make important decisions about teaching and learning, as teaching is a complex activity that requires professional judgments; it cannot adequately be prescribed in teachers' job descriptions or contracts.

Thus, for the purpose of this study, job autonomy is defined as the employees' freedom to make important decisions about activities in their jobs that will enable them to effectively and efficiently complete their tasks.

c) Group cohesion

Ng and Van Dyne (2005:518), citing Festinger (1950:274), define group cohesion as "the resultant of all the forces acting on the members to remain in the group"; however, this definition has been considered too general and vague, and is thus difficult to convert into concrete measures and concepts (Craig & Kelly, 1999). Evans and Jarvis (1980) identify the mutual attraction of members to the collective as the most common definition of cohesiveness. In contrast, Carron (1982) defines cohesiveness as a process that reflects a group's tendency to stick together and remain united in order to reach a common goal. Likewise, Goodman, Ravlin, and Schminke (1987) define cohesiveness as the commitment of members to the group's task. Conversely, Friedkin (2004) defines cohesion as a group's resistance to forces that are disruptive.

Subsequently, a multidimensional view of cohesion has emerged, describing how multiple factors induce groups to stick together and remain united. Although group cohesion has been viewed as a group-level variable, researchers also recognize that it is the unique

experiences of individuals that contribute to their own perception of group cohesion (Wu, Neubert, & Yi, 2007:333). Carron and Brawley (2000), for example, propose that perceptions of group cohesion reflect an individual's perceptions about group closeness, similarity, bonding, and his or her personal motivations to remain in the group. Cohen and Bailey (1997) postulate that individuals in cohesive groups are attracted to one another, have frequent intra-group communication, and evaluate each other positively.

Mullen and Copper (1994) categorize cohesion into three dimensions, namely, social cohesion (i.e. interpersonal attraction), task cohesion (i.e. task commitment), and group pride. However, due to the dearth of literature on group pride and the fact that studies focusing on it seem primarily limited to sports teams, researchers such as Ng and Van Dyne (2005:518) delineate group cohesion into two aspects: an interpersonal aspect that focuses on liking for the group and a task-oriented aspect that focuses on shared commitment to the task. Interpersonal cohesiveness allows groups to have less inhibited communication and to effectively coordinate their efforts, while task cohesiveness is thought to increase commitment to the task and to increase individual effort on the task by group members (Kozlowski & Ilge, 2006:88). For the purpose of this study, cohesion is viewed from a bidimensional perspective: interpersonal and task cohesiveness.

Work group cohesion has often been tested for its effects on organisational outcomes, including performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours (Andrews, Kacmar, Blakely, & Bucklew, 2008:741). Friedkin (2004:415) submits that perceptions of group cohesion include both individuals' membership attitudes and behaviours towards their group. Attitudes denoting individual perceptions of high cohesion include a strong desire to remain a part of one's group, loyalty to the group, and identification with the group (Friedkin, 2004:410). In addition, trust, cooperation, and friendship amongst group members also indicate a high level of cohesion. Moreover, behaviours that indicate perceptions of high cohesion include the decision to strengthen group ties and contribute to group tasks.

Individuals who do or do not display OCB do not do that in isolation, but the organisational context most likely encourages or discourages them. George and Bettenhausen (1990) and Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997), for example, establish that less highly formalized organisations create an atmosphere of group cohesiveness that encourage employees to engage in OCB, whereas bureaucratically structured organisations create an environment of employee alienation that inhibits OCB. Likewise, Chansler, Swamidass, and Cammann (2003:115) demonstrate that perceived fairness is an important predictor of group cohesion which, in turn, enhances the motivation to engage in citizenship behaviours. This refers to the individual group member's perception of how fairly the leadership treats them.

Tan and Tan (2008:95) emphasize that members in highly cohesive groups often share a strong social identity, thus enabling them to be more willing to help and to be devoted to the group. Chen *et al.* (2009:628) concurs and asserts that both positive affect and group identity cultivate a sense of group cohesion shared amongst members, which serves an important antecedent for OCB; as a result, these researchers show that group cohesion significantly affects employees' OCB. In addition, helping behaviours may directly contribute by enhancing morale and fostering group cohesiveness as well as a sense of belonging to a team, thus making the unit a more attractive place to work (Markose & Jayachandran, 2008:19).

Kidwell, Mossholder, and Bennett (1997) propose a positive relationship between group cohesiveness and OCBs. Accordingly, this proposal is based on the social exchange theory, and suggests that members in cohesive groups should be more willing to contribute positive behaviours such as OCB because they are likely to possess high quality exchange relationships with each other. Similarly, Chen, Lam, Naumann and Schaubroeck (2005) and Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (2006) demonstrate that team cohesiveness is strongly related to organisational citizenship, at individual and team levels.

Thus, for the purpose of this study, group cohesion is defined as the individual's commitment to synergistically work united with other group members towards a common goal.

Mishra and Morrissey (1990) show that one of the key factors that need to be present in the work environment, in order to build trust, and subsequently group cohesion, is the opportunity for employees to be part of the decision-making process. Furthermore, Chansler, *et al.* (2003:105) argue that participation in consensus decision-making contributes to the improvement of cohesion within the group, and it further contributes to the effectiveness of organisations.

d) Decision-making

Koopman and Wierdsma (1998) define participation in decision making (PDM) as joint decision-making or, at least, shared influence in decision making by a superior and his/her employee. Nwokocha and Iheriohanma (2012:202) suggest that the challenging trends in the competitive global economic market and workplace require that organisations involve worker participation in their decision-making processes. This is required in order to retain their critical employees and to secure their loyalty, commitment, dedication as well as to ensure their security. Moreover, Ito and Brotheridge (2005:10) suggest that higher levels of participation in decision-making and more job autonomy improve work outcomes and general performance in an organisation.

Bogler and Somech (2005:430) avow that academic employees who are involved in decision-making, whether on issues related to their own classroom or to the school as an organisation, tend to exhibit OCBs towards their students and colleagues, as well as towards the school as a whole. Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2012) conclude that investing in OCB is not too detrimental for the well-being of employees, as long as they receive supervisor support and appreciation or when they are actively involved in the decision-making process.

Scholars, such as Duke and Gansneder (1990) and Somech (2002) identify two main domains of decision making, particularly in schools: the technical domain, which deals with students and instruction, and the managerial domain, which deals with school operation and administration. Technical decisions are those decisions that have an immediate relevance to the teacher's own classroom (Bogler & Somech, 2005:423). Therefore, participation in the technical domain could lead to beneficial behaviours which are targeted towards the individual (OCB-I), that is, teaching and learning oriented towards colleagues and students.

In contrast, the managerial domain includes those activities that relate to the school as a whole. Through participation in managerial issues and the exercise of influence, teachers become more committed to organisational decisions and, in the long run, to the organisation as a whole. Therefore, participation in the managerial domain could foster behaviours which are targeted towards the organisation (OCB-O) because, by promoting strategic thinking, individuals develop an organisational system approach, which expands their perspectives beyond their formal role (Senge, 1993). The findings of Bogler and Somech's (2005:430) study reveal that the teachers perceived of themselves as more involved in decisions related to their day-to-day teaching tasks than to the managerial aspects of their job. Thus, the importance of teacher participation in decision-making (PDM) on all school aspects is imperative for the effective functioning of the school, because PDM affects OCB (Van Yperen, Berg, & Willering, 1999). This is particularly important because, for teachers, helping the school to perform more effectively is a way of helping the students. Moreover, contrary to the assumption that the technical domain could lead to OCB-I and the managerial domain to OCB-O, Bogler & Somech's (2005) findings reveal that, since OCB-I and OCB-O are highly correlated, there is no distinction between these two constructs because teachers view their citizenship behaviours in helping students much the same as they do their citizenship behaviours in assisting the school, and vice versa.

Likewise, Somech and Drach-Zahavy's (2012) study reveals that when OCB is high, employee strain is significantly lower under the condition of high PDM than of low PDM

and, thus, they conclude that investing in OCB is important for employees, especially when they work in a context that enables them to be actively involved in the decision-making process. Beyond its contribution to the employee's sense of control, PDM, according to Somech (2010), provides information that helps people interpret and deal with stressful situations. Thus, to alleviate the negative consequences of OCB is to enable employees to actively participate in decision-making. However, the empirical findings of the research conducted by Calderon, Battistelli, and Odoardi (2012) suggest that participation in decision-making has a positive influence on altruistic behaviours.

For the purpose of this study, decision-making is defined as the employee's active participation in the organisation's decision-making process.

Based on the discussions above, it is, thus, hypothesized that:

H0¹: Job perceptions, as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and decision-making do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

5.2.1.2 Role considerations

The role perceptions (also known as role stressors) include perceptions such as role conflict and role ambiguity. There are other role stressors (role overload and role clarity, for example) but they are outside of the scope of this study.

a) Role conflict

Role conflict occurs when a difference exists between a perceived role and an actual role, or when a person simultaneously plays two roles (Peng & Chiu, 2010:587). Although OCBs are generally outside one's job description, Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2012:140) state that management sometimes expects these behaviours from employees and employees can experience role conflict when OCB is included in performance appraisals

or promotion decisions. Thus, the findings of their study demonstrate that role conflict is positively and significantly correlated with OCB.

Bolino and Turnley (2005:747) argue that OCB has the potential to evoke strain through role overload, role ambiguity, and role conflict. Inversely, Eatough, Chu-Hsiang, Miloslavic and Johnson (2011) point out that role conflict has a negative relationship with OCB.

Thus, for the purpose of this study, role conflict occurs when there is an alleged difference between the actual role and the supposed role.

b) Role ambiguity

Role ambiguity refers to a person's lack of clarity about the outcomes of his or her behaviour (Peng & Chiu, 2010:587). According to Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970), low role clarity (that is, high role ambiguity) represents ambiguous procedures, goals, criteria and knowledge of consequences. In contrast, high role clarity (low role ambiguity) represents clear job procedures, goals, criteria, and knowledge of consequences. Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2012:140) argue that employees may encounter significant role ambiguity as they struggle to distinguish OCBs from their in-role behaviours. Eatough *et al.* (2011) point out that role ambiguity is negatively related to OCB. However, because work stress tends to lower an individual's ability to exert control over his/her work environment and thus adversely affect his/her ability to function effectively (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004:85), it is assumed that the absence of role ambiguity will lead to OCB. Conversely, Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2012:144) demonstrate that OCB is positively and significantly associated with an employee's strain, above and beyond the impact of role overload, role ambiguity, and role conflict.

For the purpose of this study, role ambiguity occurs when there is lack of clarity on the outcomes of the role.

Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H0²: Role consideration perceptions, as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict, do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

5.2.1.3 Organisational climate

a) Supervisor support

Perceived supervisory support reflects employees' perceptions that their supervisor cares about them and values their contributions (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). It includes acts such as providing resources and information, or demonstrating overall concern for employee wellbeing. Research has shown that support from supervisors and co-workers is positively correlated to favourable job attitudes and better health amongst employees (Leveson, Joiner, & Bakalis, 2010:308). Chen, Wang, Chang, and Hu (2008:323) assert that when subordinates interact well with supervisors, they tend to feel that supervisors are supportive. As a consequence, they will contribute additional extra-role behaviours out of reciprocity (Lapierre & Hackett, 2007:549). In addition, Ehigie and Otukoya (2005:395) reveal that the perceived managerial support amongst employees has a positive effect on their OCB. In other words, subordinates will demonstrate greater OCB as they gain more support from their supervisors. Constructive feedback and positive communication between supervisors and employees raises the workers' intrinsic motivation (Arnaud & Wasieleski, 2014) by meeting their need for competency.

Alternatively, Bienstock, DeMoranville, and Smith (2003) show that management's treatment of service employees influences organisational citizenship behaviour. In addition, social rights (managers treating service employees equitably), civil rights (managers rewarding service employees for hard work and merit), and political rights (solicitation of opinions and clear communication about problems and issues) are associated with increased levels of organisational citizenship behaviour. In contrast,

employees who perceive their supervisors to be non-supportive are unlikely to engage in any OCBs.

Somech and Drach-Zahavy's (2012:14) study reveals that when OCB is high, employee strain is significantly lower under the condition of high leader support than it is under low leader support. They thus conclude that promoting OCB in an organisation is good for employees as long as they receive support and appreciation from their supervisor. Leader support may, for example, alleviate the influence of OCB on strain because providing encouragement, useful information, and professional advice (Drach-Zahavy, 2004) may aid employees in coping with the added burden of high levels of citizenship behaviours. Furthermore, the empirical findings of the research conducted by Calderon *et al.* (2012) suggest that perceived support from the supervisor has a positive influence on altruistic behaviours. When employees feel that their supervisor is supportive in all aspects of their lives, they are encouraged to do the same for their colleagues, for example, by helping a colleague who cannot come to work due to personal problems.

For the purpose of this study, supervisor support is regarded as the supervisor's perceived acknowledgement of the employees' contribution to organisational success and the perceived care of the employees' organisational and personal well-being.

b) Job security

Erlinghagen (2008) and Clark and Postel-Vinay (2009) define job security as employee perception that the continuance of their employment is not under threat. Individuals take several objective factors into account when estimating the probability that they might keep their current job, and include micro- and macro-economic factors, as well as labour market institutions. Employees face increased risk in terms of potential job losses, demotions, and other uncertainties such as the number and nature of future available positions, to the extent that employees may enhance their career adaptability and, therefore, their employability within and outside the organisation (Ito & Brotheridge, 2005:7). People place job security as one of the most important factors to consider when looking for a job. The importance of job security is used to express the degree to which

employment continuity is assessed as important when choosing a job (Salladarre, Hlaimi, & Wolff, 2011:551). Thus, Roehling, Cavanaugh, Moynihan, and Boswell (2000) argue that security resides not in the implicit contract between employee and employer, but rather in the employee's ability to adapt to change and take advantage of opportunities.

Furthermore, Chambel and Fontinha (2009:209) define job insecurity as an overall concern about the continued existence of the job as such in the future, meaning that the employees involved do not know if they will retain their jobs or if they will face layoffs. De Cuyper, Notelaers and De Witte (2009) affirm that job insecurity reduces job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and causes poor well-being, and undesirable behaviours. Researchers, such as LePine, Podsakoff, and LePine (2005) have argued that job insecurity has a negative effect on behavioural outcomes; they consider job insecurity as a hindrance stressor that induces undesirable strain reactions. Staufenbiel and Konig (2010:4) define a hindrance stressor as excessive or undesirable work-related demands that interfere with an individual's work achievement.

Studies show that perceived job security is linked to demographic, economic and employment factors (Salladarre, *et al.* 2011:551). While age has been found to be inversely related to perceived job security (Postel-Vinay and Saint Martin, 2005), educational level has been found to be conversely related to perceived job security (OECD, 2003). Moreover, Bockerman (2004) submits that marital status is likely to influence job security, probably because employers consider being married with children as a form of stability. Married employees with children are most likely to feel secure in a job and might stay longer than unmarried employees due to the adverse effects of movement from one job to another. In contrast, Clark and Postel-Vinay (2009) find no effect associated with both marital status and presence of children.

Several characteristics can decrease perceived job security, such as reduced working hours, employment history such as unemployment, seniority and temporary employment. Anxo (2003), for example, demonstrates that reduced working hours due to parental childcare responsibilities could decrease perceived job security. Likewise, Erlinghagen

(2008) shows that previous periods of unemployment reduce perceived job security. Bockerman (2004) and Postel-Vinay and Saint Martin (2005) find that being employed in a senior position gives employees the feeling of security and protection; a change thereof results in reduced job security. Due to the inherent lack of opportunities in temporary employment, such as fewer career prospects and lack of training opportunities, temporary employment status may lower perceived job security. However, if temporary employment is a preferred choice of employment by an employee, then perceived job security may be higher (Salladarre, *et al.* 2011:552).

Since perceived job security is a subjective concept, external factors and macroeconomic and institutional settings may have an influence on the way in which employees make their individual assessment of their job security. A country, for example, in which the economic situation is prone to induce a high unemployment rate, is likely to affect the perception of job losses, thereby increasing job insecurity. According to Bockerman (2004), the average unemployment rate is negatively associated with perceived job security.

It is therefore deduced that, since job insecurity yields undesirable behaviours, employees will deliberately disengage themselves in extra-role behaviours as they do not see any benefits of doing so. Concomitantly, if employees feel secure in their jobs, they will, in return, respond by engaging in extra-role behaviours.

Thus, for the purpose of this study, job security is regarded as the situation wherein employees feel that their employment with the organisation will continue to exist in the future.

Based on the evidence provided above, it is therefore hypothesized that:

H0³: Organisational climate perceptions, as depicted by supervisor support and job security, do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

5.2.1.4 Employment conditions and OCB

a) Employment contracts

The employment contract is the agreement between two or more legal persons, in terms of which one of the parties (the employee) undertakes to place his or her personal services at the disposal of the other party (the employer) for an agreed period, in return for a fixed or ascertainable wage; this entitles the employer to define the employee's duties and to supervise the manner in which the employee discharges them (Grojan, 1999:23-4). Employment contracts entail employment arrangements where employees are hired on a full-time or part-time contract basis, otherwise known as permanent or temporary employment. Temporary employees include those who are employed on a fixed-term contract. The benefits for the organisation to have a variety of employment contracts include the ability to adjust the workforce size rapidly, as demand for the firm's products or services shifts; there may be less need to invest in the training and development of contract staff; and contract workers may not incur the range of substantial indirect staff costs (Guest, 2004:1-2). Stamper and Van Dyne (2001:517) argue that this mix in the composition of the workforce is due to competitive pressures for increased flexibility and reduced costs. Workforce flexibility is based on developing or hiring employees with the knowledge, skills and abilities needed to meet changing organisational requirements (Ito & Brotheridge, 2005:6).

Research has shown that part-time employees differ in several aspects from full-time employees, and attitudinal and behavioural differences between part-time and full-time employees are supposed (Van Emmerik, 2004:73). Stamper and Van Dyne's (2001:530) survey on service employees, that tests the differences in the organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) of full- and part-time employees, shows that part-time employees exhibit less helping OCB than full-time employees. Chambel and Castanheira (2006:352) concur with this notion by maintaining that due to the fact that temporary workers do not receive inducements from the organisations by which they are employed (for example, promotions and long-term employment), their contribution to the organisation is lower than the contribution of permanent employees. In contrast, part-time employees perceive

employers' appreciation for their work and wellbeing as extra inducements (Cho & Johanson, 2008:321). Thus, employees' perceptions of employers' positive inducement will exhibit OCBs.

Feather and Rauter's (2004) investigation into the impact of permanent or temporary job status on OCB demonstrates that contract teachers report more job insecurity and less opportunity to influence their work environment, utilize their skills, obtain variety in their jobs, and more OCB than permanently-employed teachers. This indicates that, for contract teachers, the greater the perceived job insecurity and the lower the opportunities to influence and use their skills, the greater the level of OCB. The study supports the importance of understanding the goals of different employees in performing OCB. Thus, workers on short-term contracts may perform more OCB to enhance their image as valued employees and increase their chances of permanent employment within the organisation.

For the purpose of this study, an employment contract is defined as the employment agreement between an individual and the employer, where an individual will perform tasks prescribed by the employer for a certain period of time, in exchange for monetary and non-monetary incentives.

b) Reward system

Malhotra, Budhwar, and Prowse (2007) refer to organisational rewards as all the benefits, financial and non-financial, that an employee obtains through their employment relationship with an organisation. Likewise, Husin, *et al.* (2012:145) refer to rewards as all monetary and non-monetary compensations and incentives provided by the organisations to employees in return for their contributions, in terms of their physical and mental efforts as well as abiding by the rules and regulations of the organisation. In addition, these rewards can be used to elicit desired behaviours from employees. Thus, organisations that strategically design their reward system can generate desired employee behaviours, and commitment to the effective delivery of services (Husin *et al.*,

2012:145). Anis, *et al.* (2011:2681) concur and affirm that employees are offered financial and non-financial compensation in order to induce them to accomplish the desired goals against their behaviour, in other words, employees are compensated for creativity and innovation that yields positive business results.

The relationship between the employee and the employer is characterised, in the literature on the subject, as the social exchange relationship, where individuals enter into a relationship with their employing organisation so as to maximize the benefits they obtain (Newman & Sheikh, 2012:350). De Clerq and Ruis (2007) argue that, besides forming beliefs as to what their organisation owes them, individual employees develop feelings of obligation on the perceived favourable treatment they receive from the organisation, which include the provision of organisational rewards. Accordingly, Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen (2002) argue that these feelings of obligation elicit positive attitudinal and behavioural responses in employees, which may be beneficial to their organisation. In other words, if employees perceive equity in the organisation's reward system, they will engage in OCBs, thereby enhancing organisational effectiveness and yielding positive business results. This means that, when managers are fair and consistent with their rewards and recognition, employees respond better to them.

This notion is consistent with Kahn (1990) who states that employees' engagement varies as a function of their perceptions of the benefits they receive from a role performed. In other words, employees can derive a sense of return on investment from external rewards and recognition in addition to momentous work. Thus, one might anticipate higher employee engagement at work as representative of the extent to which they perceive a bigger amount of rewards and recognition for their role performance (Ahmed, Rasheed, & Jehanzeb, 2012:102).

Williamson, Burnett, and Bartol (2009) distinguish between three main types of rewards that individuals seek from their organisation: extrinsic, intrinsic and social rewards. Extrinsic rewards are the tangible benefits provided by the organisation such as pay, fringe benefits and career development opportunities. Intrinsic rewards refer to the

rewards that come from the content of the job itself, and encompass the motivational characteristics of the job such as autonomy, role clarity and training. Social rewards arise from interaction with other people on the job and may include having supportive relationships with one's supervisor and co-workers. Aletraris (2010) argues that for temporary workers, in particular, intrinsic rewards may matter greatly, especially since their extrinsic rewards are often fewer than those of permanent workers.

For the purpose of this study, the reward system is defined as all monetary and nonmonetary compensations and incentives provided by the organisations to employees, in return for their contributions to the overall organisational goals.

c) Working hours

Working hours refers to the correspondence between the employees working hour preferences and actual working hours, whether this is wanting to work more hours or wanting to work fewer hours. Actual work hour behaviour can be seen as a function of hours preferred by the employee, number of hours as agreed upon in the employment contract and environmental forces (Van Emmerik & Sanders, 2005:714). Long opening hours and seasonal demands in retail settings require a range of contractual arrangements and shift patterns. Van Emmerik's (2004:79) examination of the relationship between a mismatch of working hours and OCBs shows that working more hours than preferred and initially agreed upon, is associated with the withdrawal of engagement in OCBs directed towards the supervisor, but not OCBs directed towards colleagues.

However, MacInnes (2005: 273) concludes that the hours of 'women workers' reflect family commitments and that some workers may only become parents in the first place because of their ability to find working hours or schedules that already offer some prospect of reconciling work and family life. Other researchers suggest that women select an employer based on their ability to negotiate their lives around paid work in that

business; these choices are made as a result of limited opportunities and support for caring responsibilities. McKie, Hogg, Airey, Backett-Milburn, and Rew (2009) report that shop assistants employed in food retail businesses, in Scotland, take on work and hours that fit around their caring responsibilities. Thus, in order to retain staff and enhance morale, supervisors need to accommodate employees who adjust their working patterns to suit their changing lifestyles.

For the purpose of this study, working hours are regarded as the amount of time employees spend in the process of completing of their tasks.

d) Overtime

Working longer hours than agreed upon is referred to as overtime. Van Emmerik and Sanders (2005:712) suggest that different employees' needs cause employees to prefer to work a different number of hours than that which they actually work. There are employees, for example, who prefer to spend less time at work and those who prefer to work longer hours.

Employees may feel compelled to work overtime due to financial strain, job insecurity, or employer pressure. In fact, Rad and Moraes (2009:53) demonstrate that sources of low job satisfaction are associated with low salaries and benefits, working with unskilled or inappropriately trained staff, laborious tasks such as documentation, repetition of duties, tensions within role expectations, role ambiguity, role conflict, job/patient care, feeling overloaded, and the increasing need to be available for overtime. In contrast, Mathekga's (2009) thesis on labour market flexibility at Pick n Pay, in South Africa, indicates that labour market flexibility with respect to casual work and subcontracting is not good because workers work long hours and there is no pay for overtime work. Working long hours reduces flexibility in the employee's lifestyle and the employee's willingness to engage in extra-role activities. However, Dikshit and Dikshit (2014) suggest that overtime is positively related to the conscientiousness dimension of OCB. An employee, for

example, may work overtime in trying to finish a project without demanding overtime payment (Suvarna, Doshi and Maheshwar, 1993). Engellandt and Riphahn (2005) concur and show that the propensity to work unpaid overtime increases significantly with age and education, is higher for males and for married employees, and is positively correlated with tenure.

Employees who work overtime need to have an effective work-life balance because a conflict between work and life balance could cause dissatisfaction to arise, which affects employee performance and family life. Overtime can lead to job-family conflict. Noor (2009), for example, reveals that excessive work, afternoon shifts, frequent overtime, inflexible hours, inability to leave for emergencies and physically or mentally demanding work are the most important in creating job-family conflict. Moreover, the perspective of an ideal worker who works fulltime, overtime when asked and takes little or no time, may seem appealing but the result could be little production and utility for the organisation (Berber & Rofcanin, 2012:200).

Thus, for the purpose of this study, overtime is defined as the extended period of time, which is more than the agreed upon time, that employees spend in the organisation in order to complete their tasks.

Based on the discussion above, it is thus hypothesized that:

H0⁴: Perceptions of employment considerations do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

5.3 THE MODELLED OUTCOMES OF OCB

5.3.1 Employee commitment

Commitment is defined as an employee's identification with and adoption of an organisation's values, norms and traditions (Anderson & Martin, 1995). As such, it is a

product of an employee's sense of well-being and satisfaction with the organisation. A high level of employee commitment in an organisation can have beneficial consequences, resulting in lower absenteeism, higher performance and lower employee turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). According to the theory of reasoned action, behaviours result from attitudes and subjective norms, through mediation by behavioural intentions; thus, Ellinger, Musgrove, Ellinger, Bachrach, Elmadag Bas, and Wang (2012:3) propose that commitment to the firm and commitment to service quality drive service employee behaviours such as job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour.

However, there is an emerging dilemma that suggests that actions undertaken to build commitment as a means of motivating and retaining valued employees may increase employees' opportunities for employment in other organisations (Cappelli, 1999), such that organisations attempt to provide satisfying work contexts that competing employers find difficult to replicate. These work contexts, according to Peng and Chiu (2010) and Bogler and Somech (2005), include high-involvement practices such as participation in decision making and encouragement of autonomy or discretion in task performance, which are found to be positively related to OCBs.

Despite the contradictory findings of Ahmed *et al.* (2012), gained from views given by researchers on the relationship between employee commitment and OCB, various studies report a significant relationship between the two constructs. For example, Meyer and Allen (1991) and some others report the relationship to be insignificant (Van Dyne and Ang, 1998). Furthermore, a few other studies, such as, Tompson and Werner (1997), and Allen and Rush (1998) state that employee commitment plays a mediating role (.). However, Cohen and Vigoda (2000) argue that OCB might be empirically associated with organisational commitment.

Feather and Rauter (2004) demonstrate that, for permanently employed teachers, opportunities for skill utilization and variety in work situations promoted OCB. The greater the level of OCB, the greater the level of commitment and organisational identification. For both permanent and temporary teachers, OCB and organisational commitment are

positively correlated. Furthermore, Riaz (2008:12) finds a significant positive correlation between job commitment and job satisfaction. This means that if employees are committed to their jobs and willing to spend the rest of their career with the respective organisation, they are in fact satisfied with all the practices and procedures of the job and the organisation.

Thus, for the purpose of this study, employee commitment is defined as the employee's undertaking to adopt the organisation's values and customs, to such an extent that the employee feels attached to and satisfied with the organisation, and is willing to exert an effort on behalf of the organisation.

Based on the above discussion, it is hypothesized that:

H0⁵: Organisational citizenship behaviour perceptions do not influence employee commitment.

5.3.2 Propensity to resign

Morgan and Hunt (1994) define propensity to resign as a perception of the likelihood that the relationship between the employee and the organisation would be dissolved in the (reasonably) near future. Ito and Brotheridge (2005:7) suggest that an employee's intention to leave an organisation, expressed in terms of making plans to search for a new job, reflects the potential for voluntary turnover. Predictors of voluntary turnover include job dissatisfaction (Nadiri and Tanova, 2010:34) and affective commitment, a psychological attachment expressed as pride in the organisation and a willingness to exert extra effort (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), as well as employees exploring and accepting other opportunities as part of a career plan (Lee, Mitchell, Wise, & Fireman, 1996).

In contrast, Ito and Brotheridge (2005:7) argue that affective commitment is associated with reduced voluntary turnover, which enables organisations to retain the

organisationally specific knowledge necessary for competitive advantage, while employees' ability to adapt to change and their ability to take advantage of opportunities may result in increased voluntary turnover as employees become more qualified to seek and accept employment opportunities in other organisations. Thus, subjective occupational success is important for employee well-being and satisfaction, and is achieved when individuals successfully engage in citizenship and other prosocial acts within their job (Munyon, Hochwarter, Perrewé, & Ferris, 2009:1511), which reduces employees' propensity to resign.

Furthermore, Riaz (2008:12) shows that the potential to leave the organisation is kept at a minimum if salespeople are satisfied with the pay, promotion policy, supervision, work, and their peers, and if they are willing to expend extra efforts to make the organisation successful while feeling that the organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for them. Likewise, Poon (2004) shows that the more an employee is satisfied with the working conditions offered by his/her organisation, the less the employee is likely to leave the organisation. Similarly, Paille, Bourdeau, and Galois's (2010:50) findings suggest that a workplace that encourages trust sustains employees in their desire to cooperate in the form of OCB-O which, in turn, decreases their intention to leave the organisation. However, contrary to previous research (Chew and Wong, 2008) that reports a positive link between perceived organisational support and intention to leave the organisation, Paille *et al.* (2010) find no direct link between these constructs.

Thus, for the purpose of this study, propensity to resign is defined as the employee's inclination to leave the employ of the organisation in the foreseeable future.

It is, therefore, suggested that:

H0⁶: Organisational citizenship behaviour perceptions do not influence the employees' propensity to resign.

5.3.3 Employee engagement

Kahn (1990) describes employee engagement as the physical, emotional and cognitive participation of the employee with his/her work or, in other words, the employee's psychological presence with high motivation in performing his or her organisational job. Employee engagement can also be described as vigour, participation and self-efficacy in performing their work. It has commonly been defined as emotional and intellectual commitment to the organisation (Baumruk, 2004) or, according to Frank, Finnegan, and Taylor (2004), the amount of discretionary effort exhibited by employees in their jobs.

Employee engagement leads to organisational citizenship behaviour as it focuses on employee involvement and secures their commitment, which certainly lies outside the given parameters of any organisation (Mansoor, *et al.* 2012:572; Ahmed *et al.* 2012:102). Alternatively, Bates (2004) argues that employee engagement is a downward trend as organisations and workers both tend to be more materialistic. According to James, Mckechnie, and Swanberg (2011:174), employers generally want to know what will engage workers and keep them energized and productive on the job, and committed to the organisation, while employees want to know what the organisation will do for them in terms of organisational rewards and favourable job conditions.

Saks (2006) argues that OCB deviates from employee engagement in that OCB involves voluntary behaviours that are beyond the job requirements, whereas employee engagement is a formal role that the employee is expected to perform. Dicke, Holwerda, and Kontakos (2011) disagree with this; they argue that going the extra-mile is a general description of employee engagement which represents a voluntary behaviour. Furthermore, the dimensions of OCB are in fact characteristics of employee engagement, but the most strongly co-related OCB dimension with employee engagement is individual initiative, which is described as persisting with extra enthusiasm and effort to accomplish one's job or volunteering to take on extra responsibilities, and encouraging others in the organisation to do the same (Dicke *et al.*, 2011:10). Consistent with the above notion, Ahmed *et al.* (2012) show a positive relationship between employee engagement and

OCB, and their findings reveal that the more dynamically an employee is engaged in his work, the greater the chances to reveal citizenship behaviour and ultimately effective performance.

Thus, for the purpose of this study, employee engagement is defined as an employee's commitment to the success of the business strategy and its values, and their willingness to go the extra-mile for the organisation.

It is, therefore, hypothesized that:

H0⁷: Perceptions of organisational citizenship behaviour do not influence employee engagement.

5.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, a hypothetical model of various factors influencing OCB in retail firms was presented. The independent variables, as well as the dependent and intervening variables, which form the basic building blocks of the model, were discussed, together with the resulting hypothesized relationships. This chapter was grounded on previous research regarding the various relationships between these variables.

For the purpose of this study, the variables identified were grouped into 3 categories. The independent variables, namely, *Job perceptions*, *Role considerations*, *Organisational climate*, and *Employment Conditions* were grouped into one category, while the intervening variable, namely, *Organisational Citizenship Behaviour* was grouped into a second category, and, the dependent variables, namely, *Employee commitment*, *Propensity to resign*, and *Employee engagement* have been grouped into a third category. Each of these 3 categories consists of numerous underlying components that are hypothesized to have an influence on OCB in retail firms.

In chapter six, the research methodology used for this study will be presented. The population studied and the sampling technique used for this research; the data collection method; the design, reliability and validity of the measuring instrument; as well as the data analysis techniques employed in this study, will be discussed.

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Five presented the hypothetical model of the study, and various factors influencing OCB in retail firms were discussed. The model was divided into three categories, which consist of numerous underlying components that were hypothesized to have an influence on OCB. The chapter was grounded on foregoing literature, and secondary sources were used to justify the hypothesized model. The dependent variables, as well as independent variables were, arguably, found to have an influence on OCB, which is the intervening variable.

This chapter focuses on the research methodology that has been employed in this study. This chapter is a continuation of the introductory section on the research methodology of the study, as presented in Chapter One. The chapter will begin by defining the research questions, followed by a discussion of the research design and methodology, population studied and the sampling technique adopted in this study. This will be followed by a discussion on the data collection method, measuring instrument design, and data analysis of the study. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument.

6.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

This study is aimed at gaining greater insights into and understanding of the perceptions and attitudes of retail employees in engaging in OCB. More importantly, this study aims to investigate how job considerations, role considerations, organisational climate and employment considerations influence the OCB of employees in retail firms. Therefore, the main research problem to be addressed in this study is as follows:

What are the perceptions of employees regarding OCB in retail firms?

The main research problem is divided into the following sub-questions, which will also be addressed in this study:

- What is the impact of *job considerations* regarding personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion, and decision-making, on OCB?
- What is the impact of *role considerations* regarding role conflict and role ambiguity, on OCB?
- What is the impact of *organisational climate* on OCB?
- What is the impact of *employment considerations* on OCB?
- Does OCB increase *employee commitment and engagement*?
- Does OCB decrease *employee propensity to leave* the job?

6.3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A research design is the strategy for the study and the plan by which the strategy is to be carried out (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:36). In other words, it specifies methods and procedures for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. A good research design is experiential in nature, feasible, flexible and efficient. This section will focus on the proposed research paradigm, methods of collecting and analysing data, the population of the study and the sampling techniques, design, and the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument.

6.3.1 Research paradigm

A research paradigm is the process of scientific practice based on a researcher's philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge (Collis & Hussey, 2003:46). It reflects the interests and focus of research communities or social scientists from a particular discipline, or sharing of a set of theory-informed beliefs about the social world. Marlow (2001:7) describes 'research paradigm' as a map, helpfully

directing the researcher to the problems that are important to address, the theories that are acceptable, and the procedures needed to solve the problems.

There are three dominant research paradigms: the positivistic (quantitative, scientific, experimental), the phenomenological (qualitative, subjective, interpretive), and the critical realistic paradigms (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis, & Bezuidenhout, 2014:23).

6.3.1.1 The positivistic research paradigm

Research that takes a positivistic approach is likely to work primarily with data in terms of it being facts or values, which can be observed, measured and counted. The positivistic research paradigm is an epistemological position, which asserts that knowledge of a social phenomenon is based on what can be observed and recorded rather than subjective understanding (Matthews & Ross, 2010:27). The positivistic paradigm is carried out within the framework of a scientific method; it is an approach that uses objectively agreed upon criteria and procedures to achieve results that have statistical reliability (Pellisier, 2007:23). Furthermore, it ensures the application of methods and principles of science to the study of human behaviour and human events. A positivistic approach, therefore, means that quantitative data are collected; aspects of the social world, social phenomena, are measured; causal relationships between different aspects of the social world are sought, and large data sets and statistical analysis are used (Matthews & Ross, 2010:27). Furthermore, the distinct features of a positivistic approach include the fact that knowledge is defined as that which can be observed by the senses; knowledge of the social phenomenon is based on what can be observed and recorded rather than subjective understandings; data is usually gathered to test a hypothesis which has been generated from existing theory; and the researcher is independent of and has no impact on the data – the researcher is objective.

The quantitative research methods used in the positivistic research paradigm are appropriate for the examination of specific data from large numbers, and are the most cost-effective way to collect data (Pellisier, 2007:19). Furthermore, since it entails large

samples of the target population answering very structured questions, the findings are considered valid and reliable; it also leads to statistically rigorous analyses, which have been greatly assisted by the development of computer-based simulations and database applications for marketing.

6.3.1.2 The phenomenologist research paradigm

A phenomenologist research paradigm, also called an interpretivist approach, is an epistemological position that prioritizes people's subjective interpretations and understandings of social phenomena and their own actions (Matthews & Ross, 2010:29). A researcher who takes a phenomenologist approach will gather data that enables the researcher to capture and interpret the meanings and understandings attributed to a social phenomenon through a consideration of the way the data is constructed and the language used, within a social context (Matthews & Ross, 2010:52). The qualitative research methods in the phenomenologist approach allow in-depth analysis of problems, opportunities and situations in the business environment, and it has the advantage, in some instances, of being less costly than quantitative research techniques for gathering data (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:15).

The interpretivistic approach, therefore, means that qualitative data, which is rich in detail and description, is collected; it involves uncovering and working with subjective meanings; it also involves the interpretation of meaning within a specific context; and empathetic understanding is required. Furthermore, the distinct features of an interpretivistic approach include the fact that knowledge gathered includes people's interpretation and understandings. In this respect, the main focus is on how people interpret the social world and social phenomena, thus enabling different perspectives to be explored; the researcher interprets other people's interpretations in terms of the theories and concepts of the social researcher's discipline, in addition to the fact that the researcher works with the data gathered in order to generate theory.

However, the problem the researcher faces with the use of qualitative methods is that the validity of findings can be questioned by a variety of experts who take a different stance or who approach the research problem from a different perspective or discipline (Pellisier, 2007:20). Validity can be proven when the concept or characteristic in question can be measured in a systematic way, by means of the methods used.

6.3.1.3 The critical realist research paradigm

A critical realist approach prioritizes the identification of structures or mechanisms that result in inequality or injustice and thus offers the opportunity for social change by changing or negating the structural mechanisms that are identified as having these impacts (Matthews & Ross, 2010:29). In other words, it focuses on the identification of knowledge that is real but unobservable, other than in the effects it has.

A critical realist approach means that hidden structures and mechanisms are revealed; power relations and dominant ideologies are uncovered; research leads to action; and qualitative and/or quantitative data is collected (Matthews & Ross, 2010:30). In other words, it is a method that combines qualitative and quantitative methods in a manner that is most suitable for a specific research project.

Table 6.1, below, shows the difference between the three research paradigms in terms of their epistemological (the study on knowledge), ontological (the study of being, existence, or reality); metatheoretical (theory about theory), methodological (guiding system for solving problems); and axiological (study of values and value judgements) positions.

Table 6.1 Summary of the research paradigms

	POSITIVISM	INTERPRETIVISM	CRITICAL REALISM
Reasons for research	To discover causal relationships in order to predict and control events.	To understand and describe meaningful social action and experiences.	To expose myths and empower people to transform society, radically.
Ontology	Reality is external and objective, and the laws that govern it can be discovered.	Reality is fluid and subjective, and is created by human interaction.	Reality changes over time and is governed by underlying structures.
Epistemology	The only valid knowledge is knowledge produced via empirical observation.	Something is seen as knowledge when it feels right to those being studied. Common sense is an important source of knowledge.	Knowledge should supply people with the tools needed to change their own world.
Metatheory	By establishing causal relationships we can predict effects and therefore take action to manipulate or control phenomena.	Theory should tell a story in order to create an in—depth understanding of other people’s realities.	Theory should be a critique that reveals true social conditions and that helps people to see the way to a better world.
Methodology	Reliability is important. Objective, quantitative research is used.	Subjective, qualitative research is used.	Mixed methods are used: quantitative and qualitative research methods are combined.
Axiology	Objective research, truth and reason are valued.	Uniqueness is valued.	Freedom, equality and emancipation are valued.

Source: Adapted from Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis, and Bezuidenhout (2014)

Table 6.1, above, shows the differences in the three dominant research paradigms in terms of their various positions. Understanding the principles and positions of these paradigms is important to guide the research project.

Based on the discussions above, and for the purpose of this study, a positivistic research paradigm is used in this study.

6.3.2 Positivistic research methodologies

Various quantitative research methods are available to researchers, some of which include cross-sectional studies, experimental studies, longitudinal studies, and surveys.

6.3.2.1 Cross-sectional studies

A cross-sectional study is a study where data is collected at a single point in time (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:186). In other words, the study is conducted once and reveals a snapshot of the current situation (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:37). Cross-sectional studies are designed to obtain information on variables in different contexts, but at the same time (Pellissier, 2007:28) The advantage of this approach is that it is much less expensive to conduct because testing takes place over a limited time period. However, one of the disadvantages is the lack of comparability because respondents may have been raised in different conditions (Salkind, 2012:253).

6.3.2.2 Longitudinal studies

A longitudinal study is repeated over an extended period of time, by tracking changes in variables over time; in other words, respondents are questioned at multiple points in time (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010:197). The purpose of this is to examine the continuity of respondents and to observe changes that occur over time. The most important advantage of this approach is that it allows the study to develop over an

extended period of time (Salkind, 2012:252). In this regard, because the respondents are studied at more than one point in time, each respondent always brings the same background and experiences to the testing situation. However, one of the disadvantages is that the approach is very expensive to conduct (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:37). The most important disadvantage of this approach is that respondents drop out of the experiment, which means that a dropout of a particular respondent leaves the remaining sample substantively different, in terms of characteristics and qualities, from the original sample (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:186).

6.3.2.3 Experimental studies

Experimental studies allow for the manipulation of the independent variable in order to observe the effect on the dependent variable (Pellisier, 2007:28). It, thus, examines the cause-and-effect relationship between variables (Salkind, 2012:13) by considering many different factors that might influence or cause a particular condition or phenomenon, then attempt to control all influential factors, except those whose possible effects are the focus of investigation (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:59). In experimental research, participants are randomly assigned to groups that undergo various researcher-imposed treatments or interventions, followed by observations or measurements to assess the effects of these treatments (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:108). Two types of experimental studies are used, namely, true experimental study, which examines direct cause-and-effect relationships; and quasi-experimental studies, which also focus on cause-and-effect relationships, but use preassigned groups (Salkind, 2012:14).

6.3.2.4 Surveys

In surveys, a sample of subjects is drawn from a population and studied to make inferences about the population (Pellissier, 2007:28). Survey research is a study designed to determine the incidence, frequency and distribution of certain characteristics in a population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:108). It involves acquiring information about one or more groups of respondents by asking questions and then examining relationships

amongst the variables (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:47). Zikmund *et al.* (2010:186) postulate that surveys attempt to describe what is happening or to learn the reasons for a particular business activity. In survey studies, conclusions are drawn from one transitory collection of data, thereby extrapolating upon the state of affairs over a longer period of time (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:186). This means that, with a representative sample and with the use of statistical techniques, generalizing the findings is possible (Collis & Hussey, 2003:66).

Based on the above discussions, and for the purpose of this study, a survey method and cross-sectional study will be used.

6.3.3 Research approach

The research approach employed in a research project determines, to a large extent, the process and the outcome of the research (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:73). Various types of research can be classified according to the following criteria (Collis & Hussey, 2003:10):

- The purpose of the research – refers to the reasons for conducting a research project;
- The process of the research – refers to the way in which data will be collected and analyzed;
- The logic of the research – refers to whether the research is moving from the general to the specific or vice versa; and
- The outcome of the research – refers to whether a particular problem will be solved or a general contribution to knowledge will be made.

The research approach can be exploratory, descriptive, analytic or explanatory, predictive, or evaluative.

6.3.3.1 Exploratory research

Exploratory research is adequate when the research problem is badly understood (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:56) or when there are very few or no earlier studies to refer to for information about the issue or problem. It involves research into an area where tentative hypotheses about a particular relationship exist, but do not warrant a full-scale study until greater clarity is gained (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:10). Welman and Kruger (1999) assert that the purpose of exploratory research is to determine whether or not a phenomenon exists, and to gain familiarity with such a phenomenon, but not to compare it with other phenomena.

On the contrary, Du Plooy (2009:48) identifies one or more purposes of exploratory research:

- To obtain new insights as part of a pre-test or pilot test;
- To identify key stakeholders;
- To prioritise social needs;
- To identify consequences of research problems;
- To develop hypotheses;
- To confirm assumptions; and/or
- To become familiar with unknown situations, conditions, policies and behaviours.

Key to exploratory research is the ability to look for patterns, ideas or hypotheses, rather than testing or confirming a hypothesis (Collis & Hussey, 2003:10). Cooper and Schindler (2006) postulate that, in exploratory research, the researcher develops concepts more clearly, establishes priorities, develops operational definitions and improves the final research design. Furthermore, data replication and accuracy are usually not scientific criteria, due to the fact that the research design has to be flexible in order to enable an understanding of an unknown area (Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et al.* 2014:75).

6.3.3.2 Descriptive research

Zikmund (2003) points out that the purpose of descriptive research is to describe the characteristics of a population or a phenomenon, while Kumar (2011:10) asserts that descriptive research aims to describe a situation, problem or phenomenon systematically; or provide information about certain phenomena, such as the living conditions of a community. In descriptive research, underlying relationships of the problem at hand are already known or understood. Hence, descriptive research is used to identify and obtain information on the characteristics of a particular problem or issue (Collis & Hussey, 2003:10).

Despite the fact that descriptive research offers insights and explanations that are adequate on the level of meaning, it does not provide evidence of a causal relationship (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:9).

6.3.3.3 Analytic or explanatory research

Analytic or explanatory research is a continuation of descriptive research in that, rather than only describing the phenomenon, it also analyzes and explains how or why it is happening (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:11). It aims to understand phenomena by discovering and measuring the causal relationships between them (Collis & Hussey, 2003:11). Du Plooy (2009:50) contends that the overall purpose of explanatory research is:

- to clarify how and why there is a relationship between different phenomena, in other words, whether you can find reasons why certain things happen; and
- to indicate the direction of a cause-and-effect relationship between an independent variable (X) and a dependent variable (Y).

The main task in explanatory research is to isolate the cause, and tell whether and to what extent the cause results in an effect (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:57).

6.3.3.4 Predictive research

Predictive research forecasts the likelihood of a similar situation occurring elsewhere (Collis & Hussey, 2003:12). It aims to generalize from the analysis by predicting certain phenomena on the basis of hypothesized general relationships. The use of appropriate research methods enables the researcher to predict outcomes accurately, given particular conditions. Thus, according to Du Plooy *et al.* (2014:78), the primary aims of predictive research are to:

- prevent undesired outcomes;
- promote desired outcomes; and
- anticipate probable outcomes.

Therefore, this means that a solution to a particular problem can be applicable to similar problems elsewhere if predictive research can provide a valid, robust solution based on a clear understanding of the relevant causes (Collis & Hussey, 2003:12).

6.3.3.5 Evaluative research

Evaluative research is concerned with the value of a particular social practice or phenomenon (Matthews & Ross, 2010:57). It often includes making recommendations about how something may be improved or changed.

The different types of research and their aims are summarized in Table 6.2, below.

Table 6.2 Different types of research

Type of research	Aims
Exploratory research	An initial attempt to understand or explore some social process or phenomenon when there is limited prior understanding of the area or issue. That is, to become familiar with unknown situations, conditions, policies and behaviours.
Descriptive research	To quantify an area, issue or phenomenon; that is, to describe a situation, problem or phenomenon systematically.
Explanatory research	To clarify how and why there is a relationship between different phenomena, and to indicate the direction of cause-and-effect relationships between variables.
Predictive research	To identify the probability of a similar problem occurring elsewhere, and the use of an identified solution to solve such a problem.
Evaluative research	To identify the value of a particular social practice or phenomenon.

Source: Author's own illustration

Table 6.2, above, illustrates the different types of research approaches. Given the nature of the study, and based on the illustration above, the research approaches followed in this study are exploratory and descriptive in nature. The aim thereof is to explore a relatively new area and describe respondents' perceptions regarding OCB in the retailing industry.

6.3.4 Population

According to Keyton (2011:121), a population consists of all units, or the universe – people or things - possessing the attributes or characteristics in which the researcher is

interested. Wiid and Diggins (2013:186) define a population as the total group of people or entities (social artefacts) from which information is required. Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* (2014:132) suggest that all the people or social artefacts in the population should share at least one specific characteristic that relates to the research question.

While the retail industry in South Africa is composed of a myriad of small retailers, large corporate chains dominate the urban market (Bezuidenhout, Godfrey, & Theron, 2003). In the food industry, for instance, the marketing firm AC Nielsen affirmed in 2010 that four main companies (Pick n Pay, Shoprite/Checkers, Spar, and Woolworths) compete for virtually the entire formal market share. These companies serve as anchor tenants in malls with long-term exclusive leases (Kenny, 2011), which potentially operate to keep out smaller competitors.

The population in this study comprises of all retailers in South Africa. The W&R Sector is essentially a small business sector, although major wholesale and retail chains exert a powerful influence on the industry due to their employment levels and turnover, and over 80% of the industry is comprised of SMMEs (Mazwai & Dikgole, 2013:9; 25). Moreover, there is a high density of employees in Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape and, collectively, they comprise 63% of total employment in the industry, followed by the Eastern Cape, which also has a relatively high number of people employed in the industry.

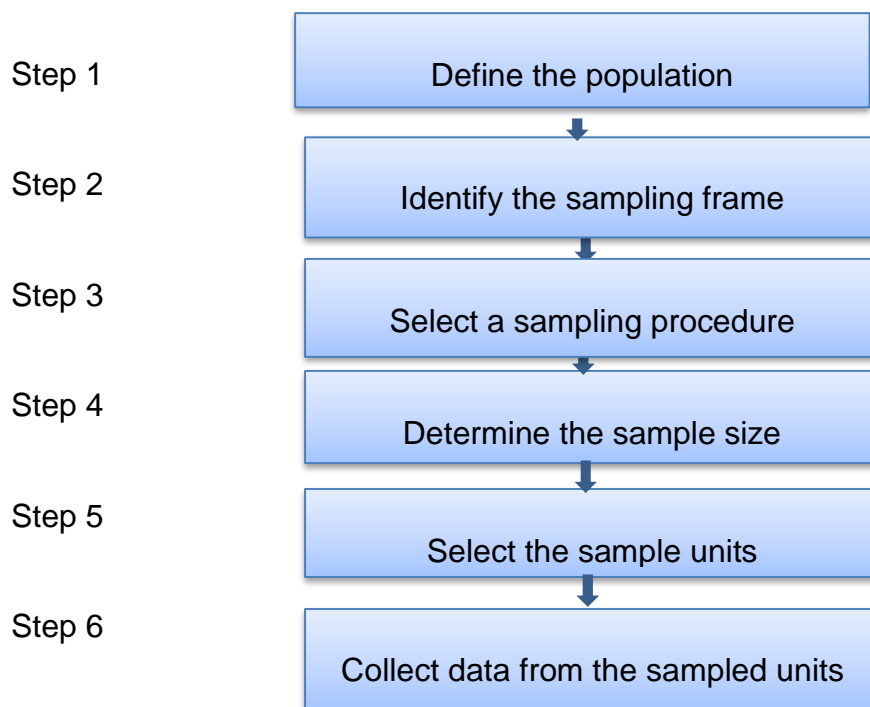
The aim was to target 1000 employees in the retail industry (250 employees from each of the most economically active provinces (Memela, 2012:4), namely, the Eastern Cape; the Western Cape, Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal). Ethical clearance was obtained from the NMMU before the empirical study is conducted.

6.3.5 Sampling

Sampling is the act, process or technique of selecting a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:74). The purpose of sampling is to draw conclusions about

populations from samples using inferential statistics in order to determine a population's characteristics by directly observing an enumeration (a census) of the population for many reasons. The sampling stage is a distinct phase of the research process and involves any practice that draws deductions based on measurements of a part of the population (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010:68). The procedure for drawing a sample is a six step plan and is illustrated in Figure 6.1, below.

Figure 6.1 Procedure for drawing a sample

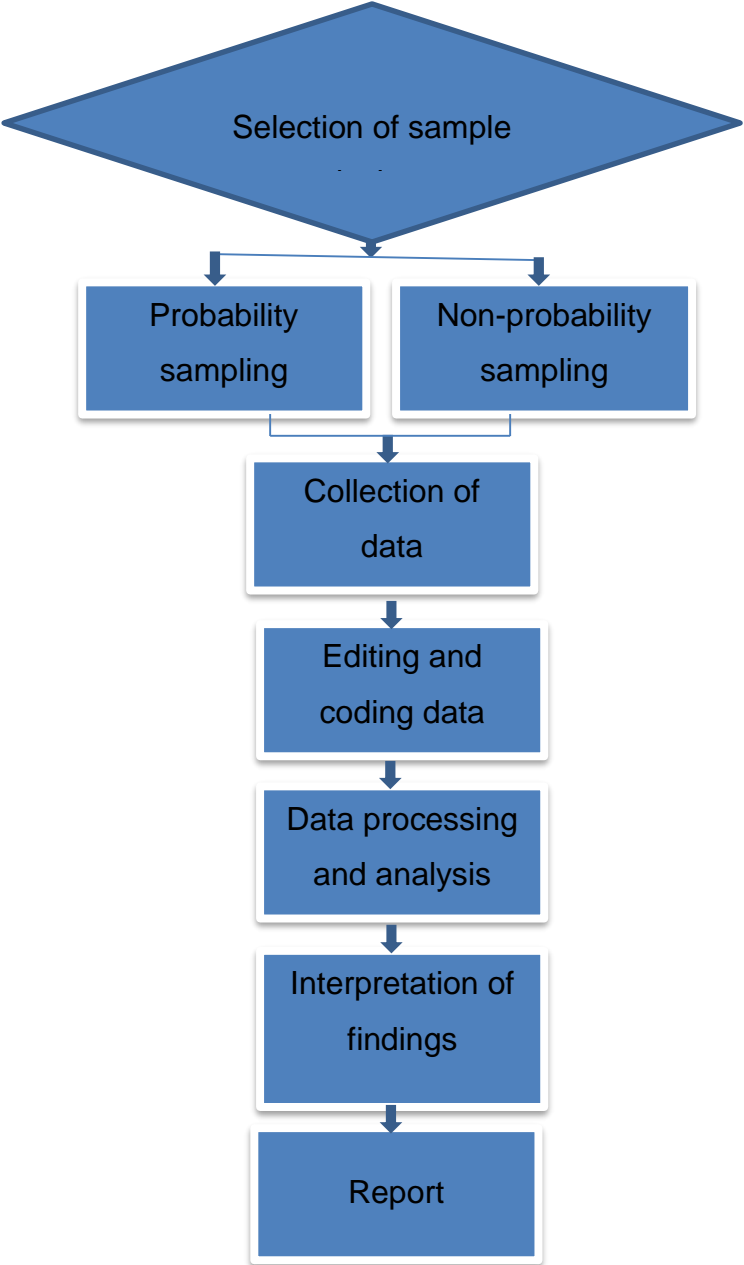


Source: Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010:139)

Figure 6.1, above, illustrates how a sample is drawn. The first step in drawing a sample is to identify a target population; this is a crucial aspect of the sampling plan. A sample frame is then drawn from the target population. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), a sample frame is (in principle) a listing of units from which the actual sample will be drawn. A sampling procedure, which is either probability or non-probability sampling (and is broadly discussed in the next section) is selected. The next sampling step is the

determination of the sample size, sampling units and then the collection of data from the sampled units. Figure 6.2, below, illustrates the stages in the selection of sample design.

Figure 6.2 Stages in the selection of sample design



Source: Adapted from Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin (2010)

Figure 6.2, above, illustrates the stages in the selection of the sample design. There are two different approaches to sampling, in a spectrum: probability samples and non-probability samples. Probability sampling refers to whether or not each unit (whether an individual or social artefact) in the population has an equal opportunity to be a part of the sample (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:136), thus, ensuring no bias or favouritism; while non-probability sampling means that the elements in the population will not all have an equal opportunity to form part of the sample due to the fact that the researcher might not always have access to a sampling frame that includes the entire population (Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et al.* 2014:137). A sampling frame is the list of people from which the sample is taken (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:73), and should be comprehensive, complete and up-to-date.

In probability samples, each unit has a known, non-zero chance of being included in the sample, which allows for statistical inferences (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:139). Probability sampling is useful in research situations that fit with the parameters of the research; is drawn randomly from the population; requires little influence from the researcher; and leads to generalizable findings.

In contrast, in non-probability samples, it is not possible to make valid inferences about the population, as a result, such samples are not representative (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:139).

Probability sampling methods include simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling, and cluster sampling, while non-probability sampling methods include convenience sampling, judgement sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling.

6.3.5.1 Probability sampling methods

This section explains the different probability sampling methods which are used when the findings of a study need to be generalizable to the larger population.

a) Simple random sampling

A simple random sample is the most basic type of sample, and is used when each element of the population has the same and equal chance of being selected to be a part of the sample (Du Plooy *et al.*, 2014:138). This sample may or may not include cases with particular characteristics in the same proportions as they are found in the population (Matthews & Ross, 2010:155). The sample is drawn following a precise procedure so as to reduce the influence of bias. For small populations, numbers might be chosen at random, as in a raffle where every member of the population is given a number and then the numbers are pulled out of a hat (Collis & Hussey, 2003:156). For larger populations, numbers can be allocated to each member of the population using computer software, which would randomly select the sample (Du Plooy *et al.*, 2014:138).

b) Stratified sampling

A stratified sample is a probability sample where the parent population is divided into a mutually exclusive and exhaustive subset, and a simple random sample of units is chosen independently from each subset (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010:143). Stratified sampling is used to ensure that the final sample is representative of the population in situations where the population has multiple characteristics that are proportionately uneven (Du Plooy *et al.*, 2014:139). This ensures that variability and, thus, standard error of estimates are reduced.

In stratified sampling, the population is split into sub-units or strata, that is, groups of elements that share the same characteristics within the population and, according to Neuman (2011) samples are then drawn from each sub-unit using simple random or systematic sampling. Stratified samples are used to enable researchers to minimize the time and resources required, particularly in large-scale interview surveys which draw samples from across a large geographical area (Matthews & Ross, 2010:159).

c) Systematic sampling

In systematic sampling, each element in the population is numbered on the sampling frame list, and is randomly chosen from this list using a sampling interval (Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et al.*, 2014:138). A sampling interval is the distance between each element selected for the sample. A prerequisite for applying systematic sampling is that the units in the population can be ordered in some way (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010:142).

d) Cluster sampling

Cluster sampling involves making a random selection from a sampling frame listing groups of units rather than individual units (Collis & Hussey, 2003:158). In cluster sampling, the population is divided into mutually exhaustive subsets, and a random sample of the subsets is selected (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010:144). In addition, cluster sampling is similar to stratified sampling; and what distinguishes the procedures is that, with stratified sampling, a sample of units is selected from each subgroup, while with cluster sampling one chooses a sample of subgroups. Multi-stage cluster sampling occurs when groups selected in a cluster sample are so large that a sub-sample is selected from each group (Collis & Hussey, 2003:158).

Probability sampling methods are summarised in Table 6.3, below.

Table 6.3 Probability sampling methods

Methods	Description
Simple random sampling	Each element of the population has the same and equal chance of being selected to be part of the sample.
Systematic sampling	Each element in the population needs to be numbered on the sampling frame list.

Stratified random sampling	Elements are randomly selected after the population was stratified according to some characteristic.
Cluster sampling	The population is divided into mutually exclusive groups that are internally heterogeneous.

Source: Adapted from Pellisier (2007)

Table 6.3, above, shows the different probability sampling techniques available to researchers.

6.3.5.2 Non-probability sampling methods

A non-probability sample is a sample of selected cases that will best enable the researcher to explore the research questions in depth (Matthews & Ross, 2010:154). Furthermore, it is specifically useful when the sample is in line with the parameters of the research; where not all individuals or social artefacts in the population are easy to access or are known; and/or where drawing a representative sample to generalize results to a broader population is not the goal of the study. This section explains the different non-probability sampling methods, which can be used when the findings of a study do not need to be generalized to the larger population.

a) Convenience sampling

Convenience sampling is when the researcher selects a sample on the basis of its convenience or ease of access (Matthews & Ross, 2010:164). The purpose of selecting units using this type of sampling is to obtain as many responses as possible. Pellisier (2007:32) postulates that the sample is selected for the convenience of the researcher because elements are readily available, nearby or willing to participate. Thus, convenience sampling is sometimes used interchangeably with accidental sampling. However, Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et al.* (2014:142) argue that convenience sampling can be

heavily biased towards the social or professional context because the sample consists purely of elements that are known or that the researcher can attain quickly, or to which the researcher has easy access.

b) Accidental sampling

This method does not use a sampling frame, instead, the sample consists of elements that are included purely because they happen to be in the right place at the right time (Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et al.*, 2014:142). However, due to the fact that some important elements of the population may be left out and the location could be biased towards one particular segment of the population, the results obtained from the participants cannot be generalized to the rest of the population. Contrary to the work of other researchers, such as Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010:139), accidental sampling is not the same as convenience sampling in that the people most likely to be convenient are those that are already known, or the researcher has some form of contact with, whereas in accidental sampling, the researcher selects elements that are available wherever the researcher is at that particular time. An example of accidental sampling would be an instance in which a researcher stops people in a shopping mall; the researcher is thus selecting elements based on their availability at a given point in time.

c) Snowball sampling

In snowball sampling, or networking, elements include people with experience of the phenomena being studied in the sample (Collis & Hussey, 2003:158). Snowball sampling makes use of referrals, in that, participants in the study provide suggestions of others who also fit the population parameters of the study, and who could and want to participate in the research (Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et al.*, 2014:143). This is done in order to increase the sample size.

d) Purposive sampling

With purposive sampling, the researcher purposefully chooses elements to be included in the sample, based on a set list of characteristics (Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et al.*, 2014:142). In other words, elements are chosen with purpose to enable the researcher to explore the research questions or develop a theory, that is, on the basis of characteristics or experiences that are directly related to the researcher's area of interest and research questions, and which allow the researcher to study the research topic in depth (Matthews & Ross, 2010:167).

e) Quota sampling

When selecting elements in quota sampling, the researcher ensures that certain subgroups or units are represented in the sample in approximately the same proportions as they are represented in the population (Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et al.*, 2014:140). The population is stratified with respect to some characteristics and elements are then selected through some non-random method (Pellissier, 2007:32).

f) Judgemental sampling

Judgemental sampling is similar to snowball sampling, except that with judgemental sampling the researcher makes a sound judgement or decision prior to the commencement of the survey and does not pursue other contacts which may arise during the course of the study (Collis & Hussey, 2003:158). This is done to save time and costs (Pellissier, 2007:32).

g) Volunteer sampling

Volunteer sampling involves a sample that is put together from people who volunteer to participate in the research (Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et al.*, 2014:144). However, this method of sampling is not very reliable and tends to prove a lot of erroneous research results

because participants tend to provide what they believe is the desired answer instead of what they truly think.

Table 6.4, below, summarizes the different non-probability sampling methods available to researchers.

Table 6.4 Non-probability sampling methods

Methods	Description
Convenience sampling	Items are selected on the basis of convenience or ease of access.
Quota sampling	The population is stratified with respect to some characteristic and elements are then selected through some non-random method.
Accidental sampling	Elements are included in the population purely because they happen to be in the right place at the right time.
Purposive sampling	Elements are purposefully chosen based on a set list of characteristics.
Snowball sampling	Elements are selected based on referral from other survey respondents who fit the required profile.
Volunteer sampling	A sample is put together from people who volunteer to participate in the research.
Judgemental sampling	Elements are selected based on the sound judgement of the researcher, in order to save time or costs.

Source: Author's own illustration

Table 6.4, above, shows different non-probability sampling techniques. For the purpose of this study, non-probability sampling will be used, specifically convenience sampling.

Convenience sampling gives researchers the freedom to choose whomever they find (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:423). The reason for this choice is that respondents are available and accessible. Another sampling method that was used in this study is snowball sampling. In snowball sampling, respondents refer the researcher to others who possess similar characteristics, and who, in turn, identify others (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:425). This is particularly important in this study as retail employees from different retail firms may have similar experiences. Quantitative research requires a large number of respondents in order to support the statistical analysis of the data; therefore, using convenience snowball sampling seems to be the best sampling method for this study.

6.3.5.3 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted prior to the finalization of the measuring instrument. According to Burns and Burns (2008:508), a pilot study should be conducted before the main study, in order to assess the adequacy of the research design and data collection measuring instrument. The purpose of the pilot study was to test the measuring instrument and ascertain whether the questionnaire items are consistent and reflect the same underlying variables as depicted in the conceptual models. The measuring instrument was tested on 20 retail employees working in Summerstrand, from Pick 'n Pay, Spar, Hardware and Total Filling station. The preliminary test was conducted to ensure ease of understanding of the questionnaire items, the relevance of the questionnaire items, the ease with which questions could be answered and the time required to complete the questionnaire.

Based on the pilot study, it was not necessary to amend the questionnaire, and the distribution thereof commenced.

6.3.5.4 Sample size

In this study, non-probability sampling was used. Despite the convenience sampling that was used due to the accessibility of respondents, snowball sampling was also used to ensure that the researcher reaches as many respondents as possible through referrals.

The researcher made use of the same field workers who travelled from one province to the next, that is, from the Eastern Cape to KwaZulu-Natal to Gauteng and, lastly, to the Western Cape. The questionnaires were distributed and collected within four days. Respondents were requested to complete the questionnaires in their spare time, preferably at home. This was due to the fact that retailing is a high labour-intensive and busy industry, and the researcher did not want to disturb the normal operations of the business.

Although individual retail firms were willing to participate in the study, centre management in some provinces refused to give fieldworkers access to certain shopping malls. Moreover, even though respondents eagerly took questionnaires, returning them was difficult because most of them either forgot them at home, lost them in the store, or the manager responsible for the collection of questionnaires locked them in a safe and was on leave until the following week. However, despite all these challenges, out of 1000 questionnaires distributed in all four provinces, 690 were returned and only 554 were usable, which amounts to an 80% response rate. The number of respondents per province is depicted in Table 6.5, below.

Table 6.5: Respondents per province

PROVINCE	DISTRIBUTED	COLLECTED
Eastern Cape	250	157
KwaZulu-Natal	250	204
Gauteng	250	214

Western Cape	250	115
Total	1000	690

6.3.5.5 The demographical information

The demographical information sought information that would provide clear insight into the background of the respondents, using a nominal scale. The results are depicted in Table 6.6, below:

Table 6.6 The demographical composition of respondents

Demographics	Range	N	%
Position	Senior management	56	10
	Middle management	75	14
	Supervisory	61	11
	Shop floor staff	280	51
	Other	82	14
	TOTAL	554	100
Gender	Male	243	44
	Female	311	56
	TOTAL	554	100
Type of job	Manager	108	20
	Packer	71	14
	Sales associate	88	16
	Buyer/merchandiser	18	3
	Cashier	106	19
	Shop floor assistant	80	14
	Admin/finance	30	5
	Other (specify)	47	8
	No response	6	1
	TOTAL	554	100
Race	African	367	66
	White	35	6
	Coloured	102	18

	Indian	40	7
	Chinese	2	1
	Other (please specify)	8	2
	TOTAL	554	100
Age	15-20	62	11
	21-30	291	53
	31-40	141	26
	41-50	36	7
	51-60	17	3
	Over 60	4	0
	No response	3	0
	TOTAL	554	100
Educational qualification	Grade 11 and lower	93	17
	Grade 12	299	54
	Diploma or National certificate	116	21
	Bachelor's degree	27	5
	Postgraduate degree/ diploma (e.g. Honours/ Masters)	12	2
	Other (Please specify)	7	1
	TOTAL	554	100
Type of employment contract	Full-time employee	370	67
	Part time employee	104	19
	Fixed-term contract employee	30	5
	Temporal contract employee	13	2
	Casual employee	24	4
	Other (please specify)	12	2
	No response	1	1
	TOTAL	554	100
Tenure	0-1	153	28
	2-5	240	43
	6-10	90	16
	11-15	31	6
	Over 15	38	7
	No response	2	0
	TOTAL	554	100
Size of organisation	Small (employing 1 to 50 employees)	295	53

	Medium (employing 51 to 200 employees)	134	24
	Large (employing more than 200 employees)	123	22
	No response	2	1
	TOTAL	554	100
Organisation's years in existence	1-5 years	164	30
	6-10 years	145	26
	11-15 years	71	13
	16 years +	169	31
	No response	5	0
	TOTAL	554	100
Monthly income	< R5000	191	34
	R5001 – R10 000	161	29
	R10 001 – R15 000	69	13
	R15 001 – R20 000	109	20
	R20 001 +	8	1
	No response	16	3
	TOTAL	554	100
Retailing activity	General dealer	77	14
	Food, beverages & tobacco	100	18
	Pharmaceuticals & medical goods	16	3
	Cosmetics & toiletries	34	6
	Clothing, footwear and leather goods	176	32
	Textiles	11	2
	Household furniture, appliances & equipment	49	9
	Hardware, paint & glass	2	0
	Sports	22	4
	Other	60	11
	No response	7	1
	TOTAL	554	100

Source: Author's own illustration

Table 6.6, above, shows the demographical composition of respondents. Fifty one percent (51%) of the respondents were working on the shop floor, while thirty five percent (35%) of the respondents hold supervisory, middle and senior management positions. Fifty six percent (56%) and forty four percent (44%) of respondents were females and

males, respectively. The majority of the respondents were Africans at sixty six percent (66%), Coloureds were at eighteen percent (18%), while Indians and Whites were at seven percent (7%) and six percent (6%), respectively.

Table 6.6, above, further indicates that fifty three percent (53%) of the respondents were between the ages of 21-30 years, followed by respondents between the ages of 31–40 at twenty six (26%), and merely three percent (3%) of respondents were between the ages of 51-60 years. Fifty four percent (54%) of the respondents had grade 12 certificates, twenty one percent (21%) had a diploma or a national certificate, seventeen percent (17%) did not have grade 12, and a mere five percent (5%) and two percent (2%) of the respondents had bachelors and postgraduate certificates, respectively.

Table 6.6, above, shows that sixty seven percent (67%) of the respondents were full time employees, only nineteen percent (19%) were employed on a part time basis, and forty three percent (43%) had tenure of 2-5 years, while only seven percent (7%) had over 15 years' tenure. According to the respondents, fifty three percent (53%) of the firms for which they worked were small firms, with between 1 and 50 employees, twenty four (24%) percent were medium sized firms, with between 51 and 200 employees, while only twenty two percent (22%) were large firms, with more than 200 employees. Thirty one percent (31%) of these firms had been in existence for over sixteen (16) years, thirty percent (30%) were in existence between 1-5 years, and twenty six percent (26%) had been in existence for the past 6-10 years.

The respondents confirmed that only one percent (1%) of them earned over R20 000 per month, thirty four percent (34%) earned less than R5000 per month, while twenty nine percent (29%) earned between R5000-R10000 per month. The majority of these firms, thirty two percent (32%), were clothing, footwear and leather goods retailers, while eighteen percent (18%) were food, beverages and tobacco retailers.

The following section will elaborate on the construction of the final measuring instruments.

6.4 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

Data is a collection of facts (or other information, such as opinions or values) which can be analyzed, and from which conclusions can be drawn (Matthews & Ross, 2010:43). The two types of data in social research are primary data and secondary data. Primary data is data collected entirely by the researcher for use in the project being researched (Pellisier, 2007:32) and is sought for its proximity to the truth and control over error (Emory & Cooper, 1991:89); while secondary data is data that has already been collected or produced by others.

6.4.1 Secondary data collection

Secondary data, for the literature review (Chapters One to Five), were obtained through international and national data searches using journal articles, textbooks and the Internet, conducted by the library of the NMMU. These data searches occurred on the following databases: Business Source Premier, EBSCO, ISAP (National Library of South Africa), Sabinet databases, SAe Publications, ScienceDirect as well as Internet search engines such as Google and Yahoo.

6.4.2 Primary data collection

For the purpose of this study, primary data was collected by means of a survey method using a questionnaire. A questionnaire was selected as the data collection tool of choice because the respondents do not see the source from which the questionnaire originates. This distance allows people to respond to questions with assurance that their responses will remain anonymous, and so they may be more truthful than they would be in a personal interview, particularly when they are talking about controversial issues (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:185). Moreover, this method of data collection was chosen because questionnaires

are inexpensive to administer, can be administered to many people, and it allows for a substantial amount of data to be collected (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:48).

However, questionnaires have drawbacks which include, but are not limited to, the fact that questionnaires have a low return rate; can be completed by anyone other than the intended respondent or the returned questionnaires may not necessarily be representative of the originally selected sample; respondents' responses reflect their reading and writing skills and, perhaps, their misinterpretation of one or more questions; and by specifying in advance questions that will be asked, the researcher is apt to gain only limited and possibly distorted information.

There are three types of questionnaires, namely, the structured, semi-structured, and unstructured (Hague, 1993:21-2), as follows:

- Structured questionnaires

The questionnaire sets out precisely the wording of the questions and the order which they will be asked. These questions have predefined answers and there is little latitude for a respondent to stray beyond them;

- Semi-structured questionnaires

The questionnaire uses a mixture of questions with predefined answers as well as those where the respondent is free to say whatever they wish. It is a more flexible tool and there is likely to be more probing to find out the reasons for certain answers; and

- Unstructured questionnaires

The researcher uses a checklist of questions rather than a formal questionnaire on which the answers are written down. There is considerable latitude allowed on the part of the interviewer, and different channels of questioning are selected during the interview itself.

Primary data for this study was obtained using the survey method, by means of self-administered structured questionnaires.

6.4.3 Questionnaire design

A questionnaire is a structured method of data collection (Sapford & Jupp 2006:102). Collis and Hussey (2003:173) describe a questionnaire as a list of carefully chosen and structured questions with the objective of gathering reliable responses from a chosen sample.

In this study, self-administered structured questionnaires with closed-ended questions, formulated in a simple and concise language, were used. This method is consistent with the measuring tool used in previous studies (Ackfeldt & Wong, 2006:733; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005:154; and Dimitriades, 2007:469).

The measuring instrument items include nominal, ordinal and Likert-type scales. The ordinal scale is created through ranking objects (categories) or arranging them in order, with regards to a common variable (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:158). In other words, one category can be said to be greater or more important than another, but the difference between each pair of categories is not equal (Matthews & Ross, 2010:347).

While the nominal scale items allow the researcher to assign respondents to certain categories (Sekaran, 2003:187), Leedy and Ormrod (2005:25) assert that the nominal scale of measurement allows data to be measured by assigning names to it. A sample of objects, for example, can be classified according to a category, such as a geographic location, gender, and so on.

In contrast, the Likert-type scale requires respondents to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with a variety of statements related to an attitude or object (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:159). This scale is also known as a summated scale due to its inherent use, as the responses to individual items are added in order to create a total score for the respondent. The scale is most often composed of two parts: the item, which is likely to be a statement; and the evaluation, which indicates whether the respondent agrees or disagrees with the statement, and to what extent (Matthews & Ross, 2010:201). The evaluation part usually consists of a five- or seven-point scale. The extent of agreement or disagreement, for example in a 5-point Likert-type scale, can be categorized on a scale of one to five, with strongly agree = 1, and strongly disagree = 5, depending on whether the item is positive or negative. In other words, if the item is negative, strongly agree will be = 1, and strongly disagree will be = 5, whereas, if an item is positive, then strongly agree will be = 5, and strongly disagree will be = 1.

In this study, a 7-point Likert-type scale was used, and the questionnaire consisted of five sections:

- Section A investigates the role of the independent variables on OCB, using an ordinal scale by means of a seven-point Likert-type scale;
- Section B assesses general perceptions regarding OCB (5 dimensions), according to a seven-point ordinal Likert scale;
- Section C gauges the impact of employment considerations on dependent variables using a seven-point Likert scale;
- Section D analyses the impact of OCB on the dependent variables (outcomes), using a seven-point ordinal Likert-type scale; and

- Section E seeks demographical information that will provide clear insight into the background information of the respondents, using a nominal scale.

On completion, and before distribution, the questionnaire was forwarded to the Human Ethics Committee of NMMU for ethical approval.

6.4.3.1 Measuring instruments used to measure the demographic profile of respondents

A single-item instrument was used for all individual variables, with a two- to ten-point response scale for each variable. Twelve variables were used: position, gender, type of job, race, age, educational qualifications, type of employment contract, tenure, organisation's years in existence, size of the organisation, earnings per month, and type of retailing activity.

Position was measured with a single-item measure and scored on a five-point scale, as shown below:

- 1= Senior management
- 2= Middle management
- 3= Supervisory
- 4= Shop floor staff
- 5= Other (please specify)

According to Table 6.6, fifty one percent (51%) of the respondents were shop floor staff.

Gender was measured with a single-item measure and scored on a two-point scale, as shown below:

- 1= Male
- 2= Female

Table 6.6 shows that fifty six percent (56%) of the respondents were female.

The type of job that the respondents do was measured with a single-item measure and scored on an eight-point response scale, as follows:

- 1= Manager
- 2= Packer
- 3= Sales associate
- 4= Buyer/merchandiser
- 5= Cashier
- 6= Shop floor assistant
- 7= Admin/finance
- 8= Other (specify)

Table 6.6 shows that twenty percent (20%) of the respondents are managers.

Race was measured with a single-item measure and scored on a six-point scale, as follows:

- 1= African
- 2= White
- 3= Coloured
- 4= Indian
- 5= Chinese
- 6= Other (please specify)

According to Table 6.6, sixty six percent (66%) of the respondents were African.

Age was measured with a single-item measure and scored on a six-point response scale, as follows:

- 1= 15-20
- 2= 21-30
- 3= 31-40
- 4= 41-50
- 5= 51-60
- 6= Over 60

Table 6.6 shows that fifty three percent (53%) of respondents were between the ages of 21-30 years.

Educational qualifications were measured with a single-item measure and scored on a six-point scale, as shown below:

- 1= Grade 11 and lower
- 2= Grade 12
- 3= Diploma or National certificate
- 4= Bachelor's degree
- 5= Postgraduate degree/diploma (e.g.Honours/Masters)
- 6= Other (Please specify)

Table 6.6 shows that fifty four percent (54%) of the respondents had grade 12 certificates.

The **type of employment contract** that employees held were measured with a single-item measure and scored on a six-point response scale, as follows:

- 1= Full time employee
- 2= Part time employee
- 3= Fixed term contract employee
- 4= Temporal contract employee
- 5= Casual employee

6= Other (please specify)

Table 6.6 shows that sixty seven percent (67%) of the respondents were employed on a full time basis.

Tenure was measured with a single-item measure and scored on a five-point scale, as follows:

1= 0-1

2= 2-5

3= 6-10

4= 11-15

5= Over 15

According to Table 6.6, forty three percent (43%) of the respondents had tenure of 2-5 years.

Size of organisation was measured with a single-item measure and scored on a scale of three-point scale, as follows:

1= Small (employing 1 to 50 employees)

2= Medium (employing 51 to 200 employees)

3= Large (employing more than 200 employees)

Table 6.6 shows that fifty three percent (53%) of the respondents were employed in a small sized retail firm.

The **organisation's years in existence** were measured with a single-item measure and scored on a four-point response scale, as shown below:

1= 1-5 years

- 2= 6-10 years
- 3= 11-15 years
- 4= 16 years +

Table 6.6 shows that thirty one percent (31%) of the retail firm in which the respondents were employed had been in existence for more than sixteen (16) years.

Monthly income (cost-to-company) was measured with a single-item measure and scored on a five-point scale, as follows:

- 1= < R5000
- 2= R5001 – R10 000
- 3= R10 001 – R15 000
- 4= R15 001 – R20 000
- 5= R20 001 +

According to Table 6.6, thirty four percent (34%) of respondents earn less than R5000 per month.

Retailing activity was measured with a single-item measure and scored on a 10-point scale, as follows:

- 1= General dealer
- 2= Food, beverages & tobacco
- 3= Pharmaceuticals & medical goods
- 4= Cosmetics & toiletries
- 5= Clothing, footwear and leather goods
- 6= Textiles
- 7= Household furniture, appliances & equipment
- 8= Hardware, paint & glass
- 9= Sports

10= Other

Table 6.6 shows that thirty two percent (32%) of the respondents were working in clothing, footwear and leather goods retailers.

6.4.3.2 Measuring instruments used to measure the independent, intervening and dependent variables

Independent variables

The independent variables include job considerations, role considerations, organisational climate and employment considerations. Job considerations as measured by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and decision-making were measured by five-item instruments, which were adopted from Eys, Loughheed, Bray, and Carron (2009); Spector, Bauer, and Fox (2010); Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994); Galinsky, Bond and Friedman (1996); Hackman and Oldham (1974); Sims, Szilagyi and Keller (1976); and Dobbins and Zaccaro (1986).

Role consideration comprised of role conflict and role ambiguity. The five-item scales used to test role ambiguity and role conflict were adopted from Rizzo, *et al.* (1970).

Organisational climate comprised of job security and supervisor support. A five-item scale was adopted to measure job security adopted from Kottke and Sharafinski (1988); while supervisor support was measured using a five-item scale from Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, and McMurrian (1997).

Employment considerations

Employment considerations were measured using a 15-item scale that was self-developed.

Intervening variable

In developing items for the intervening variable, three-item scales for each sub-variable (altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness and courtesy) were adopted from the OCB scale proposed by Podsakoff *et al.* (1990).

Dependent variables

Employee commitment was measured using a five-item scale adopted from Meyer and Allen (1997). Propensity to resign was measured using a five-item scale adopted from Hossain (1997). Employee engagement was measured using a five-item scale adopted from Robinson, Perryman, and Hayday (2004).

6.4.4 Questionnaire administration

The researcher made use of fieldworkers who travelled to various cities and provinces. The field workers distributed the questionnaires to retail stores and made arrangements to collect them three days later. This ensured that respondents completed the questionnaire in their leisure time and had ample time to read, understand and complete the questionnaires. A questionnaire control sheet was used to ensure that all questionnaires that were distributed and collected were recorded. Upon collection, all the questionnaires were coded and numbered in order to facilitate data capturing and analysis.

6.5 DATA ANALYSIS

The first step in the analysis of data is to describe data, which allows the reader or researcher to get an accurate first impression of what the data look like (Salkind, 2012:162). The most basic statistical analysis in positivistic research is descriptive analysis.

6.5.1 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive analysis is the elementary transformation of data in a way that describes the basic characteristics such as central tendency, distribution, and variability thereof (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:486). Measures of central tendency, namely, arithmetic mean, mode, and median are calculated to determine the central point of the data set (Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et al.*, 2014:211). The arithmetic mean is a statistical average calculated by totaling all the values and dividing them by the number of cases; the mode is a statistical average calculated by noting the most common value in the distribution; while the median is a statistical average calculated by arranging all the values in a sample in numerical order, then noting the middle of the distribution (Matthews & Ross, 2010:353).

The distribution of data shows the number of times a particular data value occurs; in other words, it is an arrangement of the values of a variable showing their observed frequency of occurrence (Matthews & Ross, 2010:331). Frequency distribution to determine the number of times a particular data value occurs will be identified.

Measures of variability, namely, the range, standard deviation and variance, are calculated to determine the dispersion of the data, or how the observations vary from the mean (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:418). The range measures the distance between the smallest and the largest values of a frequency distribution; while standard deviation represents the average distance that the data values vary from the mean; and the variance expresses the average dispersion in the distribution, not in the original units but in squared units (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010:157).

In this study, the spread of the data will be determined by means of a standard deviation, which is a statistical measure of how the cases are distributed around the mean (Matthews & Ross, 2010:354). That is, the standard deviation shows how far removed a value is from the average (mean). If the standard deviation is low, it means that all the results are close to the mean; however, if the standard deviation is high, it means that the numbers are far from the mean (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:211).

6.5.2 Statistical analysis

Empirical testing involves inferential statistics, which means that an inference will be drawn about some population based on the observations of a sample representing that population (Zikmund, *et.al.*, 2010:508). Statistical analysis is divided into univariate, bivariate and multivariate statistical analysis.

Univariate statistical analysis tests the frequency distribution of a single variable; a bivariate statistical analysis tests a frequency distribution of two variables; while multivariate statistical analysis tests frequency distribution of several variables or sets of variables (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:193). The model developed in this study means several sets of variables are tested, that is, multivariate statistical analysis is used.

In this study, factor analysis is used. Factor analysis is a prototypical multivariate, interdependent technique that statistically identifies a reduced number of factors from a larger number of measured variables (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:593). The primary purpose of factor analysis is to address the problem of analyzing the structure of interrelationships or correlations amongst a large number of variables by defining a set of common underlying dimensions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:282).

Factor analysis looks at patterns amongst the variables in order to discover whether an underlying combination of the original variables can summarize the original set (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:573). In other words, the original variables will be described in terms of their common underlying dimensions (Hair *et al.*, 2003:361). Burns and Burns (2008:440) state that the aim of factor analysis is simplification. Factor analysis is used for the general purpose of reducing a set of variables to a more manageable but informative set. It has the general goal of identifying a set of underlying dimensions in a data set that captures the most information while retaining interpretability and ease of use (Hair, Tatham, & Black, 1998:90). Thus, factor analysis allows for reducing a large number of variables that are difficult to interpret to a manageable set.

According to Schumacker and Lomax (2004), the uses of a factor analysis include, but are not limited to, the following:

- to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller number of factors for modeling purposes, where the large number of variables prevents modeling of all the measures individually;
- to select a subset of variables from a large set based on which original variables have the highest correlations with the main factors;
- to select the factors to be treated as uncorrelated variables as one approach to handling multi-collinearity in such procedures as multiple regression; and
- to validate a scale or index by demonstrating that its constituent items load on the same factor, and to eliminate proposed scale items which cross-load on more than one factor.

There are two types of factor analyses, namely, exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is performed when the researcher is uncertain about how many factors may exist amongst a set of variables, while confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is performed when the researcher has strong theoretical expectations about the factor structure before performing the analysis (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:593); the purpose of the confirmatory factor analysis is to examine or test an assumed structure.

In this study, exploratory factor analysis will be used to measure whether the items measure various constructs under consideration, thus assessing the construct validity of the measuring instrument. The purpose of an exploratory factor analysis is to explore or discover some underlying but unknown structure (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:190).

Over and above the measures of central tendency and variability, which are basic statistical concepts that summarize the distribution of a variable, measures of relationship used to test the relationships of a variable to other variables, are occasionally necessary, namely, measures of correlation and regression.

Multiple regression analysis will be used to analyse the statistical data collected. Multiple regression analysis is a statistical tool used to develop a self-weighting estimating equation that predicts values for a dependent variable from the values of independent variables; controls confounding variables in order to better evaluate the contribution of other variables; and tests and explains causal theory (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:575-575). Correlations amongst variables will also be tested. The data will be captured on an Excel spreadsheet and the computer programme, Statistica (version 12), was used to analyse the data.

Correlation measures test the relationship between variables and are used to describe the degree to which one variable is related to another; this is called correlation coefficient (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010:175). However, in regression analysis an estimating equation is developed that relates a known variable to an unknown variable, and provides information about the relationship between two variables, in order to estimate or predict the behaviour of one variable from the other (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:109).

6.6 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

In order to increase the validity and reliability of the study, a pilot study was conducted prior to developing the final measuring instrument. Many researchers (Russell & Purcell 2009:130; Burns & Burns 2008:508; Cooper & Schindler 2006:76, and Welman & Kruger 1999:146) suggest that a pilot study should be conducted before the main study, in order to assess the adequacy of the research design and data collection measuring instrument (Sapford & Jupp 2006:103 and Sekaran 2000:248). A pilot study acts as a pre-warning system, because possible errors or difficulties with the measuring instrument will emerge

during a pilot study and, based on the feedback and information gained, a modification of the measuring instrument might be necessary (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:257).

6.6.1 Validity of the measuring instrument

Validity means that the data collected to address the research questions is a close representation of the aspects of social reality of the study in question (Matthews & Ross, 2010:53). In other words, it is the extent to which the measure captures what it is supposed to capture (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:78). The validity of the measuring instrument will be tested by assessing content and construct validity in this study. Content or expert validity is generally used to measure whether the scale measures what it is supposed to measure (Hair *et al.*, 2003:174) and has been tested by means of a pilot study and expert judgment. Construct validity assesses what the construct or scale is actually measuring. In order to assess construct validity, convergent and discriminant validity need to be checked. Convergent validity assesses the extent to which the construct is positively correlated with other measures of the same construct, while discriminant validity assesses the extent to which the construct does not correlate with other measures that are different from it (Hair *et al.*, 2003:174).

6.6.2 Reliability of the measuring instrument

Reliability means that another researcher would expect to obtain the same findings if they carried out the research in the same way (Matthews & Ross, 2010:53). This implies that a measure is reliable to the degree that it supplies consistent results (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:321). Cronbach's alpha was calculated to confirm the internal reliability of the measuring instrument and to evaluate the internal consistency between the items measuring each construct in the theoretical model (see Chapter 7 for measuring results).

6.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the research design and the methodology adopted in this study. It also defined the population and sampling techniques employed in the study. Structured questionnaires were selected as the data collection tools for this research. In order to increase the reliability and validity of the measurement instrument, a pilot study was proposed, and is to be conducted before the finalization of the measurement instrument. Data analysis will be conducted using Statistica (version 12) and other quantitative techniques.

The next chapter, Chapter Seven, will present the findings on the empirical research data collected in this study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

EMPIRICAL REVIEW OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF EMPLOYEES

REGARDING OCB IN RETAIL FIRMS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Six discussed the research design and methodology adopted in this study, and provided justification for the selection of the various measures used in the research. A structured self-administered questionnaire was selected as a method of data collection and field workers were utilised to distribute and collect questionnaires in the four most economically active provinces, namely (in no particular order), the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng and the Western Cape.

This chapter will present and analyze the findings of the empirical results gained from the questionnaires, in terms of the perceptions of employees regarding OCB in retail firms.

7.2 THE HYPOTHESES AND HYPOTHETICAL MODEL OF THE STUDY

As presented in Chapter One, the objectives of the study are to investigate the perceptions of employees regarding organisational citizenship behaviour in retail firms. The hypotheses that were presented read as follows:

7.2.1 First set of hypotheses: Relationships between the independent variables and the intervening variable

- H0¹: Job considerations, as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and decision-making, do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.
- H0²: Role considerations, as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict, do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.
- H0³: Organisational climate, as depicted by supervisor support and job security, do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

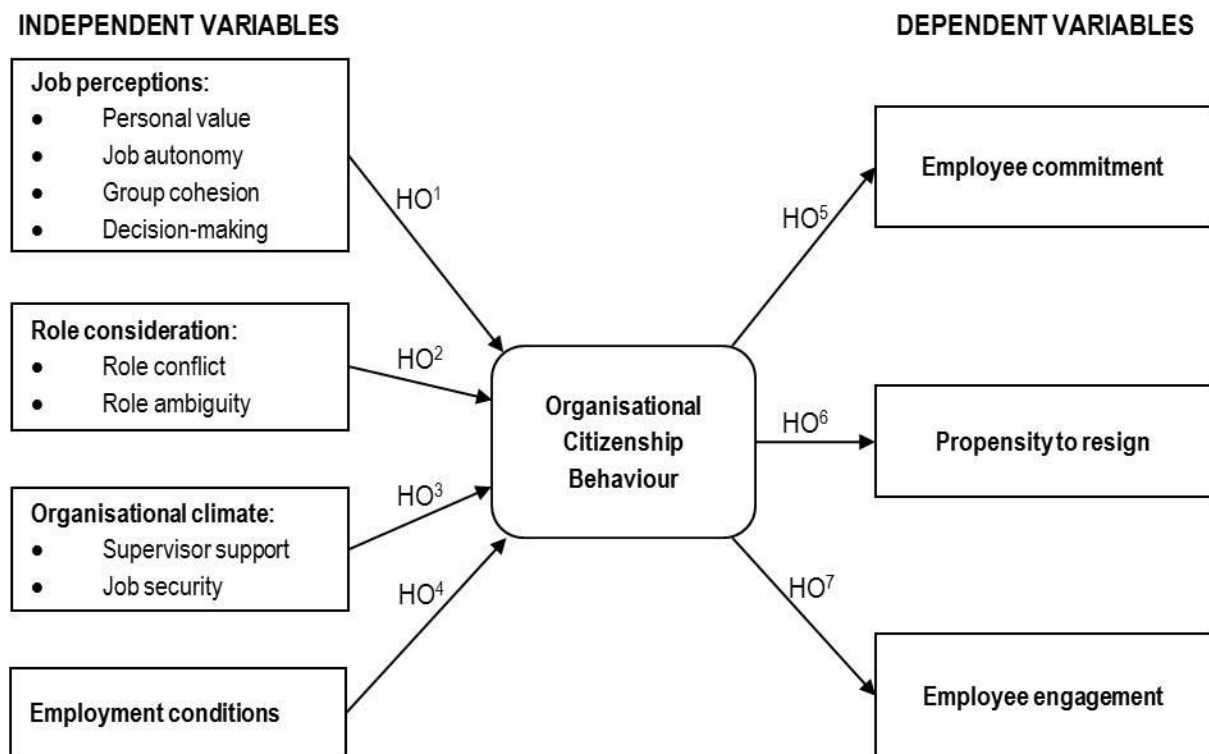
- H0⁴: Employment considerations do not influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

7.2.2 Second set of hypotheses: Relationships between the intervening variable and the dependent variables (outcomes)

- H0⁵: Organisational citizenship behaviour does not influence employee commitment.
- H0⁶: Organisational citizenship behaviour does not influence propensity to resign.
- H0⁷: Organisational citizenship behaviour does not influence employee engagement.

The hypothesized model is presented again in Figure 7.1, below:

Figure 7.1: Hypothetical model of the study



7.3 DATA EVALUATION OF THE EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The data analysis, for this study, was a five-phase process, which involved the following activities:

- In the first phase, descriptive analysis was conducted using measures of central tendency and measures of variability.
- In the second phase, the reliability of the measuring instrument was tested and Cronbach's alpha values of each instrument were calculated to confirm the reliability of the measuring instrument, and to evaluate the internal consistency between the items measuring each construct in the theoretical model, using STATISTICA (version 12).
- The third phase involved testing the validity of the measuring instrument in order to gauge the extent to which the measure captures what it is supposed to capture. Exploratory factor analysis was used to test the validity of the measuring instrument.
- The fourth phase involved the regression analysis, where an estimating equation was developed that related a known variable to an unknown variable, and provided information about the relationship between two variables, in order to estimate or predict the behaviour of one variable from the other.
- In the fifth and last phase of data analysis, the hypothesized relationships were assessed.

In facilitating effective capturing and data analysis, all variables were abbreviated as illustrated in Table 7.1, below:

Table 7.1: Abbreviated variables

VARIABLE	ABBREVIATION
JOB CONSIDERATIONS	JC
Personal values	PV
Job autonomy	JA
Group cohesion	GC
Decision-making	DM
ROLE CONSIDERATIONS	RCO

Role conflict	RC
Role ambiguity	RA
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE	OC
Supervisor support	SP
Job security	JS
EMPLOYMENT CONSIDERATIONS	EC
ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR	OCB
Conscientiousness	CONSC
Civic virtue	CV
Courtesy	COURT
Sportsmanship	SPORT
Altruism	ALT
EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT	ECM
PROPENSITY TO RESIGN	PR
EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT	EE

7.3.1 Reliability of the measuring instrument

Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010) define reliability as an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable. Reliability testing ensures that the survey instrument produces the same results across repeated measures either within the same population or with a similar population. In this study, Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the entire scale and all values yielded alpha coefficients exceeding 0.8, except the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for Propensity to resign, which was 0.642. Removing item PR1 improved the Cronbach's value to 0.727, which is regarded as sufficient for retaining the variable. According to Zikmund, *et al.* (2010:306), scales with a coefficient alpha between 0.7 and 0.8 are considered to have good reliability.

Table 7.2 Cronbach's alpha values of measuring instruments: Theoretical model

Measuring instrument	Original value	Final value
Job considerations (JC)	0.901	0.901
Role Considerations (RCO)	0.869	0.869
Organisational Climate (OC)	0.870	0.870

Employment Considerations (ECO)	0.879	0.879
Organisational Citizenship behaviour (OCB)	0.855	0.855
Employee Commitment (ECM)	0.900	0.900
Propensity to Resign (PR)	0.642	0.727
Employee Engagement (EE)	0.875	0.875

7.3.2 Descriptive statistical analysis

The descriptive statistical analysis involved the calculation of measures of central location, such as the mean, as well as measures of variability such as the standard deviation. These items are presented in Table 7.3, below.

Table 7.3: Descriptive statistical analysis

VARIABLE	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION
Job Considerations (JC)	4.69	0.98
Role Considerations (RCO)	3.85	1.20
Organisational Climate (OC)	4.42	1.49
Employment considerations (EC)	4.44	1.19
Organisational citizenship behaviour related to compassion (OCB(1))	4.87	1.28
Organisational citizenship behaviour related to civic non-obligatory acts (OCB-(2))	3.93	1.33
Employee Commitment (ECM)	4.95	1.31
Propensity to Resign (PR)	4.39	1.30

Table 7.3, above, shows the mean scores and standard deviation for the variables under investigation in this study. As can be seen, ECM obtained the highest mean score of 4.95, while RCO obtained the lowest score of 3.85. This means that respondents somehow agreed that they are committed to the organisation. Most respondents somehow disagreed that there is clarity or conflict in their roles. Apart from RCO, OCB(2) is the only other factor that shows that respondents somehow disagreed that they engage

in OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. Excluding ECM and RCO, the other factors indicate that the respondents are neutral about the fact that their firms consider that the employment contracts, the reward system, working hours and overtime are important factors that contribute towards employees' engagement in OCBs, the organisational climate is conducive, they engage in OCB, and they have propensity to leave their organisations. Respondents perceived employee engagement as being the same as employee commitment; hence, employee engagement was deleted from Table 7.3.

7.3.3 Validity of the measuring instrument

The term validity generally refers to the process of ensuring that the survey accurately measures what it is intended to measure, and requires that an instrument be reliable, although an instrument can be reliable without being valid (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008:2278). As mentioned in Chapter Six, the validity of the measuring instrument was tested by assessing content and construct validity. Content validity is generally used to determine whether the scale measures what it is supposed to measure (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006:174) and was tested by means of a pilot study. Construct validity refers to the extent to which a set of questions appear to result in findings that conform to what would be predicted from theory (Matthews & Ross, 2010:217); this was tested by means of an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). In order to assess construct validity, convergent and discriminant validity needed to be checked.

Convergent validity assesses the extent to which the concepts that should be related are indeed related (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:308). Correlational techniques are often used to assess convergent validity (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:81). Discriminant validity assesses the extent to which the construct does not correlate with other measures that are different from it (Hair *et al.*, 2003:174). In other words, it is a type of validity that represents how unique or distinct a measure is (Salkind, 2012: 127). As a rule of thumb, if two scales are correlated above 0.75, discriminant validity may be questioned (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:309).

7.3.3.1 Factor analysis

Factor analysis involves the examination of correlations amongst a number of variables and identifying clusters of highly interrelated variables that reflect underlying themes, or factors, within the data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:282). In this study, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used. Exploratory factor analysis is performed when the researcher is uncertain about how many factors may exist amongst a set of variables (Zikmund, *et al.*, 2010:593). Hair, *et al.* (1998:111) recommend the following guidelines for practical significance: ± 0.3 minimal; ± 0.4 more important; and ± 0.5 practically significant. The cut-off point of all factor loadings in this study was 0.4, which is considered more important. Moreover, Stevens (1992, in Field 2000:441) recommends interpreting only factor loadings with an absolute value greater than 0.4. In this study, the acceptable cut-off point of three (3) items loading onto a factor, was considered significant; this is supported by Hatcher (1994:73), who reports that at least three (3) items loading and more on each factor is considered significant.

The computer programme Statistica (version 12) was used to conduct three sets of exploratory factor analyses. The first set involved the perceptions of employees towards job considerations (JC), role considerations (RCO), employment conditions (EC) and organisational climate (OC). The second factor analysis comprised of an analysis of employee perceptions regarding organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), while the last factor analysis comprised of an analysis of the potential outcomes of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in retailing firms, namely, employee commitment (ECM), propensity to resign (PR) and employee engagement (EE).

7.4 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS RESULTS

7.4.1 Perceptions of employees towards job considerations, role considerations, employment conditions and organisational climate

The first exploratory factor analysis results, shown in Table 7.4 below, reveal that all five items (PV1, PV2, PV3, PV4, PV5) expected to measure 'personal value', all five items

(JA1, JA2, JA3, JA4, JA5) which were expected to measure 'job autonomy' and four of five items (GC1, GC2, GC4, GC5) which were expected to measure 'group cohesion' loaded on factor one (1). Table 7.4 further reveals that three of the fifteen items (EC2, EC3, EC4) which were expected to measure 'employment conditions' also loaded on factor one (1). This means that respondents viewed these items as measures of a single construct: 'job considerations'. Consequentially, they were termed the 'job clarity' dimension of 'job consideration'.

Table 7.4 indicates that all five items (RC1, RC2, RC3, RC4, RC5) which were expected to measure 'role conflict' and all five items (RA1, RA2, RA3, RA4, RA5) which were expected to measure 'role ambiguity' loaded on factor two (2). This means that respondents viewed these items as a single construct termed 'role considerations'. Table 7.4 further indicates that nine of the fifteen items (EC5, EC7, EC9, EC10, EC11, EC12, EC13, EC14, EC15) which were expected to measure 'employment considerations' loaded on factor three (3). This means that respondents viewed these items as a single construct termed 'employment considerations'. Table 7.4 shows that all five items (JS1, JS2, JS3, JS4, JS5) which were expected to measure 'job security' loaded on factor four (4); this means that respondents viewed these items as a single construct termed 'job security'. Five items which were expected to measure 'group cohesion', 'decision making' and 'employment considerations' (GC3, DM4, DM5, EC6, EC8), did not load to a significant extent ($p < 0.04$) and this led to the deletion of these items, which were not used in subsequent analyses. Table 7.4, below, also indicates that five items (DM2, SP1, SP4, SP5 and EC1) cross-loaded and are therefore not considered for further analysis. Four items (SP2 and SP3) which were expected to measure 'supervisory support' as a measure of 'organisational climate' and (DM1, DM3) which were expected to measure 'decision making' as a measure of 'job considerations' were deleted as the acceptable cut-off point of three (3) items loading onto a factor was considered significant in this study. This indicates that these dimensions did not demonstrate sufficient discriminant validity for further analysis.

Table 7.4: Factor loadings: perceptions of employees towards job considerations, role considerations, employment considerations and organisational climate

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
	Job Considerations	Role Considerations	Employment Considerations	Job Security
PV1	0.429230	-0.116944	0.133069	0.223460
PV2	0.573946	-0.179041	0.066981	0.147281
PV3	0.629244	-0.045646	0.101786	0.186645
PV4	0.495928	0.201057	0.028275	0.063743
PV5	0.560170	0.110792	0.175701	0.178398
JA1	0.593716	0.160247	0.272991	0.034522
JA2	0.581963	0.242249	0.258087	0.038858
JA3	0.662507	0.118952	0.221749	0.083708
JA4	0.623961	0.079157	0.113958	0.082166
JA5	0.478252	0.338220	0.192086	0.180555
GC1	0.540565	0.211968	0.222723	0.214922
GC2	0.565976	0.141321	0.134554	0.235350
GC4	0.541505	0.046525	0.221114	0.227437
GC5	0.520511	-0.132668	0.161686	0.281394
DM1	0.601476	0.035233	0.163594	0.304802
DM2	0.582661	-0.033613	0.099471	0.413482
DM3	0.542218	0.003490	0.192040	0.323689
SP1	0.467998	-0.044828	0.110933	0.460816
SP2	0.528776	-0.0107227	0.123300	0.358300
SP3	0.474459	-0.095859	0.214859	0.357400
SP4	0.475791	-0.113177	0.045143	0.460041
SP5	0.459156	-0.021612	0.196618	0.520241
EC2	0.490883	-0.124975	0.110308	0.375825
EC3	0.459062	-0.136404	0.199180	0.367439
EC4	0.423357	-0.068080	0.238036	0.114558
RC1	0.051690	0.467623	0.186466	0.162834
RC2	-0.032424	0.679573	0.143773	0.009249
RC3	0.046048	0.702265	0.036352	0.050786
RC4	-0.033382	0.731812	0.158162	0.094314
RC5	0.184045	0.586830	0.026787	0.063136
RA1	0.010041	0.730243	-0.072071	0.051031
RA2	0.060502	0.708765	-0.050218	0.041363
RA3	-0.012002	0.727478	-0.001707	-0.083314

RA4	-0.031568	0.731945	-0.060634	-0.071121
RA5	0.061281	0.575524	-0.086892	0.028738
EC5	0.377976	-0.103578	0.403317	0.306835
EC7	0.262406	-0.019868	0.558840	0.182556
EC9	0.219158	0.060061	0.454967	0.274450
EC10	0.155037	0.068108	0.695349	0.156933
EC11	0.254560	0.023081	0.627946	0.176176
EC12	0.126274	0.038442	0.737505	0.173208
EC13	0.090394	0.058263	0.800062	0.149947
EC14	0.095818	-0.010690	0.734618	0.130636
EC15	0.234454	-0.062161	0.551228	0.114643
JS1	0.143616	0.086663	0.134017	0.769353
JS2	0.148458	0.084074	0.102382	0.798584
JS3	0.181804	0.033444	0.137398	0.809126
JS4	0.158965	0.049486	0.230186	0.710146
JS5	0.067502	-0.003660	0.197838	0.719766
Expl.Var	8.518476	5.168235	5.080295	5.948419
Prp.Totl	0.154881	0.093968	0.092369	0.108153

In Table 7.4, factor loadings greater than 0.4 were considered significant.

7.4.2 Perceptions of employees regarding organisational citizenship behaviour

Table 7.5, below, indicates that the respondents perceived 'organisational citizenship behaviour' as a two-dimensional construct. All three items (SPORT1, SPORT2 and SPORT3) which were meant to measure 'sportsmanship' and all three items (ALT1, ALT2 and ALT3) which were meant to measure 'altruism' loaded onto factor one (1), and are termed '*OCB related to compassion*' (*OCB1*). All three items (CONSC1, CONSC2 and CONSC3) which were meant to measure 'conscientiousness' and all three items (CV1, CV2 and CV3) which were meant to measure 'civic virtue' loaded onto factor two (2), and are termed '*OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts*' (*OCB2*). Table 7.5, below, also indicates that two of the three items (COURT1 and COURT2) which were expected to measure 'courtesy' loaded onto factor three (3). One of these items (COURT3) which was expected to measure 'courtesy' cross-loaded, therefore, it was deleted and not considered for further analysis. All items that were loaded onto factor three (3) were

deleted on the basis of lack of sufficient validity, as the acceptable cut-off point of three (3) items loading onto a factor was considered significant in this study.

Table 7.5: Factor loadings: perceptions of employees regarding organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
	OCB related to compassion	OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts	N/S
SPORT1	0.540034	0.143196	0.365898
SPORT2	0.606781	0.238439	0.175038
SPORT3	0.796652	0.095303	0.221146
ALT1	0.843700	-0.004476	0.114427
ALT2	0.832405	0.054282	0.110205
ALT3	0.787504	0.117166	0.107665
CONSC1	0.050276	0.554407	0.328094
CONSC2	0.113108	0.584830	0.264217
CONSC3	0.019797	0.758328	0.135656
CV1	0.134839	0.795561	-0.007386
CV2	0.077713	0.751093	0.043151
CV3	0.131474	0.705707	-0.101730
COURT1	0.211749	0.033594	0.833341
COURT2	0.285396	0.106001	0.696774
Expl.Var	3.868182	3.036842	1.897308
Prp.Totl	0.257879	0.202456	0.126487

In Table 7.5, factor loadings greater than 0.4 were considered significant.

7.4.3 Outcomes of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

Table 7.6, below, indicates that all five items (ECM1, ECM2, ECM3, ECM4, ECM5) expected to measure 'employee commitment' and all five items (EE1, EE2, EE3, EE4, EE5) expected to measure 'employee engagement' loaded on factor one (1) and were termed 'organisational commitment'. This means that respondents did not perceive of the

items expected to measure ‘employee commitment’ and ‘employee engagement’ as measures of two different constructs, hence, the variable is renamed ‘organisational commitment’.

Table 7.6, below, further indicates that four of the five items (PR2, PR3, PR4, and PR5) which are expected to measure ‘propensity to resign’ loaded onto factor two (2). This means that respondents viewed these items as a single construct termed ‘propensity to resign’. One item (PR1) which was expected to measure ‘propensity to resign’ was deleted from the study in order to improve the reliability of the variable.

Table 7.6: Factor loadings: Outcomes of Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
	Organisational commitment	Propensity to resign
ECM1	0.742401	0.002571
ECM2	0.820663	-0.033371
ECM3	0.822794	-0.024129
ECM4	0.839395	-0.023256
ECM5	0.768389	-0.115339
EE1	0.560519	0.386585
EE2	0.688974	0.317136
EE3	0.829456	0.201955
EE4	0.753790	0.138133
EE5	0.787204	0.176726
PR2	-0.068638	0.725884
PR3	0.166813	0.683836
PR4	0.017113	0.789575
PR5	0.092940	0.702525
Expl.Var	5.902864	2.468178
Prp.Totl	0.421633	0.176298

According to Table 7.6, factor loadings greater than 0.4 were considered significant.

As a result of the discriminant validity assessment with the exploratory factor analysis, some items were deleted and new variables were formed; thus, the original theoretical model had to be adapted. This means that the reliability of the new and adapted variables

had to be reassessed. Table 7.7, below, indicates the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the latent variables based on the comprehensive exploratory factor analysis.

7.4.4 Cronbach's alpha values of latent variables based on the results of factor analysis: Theoretical model

The study retains JC, RC, JS, EC, OCB related to compassion (1), OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts (2), OCM, and PR, since their Cronbach's alphas were above the cut-off point, but deleted OC and EE as they did not load as separate factors, and were not considered for further analysis. Table 7.7, below, summarises the items which are regarded as measures of individual variables in the theoretical model, following the exploratory factor analyses. Table 7.7 indicates that all Cronbach reliability coefficients are above 0.70 which is regarded as acceptable for the purpose of this study. This indicates that all instruments have a reliability of 0.70 and above, which is regarded as good reliability and is sufficient for retaining the variable, according to Zikmund *et al.* (2010:306).

Table 7.7: Factor loadings: Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the latent variables based on the comprehensive exploratory factor analysis

Latent variable	Items	A
Job considerations (JC)	PV1, PV2, PV3, PV4, PV5, JA1, JA2, JA3, JA4, JA5, GC1, GC2, GC4, GC5, EC2, EC3, EC4	0.906
Role considerations (RCO)	RC1, RC2, RC3, RC4, RC5, RA1, RA2, RA3, RA4, RA5	0.869
Employment conditions (EC)	EC5, EC7, EC9, EC10, EC11, EC12, EC13, EC14, EC15	0.845
Job security (JS)	JS1, JS2, JS3, JS4, JS5	0.884
OCB related to compassion (OCB1)	SPORT1, SPORT2, SPORT3, ALT1, ALT2, ALT3	0.864
OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts (OCB2)	CONSC1, CONSC2, CONSC3, CV1, CV2, CV3	0.798

Organisational commitment (OCM)	ECM1, ECM2, ECM3, ECM4, ECM5 EE1, EE2, EE3, EE4, EE5	0.923
Propensity to resign (PR)	PR2, PR3, PR4, PR5	0.727

Table 7.8, below, shows the empirical factor structure of all items of the independent and dependent variables of the study subsequent to the reliability and discriminatory assessment. Four independent variables: Job Considerations (JC); Role Considerations (RCO); Job Security (JS); Employment Considerations (EC); two intervening variables: OCB related to compassion (1), OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts (2); and Organisational Commitment (OCM) and Propensity to Resign (PR) were considered significant to influence organisational citizenship behaviour in retail firms. Table 7.8, below, summarises these results by means of an empirical factor structure used for regression analysis.

Table 7.8 Empirical factor structure for regression analysis of the latent variables

Latent variable	Items
Job considerations (JC)	PV1, PV2, PV3, PV4, PV5, JA1, JA2, JA3, JA4, JA5, GC1, GC2, GC4, GC5, EC2, EC3, EC4
Role considerations (RCO)	RC1, RC2, RC3, RC4, RC5, RA1, RA2, RA3, RA4, RA5
Employment considerations (EC)	EC5, EC7, EC9, EC10, EC11, EC12, EC13, EC14, EC15
Job security (JS)	JS1, JS2, JS3, JS4, JS5
OCB related to compassion (OCB1)	SPORT1, SPORT2, SPORT3, ALT1, ALT2, ALT3
OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts (OCB2)	CONSC1, CONSC2, CONSC3, CV1, CV2, CV3
Organisational commitment (OCM)	ECM1, ECM2, ECM3, ECM4, ECM5 EE1, EE2, EE3, EE4, EE5
Propensity to resign (PR)	PR2, PR3, PR4, and PR5

The empirical factor structure, as summarised in Table 7.8 above, was therefore subjected to a multiple regression analysis using the programme STATISTICA (version 12).

Figure 7.2(a) and Figure 7.2(b), below, show the adapted model of employee perceptions regarding organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in retail firms.

Figure 7.2a: The adapted model of the relationships among variables based on perceptions regarding OCB related to compassion (OCB1)

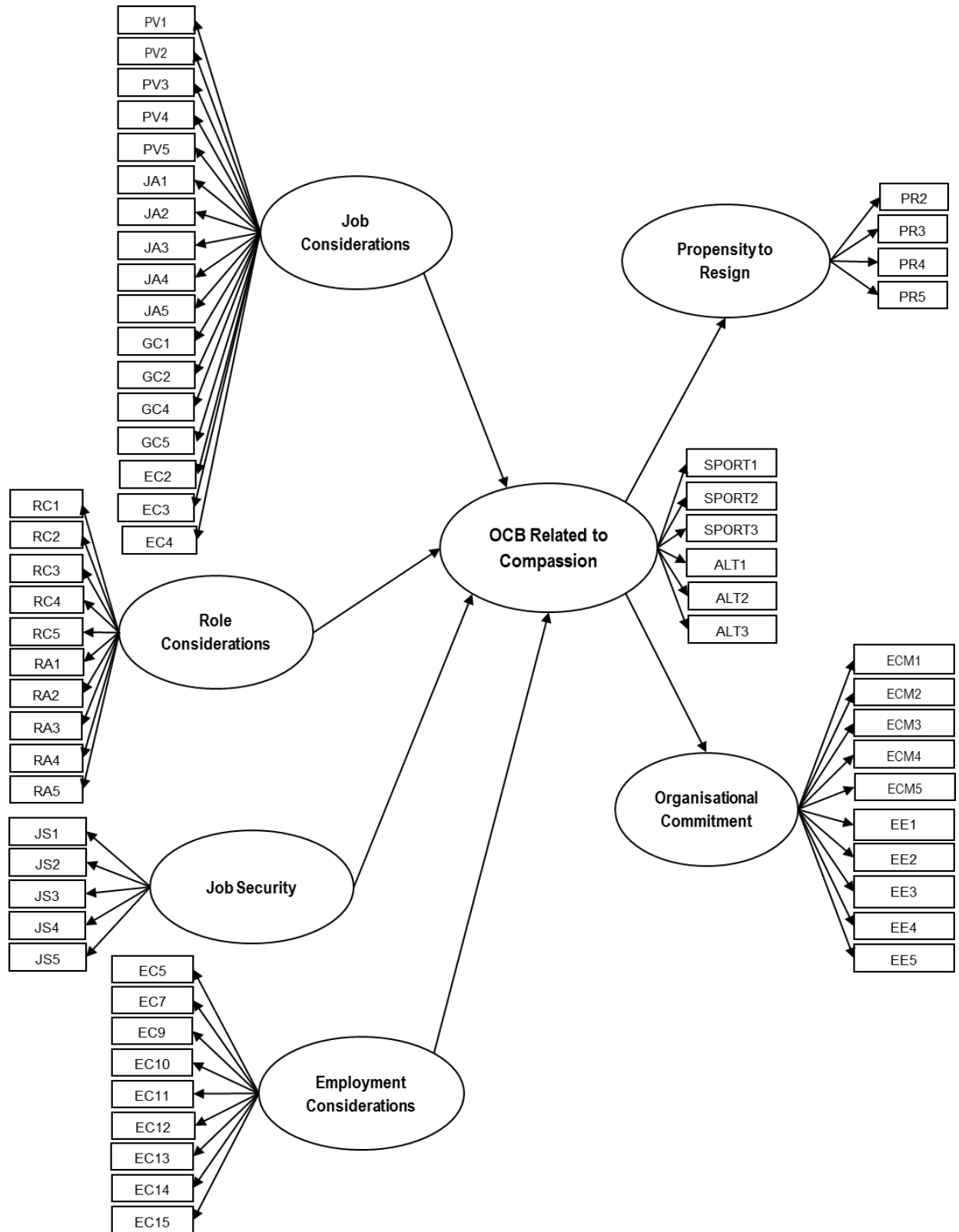
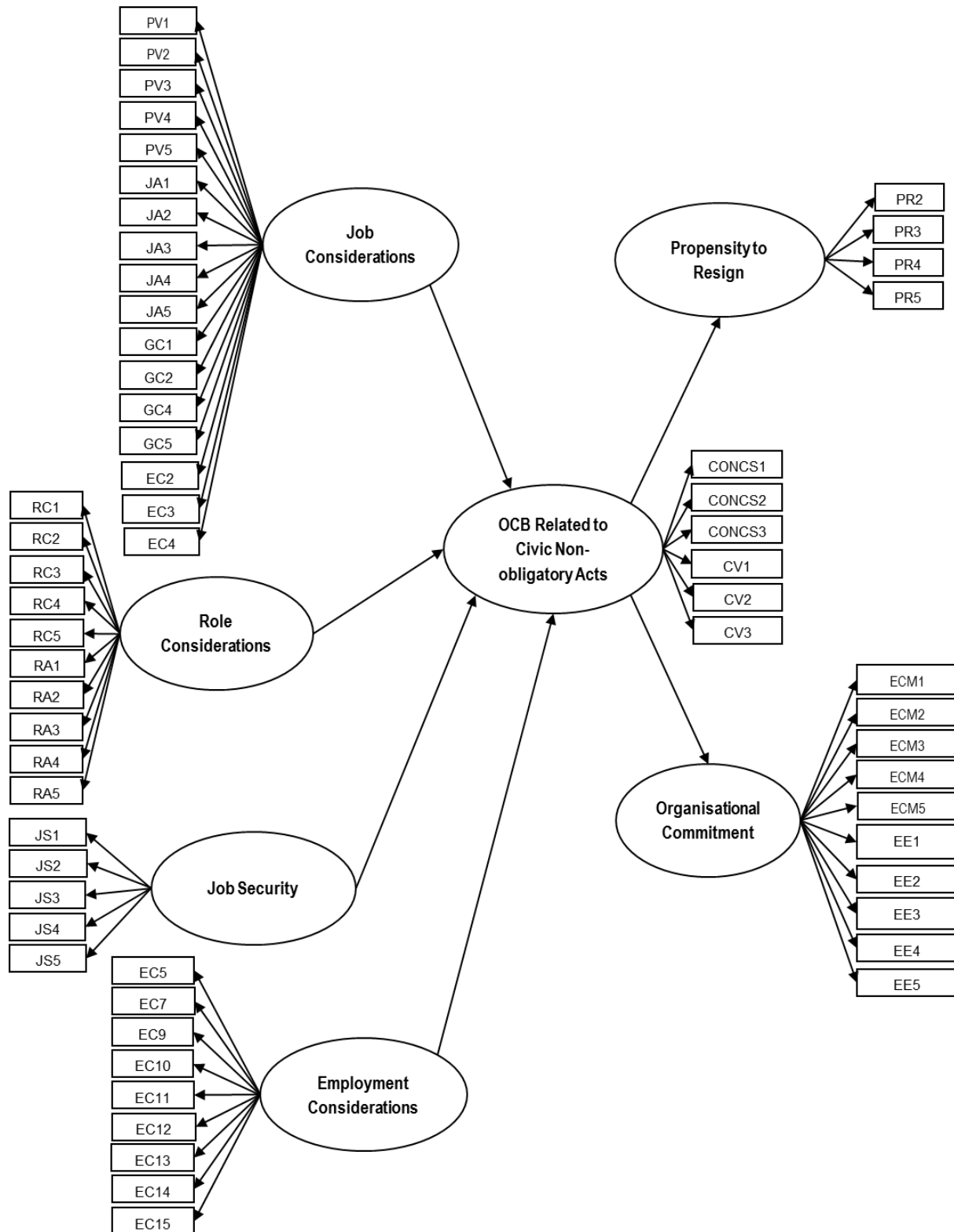


Figure 7.2b: The adapted model of the relationships among variables based on perceptions regarding OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts (OCB2)



7.4.5 Reformulation of hypotheses

As a result of the formulation of the adapted model, the original hypotheses had to be reformulated.

The hypotheses which were subjected to empirical verification (Figure 7.3a) were:

- H0¹: Job considerations, as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and decision-making, do not influence OCB.

HO¹ is modified into HO^{1.1}:

H0^{1.1}: Job considerations, as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and job clarity, do not influence OCB related to compassion.

- H0²: Role considerations, as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict, do not influence OCB.

HO² is modified into HO^{2.1}:

H0^{2.1}: Role considerations, as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict, do not influence OCB related to compassion.

- H0³: Organisational climate, as depicted by supervisor support and job security, do not influence OCB.

HO³ is modified into HO^{3.1}:

H0^{3.1}: Job security does not influence OCB related to compassion.

- H0⁴: Employment considerations do not influence OCB.

HO⁴ is modified into HO^{4.1}

H0^{4.1}: Employment considerations do not influence OCB related to compassion.

- H0⁶: OCB does not influence propensity to resign.

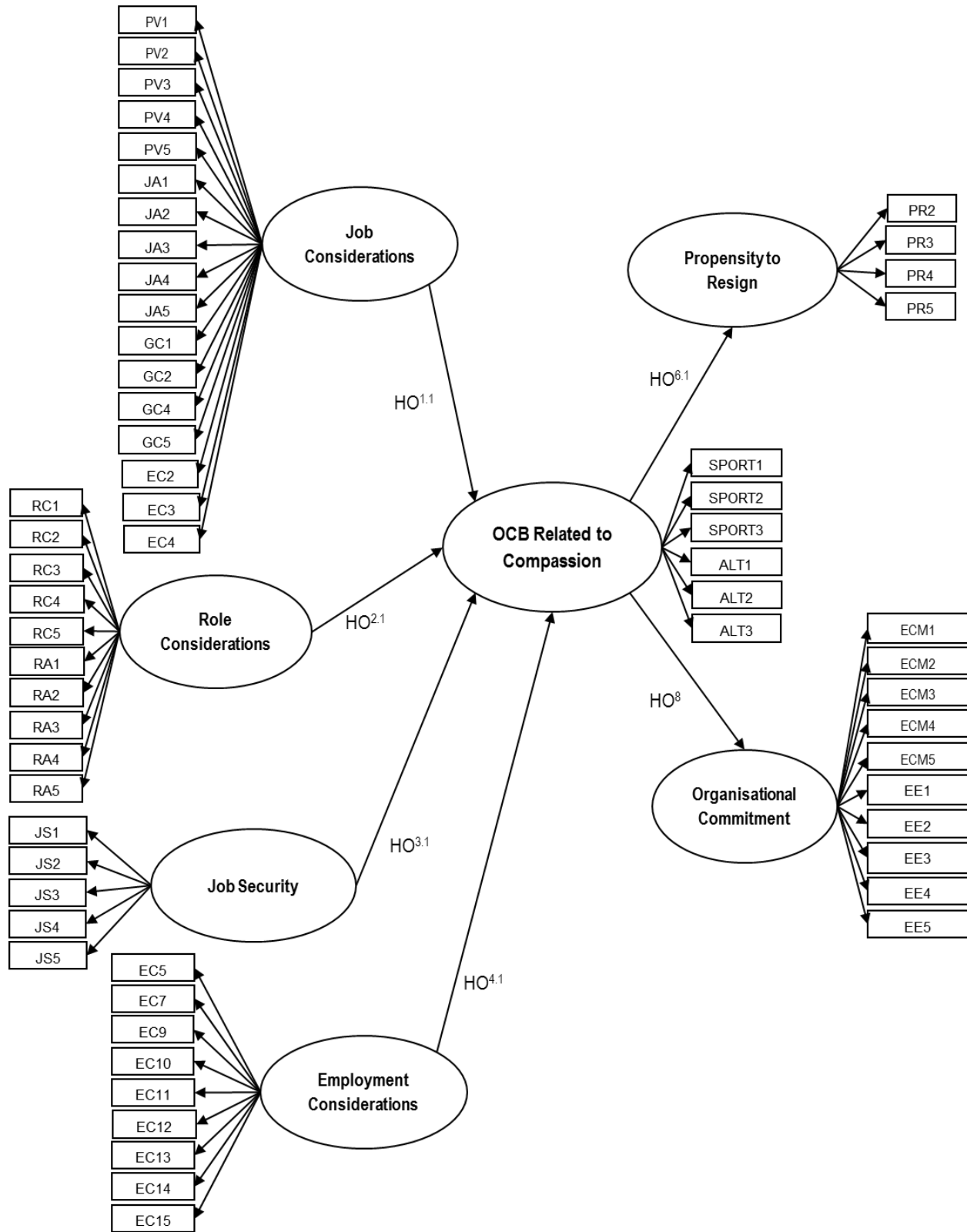
HO⁶ is modified into HO^{6.1}:

HO^{6.1}: OCB related to compassion does not influence propensity to resign.

HO⁵ and HO⁷ were modified into HO⁸

HO⁸: OCB related to compassion does not influence organisational commitment.

Figure 7.3a: The hypothesized model of perceptions regarding organisational citizenship behaviour related to compassion (OCB1)



The hypotheses which were subjected to empirical verification (Figure 7.3b) were:

- H0¹: Job considerations, as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and decision-making, do not influence OCB.

HO¹ is modified into HO⁹:

H0⁹: Job considerations, as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and job clarity, do not influence OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts.

- H0²: Role considerations, as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict, do not influence OCB.

HO² is modified into HO¹⁰:

H0¹⁰: Role considerations, as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict, do not influence OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts.

- H0³: Organisational climate, as depicted by supervisor support and job security, do not influence OCB.

HO³ is modified into HO¹¹:

H0¹¹: Job security does not influence OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts.

- H0⁴: Employment considerations do not influence OCB.

HO⁴ is modified into HO¹²:

H0¹²: Employment considerations do not influence OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts.

- H0⁶: OCB does not influence propensity to resign.

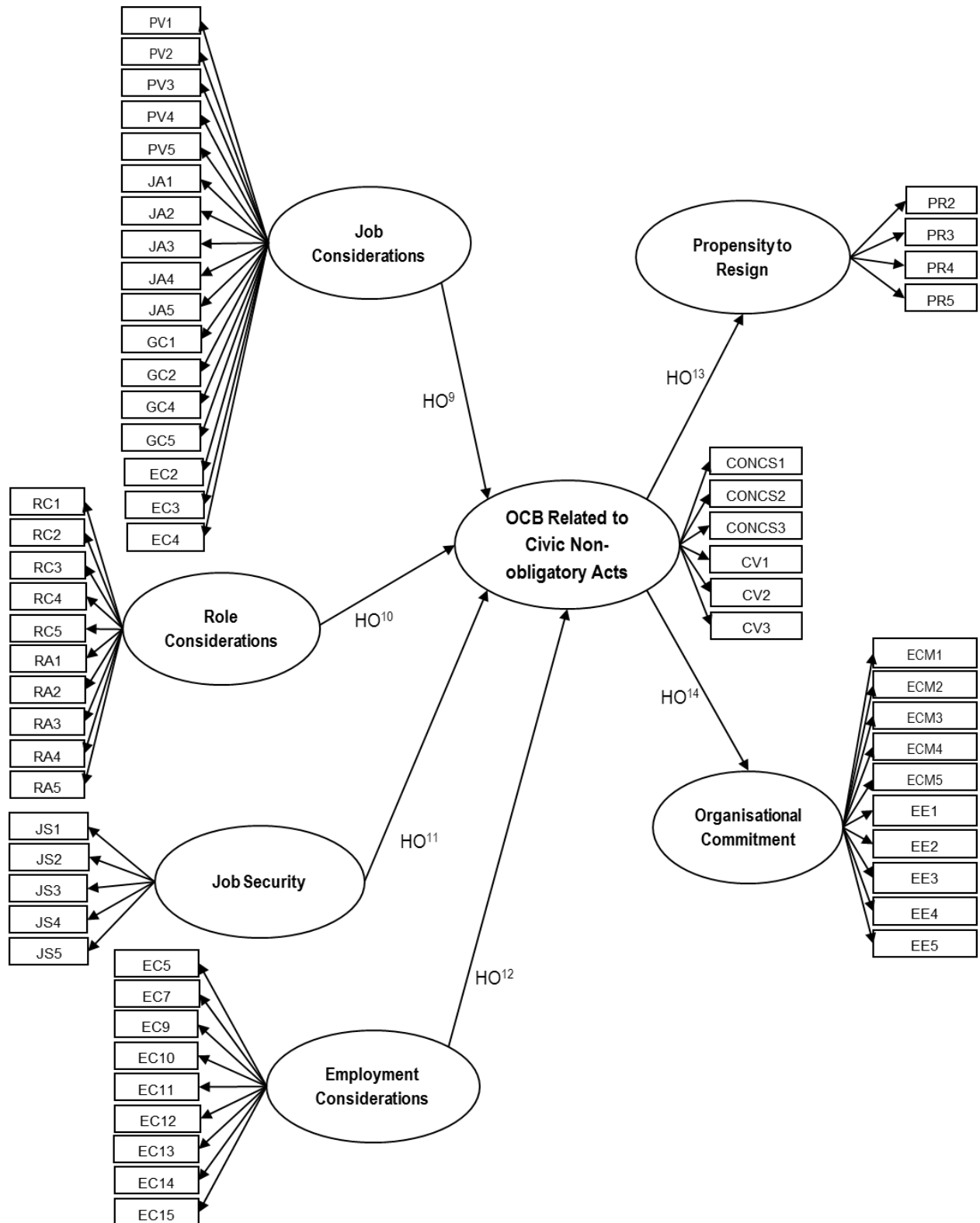
HO⁶ is modified into HO¹³:

H0¹³: OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts does not influence propensity to resign.

HO⁵ and HO⁷ were modified into HO¹⁴:

HO¹⁴: OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts does not influence organisational commitment.

Figure 7.3b: The hypothesized model of perceptions regarding organisational citizenship behaviour related to civic non-obligatory acts (OCB2)



7.5 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis is based on the relationship or association between two or more variables (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:109). It measures the linear association between a dependent variable and an independent variable. Furthermore, it attempts to predict the values of a continuous, interval-scaled dependent from specific values of the dependent variable (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:564).

There are two techniques of regression analysis that are often used in quantitative studies, namely, a simple linear regression and a multiple regression analysis. A simple regression analysis generates an equation in which a single independent variable yields a prediction for the dependent variable (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:282). According to Coldwell & Herbst (2004:109), the relationship between the variables can be direct or inverse.

In contrast, a multiple regression analysis is an extension of a simple regression analysis, which simultaneously investigates the effects of two or more independent variables on a single, interval-scaled dependent variable (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:584), in an effort to increase the accuracy of the estimate.

In this study, multiple regression analysis was used to investigate whether the identified independent variables influence employee perceptions regarding organisational citizenship behaviour in retail firms. The process of multiple regression analysis takes three steps: the description of the multiple regression equation; the determination of the multiple regression analysis standard error of estimate; and the use of multiple correlation analysis (discussed further in the next section) to determine how well the regression equation describes the observed data.

7.5.1 The influence of employees' perceptions of OCB related to compassion

7.5.1.1 The influence of job considerations, role considerations, job security and employment considerations on OCB related to compassion

Table 7.9, below, indicates that job considerations measured by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and job clarity ($b = 0.555$, $p < 0.001$) are positively related to OCB related to compassion. Table 7.9 further indicates that employment considerations ($b = 0.203$, $p < 0.001$) is positively related to OCB related to compassion. The R^2 of 0.297 explains the 30% of variability in the model explained by the moderating variable (OCB related to compassion) as shown in Table 7.9, below. Table 7.9 further indicates that role considerations measured by role conflict and role ambiguity ($r = -0.055$, NS) and job security ($r = -0.018$, NS) do not exert significant influence on 'OCB related to compassion'.

Table 7.9: Regression analysis: The influence of job considerations, role considerations, job security and employment considerations on OCB related to compassion

REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR – COMPASSION						
Parameter	Beta b*	Std. Error	B	Std Error	T value	P-value
JC	0.424	0.049	0.555	0.064	8.734	0.001***
RCO	-0.055	0.036	-0.059	0.039	-1.528	0.1271
JS	-0.018	0.044	-0.015	0.038	-0.411	0.6809
EC	0.188	0.046	0.203	0.050	4.088	0.001***
R	R²	F	Std Error of estimate P			
54%	0.29677817	57.923	1.0779	p< .00000		
* = p < 0.05						

** = $p < 0.01$

*** = $p < 0.001$

Job Considerations (JC)

Role Considerations (RCO)

Job Security (JS)

Employment Considerations (EC)

In total, the R^2 of 0.296 explains the 30% of variability in the model explained by the moderating variable [organisational citizenship behaviour related to compassion] as shown in Table 7.9.

7.5.1.2 The influence of job considerations, role considerations, job security and employment considerations on OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts

Table 7.10, below, indicates that role considerations measured by role conflict and role ambiguity ($b = 0.206$, $p < 0.001$) are positively related to OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. Table 7.10 further indicates that employment considerations ($b = 0.421$, $p < 0.001$) is positively related to OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. Although Table 7.10 indicates that job security ($b = 0.080$, $p < 0.05$) has a relationship with OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts, it is not sufficiently significant. This means that employees need to be constantly assured and supported by management regarding their job retention status. The R^2 of 0.216 explains the 22% of variability in the model explained by the moderating variable (OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts), as shown in Table 7.10. According to Table 7.10, job considerations measured by personal value, job

autonomy, group cohesion and job clarity ($r = -0.025$, NS) do not exert significant influence on 'OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts'.

Table 7.10: Regression analysis: The influence of job considerations, role considerations, job security and employment considerations on OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts

REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR – CIVIC NON- OBLIGATORY ACTS						
Parameter	Beta b*	Std. Error	B	Std Error	T value	P-value
JC	-0.025	0.051	-0.034	0.070	-0.491	0.6237
RCO	0.185	0.038	0.206	0.042	4.863	0.001***
JS	0.090	0.046	0.080	0.041	1.939	0.0530*
EC	0.376	0.049	0.421	0.054	7.737	0.001***
R	R²	F	Std Error of estimate P			
47%	0.21644062	37.912	1.1819	p< .00000		
* = p < 0.05						
** = p < 0.01						
*** = p < 0.001						
Job Considerations (JC)						
Role Considerations (RCO)						
Job Security (JS)						

7.5.2 The influence of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) on outcomes

7.5.2.1 The influence of OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts on organisational commitment

Table 7.11, below, shows that the R^2 of 0.470 indicates that 47% of the variability in the model is explained by the variables grouped as 'organisational commitment'. This indicates that OCB related to compassion ($b = 0.671$, $p < 0.001$) and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts ($b = 0.085$, $p < 0.01$) have a positive relationship with organisational commitment. Furthermore, this means that sportsmanship, altruism, civic virtue and conscientiousness, as measures of OCB, promote and increase in organisational commitment amongst employees.

Table 7.11: Regression analysis: The influence of OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts on organisational commitment

	REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT					
Parameter	Beta b*	Std. Error	B	Std Error	T value	P-value
OCB(compassion)	0.658	0.032	0.671	0.033	20.456	0.001***
OCB(civic non-obligatory acts)	0.086	0.032	0.085	0.032	2.674	0.01**
R	R²	F	Std Error of estimate P			
69%	0.47002388	244.33	0.95333 p<0 .00000			

* = $p < 0.05$

** = $p < 0.01$

*** = $p < 0.001$

7.5.2.2 The influence of OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts on propensity to resign

Table 7.12, below, indicates that OCB related to compassion ($b = 0.215$ $p < 0.001$) has a positive relationship with propensity to resign, it also shows that the R^2 of 0.472, which indicates 47% of variability in the model, is explained by propensity to resign. This implies that sportsmanship and altruism among the employees have been a driving force behind the increased OCB related to compassion. Table 7.12 further indicates that OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts ($r = -0.020$, NS) does not exert significant influence on 'propensity to resign'.

Table 7.12: Regression analysis: The influence of OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts on propensity to resign

	REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE: PROPENSITY TO RESIGN					
Parameter	Beta b*	Std. Error	B	Std Error	T value	P-value
OCB(compassion)	0.211	0.043	0.215	0.044	4.904	0.001***
OCB(civic non-obligatory acts)	0.020	0.043	0.019	0.042	0.453	0.6505
R	R²	F	Std Error of estimate P			

22%	0.4727831	13.672	1.2749	p<0 .00000
* = p < 0.05				
** = p < 0.01				
*** = p < 0.001				

The t-values reported in Table 7.9 to Table 7.12 indicate that the higher the t-values, the stronger the impact of the intervening variables on dependent variables. OCB related to compassion has a strong impact on organisational commitment, with the highest t-value (t = 20.456), as indicated in Table 7.11, followed by the strong impact of job considerations measured by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and job clarity with a t-value (t = 8.734) followed by a moderate impact of employment considerations with a t-value (t = 4.088) on OCB related to compassion, as shown in Table 7.9. Moreover, Table 7.10 reveals that employment considerations have a strong impact with a t-value (t = 7.737) followed by a moderate impact of role considerations measured by role conflict and role ambiguity with a t-value (t = 4.863) on OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts.

Table 7.12 indicates that OCB related to compassion has a moderate impact on propensity to resign, with a t-value (t = 4.904), whilst Table 7.11 shows that OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts has a weak impact on organisational commitment with a t-value (t = 2.674) and on job security with a t-value (t = 1.939).

7.6 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlation is the statistical process used to determine whether two or more variables are in some way related to one another (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:273). According to Kumar (2011:10), the primary aim of correlation analysis is to establish whether a relationship, association, or interdependence between two or more aspects of a situation exists. The correlations are often referred to as positive or negative correlations (Du Plooy-Cilliers, *et*

al. 2014:76). A correlation is positive when there is a strong relationship or association between two variables, and it is negative when there is little or no relationship or association between the two variables.

Consequently, the resultant statistic, known as the correlation coefficient, is a number between -1, which indicates a perfect negative or inverse relationship, and +1, which indicates that the two sets of variables are perfectly positively correlated (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:107). There are two correlation coefficient indices that are commonly used: the Pearson product-moment coefficient, sometimes called the Pearson r , which is used for interval or ratio data; and the Spearman rank-order correlation, which is appropriate when data is ranked. In this study, the Pearson product-moment coefficient was used.

The correlation coefficient of two variables simultaneously indicates two different things about the relationship between the variables, namely, the direction and the strength. The direction of the relationship is denoted by the sign of the correlation coefficient, that is, whether the number is positive (+1) or negative (-1) (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:273). A positive number indicates a positive correlation in a positive direction, which means that when the independent variable increases, the dependent variable also increases (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:214). Inversely, a negative number indicates a negative correlation in a negative direction, which means that if the independent variable is increased, the dependent variable will decrease (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:559).

The strength of a relationship is indicated by the size of the correlation coefficient. In other words, the relative strength of the relationship is indicated by the absolute value of the correlation coefficient (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:107). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:273), a correlation of +1 or -1 indicates a perfect correlation. A correlation, for example, that is 0.6 is more strongly correlated than a 0.2 correlation coefficient, which is moderately correlated. Table 7.13, below, indicates correlations between the variables of this study.

Table 7.13: Correlation matrix of variables of the study

Variable	JC	RCO	JS	EC	OCB (1)	OCB(2)	OCM	PR
JC	1.000	0.116	0.548	0.606	0.522	0.273	0.622	0.090
RCO	0.116	1.000	0.072	0.091	0.010	0.223	-0.061	0.341
JS	0.548	0.072	1.000	0.474	0.300	0.267	0.382	-0.045
EC	0.606	0.091	0.474	1.000	0.432	0.520	0.524	0.068
OCB(1)	0.522	0.010	0.300	0.432	1.000	0.264	0.681	0.217
OCB (2)	0.273	0.223	0.267	0.420	0.264	1.000	0.260	0.075
OCM	0.622	-0.061	0.382	0.524	0.681	0.260	1.000	0.196
PR	0.090	0.341	-0.045	0.068	0.217	0.075	0.196	1.000

Job Considerations (JC)

Role Considerations (RCO)

Job Security (JS)

Employment Considerations (EC)

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour related to compassion (OCB1)

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour related to civic non-obligatory acts (OCB2)

Organisational Commitment (OCM)

Propensity to resign (PR)

Table 7.13, above, indicates that there is a positive correlation between job considerations and OCB related to compassion with a coefficient of 0.522. This implies that when employees' personal values are similar to those of their organisations, and when they are provided with clarity regarding their jobs, awarded an opportunity allowed and trusted to perform their jobs without supervision, as well as encouraged to participate in group cohesion, their spirit of OCB related to compassion is significantly promoted. Although there is a positive relationship between job considerations and OCB related to

civic non-obligatory acts, with a coefficient of 0.273, this relationship is not sufficiently significant. Even though role considerations have a positive correlation with OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts, with a coefficient of 0.223, this relationship is moderate. This indicates that management needs to provide clarity with regard to their jobs in order to avoid conflicts and role ambiguity. Furthermore, Table 7.13 shows that job security does not have a strong relationship with both OCB related to compassion with a coefficient of 0.300 and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts with a coefficient of 0.267.

Table 7.13 shows that employment considerations is positively correlated to OCB related to compassion, with a coefficient of 0.432, and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts, with a coefficient of 0.520. This means that when management communicates and provides individual employment conditions regarding, for example, leave benefits, compensation, working hours and the others, OCB is highly promoted.

Table 7.13 indicates that OCB related to compassion is highly correlated to organisational commitment, with a coefficient of 0.681. Furthermore, OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts has a positive relationship with organisational commitment, with a coefficient of 0.260. Table 7.13 also indicates that propensity to resign is only correlated to OCB related to compassion with a coefficient of 0.217. This means that improved organisational effectiveness could lead to committed employees who would rather work for the organisation than other organisations.

7.7 FINDINGS ON HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIPS

7.7.1 Findings on the first set of hypotheses

HO^{1.1}: Job considerations, as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and job clarity, do not influence OCB related to compassion

Table 7.9 reports a statistically significantly positive relationship between job considerations (as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and job clarity) and OCB related to compassion ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant

positive correlation between job considerations and OCB related to compassion with $r = 0.424$ and a t value $= 8.734$. Therefore, $HO^{1.1}$ is rejected and the alternative is accepted.

HO^{2.1}: Role considerations, as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict, do not influence OCB related to compassion

Table 7.9 indicates that role considerations (as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict) is not significantly related to OCB related to compassion ($r = -0.055$, NS). This means that there is no significant correlation between role considerations and OCB related to compassion. Therefore, $HO^{2.1}$ is accepted.

HO^{3.1}: Job security does not influence OCB related to compassion

Table 7.9 indicates that job security is not significantly related to OCB related to compassion ($r = -0.018$, NS). This means that there is no significant correlation between job security and OCB related to compassion. Therefore, $HO^{3.1}$ is accepted.

HO^{4.1}: Employment considerations do not influence OCB related to compassion

Table 7.9 reveals a statistically significant positive relationship between employment considerations and OCB related to compassion ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between employment considerations and OCB related to compassion ($r = 0.188$ and $t = 4.088$). Therefore, $HO^{4.1}$ is rejected and the alternative is accepted.

HO^{6.1}: OCB related to compassion does not influence propensity to resign.

Table 7.12 reports a statistically significant positive relationship between the OCB related to compassion and propensity to resign ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between OCB related to compassion and propensity to resign $r = 0.211$ and a high t value $= 4.904$. Therefore, $HO^{6.1}$ is rejected and the alternative is accepted.

HO⁸: OCB related to compassion does not influence organisational commitment.

Table 7.11 reports a statistically significant positive relationship between OCB related to compassion and organisational commitment ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between OCB related to compassion and organisational commitment $r = 0.658$ and a high t value = 20.456. Therefore, HO^8 is rejected and the alternative is accepted.

7.7.2 Findings on the second set of hypotheses

The hypotheses which were subjected to empirical verification (Figure 7.3b) were:

HO⁹: Job considerations, as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and job clarity, do not influence OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts

Tables 7.10 indicates that job considerations (as depicted by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and job clarity) is not significantly related to OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts ($r = -0.025$, NS). This means that there is no significant correlation between the job considerations and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. Therefore, HO^9 is accepted.

HO¹⁰: Role considerations, as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict, do not influence OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts

Table 7.10 reports a statistically significantly positive relationship between role considerations (as depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict) and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between role considerations and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts, with $r = 0.185$ and a t value = 4.863. Therefore, HO^{10} is rejected and the alternative is accepted.

HO¹¹: Job security does not influence OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts

Table 7.10 reports a statistically positive relationship between job security and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts ($p < 0.05$). This means that there is a positive

correlation between job security and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts, with $r = 0.090$ and a t value $=1.939$. Therefore, H_0^{11} is rejected and the alternative is accepted.

H₀¹²: Employment considerations do not influence OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts

Table 7.10 reports a significant statistically positive relationship between employment considerations and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between employment considerations and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts, with $r = 0.376$ and a t value $=7.737$. Therefore, H_0^{12} is rejected and the alternative is accepted.

H₀¹³: OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts do not influence propensity to resign.

Table 7.12 indicates that OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts and propensity to resign is not significantly related to propensity to resign ($r = 0.020$, NS). This means that there is no significant correlation between OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts and propensity to resign. Therefore, H_0^{13} is accepted.

H₀¹⁴: OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts do not influence organisational commitment.

Table 7.11 reports a significant statistically positive relationship between OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts and organisational commitment ($p < 0.01$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts and organisational commitment, with $r = 0.086$ and a t value $=2.674$. Therefore, H_0^{14} is rejected and the alternative is accepted.

Figure 7.4a: Summary of the regression analysis results of OCB related to compassion

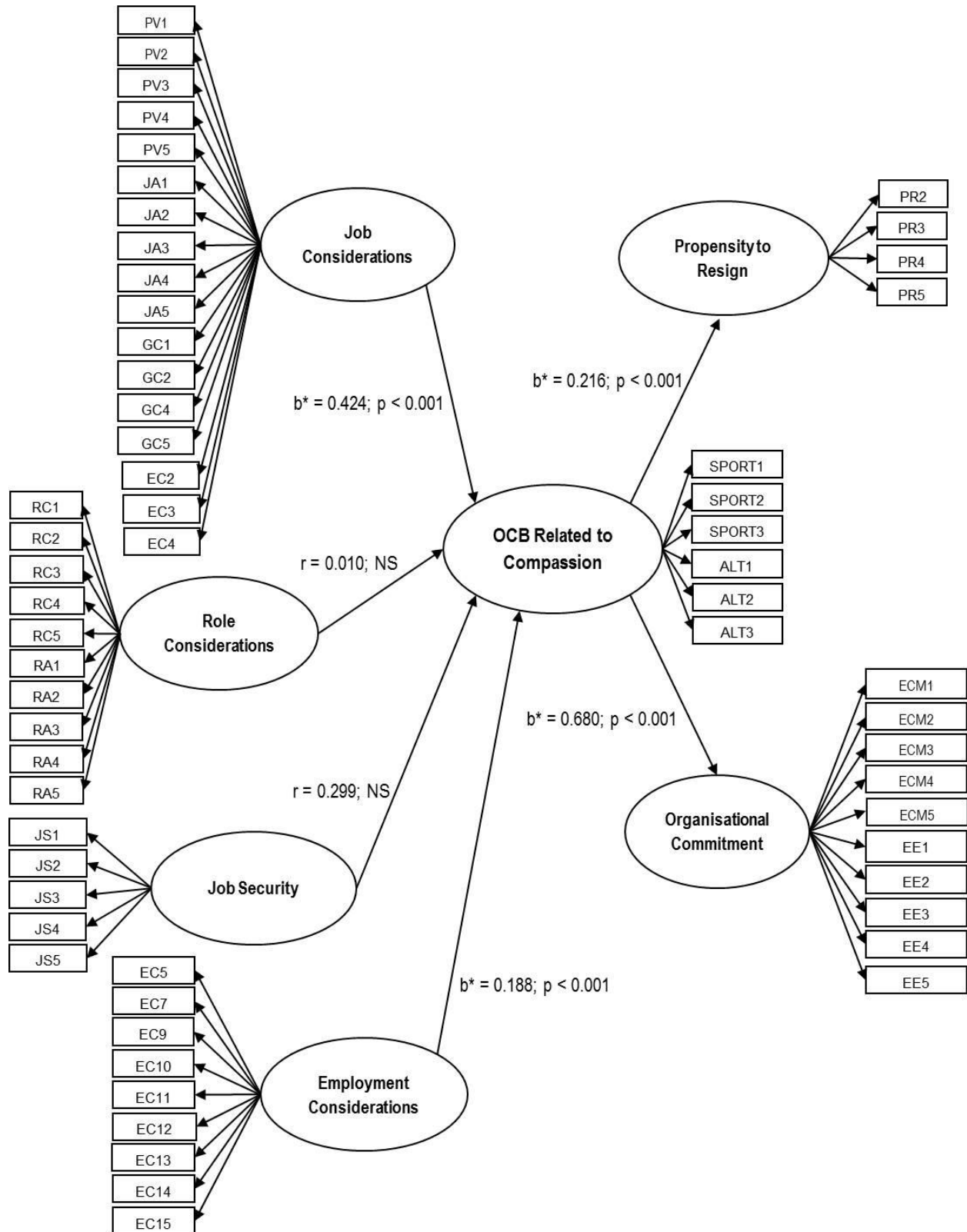
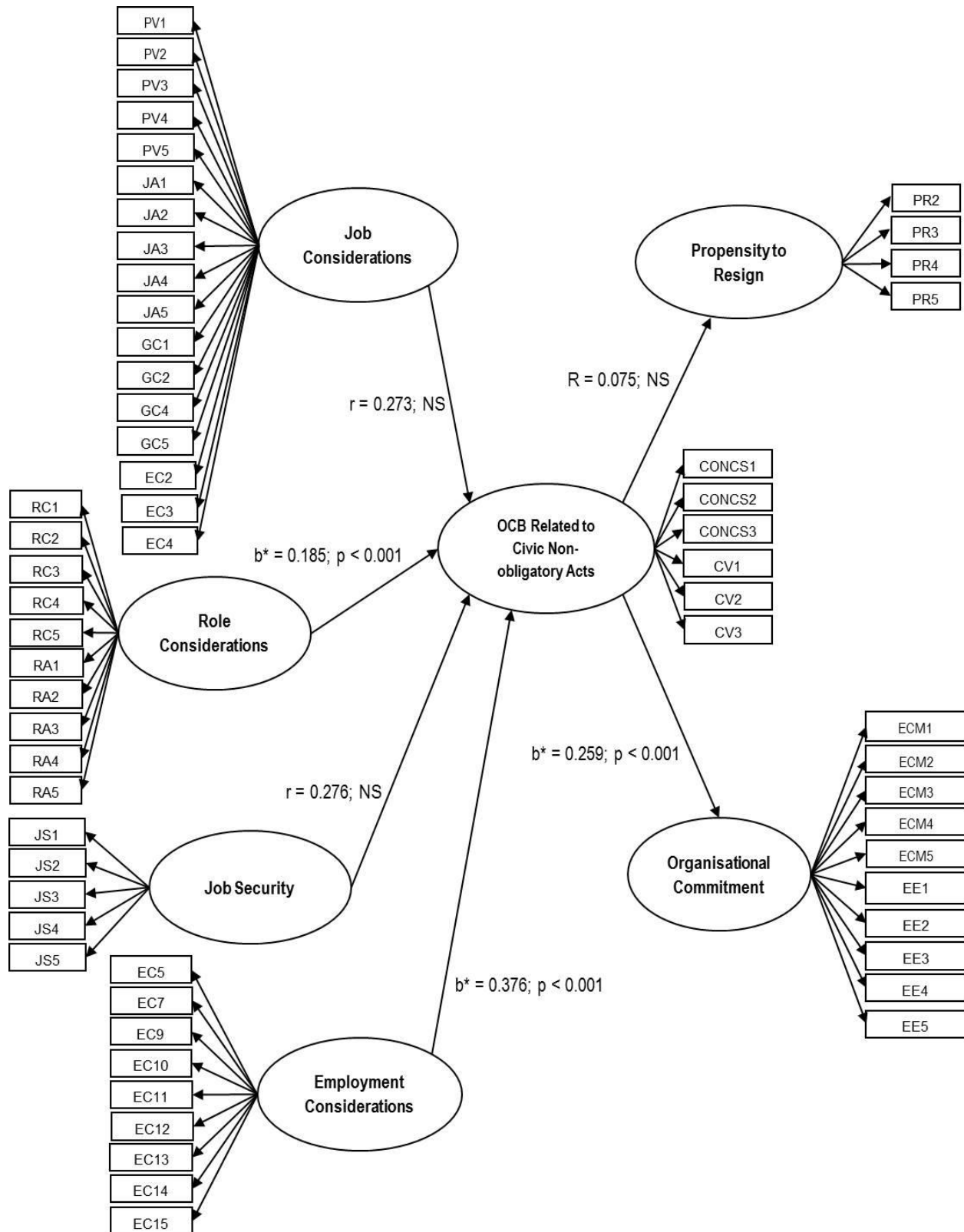


Figure 7.4b: Summary of the regression analysis results of OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts



7.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented and analyzed the empirical results of the perceptions of employees regarding OCB in retail firms. The data was presented and analyzed through five phases. In the first phase, descriptive analysis was discussed and conducted using the mean and standard deviation. The reliability of the measuring instrument was tested in the second phase, and Cronbach's alpha values of each instrument were calculated to confirm the reliability of the measuring instrument, and to evaluate the internal consistency between the items measuring each construct in the theoretical model, using STATISTICA (version 12).

The third phase involved testing the validity of the measuring instrument in order to gauge the extent to which the measure captures what it is supposed to capture. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to test the validity of the measuring instrument. Three sets of EFA were carried out and latent variables were determined. The fourth phase of data analysis involved the regression analysis, where an estimating equation was developed that related a known variable to an unknown variable. Multiple regression analysis was used to provide information about the relationship between two variables, in order to estimate or predict the behaviour of one variable from the other. The correlation analysis was presented using Pearson r and the resultant hypothetical models were presented. In the fifth and last phase of the data analysis, the hypothesized relationships were assessed and the resultant hypothetical models were presented.

The empirical results reveal that job considerations and employment considerations have a positive influence on both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts, while role considerations and job security were found to have no significant influence on both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. Furthermore, the empirical results show that OCB related to compassion have a positive influence on both organisational commitment and propensity to resign, while OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts have a positive influence on organisational commitment and no significant influence on propensity to resign. The next chapter

provides the interpretation of the empirical findings of this chapter, the managerial implications of the study, as well as the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This study aimed to investigate the perceptions of employees regarding organisational citizenship behaviour in retail firms and to recommend, to retailers, strategies to encourage employees to engage in these behaviours. Literature on the subject shows that organisational citizenship behaviour is necessary for the effective functioning of the organisation. This chapter summarises all the previous chapters, discusses the findings of the empirical results, and provides conclusions and recommendations based on these findings. It also provides an outline of the managerial implications and limitations of the study, while suggesting potential areas for further research.

8.2 SUMMARY OF OBJECTIVES AND FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Chapter One presented the background of the study, the problem statement, the research objectives and a brief overview of the literature review and research methodology applied in this study. The hypotheses, limitations of the study and how the study was organised were also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter Two started with a discussion on the business environment, the key industries in South Africa, and reasons for focusing on the retail industry. The nature and importance of retailing and its characteristics was deliberated upon in this chapter. It then followed with the classification of retail institutions; the theories of structural change to various retail institutions; factors influencing this change; and how retailers respond to these changes. The social and economic significance of retailing was then discussed; this was followed by the South African retail environment, its regulatory bodies, and the role it plays in the South African Economy. Trends, challenges and future prospects of retail in South Africa are then discussed, followed by a comparison of the South African retail landscape with BRIC (Brazil, Russia, India and China). The chapter ended with a discussion on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and the legal, ethical and social responsibility issues in retailing.

Retailing is a major part of economies and commerce worldwide. Retail sales and employment are vital economic contributors, and retail trends often mirror trends in a nation's overall economy. It encompasses all of the business and people involved in physically moving and transferring ownership of goods and services from producer to consumer. In comparing the South African retail landscape with other emerging economies (BRICs), all five nations have reported a boom in online sales and an increase in sales over the years. Coterminous with this boom, there has been an expansion in the number of shopping centres as a result of technologically advanced and sophisticated customers. However, brick-and-mortar stores still prove to be important to consumers for the ultimate shopping experience.

Chapter Three provided a theoretical perspective of OCB. The chapter included a discussion on the nature of OCB in terms of its definitions, dimensions, antecedents, and the benefits and challenges of OCB, as well as OCB in various settings. The chapter concluded with a discussion on the importance of OCB in the retail industry.

The success of an organisation is influenced by employees who, besides performing their jobs, voluntarily contribute their time and energy, by providing assistance (Rahman, *et al.* 2013:85), to achieve organisational effectiveness. When employees, for example, show discretionary kindness (high level of helpfulness) towards a customer, such behaviour can lure the customer to the organisation, resulting in greater customer loyalty (Organ, *et al.* 2006).

The literature on OCB shows that OCB is necessary for the effective running of a retail firm. The literature further indicates that, when employees perceive that they are treated fairly and receive compassion from the organisation or supervisor, they are more likely to act selflessly and engage in citizenship behaviours as a means of reciprocity (Peng, *et al.* 2010:289).

Chapter Four presented the employment conditions in retail firms. The South African labour market, in terms of its composition, employment contracts, labour law, business industries, sectors and their economic contribution to the country, and educational levels of the labour force, was discussed. Furthermore, the chapter focused on the employment

conditions in the country's retail firms, focusing on gender, wages, working hours, educational levels, and legislation. The relationship between OCB and employment conditions were also discussed, in terms of employment contracts, working hours, and remuneration.

Previous studies showed that the wholesale and retail industry is one of the biggest employers of people in South Africa, with over 22.8% of the labour force (Lehohla, 2013:12), and contributes 13.3% towards the country's GDP. The literature further shows that, in the wholesale and retail sector, 63,6% of job opportunities are on permanent contract, followed by temporary and casual jobs with 22,5% and 13,9%, respectively.

Chapter Five presented a hypothetical model representing the various relationships or factors influencing OCB in retail firms and the perceived outcomes of engaging in OCB. Four independent variables, namely, job considerations, role considerations, organisational climate and employment conditions, were perceived to influence OCB (the intervening variable) which, in turn, was perceived to lead to three dependent variables: employee commitment, propensity to resign, and employee engagement. The hypotheses were developed and discussed in depth.

Chapter Six presented the research methodologies adopted in this study. The chapter began by defining the research questions, followed by a discussion on the research design and methodology, population studied and the sampling technique adopted in this study. A discussion on the data collection method, measuring instrument design, and data analysis was also offered in this chapter. The chapter concluded with a discussion on the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument.

Structured questionnaires were selected as the data collection tools. In order to increase the reliability and validity of the measurement instrument, a pilot study was conducted before the finalization of the measurement instrument and necessary amendments were effected. Data analysis was conducted using Statistica (version 12) and other quantitative techniques, such as descriptive analysis (using mean scores, standard deviation and correlations). Finally, hypotheses which were subjected to empirical verification and the resulting adapted hypothetical models were presented.

The next section presents a summary of the hypothesized model.

8.3 A SUMMARY OF THE HYPOTHESIZED MODEL

A summary of the hypothesized model is presented in Figure 8.1, below.

Figure 8.1: The hypothetical model of the perceptions of employees regarding OCB in retail firms

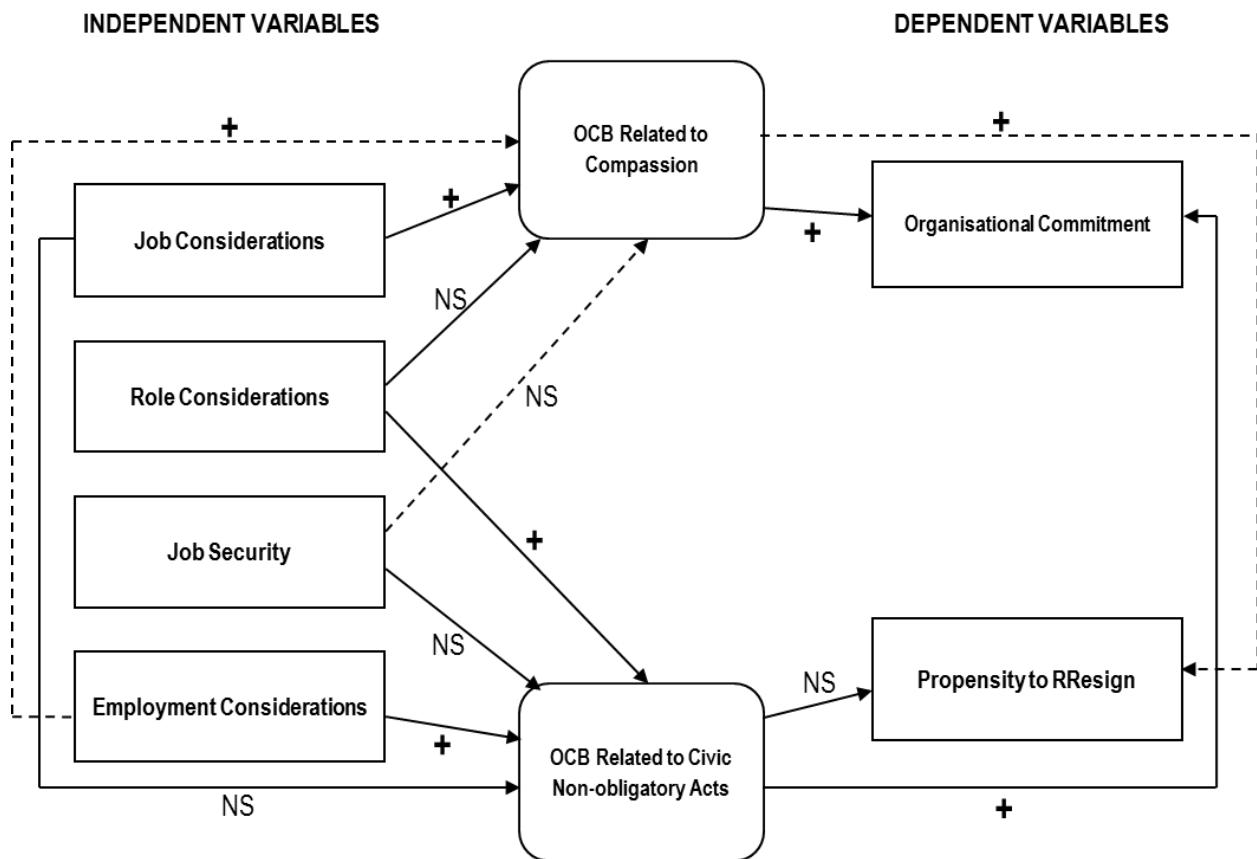


Figure 8.1, above, shows the hypothetical model of the perceptions of employees regarding OCB in retail firms.

8.4 RESPONSE TO THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the purpose and objectives of the study, a summary of answers gathered for the research questions of this study are outlined in Table 8.1, below.

Table 8.1 Conclusions based on research questions of the study

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	ATTEMPTS MADE/RESOLUTIONS
<p>RQ1 What is the impact of <i>job considerations</i> regarding personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion, and decision-making, on OCB?</p>	<p>The results of this study reveal that respondents perceived their personal values to be aligned to that of their organisations; as a result, they are allowed to express their personal values in the work place. This perception encourages them to do more than is expected of them. Rocca (2005) concurs with this view and confirms that personal values strongly influence OCBs.</p> <p>Furthermore, respondents perceived that their organisations are giving them enough freedom to complete their tasks and make decisions related to their jobs. This autonomous atmosphere motivates them to engage in OCBs. Thus, without these practices, employees will not go beyond the call of duty. This view is supported by Cirka (2005) who shows that employees who perceive that their leader stimulates them to perform autonomously, feel psychologically empowered and, subsequently, show stronger OCB.</p> <p>In addition, respondents indicated that they feel that they are part of the team and there is synergy that yields fruitful results in their groups, thus, members engage in OCBs. Kidwell, <i>et al.</i> (1997) support this view and confirm that members in cohesive groups are more willing to contribute positive behaviours, such as OCB, because they possess high quality exchange relationships with each other.</p> <p>Furthermore, respondents perceived that their organisations do not give them an opportunity to participate in the organisational decision-making process. Calderon, <i>et al.</i> (2012) suggest that participation in decision-making has a positive influence on altruistic behaviours. When employees feel excluded in decision-making, they do not go an extra-mile for both</p>

	<p>the organisation and other employees. Thus, in order to alleviate the negative consequences of OCB, employees should be allowed to actively participate in decision-making. Lambert, Hogan, Paoline and Clarke (2005) confirm that lack of participation in decision-making leads to job stress and negatively impacts organisational effectiveness.</p>
<p>RQ2 What is the impact of <i>role considerations</i> regarding role conflict and role ambiguity, on OCB?</p>	<p>The respondents perceived role conflict and role ambiguity to be unrelated to OCB related to compassion (sportsmanship and altruism), but they do consider it to have a positive impact on OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts (conscientiousness and civic virtue). This means that when roles are not clear and there is conflict in their roles, employees are not inspired to reschedule their day to accommodate others for the betterment of the organisation. However, when roles are clear and there is no conflict, employees are willing to take more responsibilities and participate in organisational social activities.</p> <p>Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2012:140) argue that employees may encounter significant role ambiguity as they struggle to distinguish OCBs from their in-role behaviours and employees can experience role conflict when OCB is included in performance appraisals or promotion decisions. According to Lambert, Hogan, and Griffin (2008:63), most job stress experienced by correctional employees is attributable to work stressors, such as role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, amongst others. If the organisation is seen as causing tension and strain for the individual, it is doubtful that this individual will put forth extra effort to engage in OCB. Thus, organisations need to ensure that they clearly define employees' roles in order to minimize the impact of role conflict and role ambiguity on organisational effectiveness.</p>
<p>RQ3 What is the impact of <i>organisational climate</i> on OCB?</p>	<p>According to the empirical results, job security was perceived as the only variable of the organisational climate that has an impact on OCB. However, the results show that job security does not exert a significant influence on both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. This means that employees will engage in OCBs whether they perceive their jobs to be secure or not.</p>

	<p>This is in contradiction to LePine, <i>et al.</i>'s (2005) study which argues that job insecurity has a negative effect on behavioural outcomes; they consider job insecurity to be a hindrance stressor that induces undesirable strain reactions. However, Nehmeh (2009) suggests that employees need to be reassured that their jobs are secure; otherwise they will not exert as much effort in achieving organisational objectives.</p> <p>Surprisingly, supervisory support is negatively related to OCBs. These results are consistent with previous research findings (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005:156) that reasoned that the negative relationship could be due to the fact that a young, less educated and inexperienced workforce characterizes the sample. Young inexperienced workers may focus all their efforts on in-role behaviours in response to close supervision and support. This could lead to supervisors' efforts to support and guide this workforce construed as strict orders that leave no room for extra-role behaviours. Personal relationships, particularly between subordinates with immediate supervisors, may play a larger role in motivating organisational citizenship behaviour and performance (Miao, 2011:106).</p>
<p>RQ4 What is the impact of employment considerations on OCB?</p>	<p>The empirical study revealed that employment considerations are positively related to both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. In other words, employees' employment contracts are likely to encourage employees to perform more OCB to enhance their image as valued employees and increase their chances of movement within the organisation. Likewise, if employees perceive equity in the organisation's reward system, they will engage in OCBs, thereby enhancing organisational effectiveness and yield positive business results.</p> <p>In contrast, Van Emmerik (2004:79) argues that working more hours than preferred and initially agreed upon, is associated with the withdrawal of engagement in OCBs directed towards the supervisor, but not OCBs directed towards colleagues. However, Dikshit and Dikshit (2014) found that overtime is positively related to the conscientiousness dimension of OCB. Thus, organisations need to ensure that employment</p>

	conditions induce positive behaviours that enhance organisational effectiveness.
RQ5 Does OCB increase employee commitment and engagement?	<p>The empirical results reveal that respondents perceived the concepts, employee commitment and employee engagement, as one concept termed 'organisational commitment'. Both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts were found to increase organisational commitment. However, respondents perceived their engagement in OCBs to lead to their commitment to the organisation.</p> <p>This is in affirmation of Feather and Rauter's findings (2004) that demonstrate that the greater the level of OCB, the greater the level of organisational commitment and identification. Furthermore, this confirms Cohen and Vigoda's (2000) notion that OCB might be empirically associated with organisational commitment.</p>
RQ6 Does OCB decrease employee propensity to leave the job?	<p>The empirical results reveal that the respondents perceived OCB related to compassion to have a positive relationship with propensity to resign. This implies that employees who are willing to help others and utilize their extra time for the benefit of their organisations are more likely to stay in their organisations than those who are willing to take extra assignments and participate in the organisation's social activities. This could be due to the fact that the former employees could feel compelled to go that extra mile; as a result, they could feel overloaded with work and will more likely look for jobs somewhere else.</p> <p>Poon (2004) concurs and shows that the more an employee is satisfied with the working conditions offered by his/her organisation, the less the employee is likely to leave the organisation.</p>

Table 8.1, above, shows conclusions based on the research questions of the study.

8.4.1 Summary of the results

This study was aimed at investigating the influence of job considerations (depicted by personal values, job autonomy, group cohesion and decision making), role considerations

(depicted by role ambiguity and role conflict), organisational climate (depicted by supervisor support and job security) and employment considerations on OCB, and the influence of OCB on employee commitment, propensity to resign and employee engagement.

8.4.1.1 Organisational citizenship behaviour

The study revealed that OCB, which was tested as a five-dimensional construct, namely, conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship, altruism and courtesy, was perceived by respondents as two constructs. Courtesy was not significant and was therefore not considered for further analysis. The first OCB construct is comprised of two dimensions, namely, sportsmanship and altruism, and was then termed '*OCB related to compassion*'. Employees who engaged in OCB related to compassion exhibit citizenship behaviours such as bearing minor setbacks in the workplace (Netemeyer, *et al.* 1997) – for example, not complaining about petty issues or minor setbacks and not finding fault with other employees – and the willingness of employees to assist workmates (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997) – for example, assisting others with challenging tasks and helping to orient new employees.

The second OCB construct which is comprised of two dimensions, namely, conscientiousness and civic virtue, was initially termed '*OCB related to civic supererogatory acts*'. However, this term was simplified and ultimately termed '*OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts*'. Employees engaged in OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts exhibit behaviours such as constructive engagement in organisational activities (for example, attendance at voluntary meetings, responding promptly to correspondence) and going well beyond minimally required role and task requirements (for example, leaving work late to complete a task or waiting for the next shift to start smoothly).

8.4.1.2 Outcomes

a) Organisational engagement and commitment

The study further revealed that respondents perceived employee engagement and employee commitment as a single construct, hence the two constructs were combined and termed '*organisational commitment*'.

Organisational commitment has been defined as a psychological state that binds an employee to an organisation, resulting in the reduction in incidents of turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990), and as a mindset projected in different forms and binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to one or more targets (Cohen, 2003). It is further defined as having the core elements of loyalty to and identification with the organisation (that is, pride in the organisation and internalization of its goals) and a desire to belong (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). It has been regarded as a major variable firmly influencing employee attitude and behaviour in the workplace (Morrow, 1993). Meyer, Allen and Gellantly (1990:711) suggest that organisational commitment as an attitude is characterised by favourable positive cognitive and affective components about the organisation, while Morrow (1993) avows that organisational commitment as an attitude reflects feelings such as attachment, identification and loyalty to the organisation as an object of commitment. As a behaviour, Best (1994:69) maintains that committed individuals enact specific behaviours due to the belief that it is morally correct rather than personally beneficial. According to Reichers (1985), a high level of organisational commitment is characterised by a strong acceptance of the organisation's values and willingness to exert efforts to remain with the organisation, while a low level of organisational commitment is characterised by a lack of neither acceptance of organisational goals and values nor the willingness to exert effort to remain with the organisation.

The results show support for the relationship between OCB related to compassion and organisational commitment, as well as OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts and organisational commitment. Employees who exhibit OCBs also exhibit commitment to the organisation. Commitment towards an organisation is a bond or linking of the individual

to the organisation (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990:171). It is a bond to the whole organisation, and not to the job, work group, or belief in the importance of work itself (Lambert, Barton, & Hogan, 1999:100). When employees go beyond the call of duty for the benefit of the organisation and their colleagues, they show commitment to the success of the organisation.

Previous research (Lambert *et al.*, 2008:63) found that organisational commitment is a salient antecedent of OCB. Employees who were committed to the organisation generally reciprocate with positive behaviour, including OCB, so the organisation benefits in the long run. Furthermore, the study maintains that individuals who have bonded with the organisation were willing to extend efforts that positively impact the organisation because they have a self-interest in seeing the organisation not only survive but also prosper. A study by Bowler and Brass (2006) found no relationship between affective commitment and interpersonal citizenship behaviour, such as altruism, which occurs when coworkers help one another outside of prescribed job roles to the benefit of the organisation. Contrary to these findings, Nehmeh (2009) found that there is a stronger association between extra-role behaviour and affective commitment. Employees with strong affective commitment were more willing to engage in citizenship behaviour than those with weaker affective commitment. Affectively and normatively committed members are more likely to maintain organisational membership and contribute to the success of the organisation than are continuance-committed members (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This study concurs with Nehmeh's (2009) findings and reveals that employees who engage in OCB also feel committed to their organisations. Thus, it is reasonable to confirm that organisational commitment is positively related to OCB.

b) Propensity to resign

A relationship between OCB related to compassion and propensity to resign is supported, but no relationship is found between OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts and propensity to resign. This means that employees who are not petty about trivial issues but show willingness to help coworkers for the benefit of the organisation, are more likely to stay in the organisation. This can be explained by the fact that individuals whose need

for the fulfilment of personal goals and sense of achievement in contributing to the organisational effectiveness are achieved, want to stay longer in the organisation.

Propensity to leave is a perception of the likelihood that the relationship between employee and the organisation would be dissolved in the (reasonably) near future (Riaz, 2008:6). Researchers, such as Sherratt (2000) and Van Vianen, Feji, Krausz, and Taris (2004), distinguished two motives for propensity to resign or staff turnover: the push and pull motives. The pull motives involve the organisation's inequity in compensation, the availability of opportunities to improve one's career on the external labour market and employees' resignation for private business. The push motives relate to dissatisfaction with the employee's current work situation, autocratic managerial patterns and job stress. Sometimes, a combination of the two motives can propel an employee to seek alternative employment opportunities. Nadiri and Tanova (2010:34) cite the withdrawal-decision-process model and point out that employees are more susceptible to leave their jobs if they experience dissatisfaction in their jobs.

The findings of this study are consistent with studies by Chen, *et al.* (1998:928), Karambayya (1989), Podsakoff, *et al.* (1997), Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997), and Waltz and Niehoff (1996) that demonstrate that OCB is a critical determinant of turnover. This means that employees who exhibit low levels of OCB are more likely to leave an organisation than those who exhibit high levels of OCB.

8.4.1.3 Independent variables

a) Job considerations

The results show that there is a positive relationship between job considerations as measured by personal values, job autonomy, job clarity and group cohesion, and OCB related to compassion, but a relationship between job considerations and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts is not supported. This inconsistency is possibly explained by the varying nature of different boundary spanning roles.

The findings of this study complement a study by Van-Dijk, Yaffe and Levontin (2008) that found support for the relationship between personal values and OCB; Lloyd (2008)

found that autonomy is vital for the expression of discretionary behaviours as without autonomy all job roles would be prescribed leaving no latitude for the employee; Kibedi and Kikooma (2011) found that high levels of role clarity generate high OCBs; and Chen *et al.* (2009) found that task interdependence and goal interdependence strengthen group cohesion, further leading to employees' willingness to engage in more OCB.

b) Role considerations

Support for the relationship between role considerations and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts is positive but no relationship is found between role considerations and OCB related to compassion. This means that if there is no conflict in roles and there is role clarity, employees will have time to perform tasks that are beyond their minimally required roles, and vice versa.

These findings are consistent with a study by Eatough, *et al.* (2011) who found role conflict and role ambiguity to be negatively related to OCB. However, because work stress tends to lower an individual's ability to exert control over his/her work environment and thus adversely affect his/her ability to function effectively (Bakker, *et al.*, 2004:85), the absence of role ambiguity can lead to OCB. Moreover, Podsakoff *et al.* (1996) found that high levels of role clarity generate high OCBs.

c) Employment considerations

The relationships between employment considerations and both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts are positive. These relationships can possibly be explained by the nature of employees' employment contracts and motivational factors such as equitable reward systems. Organisations that provide employees with opportunities for promotions, permanent employment, and recognition of the extra time and effort (for example, through a reward system) exerted in their tasks, encourage employees to exhibit OCBs.

De Cuyper, *et al.* (2009) affirm that job insecurity reduces job satisfaction and organisational commitment, poor well-being, and undesirable behaviours. Researchers (for example, LePine, *et al.* 2005:2005) have argued that job insecurity has a negative

effect on behavioural outcomes and consider job insecurity as a hindrance stressor that induces undesirable strain reactions.

The findings of this study are consistent with a study by Judeh (2012:596) that revealed that there is a significant relationship between OCB and job security. Likewise, Wong, Wong, Ngo & Lui (2005) found job insecurity to be negatively associated with OCBs in private joint ventures. Equally, Feather and Rauter (2004) revealed that OCBs were related to perceived job security. The more employees see the organisation as fair, the more they tend to feel secure and, consequently, the more they are engaged in OCBs.

The next section highlights the main conclusions and recommendations of the study, based on the significant relationships of this study.

8.5 CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Based on the final revised hypothetical model of the study (see Figure 8.1), the discussions on conclusions, recommendations and practical implications of this study are, thus, presented.

8.5.1 The influence of employees' perceptions on OCB related to compassion

8.5.1.1 The influence of job considerations on OCB related to compassion

The results of this study indicate that there is a positive relationship between job considerations as measured by personal value, job autonomy, group cohesion and job clarity, and OCB related to compassion as measured by sportsmanship and altruism. Any negative assumptions and evaluations regarding job considerations could thus impact on OCB related to compassion.

The results of this study are consistent with previous studies that demonstrate that people are motivated to behave according to their values. The retail environment is comprised of a myriad of personalities and individuals whose personal values are diverse in nature. Values have been found to be empirically related to a large array of behaviours, including organisational behaviours (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003 and Bardi, Calogero, & Mullen, 2008). Nurturing these values and aligning them to that of the organisation encourages employees to cooperate with each other and work together to enhance organisational effectiveness.

Similarly, employees make time for citizenship behaviours when they are given autonomy and control. This means that job autonomy provides employees with freedom to do their jobs the way they want to perform it, which directly translates to positive motivation to perform tasks and increases employee conscientiousness (Mansoor *et al.*, 2012:571). In addition, when there are opportunities for learning and growth in organisations, employees reward an organisation's efforts by engaging in citizenship behaviours.

Likewise, Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, and Williams (1993) reported a significant association between a leader's clarification and OCB. This means that when the leader clarifies employees' jobs, they willingly exhibit OCBs.

Thus, it is recommended that:

- Organisations inspire employees to deliver the very best in order to participate in organisational initiatives.
- Organisations align employees' personal values with that of the organisation
- Employees be given an opportunity for independent, original thought in doing their jobs.
- Employees be given the freedom to do their job the way that they think is best.
- Organisations ensure that employees are given freedom to have an influence on their work environment.
- Employees be encouraged to participate in organisational initiatives pertaining to their work setting.

- Management allows employees to make decisions on how their work should be done and scheduled.
- The work environment be made flexible enough to allow employees to work independently.
- Organisations encourage employees to work in groups to create synergism with fruitful results.
- Employees be allowed to express their personal values regarding the work environment.
- Employees be provided opportunities to do completed jobs on their own.
- Employees be given the authority to reschedule their work to fit their needs.
- Organisations encourage the groups to give individual employees enough opportunities to improve their performance.
- The employees' approach to completing tasks be the same as the group members' approach.
- Organisations provide clarity about the period of probation.
- Employees be informed about the data that is stored about them.

8.5.1.2 The influence of employment considerations on OCB related to compassion

The results indicate that there is a positive relationship between employment considerations and OCB related to compassion. Any negative assumptions and evaluations regarding employment considerations could thus impact OCB related to compassion, as measured by sportsmanship and altruism.

Research has shown that the terms of employment contract of individual employees has an influence on the attitudes and behaviours of employees. According to Stamper and Van Dyne (2001:530), employees who are employed on a full time basis exhibit more OCB than those employed on a part time basis. Likewise, employees who are on flexible employment contracts are more responsive than are permanent employees to higher levels of organisational support or higher numbers of inducements (Guest, 2004:16).

Consequently, employees on flexible employment contracts respond positively to organisational initiatives, with the hope of being recognised and considered for permanent employment.

In light of this, it is not surprising that research shows that those on temporary contracts are less well informed than are permanent employees about health, safety and about voice at work. This could be due to the fact that permanent employees feel more confident to voice their opinions and demand information pertaining to their work environment than temporary employees do. This shows that permanent employees feel security in their jobs, especially in the South African context, where employees are not hired or fired at will. The findings of this study support this notion in that job security was found to have an insignificant influence on OCB. These findings are consistent with previous studies (Pearce and Randel, 1998), which further acknowledge that knowledge workers on flexible contracts, as a matter of choice, are less concerned about job security than the more marginalized and lower skilled temporary workers.

It is thus, recommended that:

- Managers promote the collective goals and provide feedback, as well as team-based rewards, to the employees to develop goal interdependence amongst them.
- Flexible work schedules are encouraged.
- Workflow is well planned and designed to fairly allocate tasks and responsibilities amongst group members.
- Organisations ensure that there is transparency in the policies, procedures and processes of the organisation.
- Organisations offer employees over and above the minimum statutory requirements regarding leave (e.g. maternity, paternity, sport).
- Employees be entitled to engage in written agreements (e.g. trade unions, workers' representatives).
- Employees be allowed to work flexible hours (variable work schedule).
- Employees be entitled to take time off for any overtime worked.
- Employees be compensated when they work more than the normal required hours.

- Employees' salaries be competitive with similar jobs in other organisations.
- Employees' benefits be comparable to those offered by other organisations (e.g. medical aid scheme).
- Employees be offered an opportunity to join an occupational pension scheme.

8.5.2 The influence of employees' perceptions on OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts

8.5.2.1 The influence of role considerations on OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts

The results of this study indicate that role considerations, as measured by role conflict and role ambiguity, are positively related to OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts as measured by conscientiousness and civic virtue. Any negative assumptions and evaluations regarding role considerations could thus impact OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts.

Researchers, such as Jackson, Schwab and Schuler (1986), found consistent and significant evidence that perceived role ambiguity has a dysfunctional impact on various job outcomes (for example, satisfaction, tension, performance). Ladany and Friedlander (1995) and Olk and Friedlander (1992) found that a weaker supervisory alliance is related to both more role conflict and more role ambiguity. Moreover, Eys, *et al.* (2009) found that role sender related factors were identified as the major source of role ambiguity across four dimensions, namely, scope, behaviours, evaluation and consequences. In other words, respondents suggested that the role sender (typically a supervisor, coach, or manager) is usually the individual who is responsible, for a variety of reasons, if an employee does not understand his/her role.

Furthermore, Wilkerson (2009) found that years of experience, role conflict, role ambiguity, and use of emotion-orienting coping predicted emotional exhaustion. In addition, Ladany and Friedlander (1995) found that the stronger the emotional bond, the

less role conflict occurred, irrespective of the agreement regarding the goals and tasks in supervision. Moreover, when the goals and tasks of supervision were not mutually agreed upon, more role conflict occurs. This means that employees need clarity in order for them to go an extra-mile for the organisation and their co-workers.

The findings of this study correspond with the work of Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2012:144) who demonstrate that OCB is positively and significantly associated with employee strain, above and beyond the impact of role overload, role ambiguity, and role conflict.

Thus, it is recommended that:

- Management ensures that employees are given clarity about their roles.
- Supervisors ensure that adequate resources are available to employees to avoid conflicting roles.
- Employees work with teams that utilise the same processes and procedures.
- Supervisors give employees clear and consistent orders.
- Clarity is given to employees as to how their jobs are aligned to overall organisational goals.
- Employees are not expected to work under incompatible policies and guidelines.
- Employees do not have to break a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.
- Employees do not receive conflicting requests from two or more supervisors.
- Employees do not receive an assignment without adequate resources to execute it.
- Employees do not have to work with other groups who operate differently.
- Employees do not work without a clear understanding about the necessity of the task at hand.
- Employees do not work under vague directives/orders.
- Organisations have clear planned goals and objectives for the employees' job.
- Employees are clear about what their responsibilities entail.
- Employees are certain about how their jobs are linked to other jobs.

8.5.2.2 The influence of employment considerations on OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts

The results of this study indicate that employment considerations are positively related to OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts as measured by conscientiousness and civic virtue. Any negative assumptions and evaluations regarding employment considerations could thus impact upon OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. This means that employment considerations encourage employees to exhibit OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts as measured by conscientiousness and civic virtue.

Previous research shows that when employees perceive unfavourable conditions, in terms of their employment contracts, job security, and limited opportunities for promotions, they will respond with low levels of OCBs (Liden *et al.*, 2003). In contrast, when they feel that they identify with their employing organisations, they will exhibit OCBs (Chattopadhyay, 1999) that are perceived not only to benefit the organisation, but the individual as well. This means that if employment conditions are favourable, employees will respond with positive behaviour and identify with the organisation, thereby increasing their levels of OCBs. Contrary to this, other studies argue that the organisational experience of temporary employees is substantially different from that of the permanent employees. Since temporary employees do not have long-term relationships with their employers, they are less likely to identify with their employing organisations. Blatt (2008:851) concurs and points out that organisations often actively prevent identification amongst their temporary knowledge employees by calling attention to their outsider status. The difference in treatment makes some employees despondent and reluctant to engage in OCBs.

Thus, it is recommended that:

- Organisations ensure that workers on temporary employment contracts are well treated, so as to induce a positive response.

- Employees' goals for engaging in OCB are understood for the effective tailoring of organisational support and inducements.
- All employees, irrespective of their employment contracts, are well informed about organisational information that affects their work milieu.
- Organisations devise strategies that will encourage employees to take initiatives that enhance the organisation's image.

8.5.3 The influence of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) on outcomes

8.5.3.1 The influence of OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts on organisational commitment

The results of this study indicate that both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts have a positive relationship with organisational commitment. Any negative assumptions and evaluations regarding OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts could thus impact upon organisational commitment. This means that sportsmanship, altruism, civic virtue and conscientiousness, as measures of OCB, promote and increase organisational commitment amongst employees.

Previous research found contradicting findings about the relationship between OCB and organisational commitment. Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993), for example, found a positive relationship between commitment and extra role behaviour, while Van Dyne and Ang (1998) found no significance between the relationship. Other studies have found that there was a negative relationship between commitment and citizen behaviour (Shore and Wayne, 1993). Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro (1990) argue that those employees who feel that they are cared for by their organisations and managers do not

only have higher levels of commitment, but that they are more conscious about their responsibilities, have greater involvement in the organisation, and are more innovative. Hence, their exhibition of OCB enhances their commitment to the organisation.

However, Durna and Eren (2005) submit that organisational commitment is an important factor for the workers to adopt the objectives of the organisation, want to continue working at that organisation, participate in the management and activities of the organisation, and to have a creative and innovative attitude towards the organisation. Moreover, Bolat and Bolat (2008) argue that workers who have higher affective organisational commitment perform more organisational citizenship behaviour than those with less organisational commitment.

It is, thus, recommended that:

- Managers play an important role in establishing an organisational culture in which employees adopt the objectives of the organisation.
- The organisational work environment should allow employees to have a creative and innovative attitude towards the organisation.
- The organisations devise strategies that encourage employees to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected.
- The organisational work environment inspires employees to be proud to tell others that they are part of this organisation.
- The organisational work environment inspires employees to deliver the very best regarding their job performance.
- The organisational work environment encourages employees to care about the fate of their organisation.
- The organisational work environment should make employees feel a sense of ownership and belonging towards the organisation.
- The organisational work environment should allow employees to proactively identify future challenges and opportunities.
- The organisational work environment should inspire employees to strive for the best through difficult times.

- The organisational work environment should inspire employees to give their best efforts at work each day.
- The organisational work environment provides employees with enough opportunities to contribute to decisions that affect them.
- The organisations ensure that employees understand how their roles contribute to achieving organisational goals.

8.5.3.2 The influence of OCB related to compassion on propensity to resign

Table 7.12 indicates that OCB related to compassion, as measured by sportsmanship and altruism, has a positive relationship with propensity to resign. Any negative assumptions and evaluations regarding OCB related to compassion could thus impact upon organisational commitment. This implies that sportsmanship and altruism amongst the employees have been a driving force behind the increased OCB related to compassion.

According to Paille, *et al.* (2010), when employees experience lasting dissatisfaction with their organisations or jobs, and cannot leave due to a lack of external professional opportunities, it is less risky for them to reduce OCBs than it is to express this discontent through diminishing their efforts at work. Moreover, employees who decrease their efforts at work may face sanctions from a supervisor, whereas employees who diminish their OCBs will not face sanctions, since OCBs are discretionary behaviours that are not formally required. Research findings suggest that a workplace that encourages trust sustains employees in their desire to cooperate (OCBs); this, in turn, decreases their intention to leave the organisation. Coyle-Shapiro and Conway (2005) argue that the fact that an organisation keeps its promises, in turn, encourages the employee to deploy efforts for the organisation and, thus, stay in the organisation.

Thus, it is recommended that:

- Management instills a trusting relationship that will encourage employees to engage in OCBs, thereby reducing their propensity to leave the organisation.

- Organisations keep their promises to employees in order to reduce the chances of employees leaving the organisation.
- Organisations offer fringe benefits that are perceived as better than those offered by other organisations, in order to retain their employees.
- Apart from the monetary rewards, managers provide employees with nonmonetary rewards and opportunities for participation in the achievement of organisational goals.
- Managers place greater emphasis on the interactions between members, instead of merely on the accomplishment of tasks per se.
- Organisations actively devise strategies that will benefit and entice employees to stay with the organisation indefinitely.

8.6 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The following contributions of this study are identified below:

- The findings of this study have contributed to the body of knowledge in retail literature in South Africa by developing a theoretical model of OCB in retail firms. The model can be used as a foundation for other studies investigating employees perceptions regarding OCB across various settings and industries in South Africa.
- Government can use the findings of this study to purposefully identify and implement strategies that will encourage employees to exhibit OCB as to enhance organisational effectiveness and to ensure efficient and effective service delivery across industries and sectors in the SA economy.
- This study provides an understanding of some key organisational behaviour relationships in retail firms. These findings contribute to the studies of OCB in extant literatures and challenge retail managers to selectively deploy strategies that enhance OCB in order to achieve high levels of performance among retail employees, which eventually could enhance organisational effectiveness.

- The antecedents of OCBs in retail settings are not well documented and represent a significant gap in OCB literature. Findings of this study could contribute towards closing this gap in the literature.
- The study made a unique contribution to the field of OCB as for the first time in literature this study identified two aspects of measuring OCB perceptions, namely OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. This is a new contribution to the existing literature that could lead to better understanding of OCB as a phenomenon.
- Retail managers seeking to build OCBs should view job, role and employment considerations as cornerstones of their strategy for managing retail employees. However, recognising systematic differences in the relationships between these practices and OCBs is also crucial.
- Given differing roles and characteristics of retail employees with sophisticated technologically advanced customers as well as the lack of research attention given to the behaviour of employees in the retail industry in South Africa, this study could assist retail strategists to develop appropriate strategies and programmes to instil a culture of citizenship in organisations.
- This study could create awareness of the importance of encouraging employees to engage in organisational citizenship behaviors for the benefit of both the employees as individuals and the organisation as a whole.
- It is envisaged that the results and recommendations of this study will be used to implement effective OCB strategies that could ensure effective functioning of the firm through organisational commitment and to ensure employee retention.
- The results of this study could also be replicated by other industries so as to ensure successful OCB implementation.
- The findings of this study can inform retail strategy policy formulation so as to assist with the implementation of OCB programmes.
- The study used a sound and well developed research design and methodology which have been critically justified and applied. This can also be used by other similar studies to conduct empirical research in the field of OCB.

- The measuring instrument and hypothetical model developed can also be used by organisations in other industries to investigate OCB.
- This study provided useful and very practical guidelines to organisations as to ensure effective strategising and management of OCB that could enhance their local and global competitiveness and long term sustainability.

8.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study has the following limitations:

- The limited sample is a limitation as the study focused on four provinces in South Africa. Further studies can be expanded to other provinces in the country.
- Due to the lack of time in the retail business, the number of respondents is a limitation.
- The closed-ended questionnaires, as administered in this study, limit the views and expressions of the respondents.
- The study is conducted on goods retail businesses. Service retailing was not considered.
- The cross-sectional nature precludes assessment of causality.
- Participation in this study was voluntary, and good citizen employees may have responded more readily than others, thus resulting in a sample bias.

8.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

The conceptualization and measurement of OCBs are recognized as issues open for debate in management literature. Past research shows that citizenship behaviours can be sample specific. Future research might attempt to identify the dimensions of OCBs that generalize across settings.

This study focused on the perceptions of retail employees across retail firms in South Africa. Future research could conduct comparative studies of part time and full time retail employees, and compare management perceptions against employee perceptions.

Future research could also explore different research methodologies such as the Structural Equation Model (SEM). Electronic dissemination of questionnaires could yield a different response rate to that of self-administered questionnaires.

Another departure from current practice would be to explore formative rather than reflective measures of OCBs. Research that develops and examines formative measures of OCBs may be successful in resolving many of the outstanding measurement issues.

The negative relationship between supervisory support and OCBs poses important managerial implications. These findings will contribute to studies that will further investigate the causal relationships between these two constructs.

Furthermore, future studies can extend the study by investigating the influence of job security on employment contracts.

8.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The primary objective of this study was to investigate perceptions regarding OCB in retail firms. The empirical results reveal that job considerations and employment considerations have a positive influence on both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts, while role considerations and job security were found to have no significant influence on both OCB related to compassion and OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts. Likewise, the empirical results show that OCB related to compassion have a positive influence on both organisational commitment and propensity to resign, while OCB related to civic non-obligatory acts have a positive influence on organisational commitment and the influence on propensity to resign was not significant.

Grounded on the summary of the chapters, as well as the practical implications and recommendations derived from the empirical study, as discussed in this chapter, it can be acknowledged that both primary and secondary objectives constructed for the study were achieved. It is, therefore, fitting to confirm that the results of this study contribute to the body of knowledge on business management, strategic management and the South African retail industry.

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June 2015

Dear Participant

RESEARCH PROJECT: PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN SOUTH AFRICAN RETAILING SECTOR

Ms T Ngxukumeshe is a registered PhD student in the Department of Business Management at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth, South Africa. She is currently busy with an empirical study investigating perceptions of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in retailing. Organisational citizenship behaviour refers to discretionary individual behaviour that promotes the effective operation of an organisation, but is not formally recognised by the organisation's reward system. This citizenship behaviour is often marked by its spontaneity, voluntary nature, unexpected helpfulness to others, and the fact that it is optional. It is envisaged that this study will provide useful insight into identifying key aspects, which are related to OCB in the retailing sector of South Africa.

The purpose of this study is to investigate organisational citizenship behaviour in the retail sector of South Africa. The questionnaire consists of five sections. All data sources will be treated as confidential and would be used for research purposes only. The majority of the data will be reported in statistical form and no individual respondents will be identified. You can complete the questionnaire anonymously. Thank you very much for your willingness and time to complete this questionnaire.

Kind regards

Prof NE Mazibuko & Prof EE Smith
Research coordinators

Ms T Ngxukumeshe
Researcher

QUESTIONNAIRE

PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN RETAIL FIRMS

SECTION A

PERCEPTIONS OF THE JOB, ROLE CONSIDERATIONS AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the statements by means of a cross (X) in the boxes which are provided. The following scales are used: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4=Neutral, 5=somewhat agree, 6=Agree, 7=Strongly Agree.

	IN MY ORGANISATION ...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	JOB PERCEPTIONS							
	Personal values							
1	My values are very similar to those of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I am allowed to express my personal values regarding the work environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	My values regarding OCB are clearly defined.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I will compromise my personal values in pursuit of organisational goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I am inspired to deliver the very best in participating in organisational initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Job autonomy							
6	I have an opportunity for independent, original thought in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I have the freedom to do my job the way I think is best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I am afforded the liberty to take decisions on how my work ought to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I am always provided with an opportunity to complete a job on my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I have the authority to reschedule my work to fit my needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	IN MY ORGANISATION ...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Group cohesion							
11	I always invite my group members to complete the task at hand with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I contact my group members (e.g. phone, email) to get more ideas to complete the task at hand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	The group gives me enough opportunities to improve my own performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	My approach to completing tasks is the same as my group members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Working in groups creates synergism with fruitful results.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Decision-making							
16	Management genuinely accepts my suggestions when identifying several alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I am encouraged to share my views with management when management identifies various courses of action.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Management frequently interacts with employees on important decisions that must be taken.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	My suggestions are considered before management makes final decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	I am allowed to participate in all decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	ROLE CONSIDERATIONS							
	Role conflict							
21	I often work under incompatible policies/ guidelines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	I often have to break a rule/policy in order to carry out an assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	I often receive conflicting requests from two or more supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	I often receive an assignment without adequate resources to execute it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	I often have to work with other groups who operate quite differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Role ambiguity							

26	I often work without a clear understanding about the necessity of the task at hand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	I often have to work under vague directives/orders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	IN MY ORGANISATION ...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
28	Clear planned goals for my job do not exist.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	I am not sure what my responsibilities entail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	I am uncertain about how my job is linked to other jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE							
	Supervisory support							
31	My supervisor values my contribution to the well-being of our organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	My supervisor appreciates the extra effort I put in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	My supervisor pays attention to any complaints the employees raise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	My supervisor always provides help when I have a personal problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	My supervisor shows great interest in my career development.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Job security							
36	I am confident that I will not lose my job because of my long employment service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	I am confident that I will not lose my job because I am an expert in my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	I am confident that I will not lose my job as I am a multi-skilled employee.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	I am confident that I will not lose my job irrespective of a change in management.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	I am confident that I will not lose my job until I reach retirement age.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING EMPLOYMENT CONTRACTS

	IN MY ORGANISATION ...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am placed in a position that matches my capabilities in the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Clarity is provided about the period of probation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am legally entitled to be informed about the data that is stored about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I am restricted from engaging in any business, which is in competition with my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I am offered over and above the minimum statutory requirements regarding leave (e.g. maternity, paternity, sport).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	The recruitment procedure is transparent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I am entitled to engage in written agreements (e.g. trade unions, workers representatives).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	There are a specific policies covering disciplinary/grievances procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I am always allowed to work flexible hours (variable work schedule).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I am entitled to take time off for any overtime worked.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I am always compensated when I work more than the normal required hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	My salary is competitive with similar jobs in other organisations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	My benefits are comparable to those offered by other organisations (e.g. medical aid scheme).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I am offered an opportunity to join an occupational pension scheme.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I am eligible for contractual sick leave pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C
PERCEPTIONS REGARDING OCB DIMENSIONS

	IN MY ORGANISATION ...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Conscientiousness							
1	I stay late (working after hours) without pay to complete a project or task.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I volunteer for additional work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I take unfinished or additional work home to prepare for the next day.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Civic virtue							
4	I attend social functions that are not required but could enhance the organisation's image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I participate in extra-mural activities for co-workers (e.g. sports day or hiking trails).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I organise office celebrations (e.g. birthdays, retirements, cultural events).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Courtesy							
7	I assist less capable co-workers with certain tasks (e.g. lifting a heavy object).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I defend a co-worker who was spoken ill of by other workers or supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I volunteer to assist a co-worker in dealing with a difficult customer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Sportsmanship							
10	I am prepared to work during lunch breaks to complete an urgent task at hand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I am willing to change my vacation schedule to accommodate the needs of other co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I am prepared to lend a compassionate ear to a co-worker with personal problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Altruism							
13	I assist new employees get oriented with the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I am sympathetic to co-workers with work-related problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15	I take time to coach or mentor other co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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SECTION D

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THE IMPACT OF OCB ON EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT, PROPENSITY TO RESIGN AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

	In my organisation ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Employee commitment							
1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am inspired to deliver my very best in the performance of my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I really care about the fate of my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I feel a sense of belonging towards my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Propensity to resign							
6	The chances are high for me to be still working for this organisation in one to three years from now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	If I had the chance to leave this organisation, I would resign immediately.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	If I had the chance for a job offer in a similar position elsewhere with better fringe benefits, I would leave my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I am actively looking for a job outside my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	There is not much to be gained by sticking indefinitely with my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Employee engagement							
11	I proactively identify future challenges.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I always strive for the best through difficult times.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I am determined to give my best efforts at work each day.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I have enough opportunities to contribute to decisions that affect me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I understand how my role contributes to achieving organisational goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION E
BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please mark with an X where applicable.

1. Please indicate your position in the organisation

Senior management	1
Middle management	2
Supervisory	3
Shop floor staff	4
Other	5

2. Please indicate your type of job in the organisation

Manager	1
Packer	2
Sales associate	3
Buyer/merchandiser	4
Cashier	5
Shop floor assistant	6
Admin/finance	7
Other (specify)	8

3. Please indicate your gender

Male	1
Female	2

4. Please indicate your race

African	1
White	2
Coloured	3
Indian	4
Chinese	5
Other (please specify)	6

5. Please indicate your age group (Years)

15-20	1
21-30	2
31-40	3
41-50	4

51-60	5
Over 60	6

6. Please indicate your highest educational qualification(s)

Grade 11 and lower	1
Grade 12	2
Diploma or National certificate	3
Bachelor's degree	4
Postgraduate degree/ diploma (e.g.Honours/ Masters)	5
Other (Please specify)	6

7. Please indicate your employment contract type

Full time employee	1
Part time employee	2
Fixed term contract employee	3
Temporal contract employee	4
Casual employee	5
Other (please specify)	6

8. Please indicate the number of years employed in the organisation

0-1	1
2-5	2
6-10	3
11-15	4
Over 15	5

9. Employment size of organisation

Small (employing 1 to 50 employees)	1
Medium (employing 51 to 200 employees)	2
Large (employing more than 200 employees)	3

10. Years in existence

1-5 years	1
6-10 years	2
11-15 years	3
16 years +	4

11. Level of monthly income (cost-to-company)

< R5000	1
R5001 – R10 000	2
R10 001 – R15 000	3
R15 001 – R20 000	4
R20 001 +	5

12. Type of retailing activity

General dealer	1
Food, beverages & tobacco	2
Pharmaceuticals & medical goods	3
Cosmetics & toiletries	4
Clothing, footwear and leather goods	5
Textiles	6
Household furniture, appliances & equipment	7
Hardware, paint & glass	8
Sports	9
Other	10

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CO-OPERATION