

**ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC  
PROFESSIONALS AT A SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**

**BY**

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## DECLARATION

I Bulelwa Malo, student number [REDACTED], do hereby declare that this dissertation submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for the Magister Technologiae: Business Administration degree is my own independent work and has not previously been submitted by me at another university. I furthermore cede copyright of the dissertation in favour of the Central University of Technology, Free State.

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SIGNATURE OF STUDENT

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DATE

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## DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my late mother and grandmother!

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## ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the study was to determine perceptions of organisational culture and their resultant impact on job satisfaction among academic professionals at a University of Technology in the Free State Province, South Africa. The study hypothesised that academic professionals had negative perceptions regarding the organisational culture, that they were not satisfied with their job, that there was no correlation between components of organisational culture and job satisfaction, and finally, that there was no correlation between specific components of organisational culture and specific components of job satisfaction. Participants in the study were full-time academic professionals ( $n = 135$ ). The Organisational Culture Profile (OCP) questionnaire was used to collect data on perceptions of organisational culture, while the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was used to collect data on job satisfaction.

The results showed that academic professionals had positive perceptions of the organisational culture within the institution. In terms of job satisfaction, academic professionals were satisfied with co-worker relations, supervision support, the work itself, and they were moderately satisfied with the advancement opportunities that were available. Academic professionals were, however, dissatisfied with the salaries they were receiving. A significant correlation between overall organisational culture and job satisfaction was found, as well as between organisational culture components (attention to details, outcome orientation, people orientation, team orientation, aggressiveness, and stability) and job satisfaction components (the work itself, advancement opportunities, and co-worker relations).

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY**

#### **1.1 BACKGROUND**

An organisation is a strong social tool for arranging the relationships among individuals (Ceylan & Aydin, 2009:159). Brown, (1995:6) further defined an organisation as “an institution where two or more people come together to achieve goal(s) and whose behaviours are managed according to specified rules”. Although each individual has unique talents and personal preferences, the behaviours and beliefs of the people in the same organisation show common properties in the form of norms that powerfully shape their behaviour. Such common norms form part of what is known as organisational culture (Brown, 1995:6).

According to MacIntosh and Doherty (2010:108), a universal definition of organisational culture has proven elusive. However, it is generally considered to be the shared values, beliefs and assumptions that exist among employees within an organisation, that help guide and coordinate behaviour (Lewis, 2002:280). Within an organisational setting, organisational culture is pervasive and powerful. For business, it has been found to be the glue that can bond employees to an organisation, and helps in achieving organisational objectives or what drives employees away. Organisational culture has also been shown to have a direct influence on staff satisfaction and commitment in the developing context (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010:106). Such compelling evidence challenges today’s managers in the developing context to create and manage organisational cultures that support staff satisfaction and promote the accomplishment of organisational objectives (Naicker, 2008:1).

Job satisfaction has received significant attention in the developing context, especially in the corporate world (Saari & Judge, 2004:395; Chow, Harrison, McKinnan & Wu, 2001:3). Lok and Crawford (2001:597) defined job satisfaction as “an attitude that individuals have about their jobs. Job satisfaction results from employees’ perception of their jobs and the degree to which there is a good fit between the employees and the organisation’. Empirical evidence has shown that job satisfaction is related to a number of outcomes such as organisational performance, reduction in absenteeism, tardiness, health setbacks, and occupational stress (Lok & Crawford, 2004:321), and also reduction in employee intentions to quit (Chimanikire, Mutundwa & Gadzirayi, 2007:167).

Several issues can be noted from the above discussion: (1) The study of organisational culture and job satisfaction to understand individual and group behaviours within the work context, has intrigued scholars for a long time within the developed contexts, and specifically within the corporate world; (2) exploring these two phenomena has demonstrated how scholars can achieve an understanding of organisational life, and reveals the rich tapestry of meaning around everyday tasks and objectives in the workplace; (3) the results of many noteworthy works have thus created areas of organisational theory considered by many authors to be among the most important concepts for management scholars to comprehend (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010:106); and (4) the reported effects of the two concepts on employee behaviour as well as overall organisational performance, are what make the phenomena attractive areas for further studies in the developing contexts and other different sectors.

### **1.1.1 Context of the study**

Research has shown that changes in both the internal and external environment do not only affect businesses in the corporate world, but even in other important sectors such as higher education. In South Africa, for example, the new dispensation brought in a new order of things in the higher education sector. The new order culminated in mergers and incorporations. The mergers and incorporations resulted in the formation

of new comprehensive institutions, retention of some traditional universities, and the creation of Universities of Technology (UoT) (Chipunza & Gwarinda, 2010:1) For example, in Free State, a University was renamed the University of Technology. For ethical reasons, however, the University understudy will be named University X. The renaming meant that the 'new institution' had to undergo some changes in order to achieve 'fit for purpose' in the new higher education environment. Some of the changes ranged from leadership, systems, procedures and processes in order to incorporate the new culture of a university, and at the same time maintaining the technikon aspect. Undoubtedly, such changes introduced new organisational culture(s) and also changes in job satisfaction among employees of the newly formed institution.

### **1.1.2 Theoretical framework**

This study was based on the social exchange theory (Greenberg & Scott, 1996:111; Zafirovski, 2005:1). Social exchange theory is a social psychological and sociological perspective that explains behavioural and social changes as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties (Zafirovski, 2005:1). According to the theory, people make decisions based on their individual satisfaction levels within the relationship. Thus, individuals typically have a high level of happiness if they perceive that they are receiving more than they are giving to a relationship. If on the other hand, individuals feel that they are giving more than they are receiving, they may decide that the connection is not fulfilling their needs (Zafirovski, 2005:3).

According to Greenberg & Scott (1996:129), the central aspect of this theory is the norm of reciprocity. Within the organisational context the norm of reciprocity explains why employees exhibit positive or negative behaviour in response to the treatment they receive from their employers. As a result, a strong social exchange relationship between the employer and employee would elicit positive sentiments such as satisfaction, commitment and trust in employees. The norm of reciprocity in the theory is used in this study to hypothesise that organisational culture correlates with job satisfaction.

## 1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

There is no doubt that organisational culture and job satisfaction are correlated. Evidence (Lok & Crawford, 2001:608; Sempene, Rieger & Roodt, 2002:28; Ceylan & Aydin, 2009:165; Tsai, 2011:7) shows that much of the research on the two concepts has been done in the developed world and among corporate organisations, using different employee categories. What this means is that there is a scope for similar research on the two concepts in the developing contexts, especially among sectors such as the Higher Education sector in South Africa which have undergone transformation.

As part of higher education transformation in South Africa, University X, as a UoT, was established in 2004. Since then, the 'new institution' had to undergo some changes in different aspects of its operations. Such changes are likely to have resulted in the creation of a new organisational culture. To my knowledge, no study has been carried out to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction among academic professionals in the institution. Academics perform the core functions of any institution. Therefore, any changes to the organisational culture are likely to have an impact on their job satisfaction levels. The questions this study therefore seeks to answer are: *i) Since the establishment of University X, what perceptions do academic professionals have about organisational culture and job satisfaction? ii) Do the perceptions of organisational culture correlate with those of job satisfaction among academic professionals?*

## 1.3 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

- Aim

Using University X in the Free State as a case study, the research investigated perceptions of organisational culture and their resultant impact on job satisfaction among academic professionals.



- Objectives

In order to achieve the aim, the objectives of the study were to:

1. Determine whether academic professionals have negative or positive perceptions of organisational culture.
2. Determine whether academic professionals have negative or positive perceptions of job satisfaction.
3. Establish whether there is a correlation between organisational culture and job satisfaction components.
4. Establish whether there is a correlation between specific components of organisational culture and specific job satisfaction components.
5. Make recommendations to management on which components of organisational culture to focus on in order to ensure the satisfaction of academic professionals.

#### **1.4 HYPOTHESIS**

1. Academic professionals have negative perceptions about organisational culture
2. Academic professionals are not satisfied with their jobs.
3. There is no correlation between the organisational culture and job satisfaction components.
4. There is no correlation between specific components of organisational culture and specific job satisfaction components.

#### **1.5 IMPORTANCE OR CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY**

The study contributes to generating knowledge about organisational culture and the job satisfaction of academic professionals at a UoT in South Africa. The study is a basis for similar studies in other UoTs, and provides for the development of organisational cultures that are based on empirical knowledge of the aspects that affect job satisfaction. Insight gained through the research on organisational culture and job

satisfaction of academic professionals will help with the formulation of policies by the management of the UoT – policies that will ensure the creation of a strong organisational culture that will have a positive impact on the job satisfaction of academic professionals.

## **1.6 LIMITATIONS**

The case study approach used in the research means that the results might have limited applicability to other similar institutions. However, results of the study might be a foundation upon which similar studies can be based. On the other hand, exploratory studies based on perceptions of respondents are sometimes skeptically viewed given lack of objectivity. Despite this observation, perceptions help researchers understand why people act and behave the way they do. Both these limitations will not therefore completely compromise the value of the study.

## **1.7 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY**

This study, which is presented in six chapters, is focused on assessing academic professional's perception of organisational culture of a UoT and the resultant impact on job satisfaction levels.

### **Chapter 1 – Background of the study**

This chapter presents the overview of the study, problem statement, the research objectives, hypothesis, contribution of the study, as well as its limitations.

### **Chapter 2 – Organisational culture**

This chapter reviews literature on organisational culture. It starts by defining organisational culture, and then goes to discuss how culture is created and sustained in an organisation. This chapter also looks at other studies on organisational culture.

### **Chapter 3 – Job satisfaction**

This chapter reviews the literature on job satisfaction and its importance in an organisation. The ways of maintaining and sustaining job satisfaction, as well as research initiatives on the subject, are also discussed.

### **Chapter 4 – Research methodology**

This chapter discusses how the research was conducted. It provides insight into the sampling method used, data collection techniques, and the various other techniques that were used to analyse the data.

### **Chapter 5 – Analysis, interpretation and discussion of results**

All the results gathered from the research questionnaires are presented in this chapter, with the aid of tables and figures.

### **Chapter 6 – Conclusions and recommendations**

This chapter contains conclusions and recommendations.

## **1.8 CONCLUSION**

Chapter one presented the overview of the study, problem statement, the research objectives, hypothesis and contribution of the study, as well as its limitations. The following chapter presents literature on organisational culture.

## CHAPTER TWO

### ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Today the competitive environment in which organisations operate is causing them to rethink the way they define who they are in order to reach their goals and objectives (Bartell, 2003:43). For example, many organisations have now turned to exploring the sociological aspects of their businesses, especially the notion of culture, in order to improve profitability (Naicker, 2008:6). Organisational culture is one of the sociological aspects of the business that is intangible, and yet it plays a very important role in the success of any business (Naicker, 2008:6). A strong organisational culture, which is a set of values that are commonly shared by the organisation's employees, helps an organisation to have a great competitive advantage, not only over local competition, but also internationally (Bartell, 2003:43). Having an organisational culture may be beneficial for the organisation's operation (Silverthorne, 2004:297). Individuals are attracted to organisations that have values that are perceived as being similar to their own, and this has been shown to have an effect on variables like employee performance, job satisfaction and commitment (Smith, 2003:249; Lok & Crawford, 2004:321; Chew & Basu, 2005:604). It is therefore important for every organisation, both private and public, to understand their own culture so that management can use the knowledge to wield greater control over the organisation.

Given the importance of organisational culture and its influence on behavioural outcomes such as job satisfaction, it is critical that institutions of higher learning in South Africa consider the influence of their organisational culture on their employees' behaviours. This is particularly relevant given the new order of things in the higher education sector in South Africa – which culminated in mergers and incorporations of institutions of higher learning. The mergers and incorporations resulted in the formation of new comprehensive institutions, retention of some traditional universities, and the

creation of Universities of Technology (UoT) (Chipunza & Gwarinda, 2010:1). The transformation of institutions of higher learning in South Africa undoubtedly introduced a new organisational culture into each institution. Because organisational culture has been found to have an influence on job satisfaction, the creation of new institutions of higher learning may well have brought about changes in job satisfaction among employees of the newly formed institutions.

The purpose of this chapter is to give an overview of the concept of organisational culture, the importance of organisational culture, its characteristics, determinants, types, levels, transmission of organisational culture, and the tools used to measure organisational culture.

## **2.2 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

There is no single definition of organisational culture (Naicker, 2008:6) and the concept is difficult to define (Van Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007:19). Organisational culture has been studied from a variety of disciplines – such as anthropology, psychology and sociology. Each of these disciplines has seen organisational culture in its own way (Detert, Schroeder & Mauriel, 2000:551; Naicker, 2008:6). Below, definitions showing how different authors in the applied sciences view organisational culture, are discussed.

Serrat (2009:68) defines organisational culture as comprising the attitudes, experiences, beliefs and values of the organisation – acquired through social learning – that control the way individuals and groups in the organisation interact with one another and with parties outside it. Similarly, Ntontela (2009:1) defines organisational culture as a complex system composed of learned behaviours, norms, values, beliefs or ideas, and symbols that members acquire in order to become part of the organisation.

Van Stuyvesant Meijen (2007:20) defines organisational culture as “social interaction, priorities, and ways in which employees deal with one another”. Van Stuyvesant Meijen acknowledges the importance of the socialisation process of new employees in the

organisation. This form of socialisation, through organisational practices, assists employees in understanding and adhering to specific procedures within the organisation. According to Omona (2010:78), the socialisation aspect of learning an organisation's culture helps employees understand the hidden and complex aspects of organisations.

According to Bartell (2003:54), at the university level culture can be defined as the values and beliefs of university stakeholders (i.e. administrators, faculty members, students, board members and support staff), developed in a historical process and conveyed by use of language and symbols.

Based on all these definitions, it can be concluded that the culture of an organisation is the way in which the people conduct themselves and do things. All the above definitions emphasise a number of important aspects pertaining to organisational culture. These are: values, shared socialisation, norms, shared practices, symbols, language and narratives. The definitions also explain how organisational culture assists employees in being introduced and socialised into the new organisation, while ensuring internal integration. Lastly, the definitions show that an organisation's culture gives its members a set way in which they perceive, think and feel.

For the purpose of this research, organisational culture will be defined as the distinctive pattern of shared assumptions, values and norms that shape the socialisation activities, language, symbols, rites and ceremonies of employees in an organisation. The adoption of this definition is based on different aspects referred to by other authors, such as Serrat (2009:68), Ntontela (2009:1) and Bartell (2003:54).

## **2.3 THE IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Schein (1992) cited in Shahzad, Luqman, Khan and Shabbir (2012:977) suggests that organisational culture is even more important today than it was in the past. This is because of the increased competition, globalization, mergers, acquisitions, alliances

and various workforce developments. These have created a greater need for co-ordination and integration across organisational units in order to improve efficiency, product and strategy innovation, process innovation, and the ability to successfully introduce new technologies and programmes.

Organisational culture is an important factor used to determine how well an employee fits into the organisational context (Nazir, 2005:40; Silverthorne, 2004:593). An organisational culture that maximises the value of employees as intellectual assets promotes their intellectual participation and facilitates both individual and organisational learning, and promotes the creation of new knowledge and willingness to share knowledge with others (Schein, 1999:110 cited in Naicker, 2008:14). This means that a culture of an organisation should not only seek to achieve organisational goals or objectives, but also ensure that the needs of the people in the organisation are also dealt with.

Naicker (2008:12) attests that organisational culture helps to account for variations among organisations and managers, both nationally and internationally. Organisational culture helps to explain why different groups of people perceive things in their own way and perform things differently from other groups.

Organisational culture has an impact on organisational policies, operations and the day-to-day actions of the workforce (Chen, 2004:432). Moreover, the stronger the organisational culture, the more it is directed to the marketplace, and the less the need for policy manuals, organisation charts, or detailed procedures and rules (Naicker, 2008:14). In these organisations, employees in all parts of the organisation know what they are supposed to do in most situations, because a handful of guiding values is very clear (Naicker, 2008:14).

From the above, one can conclude that the importance of organisational culture cannot be over emphasised. Organisational culture plays an important role in many aspects of an organisation – most importantly in an organisation's day-to-day work actions.

According to Fralinger, Olson, Pinto-Zipp and DiCorcia (2010:254), culture within an institution of higher learning can lead to successful governance through trust between managers and employees. University culture teaches and exhibits appropriate behaviour, motivates individuals, and governs information processing. These components of culture can shape internal relations and values (Fralinger *et al.*, 2010:254). In turn, strong values can give rise to beliefs about preferred modes of conduct and desirable objectives (Fralinger *et al.*, 2010:254).

## **2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

An organisation's culture can be captured in seven primary characteristics (Naicker, 2008:7): innovation and risk taking, attention to detail, outcome orientation, people orientation, team orientation, aggressiveness, and stability.

### **2.4.1 Innovation and risk taking**

Khan, Usoro, Majewski and Kuofie (2010:67) explain innovation as the introduction and implementation of new ideas that positively benefit the organisation and its members. Managers regard innovation as the major source of competitive advantage (Khan *et al.*, 2010:67). Different studies support innovation as an organisational culture component expressed in various ways such as improvement orientation (Wilderom & Van den Berg, 2004:570), adaptability (Denison & Fey, 2003:608), and high performance work orientation (Matthew, 2007:677). Innovation has been found to have a link with job satisfaction. For example, Bashayreh (2009:51) found that employees who work in an innovative and supportive culture are more likely to be satisfied with their job. In addition, Silverthorne (2004:522) concurred that an innovative culture plays an important role in the level of employee job satisfaction.



### 2.4.2 Attention to detail

Attention to detail defines the degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision and detail in the workplace (Naicker, 2008:7). However, Chow, Harrison, McKinnon and Wu (2001:14) argue that in the world today, a lot of time and effort within organisations is directed towards innovation and aggression and this carries with it a reduced emphasis on attention to detail. Similarly, in a study done by Bikmoradi, Brommels, Shoghli, Zavareh and Masiello (2008:424) on medical school faculty members, the participants pointed out that there is insufficient support for the aspect referred to – paying attention to detail – within the school. Furthermore, these results agree with research conducted by Dastmalchian, Javidan and Alam (2001:548) on leadership in Iran. On the other hand, Chow *et al.* (2001:14) found that an organisational culture that emphasises innovation, aggressiveness and respect for people, but de-emphasises attention to detail, engenders positive responses by employees.

### 2.4.3 Outcome orientation

Outcome orientation is the degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve those outcomes (Bashayreh, 2009:12). Kulkarni (2010:2) adds that some organisations pay more attention to results rather than to process, but argues that it is really the business model of each business that defines whether the focus should be on the outcome or the processes. There is no obvious theory and no prior empirical research to support expectations of association with outcomes (Chow *et al.*, 2001:8). Given that the study done by Chow *et al.* (2001) was conducted at industrial level, different findings might be obtained in a study done in a higher learning context regarding outcome orientation as a character used to measure organisational culture.

#### 2.4.4 People orientation

According to Kulkarni (2010:2), people orientation is still one of the most contentious issues in organisational culture today. How much of their time should management dedicate to its workforce? Some organisations are famous for being employee orientated – as they focus more on creating a better work environment for their ‘associates’ to work in (Kulkarni, 2010:2). Others, still, are feudal in nature, treating employees no better than work-machines (Kulkarni, 2010:2). Bauer and Erdogan (2014:1) explain people orientation as the extent to which management can take criticism from staff, and have concern for personal problems and personal development. A study by Choi, Martin and Park (2008:73) looking at organisational culture and job satisfaction in Korean professional baseball organisations, and found a positive impact of the clan culture on employee satisfaction because of the great importance of personal values and respect for people, which is presumptively universal regardless of cultural boundaries. Furthermore, they found that an organisation that is people orientated and which respects its employees tends to create reciprocal responses of commitment, satisfaction and intention to stay with the organisation. According to Bikmoradi *et al.* (2008:424), in academic culture, the aspects of risk taking and people-orientation give rise to innovation and creativity and can increase motivation, which however, is very low in Iranian medical schools.

#### 2.4.5 Team orientation

It is a well-established fact that synergistic teams help deliver better results compared to individual efforts (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014:1). Each organisation makes efforts to create teams that will have complementary skills and will work effectively together (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal & Roodt, 2013:492). Bashayreh (2009:12) outlines team orientation as the degree to which work activities are organized around teams rather than individuals. Chow *et al.* (2001:14) found a moderate association between team orientation and outcomes in Chinese-based collectivist culture because distinction between in-groups and out-groups is critical in these cultures. Chow *et al.* (2001) also found that team

orientation may be too broad a measure to capture the complex nature of team and group associations. In a study by Bikmoradi *et al.* (2008:424) on medical school faculty members, the authors found insufficient support for team orientation. Today, great emphasis is placed on ensuring that there is unity amongst employees in an organisation (Bashayreh, 2009:12). If employees cannot work together, this might lead to counter-productive measures which might mean the organisation does not realise its set goals (Bartell, 2003:52). Having a strong team in an organisation makes it competitive, as this shows that the organisation can manage different cultures within a single team.

#### **2.4.6 Aggressiveness**

According to Robbins *et al.* (2013), every organisation should be determined to be at the top of its field, and have a stable of regular clients who provide a steady income. Such an approach relates to the concept of aggressiveness. Aggressiveness refers to the degree to which employees in an organisation are competitive rather than easygoing (Naicker, 2008:8). Bauer and Erdogan (2014:1) explain that every organisation lays down the level of aggressiveness with which the employees work. Some businesses like Microsoft are known for their aggression and market-dominating strategies (Kulkarni, 2010:2). A study by Castiglia (2006:29-30) of Catholic colleges found that the faculty regard aggressiveness as the least preferred organisational culture characteristic, but claimed that the same characteristic does not better define what a Catholic college is all about. Chow *et al.* (2001:13) suggest that an organisation that has a great emphasis on aggressiveness tends to have a positive response to its culture. Further, the authors state that an organisation that encourages innovation and a strong sense of aggressiveness has superior global competitiveness and survival techniques in the environment – thus making aggressiveness an important character of organisational culture.

### 2.4.7 Stability

This is the degree to which organisational activities emphasise maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014:1). While some organisations believe that constant change and innovation is the key to their growth, others are more focused on making themselves and their operations stable (Robbins *et al.*, 2013:424). Today, management of many organisations are looking at ways to ensure stability of their organisation rather than looking at indiscriminate growth (Kulkarni, 2010:2). A study by Chow *et al.* (2001:13) found stability to be one of the dimensions of organisational culture that has a strong impact on affective commitment, job satisfaction, and information sharing. Similarly, in a study of medical school faculty members by Bikmoradi *et al.* (2008:424), the faculty participants in the study also emphasised stability versus openness to change as an important aspect of organisational culture.

Ntontela (2009:18) states that an organisation's culture can provide a sense of identity to its members. The more clearly an organisation's shared perception and values are defined, the more strongly people can associate themselves with their organisation's mission and feel a vital part of it. Just like having a strong character adds personality to a person, so organisational culture gives a business its own special identity (Fralinger *et al.*, 2010:254). It helps create cohesion among the employees as they share the primary characteristics of organisational culture and imbibe in them the spirit of team-work (Fralinger *et al.*, 2010:254).

## 2.5 DETERMINANTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Morgan (1997), cited in Ojo (2009:390), describes organisational culture as “an active living phenomenon through which people jointly create and recreate the worlds in which they live”. For Morgan, the basic question for organisational culture analysts is: Where do the shared frames of reference that make organisations culture possible, come from? How are they created? What are the key factors that help create the culture within

that organisation? Answers to these questions serve as guidelines for the newly created organisations such as institutions of higher learning in South Africa.

According to Van Stuyvesant Meijen (2007:42), the following factors are the determinants of organisational culture: the founder's philosophy, the characteristics of the organisation's members, the size of the organisation, organisational policies, the structure of the organisation, and the environment.

### **2.5.1 Founder's philosophy**

According to Robbins (2001:518) and Robbins and Judge (2009:6), a company's organisational culture does not pop out of thin air, and once it is established, it does not fade away. An organisation's current customs, traditions, and general way of doing things are largely due to what it has done before and the degree of success it has had with these endeavours, and this leads to its ultimate source – its founders (Robbins, 2001:518). The founders have a vision of what the organisation should be, and are unconstrained by previous customs and ideologies. According to Fralinger *et al.* (2010:254), a strong and deep understanding of tradition and history is necessary for an academic social system to thrive. Once accomplished, university hierarchies can have a shared mental model that allows all faculty and staff to give meaning to external and internal occurrences.

### **2.5.2 Characteristics of members**

Personal characteristics of the members of an organisation also affect the culture prevailing in the organisation (McKinnon, Harrison, Chow & Wu, 2003:30). For example, an organisation with well educated, ambitious and younger employees is likely to have a different organisational culture to an organisation with less educated and less upwardly mobile, older employees. The former might inculcate an environment of, *inter alia*, competitiveness, calculated risk-taking, and frankness of opinions. A fit between the organisation, its culture, and its individual employees should result in a satisfied

employee (Van Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007:44). The individual orientations of key leaders in the organisation have also been found to have a significant impact on determining the dominant organisational culture (Van Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007:44).

### **2.5.3 Organisational size**

The organisation's size is often regarded as the most important influence on the type of organisational culture (Van Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007:43). In larger organisations, operations are more formalised, which means that the cultures of large organisations are different given their function and the size of operations (Martin, 2001: 603). In a smaller organisation, it is much easier to foster a climate for creativity and innovation or to establish a participative kind of management with greater stress on horizontal distribution of responsibilities. On the other hand, in a large organisation, it is easier to have a more authoritative kind of management with stress on vertical distribution of responsibilities (Gray, Densten & Sarros, 2003:5).

### **2.5.4 Organisational policies**

Specific organisational policies can significantly influence a specific dimension of organisational culture (Dagahuya, 2013:1). For example, if the organisation policy states that layoffs will be used only as a last resort to cope with business downturn, then it would, in general, foster an internal environment that is supportive and humanistic (Dagahuya, 2013:1). Ntontela (2009:18) states that one way to understand organisational culture is to examine the employees' perception of the organisational policy and practices. According to Fralinger *et al.* (2010:254), the organisational policies in a university are normally communicated to faculty, staff, and students, either verbally or in the form of written bylaws and handbooks.

### 2.5.5 Organisational structure

According to Martin (2001: 603), the design or structure of an organisation affects the perception of its internal environment. For example, a bureaucratic structure has an organisational culture very different from a functional structure. Furthermore, when management is designing the organisation it usually takes into account the nature of the work as well as the people, because the kind of technology used within an organisation will have an effect on the culture of that organisation. An organisation will emphasise its employees' technical skills in the values that govern its culture if the organisation specializes in the use of advanced technology within its operations (Martin, 2001:603).

### 2.5.6 Environment

Organisational culture is not only influenced by factors existing within the organisation (Martin, 2001: 603). Societal forces help shape organisational culture as well (Martin, 2001: 603-4). The external environment of an organisation is made up of a number of dependent and independent elements such as laws and regulations, the economy, technology, and demographics, and the way in which the organisation interacts with these elements alters the culture of that organisation (Martin, 2001:603-604). The nature of the environment is often taken for granted by the employees of an organisation within that environment, but is important in determining the organisational culture. According to Bartell (2003:53), the environment within which universities operate is currently complex, rapidly changing, and demanding. Mass education, state funding reduction, distance learning and capital equipment cost are some of the environmental components that have a persistent and strong impact on programmes, delivery systems, internal relationships and organisational culture (Bartell, 2003:53).

The university culture is a great tapestry, where the beliefs and practices of trustees, senior administrators, faculty members, campus community members, competitors, and society combine to fundamentally shape the effectiveness of that university (Fralinger *et al.*, 2010:254). Knowing what determines an organisation's culture, and understanding

how to make it work positively for the organisation, can assist an organisation function more effectively.

## 2.6 TYPOLOGIES OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

A number of typologies have been designed with regards to organisational culture (Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw & Oosthuizen, 2004). Typologies are useful because they provide broad overviews of the variations in which organisational cultures are conceptualised (Van Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007:29). The most common typologies of organisational culture are: bureaucratic culture, clan culture, adhocracy culture, and market culture.

### 2.6.1 Bureaucratic culture

Bureaucratic culture forms around values of power and control, clear delineations of responsibility and authority, and high degrees of systematising and formality (Lok, Westwood & Crawford, 2005:494; Berson, Oreg & Dvir, 2007:3). This type of culture values rules, hierarchical coordination, formalisation and standard operating procedures – with the long term concerns being efficiency, predictability and stability (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 365-366). Managers within a bureaucratic organisation are good coordinators, organisers and enforcers of rules and procedures that are clearly defined (Cameron & Quinn, 2006:38). A study by Ferreira and Hill (2007:647) in public and private Portuguese universities found supporting evidence for bureaucratic culture in higher education context. The authors found that private universities had a stronger commitment than public universities to bureaucratic culture. Similarly, Bikmoradi *et al.* (2008:423), in their study of medical schools in Iran, found that bureaucratic culture is visible in institutions of higher education. Bikmoradi *et al.* (2008:423) state that management of medical universities in Iran is governmental and this is because of the bureaucratic and centralised structure within the universities and thus the universities may probably be affected by political rather than scientific management. Further, the authors state that effective academic leadership in Iranian medical schools is held back



by organisational routines such as politicisation, centralisation, bureaucracy, conservativeness, lack of meritocracy, and instability of management.

### **2.6.2 Clan culture**

Organisational cultures based on the clan concept are focused on a supportive work environment (Richard, McMillan-Capehart, Bhuian & Taylor, 2000:819-820). Employees are treated like family and individual interests are superseded by the organisation's interests. In addition, the commitment of organisational members is ensured through participation (Brown, 2011:36). The members recognise an obligation that is beyond their job descriptions, with the understanding that their contributions to the organisation may exceed their contractual agreements (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 366). This culture emphasises cohesiveness, participation, and team work. Clan culture encourages horizontal communications and human relations. There is less emphasis on formal coordination and controlled decision-making (Brown, 2011:36). Organisational members in clan cultures contribute loyalty, trust, and continued membership – while the organisation provides competent management, participation and a sense of belonging (Richard *et al.*, 2000:819-820). Berrio (2003:9) comments that, in a nationwide study conducted in the USA, almost two thirds of colleges and universities had a clan culture, and trustees, administrators and department chairpersons (a group comparable to our general managers) perceived the clan culture as being the most effective type of culture for colleges and universities. In most institutions of higher education surveyed by Obendhim and Johnson (2004), cited by Brown (2011:36), clan culture was dominant; however, some institutions reported no culture type, which supports the presence of multiple cultures.

### **2.6.3 Adhocracy culture**

This culture reflects values around change, entrepreneurialism, excitement, and dynamism, and there is an acceptance of experimentation, innovation, risk, challenge, being on the leading edge, and creativity (Hellriegel, Slocum & Woodman, 2001:53; Lok

*et al.*, 2005:494; Berson *et al.*, 2007:3). This organisational culture type reacts quickly to change, and also creates it because individual initiative, flexibility and freedom promoting growth are encouraged and rewarded (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004:367). Effectiveness within this organisational culture type means providing new and unique products and rapid growth. Organisational culture type has also been thought of as being important for understanding organisational transformation or innovation in higher education (Cai, 2008:221). Obenchain *et al.* (2003) cited in Cai (2008:221), for instance, have empirically verified a clear relationship between organisational culture and innovation in a large sample in which 1,912 institutions were involved. The results of their study suggested that an adhocracy culture is associated with higher levels of organisational innovation than other types of culture. Similarly, Ferreira and Hill (2008:648) – in their study of organisational cultures in public and private Portuguese universities – found that the general managers of both the public and private universities perceived their university to have a stronger adhocratic culture. According to Mozaffari (2008:687) the findings concur with the fact that almost all the universities in a nationwide study currently have a adhocracy culture. In the same study, faculties and department chairpersons perceive the adhocracy culture as being the most effective culture type for colleges and universities (desired culture type). This finding suggests that nine universities have a combination of the core characteristics of the dominant adhocracy culture (Mozaffari, 2008:687).

#### **2.6.4 Market culture**

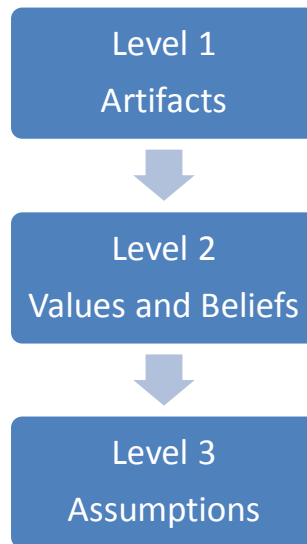
The achievements of measurable and demanding goals, especially those that are financially and market-based, characterise a market culture (Ferreira & Hill, 2008:638). Hard-driving competitiveness and a profit orientation prevail throughout the organisation that has a market culture (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2001:53; Brown, 2011:35-36). The employee in an organisation that has a market culture are responsible for an agreed level of performance – with the organisation exchanging this for an agreed level of remuneration and reward in return (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 367). Competitiveness and a profit-gaining orientation therefore exist throughout the market culture organisational type, because

increased levels of performance from the employee are rewarded through increased compensation from the organisation (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004:367). Ferreira and Hill (2008:647) found that in the private university – not in the public – considerable homogeneity existed among general, technical and administrative managers regarding the extent to which they perceived the university as having a strong market culture. This homogeneity suggests a coalescence of managerial views that may well have resulted from a differentially greater effect on the private university of reduced market size and intensified competition.

According to Bailey (2011:21), research findings supported the use of the four culture types in organisational studies of post-secondary institutions. Furthermore, Cai (2008:220) states that all of these studies suggest that no institution can be characterised by a single culture type. In some institutions, one type is clearly dominant, while in other institutions no dominant culture type is reported. Findings consistently suggest that the clan culture is the most frequent culture visible among higher education institutions (Cai, 2008:220).

## **2.7 LEVELS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Organisational culture exists on several levels, which differ in terms of visibility and invisibility (Naicker, 2008:10). These visible and invisible levels of organisational culture comprise cognitive components such as assumptions, values, and artifacts (Brown, 2011:28). Numerous studies on organisational culture use the model of Schein (1992) to emphasise the structure and workings of organisational culture (Pushnykh & Chemeris, 2012:165). The following diagram (Figure 2.1) explains Schein's (1992) levels of culture:



**Figure 2.1: Levels of organisational culture.** Source: Schein (1992)

Figure 2.1 depicts organisational culture in terms of three levels – assumptions as the lowest level, followed by values and beliefs, with artefacts as the highest level of cultural manifestation.

### 2.7.1 Assumptions

Assumptions are the least visible or deepest level of organisational culture. These are the shared assumptions of reality used to rationalise behaviour (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2001:513). Assumptions are unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs that are the source of values and actions, with basic assumptions being the unquestioned truths that organisational members hold regarding the nature of human nature, human activity, and human relationships (Brown, 2011:28). These can be perpetuated by folk tales and myths – like “we are the best at...” (Brown, 2011:28). Van Stuyvesant Meijen (2007:26) argues that an organisation only has a culture when it has had enough of a history to have developed these sets of shared assumptions. Similarly, Smith (2003: 249) states that assumptions are developed, invented or discovered by employees out of their experience, and future employees therefore view these assumptions as valid because they appear to have been successful in the past. These assumptions are seen as

important because they define how employees should perceive, think and feel about organisational problems (Smith, 2003: 249).

### **2.7.2 Values and beliefs**

Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 358) identify values as basic concepts and beliefs about conditions that are very important and meaningful to employees and are stable over time. Values therefore form the heart of organisational culture. Values that have been stable for a long time without being contravened, may be taken for granted – so much so that employees no longer become aware of them. Some values are closely associated with moral and ethical codes, and determine what employees ought to do. As values begin to be taken for granted because they are seen to work reliably, social validation may turn values into a scarcely questioned belief (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004:358). Nazir (2005: 40) concurs by stating that having values that are both commonly shared and strongly held is very important within an organisation – especially to organisations operating in the service sector. According to Bartell (2003:54), values and beliefs are thought to greatly influence decision-making processes at universities and shape individual and organisational behaviours. Behaviours based on underlying assumptions and beliefs are conveyed through stories, special language and institutional norms (Bartell, 2003:54).

### **2.7.3 Artifacts and symbols**

Artifacts are described as what is observed upon entry into the organisation (Naicker, 2008:11). They are the symbols and signs of communication to organisation members through visible and audible behaviours (Brown, 2011:28). Cultural symbols can be language, jargon, and physical objects (Naicker, 2008:11). A symbol is an object that can be used to represent an underlying meaning beyond its intrinsic context (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 359; Greenberg & Baron, 2003: 523). Symbols could be words, objects and gestures that get their meaning from organisational socialising. Organisations often rely on symbols as the simplest and most basic observable form of expressing culture

(Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004:359; Greenberg and Baron, 2003:523). Thus, according to Robbins (2001:526), the layout of corporate headquarters, the types of automobiles' top executives given, are all examples of material symbols. Others include the size of offices, the elegance of furnishings, executive perks, and dress attire. The material symbols convey to employees who is important, the degree of egalitarianism desired by top management, and the kinds of behaviour that is appropriate (Smit, Cronje, Brevis & Vrba, 2011:259-260).

Although there are various other hierarchical models of culture, it is important to note that actual organisational cultures are not as neat and tidy as the models seem to imply (Naicker 2008:12). Where there are cultures, there are also usually sub-cultures. Where there is agreement about cultures, there can also be disagreements and counter cultures, and there can also be significant differences between espoused culture and culture in practice (Burnes 2004:172).

## **2.8 THE TRANSMISSION OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Individuals are enculturated into an organisation through observation, participation and training (Robbins, 2001:525). Bailey and Peoples (2002:17) describe enculturation as the process whereby an individual absorbs the details of his or her particular culture, and implies that deviations from acceptable behaviour could be punished. These patterns of acceptable behaviour are communicated by means of language, stories and practices to the various members.

### **2.8.1 Language**

Many organisations and units within organisations use language as a way to identify members of a culture or a sub-culture (Naicker, 2008:17). By learning the language used within the organisation, members attest to their acceptance of the culture and, in so doing, help to preserve it. Organisations over time often develop unique acronyms and jargon to describe equipment, offices, key personnel, suppliers, customers, or

products that relate to their business (Greenberg & Baron, 2003: 523). New employees are frequently overwhelmed by these acronyms and jargons that – after six months on the job – become fully part of their language (Greenberg & Baron, 2003: 523). Once assimilated, this terminology acts as common denominator that unites members of a given culture or subculture within the organisation (Robbins, 2001:526).

### **2.8.2 Stories (narratives)**

Narratives are drawn from the organisation's history and focus on a unified, single event (Brown, 1995:13). Individuals tell narratives because they assist in influencing others' understandings of situations and events, as well as illustrating knowledge and insight into how their organisation works (Van Stuyvesant Meijen, 2007:28). Van Stuyvesant Meijen (2007:28) state that narratives are also important indicators of “cultural values and beliefs, formal and informal rules and procedures, the consequences of deviance from, and compliance with, the rules, social categories and status, and thus the power structure of an organisation”. Robbins (2001:525) argues that culture is learned by employees who listen to other employees or managers who relate stories about how earlier managers, or even founders of a company, treated their customers, or how they handled tricky situations that arose in the company. Stories such as these circulate through many organisations – consequently transmitting the culture from year to year.

### **2.8.3 Shared rituals (practices)**

Rituals are repetitive sequences of activities that express and reinforce the key values of the organisation, whose goals are more important, whose people are important, and which are expendable (Naicker, 2008: 16). Certain organisations hold rituals in the form of annual awards ceremonies, in recognition of outstanding services or in recognition of success at achieving certain targets set by the organisation – such as sales targets. These functions act as a motivator, by publicly recognising outstanding performance.

Organisational culture comprises the beliefs, values, norms and assumptions that the founder of the organisation had of it (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 357). These are sustained by being passed over to the people in the organisation, making the people the greater sources of the culture (Moorhead & Griffin, 2001:519). A strong culture can be seen through its employees and can bring good business to an organisation (Moorhead & Griffin, 2001:519). Through observation of building architecture, campus facility maintenance, and student interactions and attire, one can tell a great deal about the university culture (Fralinger *et al.*, 2010:264). University leaders are increasingly becoming more aware of the concept of culture and its significant role in university change and development (Fralinger *et al.*, 2010:264).

## **2.9 MEASUREMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

While undeniably it is important to assess the culture of an organisation, doing so can be challenging (Brown, 2011:30). For an effective assessment of an organisation's culture, management needs to pay attention to the visible elements of organisational culture such as artifacts and symbols, and the invisible elements – for example, attitudes, beliefs and values (Wakabayashi, 2005:130). Typically, the core values of an organisation are measured, as reflected in member behaviour and organisational practices; these are considered to be the most readily apparent and measurable forms of culture (Ashkanasy, Broadfoot & Falkus, 2000:131).

In order to assess the culture of an organisation, researchers often utilise survey instruments (Ashkanasy *et al.*, 2000:131). Surveys have the particular advantage of replication, can be used for comparative studies, and also provide managers with a platform for profiling organisational culture, and instituting and measuring further organisational culture change initiatives (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010:108). Several instruments have been developed to measure organisational culture, and each of them focuses on issues or attributes considered to be key in governing the culture of an organisation. Currently, there are a number of survey instruments that assess organisational culture (Ashkanasy *et al.*, 2000:131). These instruments are



Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI), Organisational Culture Profile (OCP), and the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI).

The Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI) introduced by Cooke and Rousseau (1988), measures 12 culture styles that are purported to exist across all types of organisations (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010:108). These culture styles are grouped into three culture types: (1) The constructive cluster, which consists of behavioural norms that represent employee's interaction with colleagues and also the way an organisation's employees will achieve their goals. The behavioural norms in this type are achievement, self-actualising, humanistic-encouraging and affiliative; (2) The passive or defensive cluster. In this cluster employees have sufficient knowledge, help each other and interact in ways with other employees that will not threaten their own security. This culture type consists of approval, conventional, dependent and avoidance; (3) The aggressive/defensive cluster. This culture type includes behavioural norms oppositional, power, competitive and perfectionist. Employees who ask for help are considered weak. Therefore, members in this culture type complete tasks in a way that protects their status (Khan *et al.*, 2010:58).

While the OCI has been used in many studies, there are some limitations in to it. For example, some of the behavioural norms resemble other norms – for example, oppositional and competitive (Khan *et al.*, 2010:58). In addition, categorising the organisational culture into three types and then measuring each of these three categories separately is not the best approach to measure organisational culture, because not only will interpretation of data be difficult, but important data can lose its value by combining it (Khan *et al.*, 2010:58). OCI has been criticised by Scott *et al.* (2003:940) as being complex to complete and the respondents may lose interest. It is also expensive for most organisations to use OCI for measuring organisational culture because much time and resources are needed (Khan *et al.*, 2010:58).

The Organisational Culture Profile (OCP) developed by O'Rielly, Chatman and Caldwellin (1991) is based on the belief that cultures can be distinguished by values

that are reinforced within organisations (Sarros, Gray & Densten, 2003:2). OCP is a self-reporting tool which measures organisational culture by distinguishing among seven categories - Innovation, Stability, Respect for People, Outcome, Attention to Detail, Team Orientation, and Aggressiveness. The OCP has been identified as one of the top ten organisational culture and values instruments in use today (Sarros *et al.*, 2003:2). In a review of 18 culture measures, the OCP was one of only a few instruments to provide details concerning reliability and validity (Ashkanasy *et al.*, 2000). There are, however, limitations in this model. For example, Howard (1999) cited in Sarros *et al.* (2003:3) suggested that the reliability of all OCP dimensions require investigation. Furthermore, Cable and Vandenberghe (1999) cited in Sarros *et al.* (2003:3) also confirm the need to examine the structure of the OCP in more detail.

The Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) taps into an organisation's focus on four common competing values and generates a corresponding profile of organisational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The OCAI consists of four scales: clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy. Each subscale comprises six items that address employee perceptions of core cultural elements – such as dominant cultural types, leadership, management of employees, organisational glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success. The questionnaire has a six-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 to 6. A reliability analysis was conducted to investigate the internal consistency of the OCAI by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The reliability co-efficient for the four cultural types ranged from .76 to .85 (Choi *et al.*, 2008:68).

The above are some of the popular instruments that measure what are considered to be universal organisational values (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010:108). Organisational culture researchers and practitioners however need a general model that can be applied to different organisations and in different contexts. This is a common limitation in most of the previous research (Khan *et al.*, 2010:63). Thus, despite the popularity of these generic instruments, it is argued that cultural forms evolve to fit industry dynamics and demands and there can be great variation across industries (Lee & Yu, 2004:34). Other authors have argued that industry is a key determinant of organisational culture (Choi &

Scott, 2008:37; Ogbonna & Harris, 2002:700; Smith & Shilbury, 2004:138; Velliquette & Rapert, 2001:74). Thus, despite their widespread use, research generic organisational culture instruments do not appear to capture the nuances of particular industries (Colyer, 2000:331; Lee & Yu, 2004:350; MacIntosh & Dohery, 2008:109; Ogbonna & Harris, 2002:701; Smith & Shilbury, 2004:139).

In keeping with the call by Smith and Shilbury and others for industry-specific scales, this study will use the OCP of O'Reilly *et al.* (1991), as adapted by Chow *et al.* (2001) and Sarros *et al.* (2003). This instrument was chosen because it was also used in previous studies of organisational culture (Chow *et al.*, 2001; Sarros *et al.*, 2003; Nazir, 2005).

## **2.10 SUMMARY**

Chapter two introduced the concept of organisational culture and highlighted its importance. Furthermore, the chapter sought to provide an overview of the literature pertaining to organisational culture's characteristics, determinants, types, levels, the transmission of organisational culture and how organisational culture is measured. From the literature review it is evident that organisational culture is a phenomenon that has been extensively researched and is of significant importance to both employees and management.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **JOB SATISFACTION**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

According to Mettle (2005:47), job satisfaction has been a popular topic for researchers in a wide area of disciplines such as industrial psychology and public administration. The principal reason why it is so extensively researched, is that it relates to significant association with several variables (Luddy, 2005:18). For example, it has a positive association with life satisfaction (Green 2000:6), organisational commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2001:608), and job performance (Sulaiman & Khan, 2012:1). Most studies on job satisfaction have been done with industry workers. However, it is perhaps misleading to assume that findings pertaining to this population can be generalised to all people in all occupations. People differ in the extent to which they report job satisfaction, and the explanation for the differences lies in the nature of the jobs done by employees (Ghazi, Shahzada & Shah, 2012:329). For this reason, the present study will investigate a different occupation (academic professionals) – in order to bring more diverse findings to the literature.

The purpose of this chapter is to give an overview of the concept of job satisfaction. The literature reviewed addresses the definition of job satisfaction, the theoretical framework of job satisfaction, tools used to measure job satisfaction, antecedents of job satisfaction, job satisfaction in institutions of higher learning, and, finally, some empirical evidence on the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction.

#### **3.2 DEFINITION OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Research on job satisfaction stretches back more than five decades, making it one of the most frequently studied variables in organisational behaviour (Beam, 2006:170). Interest in studying the phenomenon emanates from its observed influence on different

aspects related to the successful operation of an organisation – such as job commitment and productivity (Chimanikire, Mutandwa, Gadzirayi, Muzondo & Mutundwa, 2007:167). Various researchers have come up with different definitions of job satisfaction. The best known and most quoted definition is that of Choi, Martin and Park (2008:65), who define job satisfaction as "a pleasurable affective condition resulting from one's appraisal of the way in which the experienced job situation meets one's needs, values and expectations". Similarly, Chimanikire, *et al.* (2007:167) define job satisfaction as "a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job, an affective reaction to one's job and an attitude towards one's job". On the other hand, Weiss (2002:173) argue that job satisfaction is an attitude – but points out that researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which affect emotion, beliefs and behaviours.

From the above definition, one can state that job satisfaction explains what makes people want to go to work and what makes them happy about the job they do. Job satisfaction can be said to be the positive reaction one has towards ones job and how it is assessed. For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction will be defined as “an attitude that individuals have about their jobs. It is an extent to which one feels positively or negatively about the intrinsic aspects (recognition, advancement and responsibility) and/or extrinsic aspects (salary, supervision and work conditions) of one's job" (Choi *et al.*, 2008:65; Alam & Mohammad, 2009:125).

### **3.3 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION**

To better conceptualise job satisfaction, various theories have emerged and have provided the vital framework for understanding the concept (Worrell, 2004:11). The theories that attempt to explain job satisfaction are divided into three categories in the literature (Green, 2000:7). These are: content theories, process theories and situational theories. These categories help describe the psychological importance of job satisfaction to the employee, the process of interaction of values and needs, and the

relationships between organisational and individual characteristics in job satisfaction (Goff, 2004:12). Explanations of each theory are presented below.

### 3.3.1 Content theories

According to Worrell (2004:12), content theories suggest that job satisfaction occurs when one's need for growth and self-actualisation are met by ones job. Similarly, Boeve (2007:13) states that "real satisfaction with the job could only be provided by allowing individuals enough responsibility and discretion to enable them to grow mentally". If given this opportunity to grow, then job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state within one's job experiences (Boeve, 2007:13). Smit, Cronje, Brevis and Vrba (2011:387) state that content theories attempt to answer some questions like, "what needs do people want to satisfy, and what are the factors that influence individual behaviour?" People have needs that they wish to satisfy, and they direct their behaviour towards satisfying these needs (Smit *et al.*, 2011:387). The fulfillment of needs and attainment of values can lead to job satisfaction (Goff, 2004:12-13). Although there are many content theories in the literature, the major ones discussed in this study are Maslow's (1954) Need hierarchy theory, and Herzberg's (1966) Motivator-hygiene theory (Luddy, 2005:24; Green, 2000:7).

#### 3.3.1.1 *Maslow's hierarchy theory*

The basis of Maslow's motivation theory is that human beings are motivated by unsatisfied needs, and that certain lower factors need to be satisfied before higher needs can be met (Malik, 2010:144). As each need in terms of the hierarchy becomes substantially satisfied, the following need becomes dominant (Saif, Nawaz, Jan & Khan, 2012:1385). Maslow's theory focuses on five categories of individual needs arranged in ascending order of importance. These are: physiological, safety, belongingness and love (social), esteem, and self-actualization (Goof, 2004:13). Arnolds and Boshoff (2001:39) state that the first level of the hierarchy refers to the satisfaction of the physiological needs, which include the basic needs such as air, water, food and sleep. The satisfaction of physiological needs in the workplace is enhanced by providing an

individual with remuneration for service rendered and in turn the individual can satisfy these needs. According to Suh (2009:1), this is the first reason that motivates people to work hard. It also depends on the degree of need. If losing a job means the possibility of starving or losing a home, most people will naturally be inclined to work harder.

At level two of the theory are safety needs – security and protection from physical and emotional harm (Luddy, 2005:24). At this level, the employer must provide a safe working environment, while the onus rests with individuals to ensure their own personal safety outside of the workplace. According to Arnolds and Boshoff (2001:39), at this level, safety and security can be assured in the form of job security and fringe benefits. Level three of the theory refers to the social needs, that entail the need for affiliation, focusing on the relationship with co-workers or subordinates (Luddy, 2005:24). Luddy concludes that at this level, social support of employees is necessary to enhance performance. If relationships are sour or there is a lack of relation amongst co-workers, this can lead to boredom – with unmotivated workers taking extra-long lunch breaks or arriving at work late. The lack of relation amongst co-workers can be avoided if management makes an effort to plan office outings and teamwork activities such as volunteer work that gives back to the community – or have team-building exercises performed per department and later for the whole organisation.

The esteem needs exist at level four of the hierarchy, and are divided into two parts: (i) the need for recognition and respect from others, and (ii) a need for a positive self-image and self-respect (Strydom, 2011:23). According to Arnolds and Boshoff (2001:39), individuals with high self-perceived ability and self-image are more likely to be higher achievers on task performance, than those who have a low self-perceived ability, low success expectancy, and low self-image. Suh (2009:1) adds to this by stating that many managers and bosses subconsciously overlook this important need. To create happy and motivated workers, it is necessary to make them feel important and appreciated. For example, when employees do a good job on a project, reward them with bonuses or other perks and benefits. The self-actualisation needs are at the last level of Maslow's hierarchy, and are arrived at when all previous levels have been

satisfied to a large extent (Wong & Heng, 2009:88). The satisfaction of self-actualisation in the workplace is enhanced by creating opportunities for promotion, allowing autonomy, and providing challenging assignments and the optimal utilisation of individual's ability. This is specifically prevalent in the case of top management, where the factors mentioned above impact positively on employee job performance (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2001:39).

Maslow's theory indicates that job satisfaction exists when the job and the environment surrounding the job meet an individual's hierarchical needs (Goof, 2004:13; Boeve, 2007:13). Although Maslow's needs theory is used extensively, it has been widely criticised. For example, critics argue that there is lack of empirical evidence to sustain the theory (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2001:39). Whaba and Bridwell (1976) cited in Green (2000:7-8) did an extensive review of the research findings on the needs hierarchy concept. The results indicate that there was no clear evidence showing that human needs are classified into five categories, or that these categories are structured in a special hierarchy. Luddy (2005:26) adds that there is no evidence of the five categories of needs being reflected in order of satisfaction in any special hierarchy. Similarly, Wong and Heng (2009:88) posit that little support has been found for the prediction that need structures are organised along the scope suggested by Maslow. However, despite limited research evidence supporting the theory, it enjoys wide acceptance (Green, 2008:8).

### 3.3.1.2 *Herzberg two factor theory*

Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) proposed that an employee's motivation to work is best understood when the respective attitude of that employee is understood (Aydin, 2012:107). As a result of their inquiry into the attitudes of employees, Herzberg *et al.* (1959) developed two distinct lists of factors – known as "hygiene" factors and "motivator" factors – as being important in affecting overall employee motivation and job satisfaction. The hygiene factors relate to job context (work environment), and involve, for example, company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions (White, 2008:29; Parveen & Abalagn, 2012:3). The



motivators relate to job content (work itself) and lead to job satisfaction. These include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement (Goff, 2004:13; Parveen & Abalagn, 2012:3).

Goff (2004:13-14) attests that the motivator-hygiene theory is a major foundational theory on the study of job satisfaction. The intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction based on motivators and hygienes allow for the conceptual understanding of work and how it motivates and provides satisfaction for employees. Assessing the motivator-hygiene theory, Locke, Fitzpatrick, and White (1983) cited in Green (2000:8), pointed out that Herzberg's theory is method-dependent because Herzberg used what is known as the critical-incident technique in the development of his theory. This type of research approach has been the only one which consistently leads to results confirming the theory. The results of other applied methods have indicated that hygienes can be associated with job satisfaction, and motivators with job dissatisfaction (Green, 2000:8).

A criticism of Herzberg's theory is that it oversimplifies work motivation (Luddy, 2005:29). Luddy points out that empirical evidence for Herzberg's theory is scarce and most support around this theory has been obtained using Herzberg's own unique methods – consisting of critical interviews. However, according to Schermerhorn (1993) cited in Luddy (2005:29), Herzberg's two-factor theory is an important frame of reference for managers who want to gain an understanding of job satisfaction and related job performance issues. Schermerhorn asserts that Herzberg's theory is a useful reminder that there are two important aspects of all jobs: what people do in terms of job tasks (job content), and the work setting in which they do it (job context). Schermerhorn suggests that managers should attempt to always eliminate poor hygiene sources of job dissatisfaction in the workplace and ensure the building of satisfier factors into job content – to maximise opportunities for job satisfaction. Despite criticism and support his theory, Herzberg extended Maslow's needs hierarchy concept and made it more applicable to work motivation (Luddy, 2005:29).

### 3.3.2 Process theories

According to Worrell (2004:12), process theories attempt to explain job satisfaction by looking at how well the job meets one's expectations, values and needs. Smit *et al.* (2011:393) suggest that the focus of the process theories is on how motivation actually occurs. The emphasis is on the process of individual goal setting and the evaluation of satisfaction after the goals have been achieved. These theories look at how, and by which goals individuals are motivated (Smit *et al.*, 2011:93). Vroom's expectancy theory (1982) and Adams' equity theory (1963) are leading process theories (Malik, 2010:145), amongst many others.

#### 3.3.2.1 *Vroom's expectancy theory*

Vroom (1964) developed the Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy (VIE) theory of work motivation. Valence is defined as the rewards that are valued by employees; Instrumentality is defined as whether or not management will actually follow through on rewards; and Expectancy is defined as what employees think they can accomplish based on individual characteristics (White, 2008:31). Vroom's expectancy theory suggests that individuals make work-related decisions based on a belief that a certain level of effort will lead to a certain level of performance and reward. The theory explains that people are not only driven on the basis of needs or achievements, but also make choices about what they will or will not do (Boeve, 2007:14). In this regard, the theory links expectation and task accomplishment to the probability of recognition (Luddy, 2005:31).

The theory argues that performance is not only based on intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction or rewards, but also on the characteristics of an employee (White, 2008:31). A criticism of the theory is that Vroom did not succeed in converting motivation to perform an act, into the actual performance of that act (Luddy, 2005:32). Although the theory has its criticisms, research evidence is supportive of the theory (Saif *et al.*, 2012:1389).

### 3.3.2.2 *Adam's equity theory*

Adams (1963) equity theory proposes that workers compare their own outcomes received from their jobs and the organisation, against the inputs they contribute (outcome-input ratio) (Boeve, 2007:14). Outcomes include pay, fringe benefits, status, opportunities for advancement, job security, and anything else that workers desire and can receive from the organisation. Inputs are employees' special skills, training, education, work experience, effort on the job, time, and anything else that workers perceive that they contribute to an organisation (Green, 2000:9). Malik, (2010:145) states that the theory extends beyond the individual self, and incorporates influence and comparison of other people's situations – for example, colleagues and friends – in forming a comparative view and awareness of equity, which commonly manifests as a sense of what is fair. When people feel fairly or advantageously treated, they are more likely to be motivated; when they feel unfairly treated they are highly prone to feelings of disaffection and demotivation (Malik, 2010:145). The way that people measure this sense of fairness is at the heart of equity theory (Luddy, 2005:33).

According to Goff (2004:15) the employee compares his or her outcome-input ratio to the outcome-input ratio of another employee they perceive to be similar to them. When the individual employee determines an unequal outcome-input ratio, this can create job dissatisfaction and may motivate the worker to restore equity. When ratios are equal, workers experience job satisfaction and are motivated to maintain their current ratio of outcomes and inputs – or raise their inputs if they want their outcomes to increase (Green, 2000:9). On the other hand, inequity exists when there is a perception amongst employees that they are under-rewarded relevant to others or if they are over-rewarded in relation to their job outputs (Ofovwe, Ofili, Ojetu & Okosun, 2013:664). The result is that individuals might contribute less in the workplace if they are of the opinion that they are being underpaid. On the other hand, employees might offer more in terms of their expected job outputs as they may be more motivated to contribute if a job pays well in comparison to their job outputs (Malik, 2013:53).

### 3.3.3 Situational theories

Situational theorists assume that the interaction of variables such as task characteristics, organisational characteristics, and individual characteristics, influence job satisfaction (Green, 2000:9). Examples of these theories, among others, are the situational occurrences theory of job satisfaction (Quarstein, McAfee & Glassman, 1992) and Glisson and Durick's (1988) model of predictors of job satisfaction.

#### 3.3.3.1 *Situational occurrences theory*

Quarstein, McAfee and Glassman (1992) developed the situational occurrence theory, that has two main components: situational characteristics and situational occurrences. Examples of situational characteristics are working conditions, pay, company policies, promotional opportunities, and supervision (Worrell, 2004:15). Potential employees evaluate situational characteristics before they accept a job. After the employee accepts the job, he/she starts to evaluate the situational occurrences. Situational occurrences are the activities and actions that occur within the workplace that can have a positive or negative influence on the employee (Kent, Taylor & White, 2002:66). An example of positive situational occurrence can be rewarding an employee by giving a free trip for outstanding work performance, while a negative situational occurrence can be offensive language use by the supervisor. Kent, Taylor and White (2002) theorise that overall job satisfaction is a function of the employee making continuous evaluations about situational characteristics and situational occurrences. According to researchers (Goff, 2004:16; Green, 2000:9) a combination of situational characteristics and situational occurrences can be a stronger predictor of overall job satisfaction than each factor by itself.

#### 3.3.3.2 *Predictors of job satisfaction model*

Glisson and Durick (1988) examined the worker, job, and organisational characteristics, as three variables for predicting job satisfaction and the employee's commitment to the organisation. The authors proposed that: job characteristics would be an excellent predictor of job satisfaction; demographic characteristics of workers would be a poor job

satisfaction predictor; and that the characteristics of the organisation could be a moderate predictor. The results of Glisson and Durick's predictor model support job characteristics as the major factor influencing employee job satisfaction. Organisational characteristics had a slight influence, and demographic characteristics have little to no effect on job satisfaction (Goff, 2004:16-17; Green, 2000:9-10).

Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory was chosen for this study. This framework was chosen because Herzberg's original work has served as a foundation for most research on job satisfaction (Rungruangchaikit, 2008:8). Furthermore, the theory has been used in previous studies on job satisfaction in institutions of higher education (Castillo & Cano, 2004:65; Malik, Nawab & Danish, 2010:19; Sowmya & Panchanatham, 2011:76). For instance, Karimi (2007:89) found that the theory helps in understanding the job satisfaction in 'educational settings'. Similarly, in a study by Islam and Ali (2013:87), investigating the applicability of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory on private sector university teachers in the Peshawar district, it was found that most teachers expressed their "satisfaction" with hygiene variables like the nature of supervision in their universities, relations with their boss, with working conditions, and relations with co-workers. Based on the above examples, it is clear see why Herzberg's theory is appropriate for this study.

### **3.4 DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION**

According to Green (2000:11), "originally, job satisfaction was studied as a predictor of behaviours such as performance, absenteeism, and turnover. More recently, the interest has shifted toward identifying factors that influence or predict job satisfaction. Personal and work-related characteristics can influence job satisfaction". Almost any job-related factor can influence a person's level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Pushpakurmari, 2008:102). The major determinants of job satisfaction are divided into organisational and personal factors.

### 3.4.1 Organisational factors

Several studies have suggested that job satisfaction can be determined by three major organisational factors: (1) relating to work settings; (2) relating to specific aspects of jobs; and (3) associated with the individuals involved (Onukwube, 2012:44). The organisational factors examined in this study are: work itself, pay, supervision, promotion opportunities, and co-worker and working conditions.

#### 3.4.1.1 *The work itself*

Sulaiman and Khan (2012:7) state that work itself refers to the employee's feeling about the job – whether the employee likes his job or not. Shah, Rehman, Akhtar, Zafer and Riaz (2012:274) refer to the work itself as "the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and growth and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results". Rufai (2011:34) explains that employees' preference tends to be jobs that let them apply their abilities and skills – and embody a diversity of tasks, freedom, and performance feedback. This preference makes work mentally challenging. However, challenge has to be balanced. Not enough challenge can lead to boredom, too much challenge can make employees experience frustration and feelings of failure, and an appropriate level of challenge will cause feelings of pleasure and satisfaction (Rufai, 2011:34). Luddy (2005:44) postulates that employee job satisfaction is dependent on the level of satisfaction an employee has with the job components, such as the work itself. Ruthankoon and Ogunlana (2003:338) found a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the work itself. Results from other studies indicate that a dimension such as work itself can result in either job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Onukwube, 2012:44).

#### 3.4.1.2 *Pay*

According to Singh and Loncar (2010:470), satisfaction with pay is of primary concern to both employers and employees. For employees, pay is of obvious importance in terms of satisfying their economic needs. It is also important that employees are satisfied with their overall pay, as this may impact on their attitudes and behaviours. Employee

dissatisfaction with pay, for instance, can decrease commitment to the job, increase stealing, and catalyse turnover (Currall, Towler, Judge & Kohn, 2005:614). For employers – some of whom may spend as much as 70-80% of their budget in wages and benefits in the service sector – the issue has implications for the survival of the organisation if they do not get decent returns on their investments. According to equity theory, pay satisfaction is based on perceptual and comparative processes (Onukwube, 2012:44). Employees who feel under-rewarded will attempt to restore equity by reducing inputs such as increasing absenteeism, coming late to work, taking longer breaks, and decreasing productivity, or by leaving the organisation – all of which are very costly for an employer (Onukwube, 2012:44).

Research appears to be equivocal regarding the influence of pay on job satisfaction. In a study by Oshagbemi (2000:31) amongst United Kingdom academics, a statistically significant relationship was established between pay and job satisfaction. However, Groot and Brink (2000:111) provide contradictory evidence on the relationship between pay and job satisfaction. In their research, they did not find evidence for a relationship between compensation and job satisfaction. The existence of both financial reward and recognition has been found to have a significant influence on knowledge workers (a person whose job involves handling or using information), as individuals view their remuneration as an indication of their value to the organisation (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004:10). Employees always compare their inputs to received outputs relevant to others (Luddy, 2005:46). This view is supported by Sweeney and McFarlin (2005:114) who concur that comparisons done by employees with other employees that are similar to them, are important predictors of pay satisfaction. Their study, which was based on the social comparison theory, highlighted that comparisons to other similar employees impacts on pay satisfaction. Boggie (2005:34) concludes by stating that inequity in terms of lack of recognition and poor pay often contributes to a problem with employee retention.

#### 3.4.1.3 *Supervision*

Research demonstrates that a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and supervision (Koustelios, 2001:355; Smucker, Whisenant & Pederson, 2003:406). Supervision is the relationship between the employee and his supervisor (Sulaiman & Khan, 2012:7). According to Shah *et al.* (2012:274), supervision forms a pivotal role in relation to job satisfaction in terms of the ability of the supervisor to provide emotional or technical support and guidance with work-related tasks. The consideration a supervisor has for his/her subordinates' feelings, well being, and contributions – are an important predictor of job satisfaction (McCormack, Casimir, Djurkovic & Yang, 2006:325). Strydom (2011:35) contends that supervisors whose leadership styles emphasise consideration and concern for employees, generally have more satisfied workers than supervisors practicing task structuring and concern for production. Similarly, Azmi and Sharma (2012:26) maintain that supervisors bringing the humanistic part to the job – by being considerate toward their employees – contribute towards increasing the employee's level of job satisfaction.

#### 3.4.1.4 *Promotion opportunities*

Promotion opportunities refer to the availability of advancement for employees (Sulaiman & Khan, 2012:7). Onukwube (2012:44) considers that job satisfaction is strongly related to opportunities for promotion. This view is supported by Ellickson and Logsdon (2002:173) in their study on municipal government workers. They established a statistically significant relationship between promotion and job satisfaction. Similarly, Bowen and Cattell (2008:264) found a positive relationship between promotion and job satisfaction. However, Onukwube (2012:45) states that the positive relationship between promotion and job satisfaction is dependent on perceived equity by employees. From the above, it can be concluded that promotional opportunities play a key role in employee job satisfaction, and it is thus important for employers to ensure that promotional policies are clear and fair and that the employees understand them.



#### 3.4.1.5 *Co-workers*

Many individual's social needs can be satisfied through their favourable interaction with both co-workers and managers at work (Rufai, 2011:35). Rufai further states that sympathetic and helpful co-workers can increase employee job satisfaction. Raabe and Beehr (2003:283) argue that co-worker relationships have an important influence on employee organisational commitment that results from employee job satisfaction. Alas (2006:87) concurs that close relationships with one's co-workers increases job satisfaction – particularly where co-workers are regarded as friends and as a support system. Onukwube (2012:45) maintains that having friendly and supportive colleagues contributes to increased job satisfaction.

#### 3.4.1.6 *Working conditions*

According to Newsham, Brand, Donnelly, Veitch, Aries and Charles (2009:129), people want to be comfortable and safe while they work. Appropriate lighting, temperature, and noise level are aspects that keep people from being uncomfortable, and, therefore, experiencing dissatisfaction. People want the tangible items that they need in order to work to perform their job well. In an office environment, examples of tangibles are computers, copiers, fax machines, and phones (Rufai, 2011:35). Furthermore, living close to their jobs over living far away (Green, 2000:11).

Gerber, Nel, van Dyke, Haasbroek, Schultz and Warner (2003:58) argue that psychological working conditions determine employee satisfaction. According to Gerber *et al.* (2003:58), a psychological working environment refers to the psychological effect of work pressure on individuals and groups. For example, the nature of the job has an impact on employees. Jobs that are designed so that they demand intelligence, achievement or attention, may not lead to boredom, fatigue and inefficiency. Management in organisations therefore has a task of making sure that jobs are designed so that they do not negatively affect the psychological wellbeing of an employee. Management can achieve this by encouraging delegation – to reduce work load, enhance job enrichment, and promote job rotation.

### 3.4.2 Personal Determinants

Personal determinants such as race, gender, age, educational level, work experience, tenure and marital status, are often included in job satisfaction studies to describe the participants and to determine relationships among the variables. Research evidence often shows the presence of relationships between personal determinants and job satisfaction, but the evidence tends to be mixed. Sometimes positive relationships are identified and sometimes negative ones for the same variables (Frais & Schaie, 2001:67).

#### 3.4.2.1 Race

Research evidence with regards to the relationship between race and job satisfaction has yielded inconsistent results (Friday, Moss & Friday, 2004:437). Friday *et al.* conducted research on various occupational classes consisting of blue collar and white collar employees in the Southeastern USA. The results reflected that African employees experienced higher levels of job satisfaction than the other racial groups. A survey by Henault (2004:34) investigating job satisfaction amongst American healthcare executives, revealed that minorities continued to lag behind their White counterparts. Jones and Schaubroeck (2004:525) argue that race-based differences in relation to job satisfaction can be attributed to group homogeneity, because as homogeneity in any group increases, members of the group experience an increase in job satisfaction.

Studies indicating the relationship between race and job satisfaction in the South African context are, however, limited. An investigation by Erasmus (1998:26) from the Unisa Business Leadership School found a difference in job satisfaction between White and African females within a human resources setting. Erasmus reports that White females were more satisfied than their African female colleagues. Findings of another study conducted in 2000 among readers of the apartment section of the South African *Business Times*, revealed that African respondents are more likely to feel less secure in their positions than their White counterparts.

Parveen (2009:289) conducted a study investigating, at national level, the job satisfaction characteristics of a higher education faculty comprising 5 different racial groups. The results indicated some similarities and differences in job satisfaction characteristics of faculty, by race. The analyses indicate that where achievement, recognition and responsibility are measured in terms of publications, funded research and number of committees served, Asian/Pacific Islander faculty members performed better than other races in this study. These factors significantly contribute to the faculty's intrinsic job satisfaction. It also appears from the analysis that the majority of respondents of all races was deriving satisfaction from extrinsic factors measured in terms of institutional policies, work climate, and benefits.

#### 3.4.2.2 Gender

According to Onukwube (2012:45) several studies conducted on the relationship between gender and job satisfaction have yielded contradictory results. For example Green (2000:12) and Sloane and Williams (2000:496), investigating the relationship between gender and job satisfaction, uncovered three possibilities. First, females are more satisfied than males. Second, males are more satisfied than females. Third, no difference exists between males and females with respect to job satisfaction. On the other hand, a study by Fraser and Hodge (2000:184), investigating gender differences in determinants of job satisfaction, reflected that females attach more importance to social factors, while males place greater value on pay, advancement and other extrinsic aspects. In support of the study by Fraser and Hodge, Bender, Donohue and Heywood (2005:482) maintain that there is a significant difference between males and females in terms of job dimensions impacting on job satisfaction. Bender *et al.*'s study found that men tend to have higher satisfaction with remuneration compared to females, while females tended to have higher satisfaction with co-workers than males.

#### 3.4.2.3 Age

Several researchers have examined the link between age and job satisfaction. For example, Oshagbemi (2003:1213) cited several reasons for the variance in job satisfaction between older and younger employees. Oshagbemi's view is that younger

employees are generally more dissatisfied than older employees, because they demand more than their jobs can provide. Oshagbemi postulates that older workers possess more seniority and work experience, enabling them to move easily into more rewarding and satisfying jobs. Older workers place less emphasis on autonomy or promotion, and thus they demand less from their jobs – making them more satisfied than their younger counterparts (Oshagbemi, 2003:13).

Onukwube (2012:46) found that older employees are better able to balance personal needs and jobs/organisations, than younger employees. Older employees are more likely to cognitively justify remaining in the organisation, as they may have limited alternative employment opportunities and greater costs than do younger employees. As a result, they are likely to develop more positive attitudes toward their jobs (Onukwube, 2012:45-46). Similarly, Green (2000:12) did a study to analyse factors that affect job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in higher educational institutions. Age was among the factors found to affect job dissatisfaction. Younger, less experienced faculty members expressed more job dissatisfaction than experienced, tenured faculty staff.

#### 3.4.2.4 *Educational level*

Studies have found positive relationships between levels of education and job satisfaction. For example, a study by Metle (2003:611) amongst Kuwaiti women employed in a public government sector environment, showed a strong relationship between the level of education and overall job satisfaction. Of the employees surveyed, 90% had a postgraduate qualification. Employees with an intermediate level qualification reported higher levels of satisfaction in relation to those employees who have higher levels of education. Metle (2003:611) suggests that job satisfaction decreases in relation to an increase in the level of education as the expectations of employees are often not met by employers. In agreement are results from a study by Johnson and Johnson (2000:537) in the American postal services, which found perceived over-qualification to have a negative relationship with the dimensions of job satisfaction.

An investigation by Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003:372) in the Lebanese banking sector found that no statistically significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and education. Respondents with a school certificate reported the lowest level of overall job satisfaction, while employees with a college certificate reported the highest level of overall job satisfaction. The researchers highlighted possible factors such as a lack of skills and less favourable treatment by management as contributing to lower satisfaction levels among staff with a school certificate.

#### 3.4.2.5 *Work experience*

Research by Oshagbemi (2003:1217) confirmed that there is significant relationship between experience and job satisfaction. Oshagbemi attributes the increase in job satisfaction over time to factors such as job stability and opportunities for promotion. In a study by Onukwube (2012:46) on the relationship between personal characteristics and job satisfaction of Turkish workers, the results showed that the contributions of experience to good feelings about one's job were positive. The findings indicated that people with more work experience have more respect for their jobs and can apply their experience to their job; they are also more likely to enjoy the work environment.

#### 3.4.2.6 *Tenure*

Tenure refers to the number of years an employee has spent working (Oshagbemi, 2003:1217). According to Wong and Heng (2009:87), tenure and job satisfaction are positively related. Oshagbemi (2003:1217) found tenure to have a U-shaped relationship with job satisfaction. In this respect, Oshagbemi maintains that employee satisfaction declines within the first year of employment and remains low for several years – after which it increases. Furthermore, Oshagbemi maintains that employee expectations are high at the time of appointment, but when these expectations are not met, the resultant effect leads to a drop in job satisfaction. As the employee becomes more mature and experienced, the initial expectations decline to a more realistic level – thereby making such expectations more attainable, and so coinciding with increased job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 2003:1217).

Contrary to the above, Sarker *et al.* (2003:747) state that longer tenure in a job may lead to boredom and this lowers level of job satisfaction. Similarly, Luddy (2005:41) maintains that longer tenure does not necessarily lead to increased levels of job satisfaction. Luddy cites low job mobility and external labour market conditions as possible factors contributing to lower levels of job satisfaction. Boeve (2007:13) pointed out that the relationships between tenure – defined as length of service – and job satisfaction, is unclear. It is possible that an increase in job tenure can be associated with a decrease in job satisfaction. It is also possible, however, based on evidence provided by Green (2000:13), that tenure and job satisfaction are positively related.

#### 3.4.2.7 *Marital status*

According to Ofovwe, Ofili, Ojetu and Okosum (2013:663), research on the effect of marital status on job satisfaction has yielded inconclusive results. The results of a study by Kuo and Chen (2004:221) investigating the level of job satisfaction amongst IT personnel working in Taiwan, found marital status to be highly related to general, intrinsic and overall satisfaction. The authors reported that married employees experienced higher levels of job satisfaction in comparison to single employees. Research by Cimete, Gencalp and Keskin (2003:151) among nurses employed at two university hospitals in Istanbul, Turkey, established that the job satisfaction mean score of divorcees and widows was higher than that of single and married groups.

### 3.5 MEASUREMENT OF JOB SATISFACTION

Unlike productivity, absenteeism, and turnover, job satisfaction is present only inside an individual's mind and cannot be measured directly (Boeve, 2007:15). Methods for indirectly measuring job satisfaction include observing employees, interviewing them, and asking them to complete a questionnaire. Many organisations and researchers favour questionnaires because personal observations and interviews are very time consuming (Rufai, 2011:28). Job satisfaction can be measured using either single-item, general, or facet measures (Green, 2000:10). Green indicated that the facet-specific

survey instrument allows for the identification of dissatisfaction toward facet-specific items/questions.

Three job satisfaction facet-specific measurement instruments stood out as potential instruments to be used for this study. These instruments are: Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), Job Descriptive Index (JDI), and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Goff, 2004:33).

### **3.5.1 The Job Satisfaction Survey**

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was developed by Spector (1997) to assess employee attitudes about the job, and aspects of the job (Watson, Thompson & Meade, 2007:2). The JSS is a 36-item questionnaire that targets nine separate facets of job satisfaction (Worrell, 2004:15). These facets include pay, promotion, benefits, supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication (Green, 2000:10). Each of these facets is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all 36 items. Responses to each question range from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree", and questions are written in both directions (Worrell, 2004:16). The purpose of this questionnaire is to stimulate the respondents' thoughts about their own areas of job satisfaction in relation to the nine facets of the JSS (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane & Ferreira, 2011:108).

Construct, discriminant and convergent validity of the JSS were established by Spector (Lumley *et al.*, 2011:108). Inter-item correlations ranged from 0.61 for co-workers to 0.80 for supervision, and in terms of reliability, internal consistency reliability coefficients for the JSS ranged between 0.60 for the co-worker sub-scale to 0.91 for the total scale (Lumley *et al.*, 2011:108). Stanford (2008:33-34) concluded that the JSS instrument is one of the few instruments that make several criteria for a high level of reliability and construct validity. Furthermore, Rungruangchaikit (2008:14-14) states that the JSS can easily be translated in a few pages, can be quickly completed by the respondents, includes 9 job facets, and can be summed for an overall job satisfaction score.

### 3.5.2 The Job Descriptive Index

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was first discussed in Smith, Kendall and Hulin's publication of the Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement (1969). This 72-item scale is designed to measure employees' satisfaction with their jobs by looking at five important aspects or facets of job satisfaction: present job, present pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and co-workers. Participants in studies utilising the JDI are asked to indicate whether each statement does or does not describe their jobs. "YES" responses are scored +1, "NO" responses -1, and "?" responses 0, indicating that the participant cannot decide. In terms of measuring facets of job satisfaction, this is considered to be "one of the most widely used" and "the most preferred by researchers", because it asks respondents to describe their jobs as opposed to directly asking about satisfaction or dissatisfaction levels (Dawis, 2004:464, 479). Dawis states that indirectly asking about job satisfaction contributes to the validity of the JDI.

According to Rungruangchaikit (2008:8), the JDI has become one of the most popular facet scales among organisational researchers, and it may have been the most carefully developed and validated. Rungruangchaikit further argues that the facets also have very good reliabilities and the extensive body of research using the scale provides good validation evidence. Perhaps the biggest limitation of the scale is that it is limited to only five facets, although these five are the most frequently assessed (Rungruangchaikit, 2008:10). In addition, there has been some criticism that particular items might not apply to all employee groups. However, this criticism is probably true of all job satisfaction scales.

Yeoh (2007:10) found that the five facets of the JDI contained only 42.7% trait variance, with the remainder being method and random error variance. Even the authors of the JDI itself admit that the five facets "do not specify completely the general construct of job satisfaction" (Smith *et al.*, 1969:30). Thus, it seems that while these five facets do contribute significantly to measures of job satisfaction, they are not the only facets of



critical importance (Yeoh, 2007:10). Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek and Frings-Dresen (2003:195), in their review of job satisfaction instruments, concluded that the JDI does not meet the quality criteria, although it is the most frequently used job satisfaction instrument in organisational science.

### **3.5.3 The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire**

Developed in 1967 by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) has become a widely used instrument to evaluate job satisfaction. Three forms of the MSQ have been developed, two 100-item long forms (1977 version and 1967 version) and a 20-item short form. The MSQ is designed to measure specific aspects of an employee's satisfaction with his or her job, and provides more information on the rewarding aspects of a job than do more general measures of job satisfaction (Worrell, 2004:17). The MSQ has been widely used in studies exploring client vocational needs, in counselling follow-up studies, and in generating information about the reinforcers in jobs (Worrell, 2004:17).

The facets of the MSQ are ability, achievement, activity, advancement, authority, company policies and practices, compensation, co-workers, creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service, supervision, human relations, supervision-technical, variety, and working conditions. Various combinations of facets generate intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction scores (Ghazi *et al.*, 2012:332).

While Smith, Kendall and Hulin's Job Descriptive Index, Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey, and Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist's Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire are well-known and tested tools for measuring job satisfaction, the JDI was the instrument chosen to measure job satisfaction in this study. After a careful review of the JDI (Smith *et al.*, 1969) and Herzberg's (1966) factors, a survey instrument was adapted on the basis of previous research (Boeve, 2007:39). The JDI has been

also used by previous researchers of job satisfaction in the higher education sector (Sulaiman & Khan, 2012:7; Luddy, 2005:60; Castillo & Cano, 2004:68).

### **3.6 JOB SATISFACTION IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING**

University academic staff do complex work in an increasingly demanding environment (Houston, Meyer & Paewai, 2012:17). Traditionally, universities have defined the role of academic staff according to the three domains of teaching, research, and service – with primary emphasis placed upon the teaching and research aspects, and secondary emphasis upon service or administration (Houston *et al.*, 2012:17). A considerable amount of research has been conducted which supports that academic staff are the greatest asset of an institution. Shahzad, Mumtaz, Hayat and Khan (2010:111) argue that academic staff are not only the service providers but also the critical element of the service – and hence satisfied academic staff improve service quality. Kusku (2003:347) found that there is a huge contribution of academic's satisfaction in higher education to achieve the milestone of academic quality.

Research conducted in higher education has tried to identify specific variables and a relationship of these variables to academic's job satisfaction (Dee, 2002:593). These variables range from organisational support and personal support to overall compensation packages. Dee (2002:593) examined a cross-section study of academic professionals at an urban community college, and found a strong negative relationship between organisational support for innovation and an academic's job satisfaction. The analysis did not, however, find autonomy of work and communication with colleagues to be significant.

In the USA at the University of Colorado at Boulder, the faculty members most cited reasons for dissatisfaction were resource issues such as non-competitive salaries, lack of research support, lack of supportive colleagues, and employment opportunities for spouses (Boeves, 2007:23). Similarly, researchers who conducted a faculty survey at a Massachusetts higher education institution, identified professional development and

salary packages as being the most important job satisfaction factors (Grace & Khalsa, 2003 cited in Boeves, 2007:23). University support and employment options were variables that faculty members rated as highly valuable job satisfaction factors in faculty positions at the institution.

Bentley, Coates, Dobson, Goedegebuure and Meek (2011:2) state that few would argue that universities lack room for improvement when it comes to the morale and satisfaction of their workers. However, after years of declining resources, increased accountability requirements, and work intensification, it is unlikely that resource capacities will dramatically increase in the near future and allow universities to meet all demands. By analysing the factors most strongly associated with higher levels of job satisfaction, this study will help identify the areas of academic work with the strongest potential for improved morale.

### **3.7 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND JOB SATISFACTION**

To date, literature examining the relationship between the institutionalisation of organisational culture and employees' attitudes has been mainly anecdotal. To put this study into perspective, it is necessary to cite other international studies in both the corporate world and higher education settings on organisational culture and job satisfaction and work on this issue.

Chow, Harrison, McKinnon and Wu (2001:13) conducted an empirical study to explore the association between organisational culture and job satisfaction in a Chinese cultural context. Hypothesis testing was conducted on 762 completed questionnaires. The questionnaire was completed by employees from a wide range of divisions and functional areas, and across all staff levels. The results provided compelling support for the importance of organisational culture in affecting behavioural outcomes such as job satisfaction. Gifford, Zammuto and Goodman (2002:13) investigated the relationship between hospital unit culture and nurses' quality of work life within seven different hospitals located in five cities in the western United States. Data analysis showed that

unit organisational culture did affect the nurse's quality of work life and that human relations cultural values were positively related to organisational commitment, job involvement, empowerment and job satisfaction. McKinnon, Harrison, Chow and Wu (2003:1) conducted research on the subjects of diversified manufacturing companies in Taiwan. They found organisational cultural values of respect for people; innovation, stability and aggressiveness uniformly and strongly association with affective commitment, job satisfaction and information sharing. A study by Choi, Martin and Park (2008:73) looking at organisational culture and job satisfaction in Korean professional baseball organisations, found a positive impact of the clan culture on employee satisfaction, because the great importance of personal values and respect for people is presumptively universal – regardless of cultural boundaries.

In Malaysia, Bashayreh (2009:2) examined the relationship between the dimensions of organisational culture and employees' job satisfaction among 135 lecturers at Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM). The results showed no significant relationship between (emphasis of reward and performance oriented) and job satisfaction. Results of the study also showed that there is a significant relationship between organisational culture factors such as organisational supportiveness, innovation and stability and communication and job satisfaction. Trivelas and Dargenidou (2009:382) examined the influence of organisational culture and job satisfaction on the quality of services provided in higher education among faculty and administration members at the Technological Educational Institution of Larissa. A structured questionnaire was developed to measure culture, job satisfaction, and the quality in services and internal processes. The results indicated that specific culture archetypes are linked with different dimensions of higher education service quality. Hierarchy culture proved to be the most prevalent among administration staff, while clan and hierarchy archetypes dominated among faculty members.

Sabri, Ilyas and Amjad (2011:121) investigated the effect of organisational culture on the job satisfaction level of teachers at public and private sector higher education institutions and universities in Lahore, Pakistan. Data were collected from a sample of

347 teachers using a structured questionnaire. Empirical findings showed that organisational culture is categorised into two components: organisational culture related to managers and leaders (OCM) and organisational culture related to employees (OCE). In the study, the effect of both kinds of culture on job satisfaction were positive and significant.

By reviewing the aforesaid studies, it is evident that there is a significant relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction. Thus, if employees show higher identity extent to organisational cultures, the extent of job satisfaction is expected to be higher naturally. It appears that organisational culture does play an important role in promoting job satisfaction for employees and also leading towards organisational success. The researcher observed that none of the studies focused on the characteristics of organisational culture which this study will be reviewing. Furthermore, most studies on job satisfaction focused more on the job itself than looking at aspects like supervision, relationship with co-workers and promotional opportunities – as aspects that impact on employees' job satisfaction.

### **3.8 SUMMARY**

Chapter three introduced the concept of job satisfaction and highlighted the theories on job satisfaction. Furthermore, it discussed how job satisfaction is measured, investigated the different job satisfaction antecedents, and concluded by discussing job satisfaction in institutions of higher learning and the effects of organisational culture on the job satisfaction of employees.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The primary objective of this study was to investigate the perceptions of organisational culture and their resultant impact on job satisfaction among academic professionals. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research methodology for this study. In this chapter, the research paradigm, research approach, research design, population, sampling methods, measuring instruments, and techniques used to analyse data are discussed.

#### **4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM**

The term paradigm means a broad view or perspective of something. Paradigms are patterns of beliefs and practices that regulate inquiry within a discipline – by providing lenses, frames and processes through which investigation is accomplished (Weaver & Olson, 2006:460). Gephart (1999) classified research paradigms into two philosophically distinct categories: interpretivism and positivism, which are briefly presented below.

##### **4.2.1 Interpretivism**

Interpretive research is fundamentally concerned with meaning and it seeks to understand social members' definition of a situation (Schwandt, 2001:118). Interpretivists assume that knowledge and meaning are acts of interpretation, and hence there is no objective knowledge which is independent of thinking and reasoning in humans. Interpretivism often addresses essential features of shared meaning and understanding (Gephart, 1999:4). Interpretive researchers believe that the reality consists of people's subjective experiences of the external world; thus, they may adopt

an inter-subjective epistemology and the ontological belief that reality is socially constructed (Kritsonis, 2009:[online]). According to Willis (2009:114) interpretivists are anti-foundationalists – who believe there is no single correct route or particular method to knowledge.

Interpretive paradigm is underpinned by observation and interpretation, and thus to observe is to collect information about events, while to interpret is to make meaning of that information by drawing inferences or by judging the match between the information and some abstract pattern (Aikenhead, 1997:[online]). It attempts to understand phenomena through the meanings that people assign to them (Rowlands, 2005:84). Reeves and Hedberg (2003:32) note that the “interpretivist” paradigm stresses the need to put analysis in context. The interpretive paradigm is concerned with understanding the world as it is from the subjective experiences of individuals. It uses meaning (versus measurement) orientated methodologies such as interviewing or participant observation, that rely on a subjective relationship between the researcher and subjects. Interpretive research does not predefine dependent and independent variables, but focuses on the full complexity of human sense-making as the situation emerges (Rowlands, 2005:81-82).

#### **4.2.2 Positivist paradigm**

Positivism assumes an objective world in which scientific methods can more or less readily represent and measure, and it seeks to predict and explain causal relations among key variables (Tuli, 2010:100). The positivist paradigm arose from the philosophy identified as logical positivism, and is based on rigid rules of logic and measurement, truth, absolute principles, and prediction (Halcomb & Andrew, 2005; Cole, 2006; Weaver & Olson, 2006). The positivist philosophy argues that there is one objective reality. Therefore, as a consequence, valid research is demonstrated only by the degree of proof that can be corresponded to the phenomena that study results stand for (Hope & Waterman, 2003). The key approach of the scientific method is the experiment, and the attempt to discern natural laws through direct manipulation and observation (Krauss, 2005:760). In many ways, positivist’s research is based on

procedures used in natural science, and, typically, quantitative methods such as surveys and mathematical or statistical analysis are used (Tuli, 2010:100).

The present study is situated in the positivist paradigm. The rationale for adopting it is to determine whether organisational culture has a statistically significant influence on the job satisfaction of the academic professionals within the selected institution. The literature was studied in order to establish an appropriate theory and construct and to test hypotheses. The quantitative nature of the data captured through the use of the questionnaires is also consistent with positivism, and it emphasises quantifiable observations which lend themselves to statistical analysis.

#### **4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH**

Research approaches can be classified under the categories quantitative research and qualitative research. Quantitative research strategy is systematic and objective in its ways of using numerical data from only a selected subgroup of a population to generalise the findings to the universe being studied (Walliman, 2001:7). Similarly, Conrad and Serlin (2011:149) describe quantitative research as deductive in nature, in the sense that inferences from tests of statistical hypotheses lead to general inferences about the characteristics of a population. Qualitative research, on the other hand, is characterised by narrative analysis of information collected in the study (Goodwin, 2002:521). Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (2006:44) argue that qualitative research produces verbal summaries of research findings with no statistical summaries or analysis.

Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (2006:44) argue that the difference between quantitative and qualitative research approaches is that data obtained in qualitative research is commonly obtained with the use of interviews and observations and can be used to describe individuals, groups and social movement. Leedy (2001:67), on the other hand, argues that quantitative research design allows the researcher to answer questions about the relationships between measured variables – with the purpose of explaining,



predicting and controlling certain phenomena. Based on the above definitions, this study falls under the quantitative research approach. The reason for classifying it as such is because the data were collected in the form of numbers and subjected to statistical analysis which produced numerical information. The numerical information was used to determine the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction.

#### **4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Mbambo (2005:36) describes a research design as “a blueprint of how a researcher intends to conduct a study”. Burns and Groves (2001:223) posit that research design refers to the steps researchers follow to complete their study from start to finish. It includes asking research questions based on theoretical orientation selection of respondents, data collection, and reporting of the results. Kumar (2005:84) explained that the function of a research design is to conceptualise an operational plan to undertake the various procedures and tasks required to complete a study, and to ensure that these procedures are adequate to obtain valid, objective and accurate answers to the research questions.

The design chosen for the present study was a descriptive case study. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:149), descriptive case-study research provides an accurate account of characteristics of a particular individual, event or group in real-life situations. Zucker (2009:1) defines a case study as a systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aims to describe and explain the phenomenon of interest. There are a number of advantages in using case studies (Neale, Thapa & Boyce, 2006:4). Firstly, the method provides much more detailed information than is available through other methods. A case study helps explain both the process and outcome of the phenomenon through complete observation, reconstruction and analysis of the case under investigation. Secondly, case studies also allow one to present data collected from multiple methods – such as surveys, interviews, document review and observation, in order to provide the complete story. Thirdly, the examination of the data is most often conducted within the context of their use, that is, within the situation in which the activity

takes place (Zaidah, 2007:5). The reason for using a descriptive case study research is to provide the perceptions and views of the respondents about the phenomenon studied (McMillan, 2008:186). Thus, this study investigated academic professionals' perception of organisational culture, the job satisfaction of the academic professionals and the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction.

#### **4.4.1 Population**

A 'population' is a group of potential participants to whom one is seeking to generalise the results of a study (Salkind, 2006:30). It represents the collection of all units of analysis (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:52). The population of this study was 274 full-time academic professionals ( $n=274$ ) from the institution where the study was carried out.

#### **4.4.2 Sample**

A 'sample' is a subset of the population that forms part of the investigation, and in quantitative research the research results obtained from the sample must be generalised back to the entire population (Mouton, 2002:166). It is therefore crucial that the sample is representative of the entire population – failing which the results obtained will not reflect the population and can therefore not be regarded as trustworthy (Welman *et al.*, 2005:55). Generalisability is thus an important consideration in quantitative research – as meaning can be attached to the population beyond the limited setting in which the research took place (Salkind, 2006:91). Sampling involves not only decisions about which people to observe or interview, but also about settings, events and social processes (Naicker, 2008:44). For the present study, a sample size calculator was used to calculate the minimum required sample size. As mentioned earlier, the population of the study was 274 academic professionals. Thus, the determined sampling size for the study was 160 full-time academics. The actual sample used for the study was ( $n=135$ ), representing 84% of the total population.

#### 4.4.2.1 *Sampling procedure*

The sampling procedure used in this study was probability sampling. Specifically, the proportional stratified random sampling technique was used to select the sample of full-time academics who participated in the study. In probability sampling, subjects are drawn from a larger population in such a way that the probability of selecting each member of the population is known. This type of sampling is conducted to efficiently provide estimates about what is true for a population – from a smaller group of subjects (sample) (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:119). Using the proportional stratified random sampling, the population was divided into subgroups or strata on the basis of the number of full-time academic professionals in each Faculty. Currently, i) Engineering, Information and Communication consists of 84 full-time academic professionals, ii) Health and Environmental Science 46, iii) Humanities 70, and iv) Management Sciences 74 professionals. Once the population was divided, samples were drawn randomly from each faculty according to the proportions of the faculties. Starting from the faculty with the lowest number of academic professionals, for every one academic professional from the Health faculty, two were picked in the Humanities, three from Management Sciences, and four from Engineering. Using this proportional stratified sampling method, 16 academic professionals were randomly selected from the Faculty of Health, 32 from the Faculty of Humanities, 36 from the Faculty of Management Sciences, and 51 from the Faculty of Engineering.

#### 4.4.3 **Data collection**

Data are “information obtained during the course of an investigation or study” (Mbambo, 2005:40). A questionnaire was used to collect data for this study. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2000:103) define a questionnaire as “a list of questions that must be formulated, constructed and sequenced to produce the most constructive data in the most effective manner”. Questionnaires were used because:

- ❖ The researcher was able to translate the research objectives into specific questions that are asked of the respondents.

- ❖ Questions and response categories were standardised so that every participant was able to respond to identical stimuli.
- ❖ They speeded up the process of data analysis, as all the respondents were asked the same questions.
- ❖ They were less expensive and offered greater anonymity.

#### 4.4.4 Questionnaire design

Two questionnaires were used to collect data for this study. The questionnaires sought information on organisational culture and job satisfaction from full-time academic professionals in the institution under study. With regards to organisational culture, questions were drawn from the Organisational Culture Profile (OCP). Questions in this part of the questionnaire were split between those relating to innovation and risk taking, attention to details, outcome orientation, people orientation, team orientation, aggressiveness, and stability. On the concept of job satisfaction, questions were drawn from the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). These questions were divided into five dimensions: work itself, advancement opportunities, salary, supervision support, and co-worker relations.

##### 4.4.4.1 *Organisational Culture Profile (OCP)*

The OCP was developed based on person-culture fit criteria. O'Reilly *et al.* (1991:493) stated that "one way to assess culture quantitatively is to focus on the central values that may be important to an individual's self-concept or identity as well as relevant to an organisation's central value system". The measuring instrument consisted of twenty eight (28) items, with four (4) items for each cultural factor facet: innovation and risk taking, attention to details, outcome orientation, people orientation, team orientation, aggressiveness, and stability. The facets were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (*Not at all*) to 5 (*Very much*). Employees were requested to

indicate the extent to which they perceived each organisational culture item/facet as a characteristic of their organisation.

#### 4.4.4.2 *Job Descriptive Index (JDI)*

The JDI questionnaire by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) was used in this study. The questionnaire measures five constructs of job satisfaction, which are work itself, advancement opportunities, pay, supervision support, and co-worker relations. These constructs were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging through Very Dissatisfied (1), Dissatisfied (2), Neutral (3), Satisfied (4) and Very Satisfied (5).

#### 4.4.4.3 *Reliability of the research instruments*

Reliability refers to the degree of consistency or accuracy with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure (Collins & Hussey, 2003:58). According to Punch (2005:95), the reliability of a test or an instrument is determined by the consistency of results when applied to the same specimen repeatedly – administered by either the same or different persons.

For this study, the instrument used by the researcher to measure organisational culture has been tried and tested before by researchers like Sarros, Gray, Densten, Parry, and Hartican and Cooper (2005:6) in their study of leadership, organisational culture and innovation of Australian enterprises. The authors found the instrument to have a .75 reliability score. On the other hand, Smucker, Whisenant and Pedersen (2003:401) assessed female sports journalists' level of job satisfaction using the JDI, and the following reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) scores were obtained: .88 for the facet of pay satisfaction, .78 for promotion satisfaction, .90 for supervision satisfaction, .77 for people satisfaction, .91 for work satisfaction, and .92 for overall satisfaction. These studies provide evidence that the OCP and JDI are reliable measuring instruments. However, for this study, the questionnaires were adjusted to suit the study as discussed in questionnaire design (4.7.1), and hence a new reliability coefficient scores were calculated and these will be reported on in the results section.

#### 4.4.4.4 *Validity of the research instrument*

The validity of a measurement instrument is the extent to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:28). According to Charles & Mertler (2008: 130), validity is the degree to which all the accumulated evidence supports the intended interpretation of test scores for the proposed purpose. An instrument is therefore valid if it measures what the researcher claims it measures. Sarros, Gray, Densten & Cooper (2005:165) claim that in the OCP there is evidence of content and construct validity. Content validity indicates the extent to which a test represents the universe of items from which it is drawn, and it is especially helpful when evaluating the usefulness of an achievement test or tests that sample a particular area of knowledge (Salkind, 2006:118). Content validity is a measure of how well the items represent the entire universe of items. Construct validity is the extent to which the results of a test are related to an underlying psychological construct. It links the practical components of a test score to some underlying theory or model of behaviour (Salkind, 2009:120).

Research has been conducted to determine the validity of the JDI. A number of studies have focused on the convergent and discriminant validity of the JDI (Futrell, 1979:595; Nagy 2002:82; Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim & Carson, 2002:26). Luddy (2005:63) reported that in these studies, JDI has documented proof of convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity can be defined as the extent to which the scores on one measure are related to scores collected from a similar or different measure. These scores can be positively or negatively correlated with the scores collected from the similar or different measures. In addition, these correlations should be predictable in order to establish convergent validity (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:142). Discriminant validity can be defined as the extent to which the measure being used will give scores and these scores should not be related to the scores attained from an unrelated measure (Welman *et al.*, 2005:142).

From the above discussion, it can be deduced that the scales in the OCP and JDI research instrument show respectable reliability and validity and therefore no pilot study was conducted to determine content validity per se.

#### **4.4.5 Administering the questionnaire**

The questionnaire was administered among the academic professionals by trained research assistants. The data-collection process began with the researcher seeking permission from the institution's management to conduct the study. The researcher met with the Deputy Director of Institutional Planning to discuss the research, its benefits, and the draft copy of the questionnaire.

Upon receipt of the permission, the researcher selected and trained eight research assistants to help with the distribution and collection of questionnaires. Appointments were made with respondents whereby the questionnaire would be left with the respondent and later collected at an agreed time. At the request of some of the respondents, questionnaires were sent via email by the researcher. The data-collection process took place over a period of four months because the respondents complained of not having time to complete questionnaires due to their workload – even though appointments were made well in advance. One hundred and sixty (160) questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and only one hundred and thirty five (135) were returned: a 84% return rate.

#### **4.4.6 Data analysis**

A quantitative approach was used to analyse data for this research. Babbie and Mouton (2005:646) define quantitative analysis as the numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that the observations reflect. The research made use of statistical techniques to enable generalisations of the research findings. These included descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse

demographic data. According to Goodwin (2002:516), descriptive statistics provide a summary of the main features of a set of data collected from a sample of participants (see specific details of the descriptive statistics in the next chapter). Inferential statistics were used to determine the relationships between organisational culture and job satisfaction. According to Gray (2007:335), inferential statistics enable a researcher to make appropriate inferences from descriptions, in order to decide whether the descriptions can also be applied to the population from which the sample is drawn. Specific details of the inferential statistics used to analyse the data are presented in the next chapter.

## **4.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

There are numerous ethical issues that researchers encounter during the various stages of a research project. De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2011:114) define research ethics as a set of moral principles subsequently broadly accepted – which offer rules and behavioural expectations about the correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003:131) provide a list of key ethical issues that normally require adherence when undertaking a research project with human beings. These include:

- ❖ Voluntary participation and the right to withdraw partially or completely from the process.
- ❖ Consent and possible deception of participants
- ❖ Maintenance of the confidentiality of data provided by individuals or identifiable participants and their anonymity.
- ❖ Privacy of possible and actual participants.

The present study considered a number of ethical issues. The respondents participated voluntarily in the study. The researcher sought informed consent from the respondents and assured them of the confidentiality and transparency of the information being sought. The researcher informed the respondents of their rights to acceptance or



withdrawal from participation in the research at any point. Respondents were also informed that the information sought was solely for academic purposes.

#### **4.6 SUMMARY**

This chapter discussed the research methodology of the study. The study adopted a quantitative research design and a questionnaire was used to collect data from the respondents. Inferential statistics were used to determine relationships between the variables in the study. The next chapter will present the analysis, results and the discussion of the findings of the study.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study was to determine perceptions of organisational culture and their resultant impact on job satisfaction among academic professionals at a University of Technology. The study sought to address the following central hypotheses: (a) academic professionals have negative perceptions about organisational culture; (b) academic professionals are not satisfied with their jobs; (c) there is no correlation between organisational culture and job satisfaction components; and (d) there is no correlation between specific components of organisational culture and specific job satisfaction components. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss how data were analysed and interpreted, as to discuss the findings of the study.

#### 5.2 RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

All the questions in the questionnaire that addressed organisational culture and job satisfaction were measured on a five-point Likert scale. In research, it is important to carry out reliability analysis in order to evaluate the quality of the research questionnaire for possible future use. The Cronbach's alpha statistic was used for the assessment of instrument reliability (Norusis, 2009:431-434). Cronbach's alpha coefficient ( $\alpha = \frac{N-r}{1 + (N-1)r}$ ) is where N is the number of items and r is the average inter-item correlation among the items (Boeves, 2007:52). The more homogeneous the items in the scale, the higher the Cronbach's alpha. A research instrument is deemed very reliable if it has a Cronbach's alpha coefficient greater than 0.70 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:54).

Tables 5.1 and 5.2 show the Cronbach alpha coefficient value for the two sections of the questionnaire used in the study.

**Table 5.1: Cronbach alpha coefficient for the Organisational Culture Profile**

<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>	<i>N of Items</i>
0.945	28

The Cronbach alpha coefficient value for the Organisational Culture Profile section of the questionnaire was 0.95 – which indicates that in this study the items measuring organisational culture had acceptable internal consistency reliability.

**Table 5.2: Cronbach alpha coefficient for the Job Descriptive Index**

<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>	<i>N of Items</i>
0.962	48

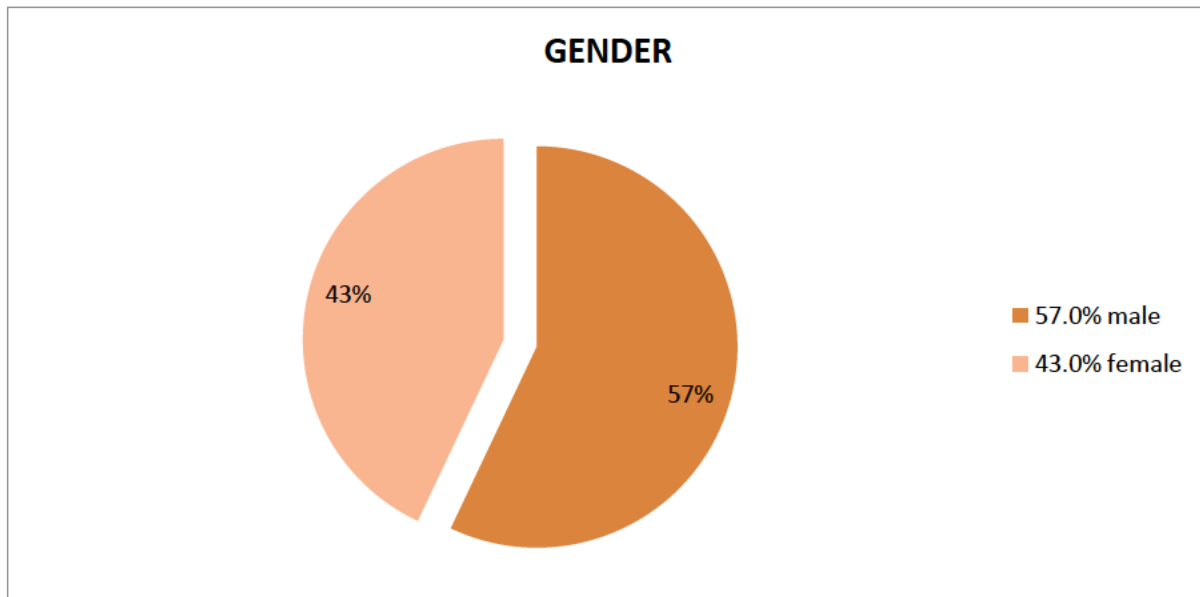
The Cronbach alpha coefficient value for the Job Descriptive Index section of the questionnaire was 0.96. The value indicates that the items had good internal consistency reliability.

### 5.3 RESPONSE RATE

The total population for this study was 274 full-time academic professionals. The total number of respondents that participated in this study was 135, representing a response rate of 84% (usable response/the sample size of the research). A response rate of 84% (n=135) was large enough for meaningful statistical analysis and acceptable interpretation (Bryman & Bell, 2007:244; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:154). A response rate below 50% represents a minority, which indicates that an entirely incorrect generalisation of the population may be obtained. The response rate of 84% was therefore considered to be more than sufficient for the purposes of this research.

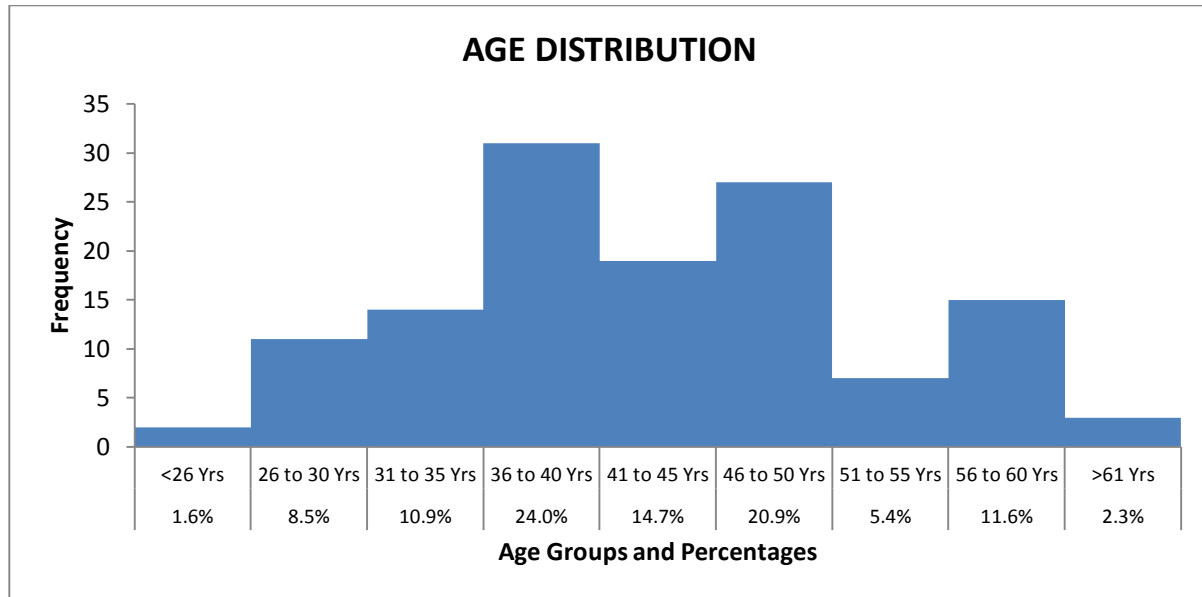
## 5.4 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS

This section of the study presents the demographic variables. The variables of interest in the study were gender, age, race, marital status, educational qualification, position in the institution and length of service in the institution.



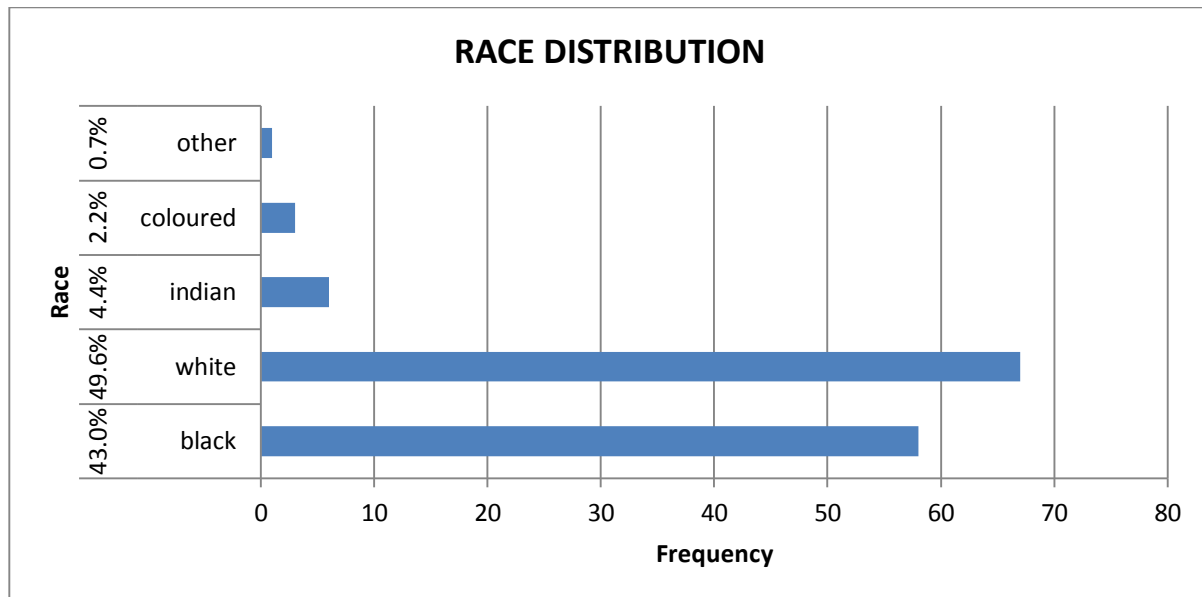
**Figure 5.1: Gender of respondents**

Figure 5.1 (above) presents the gender distribution of the sample. 57% (n=77) of the respondents were males and 43% (n=58) were females. At the time of the study, the institution had more male academic staff members than females.



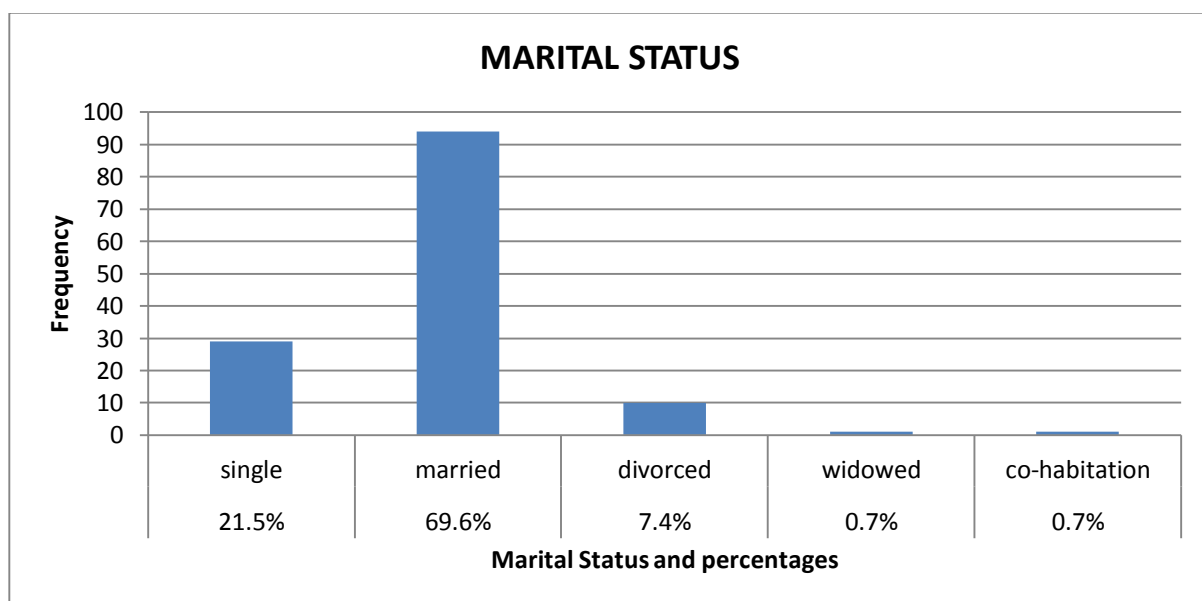
**Figure 5.2: Age distribution**

In terms of age of the respondents, Figure 5.2 (above) shows that 24% (n=32) of the respondents were aged 36-40, 20.9% (n=28) were aged 46-50, 14.7% (n=20) were 41-45, 11.6% (n=16) were 56-60, 10.9% (n=15) were 31-35, 8.5% (n=12) were aged 26-30, and 5.4% (n=7) were aged 51-55. A small number of academics, 2.3% (n=3), were older than 61. Only 1.6% (n=2) were younger than 26 years. These results indicate that the majority of academics who participated in the study were middle aged.



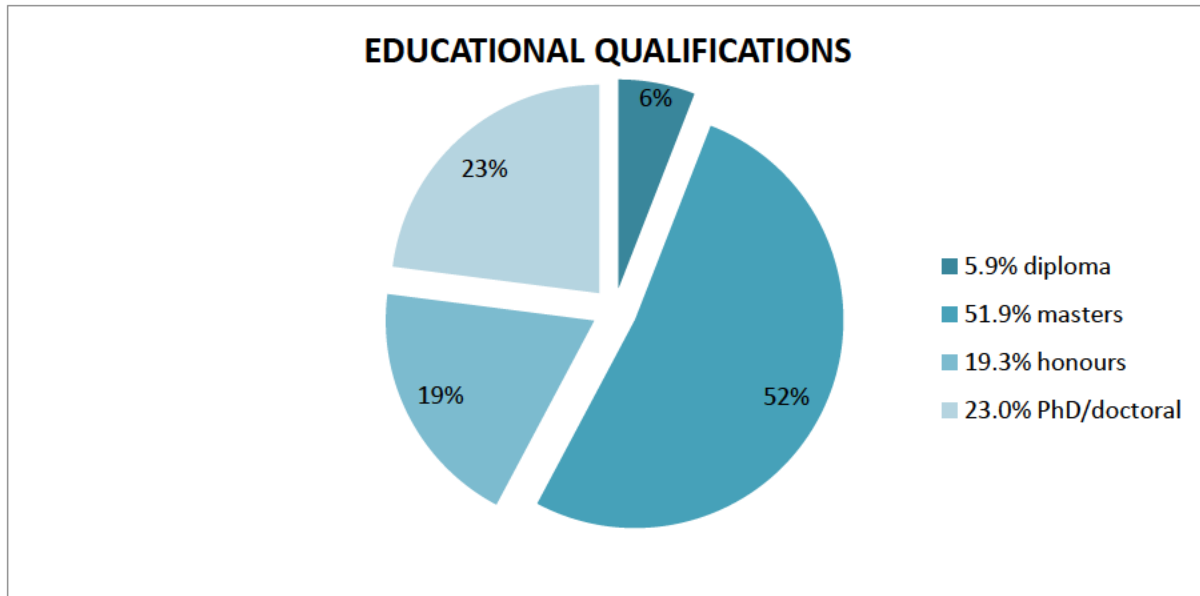
**Figure 5.3: Race distribution**

Figure 5.3 (above) shows that 49.6% (n=67) of the respondents were white, 43.0% (n=58) were black, 4.4% (n=6) Indian, 2.2% (n=3) coloured, and 0.7% (n=1) were other races. A synopsis of these results shows that the institution had more white academic staff members than any other race at the time of the study.



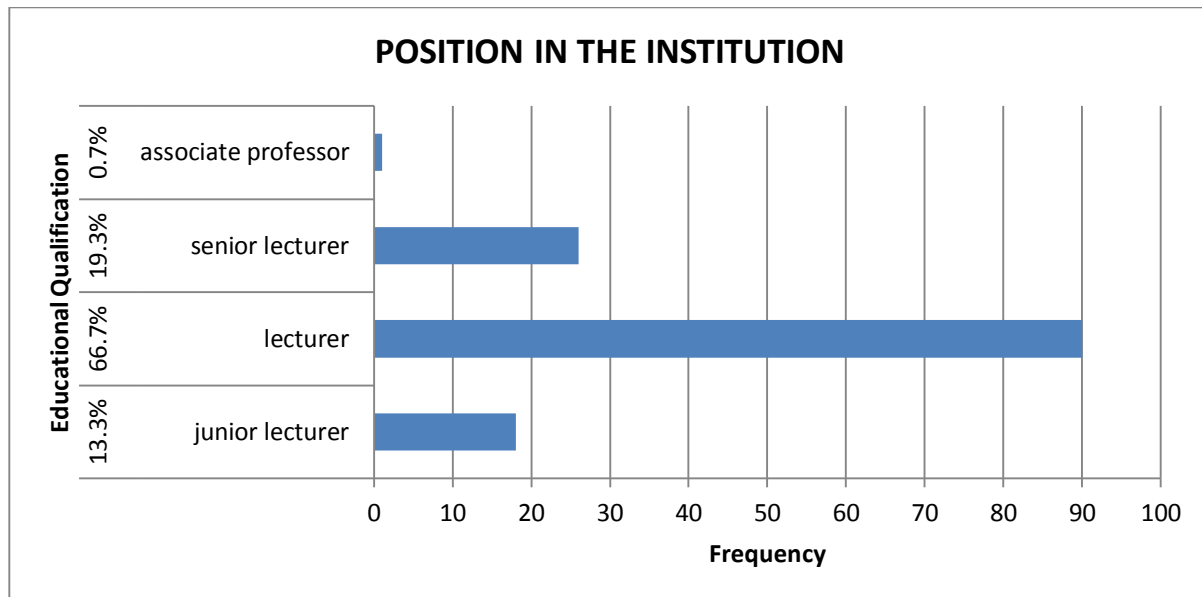
**Figure 5.4: Marital status**

Figure 5.4 (above) indicates that 69.6% (n=94) of the respondents were married, 21.5% (n=29) were single, 7.4% (n=10) were divorced, 0.7% (n=1) widowed and 0.7% (n=1) were co-habiting.



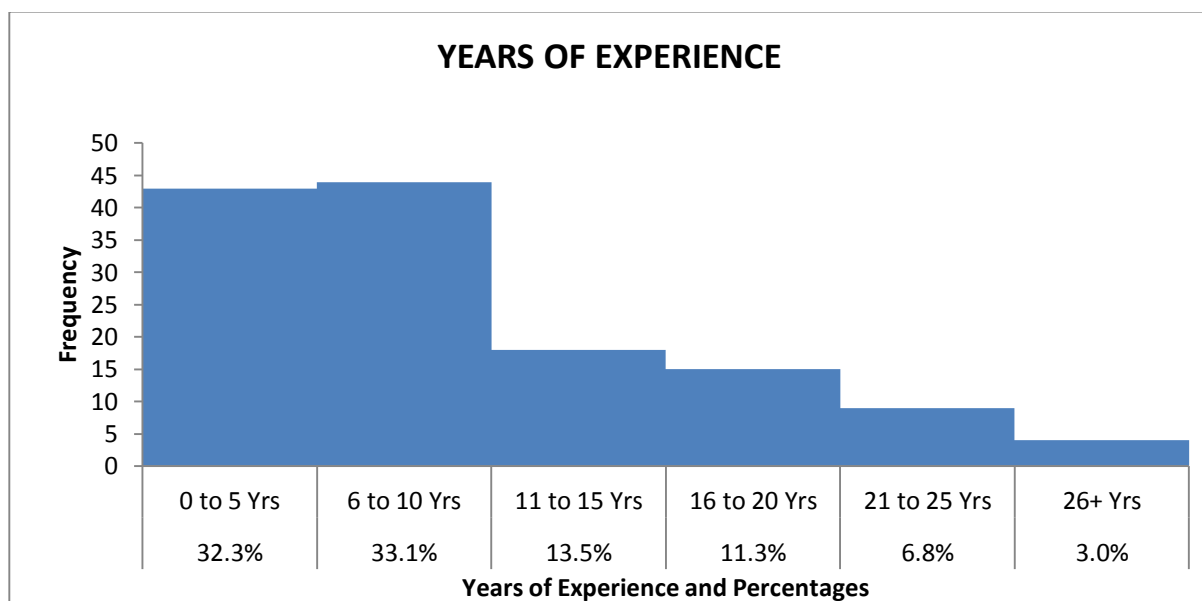
**Figure 5.5: Educational qualifications**

Figure 5.5 (above) shows that 51.9% (n=70) of the respondents had a masters degree, 23.0% (n=31) had doctorates, 19.3% (n=26) had honours, and 5.9% (n=8) had diplomas. Most of the responses came from academic employees who had a masters degree or doctorates. This is expected, given that the study was done at an institution of higher learning where such qualifications are a requirement.



**Figure 5.6: Position in the institution**

Figure 5.6 (above) shows that 66.7% (n=90) of the respondents were employed as lecturers, 19.3% (n=26) as senior lecturers, 13.3% (n=18) as junior lecturers, and 0.7% (n=1) at professorial level. There were more participants at the lecturer level than any other level in the sample.



**Figure 5.7: Length of service**



Some 33.1% (n=45) of the respondents had been employed by the institution for 6-10 years, 32.3% (n=44) for 0-5 years, 13.5% (n=18) for 11-15 years, 11.3% (n=15) for 16-20 years, 6.8% (n=9) for 21-25 years and 3.0% (n=4) for 26 years or more. The results reflect that most of the responses came from academic staff employed for less than 10 years at the institution.

## 5.5 HYPOTHESIS TESTING

This section presents results of statistical analysis and discusses the research hypotheses investigated in the study. It should be recalled that the study tested four hypotheses: (1) academic professionals have negative perceptions about organisational culture; (2) academic professionals are not satisfied with their jobs; (3) there is no correlation between organisational culture and job satisfaction components; and (4) there is no correlation between specific components of organisational culture and specific job satisfaction components.

In order to test the first and second hypotheses, which state that (1) *academic professionals have negative perceptions about organisational culture and*, (2) *academic professionals are not satisfied with their jobs*, respectively, measures of central tendency – specifically the mean – were computed to determine the levels of organisational culture as perceived by the academic professionals as well as their levels of job satisfaction. The Likert scales adopted in the measuring instrument provided guidelines for determining whether organisational culture and job satisfaction levels were high, moderate, or low. The Likert scale used to measure organisational culture measured items on a five-point scale, which ranged from: (1) not at all, (2) minimally, (3) moderately, (4) considerably and (5) very much. For job satisfaction, items were measured on a five-point scale ranging from: (1) very dissatisfied, (2) dissatisfied, (3) neutral, (4) satisfied and (5) very satisfied. In this regard, using measures of central tendency and dispersion provided in Table 5.3 and Table 5.4, a mean value of below <3 indicates a negative inclination towards organisational culture or job dissatisfaction, while a mean value equal to or above  $\geq 3$  indicates a positive inclination towards

organisational culture or job satisfaction. Table 5.3 shows the mean values for organisational culture.

### 5.5.1 H1: academic professionals have negative perceptions about organisational culture.

**Table 5.3: Mean values for organisational culture**

Dimension of Organisational Culture	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Innovation and risk taking (IRT)	132	1.25600	4.99500	3.1674015	0.06394240
Attention to details (ATD)	132	1.44200	5.00000	3.6002121	0.06101191
Outcome orientation (OCO)	135	1.00100	5.00500	3.6673111	0.06663519
People orientation (PO)	133	1.00000	5.00000	3.2877820	0.07927024
Team orientation (TMO)	135	1.51200	5.00000	3.4128148	0.06826748
Aggressiveness (AGR)	134	1.00100	5.00500	3.3422239	0.05705265
Stability (STAB)	134	1.00000	5.00000	3.3177164	0.07740821

As shown in Table 5.3 (above) academic professionals under study perceived the organisational culture of the institution to have a moderate character of team orientation (3.41), aggressiveness (3.34), stability (3.32), people orientation (3.29), and innovation and risk taking (3.17). Higher mean scores of organisational culture perceptions were found in the following items: attention to details (3.60) and outcome orientation (3.67).

Table 5.3 indicates that outcome orientation had the highest mean score response of 3.67. The high mean score for outcome orientation indicates that academic professionals at the institution under study perceive the culture of the institution to be more focused on results or outcome – than the process used to achieve these outcomes. The high mean score in the present study confirms what has been found by Dastmalchian, Javidan and Alam (2001:540) in their study of effective leadership and culture in Iran. Dastmalchian *et al.* (2001:540) found that the societal culture in Iran was characterised by a high level of outcome orientation. However, Bikmoradi *et al.* (2008:424) in their study on medical school faculty members, pointed out that there was

insufficient support for the aspect referred to as outcome orientation within the school. Similarly, Gray, Densten and Sarros's (2003:6) study on organisational culture in small, medium and large Australian organisations, found that outcome orientation had the lowest mean score and was perceived overall as being least characteristic of organisational culture. In view of this argument, the present study brings in a new dimension to the literature – with outcome orientation being perceived as the highest characteristic of organisational culture within a higher education institution in a developing economy.

Attention to details had a high mean response score of 3.60. This high mean score in the present study indicates that academic professionals in the institution perceived that the institution's culture emphasised that employees exhibit precision and pay attention to detail in the workplace. Gray *et al.* (2003:6) found a moderate mean score for attention to details in a study done on organisational culture in small, medium and large Australian organisations. The executives perceived attention to detail as being a moderate characteristic of their firms. Similarly, Chow, Harrison, McKinnon and Wu (2001:14) argue that, in the world today, much time and effort within organisations is directed towards innovation and aggression and this carries with it a reduced emphasis on attention to detail. In a study by Bikmoradi *et al.* (2008:424) on medical school faculty members, the authors found insufficient support for paying attention to details. These negative results are consistent with those of a study by Dastmalchian *et al.* (2001:548) on leadership in Iran. Although the high mean score for attention to details in this study is not consistent with previous studies, the present study's results are unsurprising, considering that paying attention to detail is one of the virtues expected of any academic working in an institution of higher learning.

The results of the study showed team orientation had a moderate mean score of 3.41. The moderate mean score for team orientation may be due to academic professionals at the institution perceiving the institution's culture as encouraging teams rather than individuals. Organisations with a team-orientated culture are collaborative and emphasise cooperation among employees (Robbins *et al.* 2013:424). Eigen (2014:1)

argues that organisations that stress a spirit of team work and collaboration can capitalise on the individual strengths of their employees. When effective teams are in place, the collective product is greater than the sum of the individual effort. Thus, the results could be justified, considering that one of the key responsibilities of academic professionals is lecturing – which can be regarded as an individual task. Conversely, this assertion would contradict the collegiality that is encouraged among academic professionals in areas such as research and publications.

The moderate score on aggressiveness (3.340 showed in Table 5.3 refers to the degree to which employees in an organisation are competitive rather than easy going (Naicker, 2008:8). Bauer and Erdogan (2014:1) explain that every organisation lays down the level of aggressiveness with which their employees work. Greene, Reinhardt and Lowry (2004:80) contend that organisations with aggressive cultures value competitiveness and outperforming competitors, and, by emphasising this they often fall short in terms of corporate social responsibility. A study by Castiglia (2006:29-30) in a Catholic college found that the faculty regarded aggressiveness as the least preferred organisational culture characteristic. On the other hand, one may justify the results by arguing that aggressiveness is an organisational culture character that is mostly found in corporate organisations than in institutions of higher learning.

The stability factor had a moderate mean score of 3.32. The moderate mean score for stability means that the academic professionals perceived the institution's culture as somehow encouraging activities that emphasise maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth. According to Burchell and Kolb (2006:34), stability can be associated with centralisation, conflict reduction, conformity, consensus, consistency, continuity, control, formalisation, hierarchy, integration, maintenance, order, security, status quo, and standardisation. Elements of stability can be found in ceremonies, control systems, formal practices, formal structures, mission, policies, quality, information and operating systems, standard operating procedures, rituals and symbols. In a study by Chow *et al.* (2001:13) stability was one of the dimensions of organisational culture that has a strong impact on affective commitment, job satisfaction and information sharing. Similarly, in a

study of medical school faculty members, Bikmoradi (2008:424) found that the faculty participants emphasised stability versus openness to change as an important aspect of organisational culture. The moderate mean score obtained in the study for the stability factor can be understood within the context of the transformation agenda that the institution is currently promoting and championing.

People orientation had a moderate mean score of 3.29. People-orientated cultures value fairness, supportiveness, and respecting individual rights. In this regard, the moderate mean score of people orientation entails that the academic professionals were not sure whether the institution's culture promoted criticisms from its members, concern for personal problems, and concern for personal development. These results are consistent with a study by Dastmalchian *et al.* (2001:541) who found a moderate emphasis on humane orientation as a cultural attribute of Iranian society. Similarly, Bikmoradi *et al.* (2008:424) found a very low mean score for people orientation in a study of academic culture in Iranian medical schools. Contrastingly, a study by Choi, Martin and Park (2008:73) focusing on organisational culture and job satisfaction in Korean professional baseball organisations, found a positive impact of the clan culture on employee satisfaction because of the great importance of personal values and respect for people – which was presumptively universal regardless of cultural boundaries. Furthermore, Choi *et al* found that an organisation that is people orientated and respects its employees tends to create reciprocal responses of commitment, satisfaction and intention to stay with the organisation.

Innovation and risk taking had a moderate mean score of 3.17. The moderate mean score obtained in the present study is consistent with a study conducted by Gray *et al.* (2003:6), who found that the executives perceived innovation as a moderate character of the culture in their firms. According to Deutschman (2004:54), organisations that have innovative cultures are flexible, adaptable, and experiment with ideas. These organisations are characterised by flat hierarchy and titles and other status distinctions tend to be downplayed. In these kinds of organisations, employees do not have bosses in the traditional sense, and risk taking is encouraged by celebrating failures as well as

successes. Khan, Usoro, Majewski and Kuofie (2010:67) explain innovation as the introduction and implementation of new ideas that positively benefit the organisation and its members. Managers regard innovation as the major source of competitive advantage (Khan, *et al.*, 2010:67). In view of the above discussion, it can be argued that the moderate mean score for innovation and risk taking is due to the kind of hierarchy in an institution of higher learning. Furthermore, in a university environment, success is celebrated more than any form of failure – as success makes the institution more competitive compared to other institutions.

Overall, in terms of the scale used to measure negative or positive perceptions of organisational culture, academic professionals had moderate positive perceptions of the organisational culture within the institution

### 5.5.2 H2: academic professionals are not satisfied with their jobs.

As indicated above, the mean was used to determine the satisfaction levels of academic staff members. Table 5.4 (below) indicates the mean score values for the job satisfaction dimensions.

**Table 5.4: Mean values of job satisfaction**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std Error
Work itself (WRK)	128	1.78200	4.99000	3.6062344	0.05469959
Advancement opportunities (ADVOP)	126	1.68600	5.00000	3.4431429	0.05608071
Salary (SAL)	134	1.00000	5.00000	2.7590299	0.07939667
Supervision Support (SUPSUP)	131	1.00000	5.00000	3.6533664	0.07071744
Co-worker relations (COWRE)	133	2.43100	5.00500	3.7859699	0.05003133

As shown in Table 5.4, the results suggested that extrinsic job satisfaction factors had both high and low response rates. According to Bassett-Jones & Lloyd (2005:929), extrinsic satisfaction is employee satisfaction that largely results from factors of the job that are not related to job content. In this study, such factors were co-worker relations, supervision support, and salary.

Co-worker relations had the highest mean score response of 3.79. In this regard, academic professionals were more satisfied with their co-worker relations. These results are consistent with those of Boeve (2007:63), who examined the job satisfaction factors for a physician assistant (PA) faculty in Michigan. Boeve found that the respondents were most satisfied with co-worker relations. Similarly, in a study by Castillo and Cano (2004:70) on factors explaining job satisfaction among the faculty, the authors found that the faculty was satisfied with the co-worker relation. However, Alam and Mohammad (2011:130) found a moderate mean score for JDI dimension co-worker relation on their study of the level of job satisfaction and intent to leave among Malaysian nurses. Friendly and cooperative co-workers are a modest source of job satisfaction to the individual employees (Hill, 2014:1).

The results of the study indicated that supervision support had a high mean score of 3.65. This indicates that academic professionals were satisfied with the supervision support they received in their respective units or departments within the institution. The results confirm what has been found in other studies on job satisfaction. For example, Luddy (2005:81) found employees at a public health institution in the Western Cape, South Africa, were satisfied with the supervision support they received. Similarly, Sowmya and Panchanatham (2011:79) found a high mean score for supervision support in the Indian banking sector as measured by JDI. Contrary to these confirmations, a study of Malaysian nurses by Alam and Mohammad (2011:130) only found a moderate satisfaction of supervision support. The high mean score of supervision support obtained in the present study could be a function of institutional leadership styles.

The salary subscale had the least mean score of 2.76. This mean score shows that academic professionals at the institution were not satisfied with the salary they received at the time of the study. Gurbuz (2007:45) argues that although employees do want to be paid fairly for their work, money is not an effective way to motivate individuals. Hays (1999:46) concurs with Gurbuz (2007:45) – that if managers reward performance only with money, in many ways they will lose the motivation battle, because there are other powerful motivators such as freedom and flexibility in the organisation. Amar (2004:96) argues that money has been the obvious and most important outcome from employment, and until a few decades back, it was the only outcome that employers offered to their employees. According to Maslow (1994), money is important in that it serves the function of meeting physiological needs – food, water, shelter and clothing. According to Maslow’s theory, people would want to have their physiological needs fulfilled before other needs are satisfied. If these needs are not fulfilled, employees would leave the organisation and seek employment elsewhere where they feel their needs could be satisfied, and thus money can be taken as an important motivator. The inconsistencies surrounding the nature of this relationship from several authors can be used to support the finding in this study. If the institution in the present study is only using money as a source of motivation without the introduction of other motivation tools, such as flexible working arrangements, it could explain the lack of satisfaction with extrinsic motivators. On the other hand, if the institution is failing to pay its employees adequately, and yet money is regarded as an important motivator, employees’ low level of the satisfaction on the salary subscale is then not surprising.

Intrinsic job factors in the present study had a high mean score. Wood, Wallace, Zeffene, Fromholtz and Morrison (2001:143) explain that intrinsic job satisfaction refers to factors of the job that are related to job content; that is, they are related to what people do in their jobs – for example, the work itself, recognition and job autonomy. In this regard, work itself had a high mean response of 3.60 – meaning academic professionals were satisfied with their jobs and all things associated with them at the time of the study. These results are consistent with the findings of Aydin (2012:109). The author found that the academics are highly satisfied with the nature of work.



Similarly, Luddy (2005:81) found the employees at the public health institution in Western Cape, South Africa, were satisfied with the nature of their work. In their study of factors influencing job satisfaction of banking sector employees in Chennai, India, Sowmya and Panchanatham (2011:79) found that the respondents were very satisfied with the work itself at the several banks surveyed.

Advancement opportunities had a moderate mean score of 3.44. This shows that respondents at the institution were moderately satisfied with the advancement opportunities offered. These results are consistent with those of Aydin (2012:70) in the study of the differences of the effect of motivation factors and hygiene factors on research performance of Foundation University members in Turkey. Aydin (2012:12) found that the respondents reported a high mean score for advancement opportunities received in the Foundation University. Similarly, Castillo and Cano (2004:70) found a high mean score for advancement opportunities in their study of factors explaining job satisfaction among faculty members in Mexico. However, Malik, Nawab, Naeem and Damish (2010:21) – in their study of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of university teachers in the public sector of Pakistan – found a moderate mean score for job satisfaction dimension advancement opportunities. In view of the above discussion, it can be argued that employees are more satisfied with their jobs if they see a path available to move up the ranks in the company and are given more responsibility – along with the higher compensation.

The results of the study indicate that academic professionals at the institution were satisfied with their co-worker relation, supervision support, the work they performed, and the advancement opportunities they received. They were, however, not satisfied with the salary they were receiving.

### 5.5.3 Organisational culture and job satisfaction indices

The third and fourth hypotheses stated that: (1) *there is no correlation between organisational culture and job satisfaction*, and (2) *there is no correlation between specific components of organisational culture and specific job satisfaction components*.

In order to test the above hypotheses, the Pearson Product Moment correlation method was used to determine the relationship among the indices of OC and JC. The literature states that Pearson's  $r$  can vary in magnitude from  $-1$  to  $1$ , with  $-1$  indicating a perfect negative linear relation,  $1$  indicating a perfect positive linear relation, and  $0$  indicating no linear relation between two variables. The Pearson Product Moment correlation method was used because it measures the strength of agreement between two or more variables in social science research (see [www.isixsigma.com](http://www.isixsigma.com)). Cohen (1992:156) gives the following guidelines for the social sciences in terms of strength or effect size:  $0.10$  = small effect,  $0.30$  = medium effect, and  $0.50$  = large effect. A correlation matrix between organisational culture and job satisfaction dimensions is shown in Table 5.5 (below).

**Table 5.5: Correlation of organisational culture and job satisfaction indices**

Correlations		IRT	ATD	OCO	PO	TMO	AGR	STAB
WRK	Pearson	0.220*	0.166	0.279**	0.422**	0.423**	0.215*	0.443**
	Correlation							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.014	0.064	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.015	0.000
	N	125	125	128	126	128	128	127
ADVOP	Pearson	0.362**	0.358**	0.421**	0.480**	0.562**	0.311**	0.502**
	Correlation							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	123	123	126	124	126	125	125
SAL	Pearson	0.040	0.182*	0.276**	0.290**	0.316**	0.231**	0.163
	Correlation							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.648	0.037	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.008	0.061
	N	131	131	134	132	134	133	133
SUPSUP	Pearson	0.160	0.217*	0.216*	0.410**	0.404**	0.131	0.449**
	Correlation							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.072	0.014	0.013	0.000	0.000	0.137	0.000
	N	128	128	131	129	131	130	130
COWRE	Pearson	0.189*	0.262**	0.280**	0.381**	0.509**	0.247**	0.456**
	Correlation							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.030	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.000
	N	131	130	133	131	133	132	132

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of the study – as shown in Table 5.5 – demonstrated a positive significant correlation between most organisational culture and job satisfaction indices. There was a significant correlation between work itself and the following dimensions of OC: innovation and risk taking ( $r=0.014$ ), outcome orientation ( $r=0.001$ ), people orientation ( $r=0.000$ ), team orientation ( $r=0.000$ ), aggressiveness ( $r=0.015$ ), and stability ( $r=0.000$ ). Furthermore, there was a significant correlation between advancement opportunities with all the organisational culture characteristics: innovation and risk taking ( $r=0.000$ ), attention to details ( $r=0.000$ ), outcome orientation ( $r=0.000$ ), people orientation ( $r=0.000$ ), team orientation ( $r=0.000$ ), aggressiveness ( $r=0.000$ ), and stability ( $r=0.000$ ). A significant correlation was found between salary and the following OC dimensions: attention to details ( $r=0.037$ ), outcome orientation ( $r=0.001$ ), people orientation

( $r=0.001$ ), team orientation ( $r=0.000$ ), and aggressiveness ( $r=0.008$ ). There was a significant correlation between supervision support and attention to details ( $r=0.014$ ), supervision support and outcome orientation ( $r=0.013$ ), supervision support and people orientation ( $r=0.000$ ), and supervision support and stability ( $r=0.000$ ). Co-worker relations had a significant correlation with all the organisational culture characteristics respectively: innovation and risk taking ( $r=0.030$ ), attention to details ( $r=0.003$ ), outcome orientation ( $r=0.001$ ), people orientation ( $r=0.000$ ), team orientation ( $r=0.000$ ), aggressiveness ( $r=0.004$ ), and stability ( $r=0.000$ ). With these correlations, the two hypotheses were therefore rejected.

The positive significant relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction indices in the present study confirms what has been found in other studies of organisational culture and job satisfaction. For example, in an empirical study by Lund (2003) to examine the impact of the types of organisational culture on job satisfaction in a survey of marketing professionals in a cross-section of firms in the USA, job satisfaction levels varied across organizational culture typologies. In another study by McKinnon, Harrison, Chow and Wu (2003), using participants from diversified manufacturing companies in Taiwan, results showed that organisational cultural values of respect for people; innovation, stability and aggressiveness uniformly and strongly associated with affective commitment, job satisfaction and information sharing. Similarly, Gifford, Zammuto and Goodman (2002) investigated the relationship between hospital unit culture and nurses' quality of work life within seven different hospitals in five Western United States cities. Data analysis showed that unit organisational culture did affect the nurse's quality of work life and that human relations' cultural values were positively related to organisational commitment, job involvement, empowerment and job satisfaction.

Research by Bashayreh (2009:2) examining the relationship between the dimensions of organisational culture and employees' job satisfaction among academic staff at Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), also showed that there was a significant relationship between organisational culture factors such as organisational supportiveness,

innovation and stability, and communication and job satisfaction. Though most of these studies are critical in understanding the results of the current study, some of them can be criticised for having been done in different contexts.

The social exchange theory (Zafirovski, 2005:1) could also be used to explain the positive significant correlation between organisational culture and job satisfaction. The theory states that employees exhibit positive or negative behaviour as a response to the treatment they receive from the organisation. The central aspect in this theory is the norm of reciprocity between the employees and employers. The ability of the institution under study to exhibit a conducive organisational culture that is reciprocated by its employees' job satisfaction levels, could be argued to be the reason why there was a positive significant relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction indices.

## **5.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

The aim of this chapter was to present the results obtained from the data analysis and to discuss them. The results were presented in the form of pie charts, bar charts, tables, and frequency graphs. Pearson's correlation tests were used to assess the hypothesised relationship between the study variables. The next chapter presents the conclusion, recommendations for practice, as well as recommendations for future research.

## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this study was to establish the perceptions of organisational culture and their resultant impact on job satisfaction among academic professionals at a university of technology in the Free State Province, South Africa. The research hypotheses were:

1. Academic professionals have negative perceptions about organisational culture.
2. Academic professionals are not satisfied with their jobs.
3. There is no correlation between components of organisational culture and job satisfaction components.
4. There is no correlation between specific components of organisational culture and specific job satisfaction components.

Chapter 1 introduced the study – presenting the overview, problem statement, objectives, hypotheses, contribution of the study, and limitations. This was followed by a review of the literature in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. In Chapter 4, the research methodology was outlined and discussed. Chapter 5 presented and discussed the findings of the study. This chapter concludes the study with presentation of conclusions and recommendations for practice and further research.

## 6.2 CONCLUSION BASED ON THE LITERATURE

A literature survey was conducted to form the theoretical premises for the study. For the purpose of this study, organisational culture was defined as the distinctive pattern of shared assumptions, values and norms that shape the socialisation activities, language, symbols, rites and ceremonies of employees of an organisation. From the literature, organisational culture has been proven to have an impact on employee performance, commitment and job satisfaction. An organisation's culture is captured in seven primary characteristics: innovation and risk taking, attention to details, outcome orientation, team orientation, people orientation, aggressiveness, and stability. Job satisfaction is an attitude that individuals have about their jobs. It is an extent to which one feels positively or negatively about the intrinsic aspects (recognition, advancement and responsibility) and/or extrinsic aspects (salary, supervision and work conditions) of one's job. Job satisfaction has significant association with several variables such as life satisfaction, employee performance, and organisational commitment. A number of studies in the literature have presented a significant relationship between the two variables under study: organisational culture and job satisfaction.

## 6.3 CONCLUSION BASED ON RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Using quantitative analysis techniques, this research examined four hypotheses. Each of the hypotheses is presented below with a summary of findings and conclusions related to it.

**Hypothesis one:** *Academic professionals have negative perceptions about organisational culture.* In Chapter 5, Table 5.3 showed that academic professionals had a positive perception about the organisational culture of the institution at the time of the study. All the mean scores for the tested organisational culture characteristics were above 3 – indicating a positive inclination. *Based on the above evidence null hypothesis 1 was therefore rejected.*

**Hypothesis two:** *Academic professionals are not satisfied with their jobs.* The results in Table 5.4 showed that academic professionals were satisfied with co-worker relations, supervision support, work itself, and advancement opportunities. They were least satisfied with the salary they receive. Based on these findings, one can conclude that the academic professionals were satisfied with their jobs. *Therefore the null hypothesis 2 was rejected.*

**Hypothesis three:** *There is no correlation between components of organisational culture and job satisfaction components.* The findings in Chapter 5 indicate that a number of organisational culture components are correlated with job satisfaction components: attention to details, outcome orientation, people orientation, team orientation, aggressiveness, and stability. Organisational culture components such as innovation and risk taking did not correlate with two job satisfaction components such as salary and supervision support, while attention to details did not correlate with work itself, aggressiveness with supervision support and stability with salary. The findings indicate a significant correlation between organisational culture components and job satisfaction components. *Therefore, null hypothesis 3 was rejected.*

**Hypothesis four:** *There is no correlation between specific components of organisational culture and specific job satisfaction components.* The results, as indicated in Table 5.5, show that there was a significant correlation between work itself and the following dimensions of OC: innovation and risk taking, outcome orientation, people orientation, team orientation, aggressiveness, and stability. Furthermore, there was a significant correlation between advancement opportunities with all the organisational culture characteristics: innovation and risk taking, attention to details, outcome orientation, people orientation, team orientation, aggressiveness, and stability. A significant correlation was found between salary and the following OC dimensions: attention to details, outcome orientation, people orientation, team orientation, and aggressiveness. There was a significant correlation between supervision support and attention to details, supervision support and outcome orientation, supervision support and people orientation, and supervision support and stability. Co-worker relations had a



significant correlation with all the organisational culture characteristics: innovation and risk taking, attention to details, outcome orientation, people orientation, team orientation, aggressiveness, and stability. *Therefore, null hypothesis 4 was rejected.*

## **6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Recommendations were made on the findings derived from the discussions in Chapter 5 and from conclusions in the previous section of this chapter.

### **6.4.1 Recommendations for practice**

From section B (Organisational Culture Profile) of the questionnaire used in the study, one can conclude that the respondents understood the concept of organisational culture. As organisational culture is regarded as shared assumptions, values, norms, rituals and stories, management needs to ensure that every employee understands and is able to identify with the culture of the institution – as organisational culture has an impact on employee behaviour.

Like organisations in business and industry, institutions of higher education want to retain and/or hire valuable, professionally committed academics. Monitoring job satisfaction can aid in the achievement of that goal. Surveys should be administered periodically to monitor job satisfaction of academics. Analysis of the feedback identifies areas of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Areas of satisfaction are reasons for celebration and can be communicated to all stakeholders with pride and will ultimately enhance the reputation of the institution. Areas of dissatisfaction are signals for change. Committees can be formed with the assignment to develop action plans that will resolve problem areas if possible.

Previous researchers have suggested that organisational culture has an impact on employee job satisfaction – a factor that is critical for organisational effectiveness. The present study finds that a relationship does exist between organisational culture and job

satisfaction. However, the results suggest that organisational culture and job satisfaction levels are moderate. In view of these findings it is important to ensure that each academic professional is well informed, and understands and can identify with the culture of the institution.

#### **6.4.2 Recommendations for future research**

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations for future research are proposed.

- This study provides information about the impact of organisational culture on job satisfaction among academic professionals at the selected institution of higher education – using the Organisational Culture Profile questionnaire and the Job Descriptive Index. Due to the lack of a previously conducted study using the same methodology, neither changes nor trends could be identified. Therefore, it is recommended that this study be repeated in the future.
- The study used a quantitative research approach. Future studies may also include a qualitative research approach as this provides room for probing where clarity might be needed.
- This study focuses mainly on the correlation between organisational culture and job satisfaction. Future studies could also focus on the effects of demographics on these variables, by putting much emphasis on the effects of demographics on job satisfaction in the higher education context.

#### **6.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS**

The present chapter briefly presented the conclusions drawn from the study. It also provided recommendations that the institution under study could use to improve organisational culture and job satisfaction. The chapter provided directions for future research.

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## ANNEXURE A

### LETTER TO REQUEST PERMISSION TO USE THE ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE PROFILE

Bulelwa Malo

2012/04/30

To: oreilly\_charles@gsb.stanford.edu

Prof. O'Reilly

My name is Bulelwa Malo, a student in the Central University of Technology Free State in South Africa. I am currently doing my Masters in Business Administration. I am writing a thesis, titled: Organizational Culture and Job Satisfaction of academic professionals. Going through different articles i ran into the questionnaire OCP that you developed in 1991. I am interested in using that questionnaire for my study and i would like to get your permission to use the questionnaire, as well as a copy of the questionnaire as I am not able to get it anywhere.

Your consideration of this e-mail will be highly appreciated.

Regards

Bulelwa Malo



## **ANNEXURE B**

### **PERMISSION LETTER TO USE THE ORIGINAL ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE PROFILE**

Charles O'Reilly (OReilly\_Charles@GSB.Stanford.Edu)

2012/04/30

To: Bulelwa Malo

Bulelwa:

The items for the OCP are contained in the appendix of the 1991 paper. I suspect that it may be difficult for you to do the analysis of these. I'd suggest that you look at the survey version of this instrument contained in Cable & Judge 1997 (see the attached).

Best,

Charles

## ANNEXURE C

### LETTER OF REQUEST TO USE THE REVISE VERSION OF THE ORGANISATION CULTURE PROFILE

Bulelwa Malo

2012/05/03

To: james.sarros@monash.edu

Dear Sir

My name is Bulelwa Malo, a student in the Central University of Technology Free State in South Africa. I am currently doing my Masters in Business Administration. I am writing a thesis, titled: Organizational Culture and Job Satisfaction of academic professionals. Going through different articles I ran into the article: The next generation of the organizational culture profile. I am interested in using that questionnaire for my study and i would like to get your permission to use the questionnaire, as well as a copy of the questionnaire as I am not able to get it anywhere.

I have already contacted Professor O'Reilly and he sent me a proper list of the items that are in the questionnaire. Now I wish to get permission to use your revised version of the tool.

Regards

Bulelwa Malo

## ANNEXURE D

### PERMISSION LETTER TO USE THE REVISED VERSION OF THE ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE PROFILE

James Sarros

2012/05/04

To: Bulelwa Malo

Hello Bulelwa, attached is the revised version of the OCP and my permission to use this version for your research. Good luck with your study.

Kind Regards,

Professor James C. Sarros  
Department of Management  
Monash University  
PO Box 197 Caulfield East Vic  
AUSTRALIA 3145

+61(0)3 9903 1432

## ANNEXURE E

### COVER LETTER

**Date: 22 July 2013**

Dear Respondent

I am a student finalising my Masters' studies at the Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT, FS).

*The focus of my study is to have an understanding of academic staffs' perceptions of their work environment and jobs.*

It will be greatly appreciated if you could assist by completing the attached questionnaire. There are three sections to be completed, A, B and C. It will take you between 10 to 15 minutes to complete it. There are no wrong or right answers, your honest opinions are what matters.

Please be assured that all responses will remain confidential and are going to be used for academic purposes only; all the respondents will remain anonymous and only grouped data will be presented.

Thank you

Yours in Appreciation

.....  
Miss B. Malo  
Student no.: 207004404

.....  
Dr C Chipunza  
Supervisor

## SECTION 1: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please indicate your response by putting an (X) in the appropriate box.

1. Gender

1	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. How old are you? ----- years

3. Please indicate your race group.

1	Black	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	White	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Indian	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please specify if other: .....

4. Please indicate your marital status

1	Single	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Married	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Divorced	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Widowed	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Co-habitation	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. Please indicate your educational qualification

1	Certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Masters' Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Honors' Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	PhD/Doctoral	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Please indicate your position in the institution

.....

7. Please indicate how long have you worked for the institution

.....

## SECTION 2: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE PROFILE

Below are listed items that relate to the characteristics of your organisation and its values. Please reflect on your organisation and rate how each characteristic is related to your organisation. Use the following scale to indicate, by putting an (X) in the appropriate number, the extent to which you perceive each of the following items as a characteristic of your organisation and its values

Not At All 1	Minimally 2	Moderately 3	Considerably 4	Very Much 5
-----------------	----------------	-----------------	-------------------	----------------

**To what extent is your organization recognised for...**

1.	Being innovative and risk taking	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Being quick to take advantage of opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
3.	A willingness to experiment	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Not being constrained by many rules	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Being rule orientated	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Being analytical	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Paying attention to detail	1	2	3	4	5
8.	An emphasis on quality	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Having high expectations for performance	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Being results oriented	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Being highly organized	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Enthusiasm for the job	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Fairness	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Respect for the individual's right	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Tolerance	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Being supportive	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Being team orientated	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Sharing information freely	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Working in collaboration with others	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Developing friends at work	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Being aggressive	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Achievement orientation	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Being distinctive different from others	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Being competitive	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Stability	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Being calm	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Security of employment	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Low level conflict	1	2	3	4	5

### SECTION 3: JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

Below are listed numerous factors that may relate to the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction that you find in your position as an academic professional in the institution. Please reflect on your position and rate your current satisfaction for each factor. Use the following rating scale:

Very dissatisfied 1	Dissatisfied 2	Neutral 3	Satisfied 4	Very satisfied 5
---------------------------	-------------------	--------------	----------------	---------------------

Please indicate your response by putting an (X) in the appropriate box.

#### Work itself

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
Working with university students	1	2	3	4	5
Challenging aspects of lecturing	1	2	3	4	5
General nature of work aside from lecturing	1	2	3	4	5
Level of personal enthusiasm for lecturing	1	2	3	4	5
Number of classes responsible for	1	2	3	4	5
Number of hours worked each week	1	2	3	4	5
Current work schedule	1	2	3	4	5
Personal office facilities	1	2	3	4	5
University committee responsibilities (i.e. workgroups, councils, boards, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
Adequacy of instructional equipment	1	2	3	4	5
Expectations of workload (i.e. lecturing, service, research, etc.) as a faculty member	1	2	3	4	5
Work schedule compared to that of co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
Professional growth seen in students over time	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate your response by putting an (X) in the appropriate box.

### Advancement opportunities

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
Opportunities for increased responsibility	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunities provided for growth compared with growth in other fields	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunities for professional growth through formal education	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunity to attain tenure	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunity to objectively evaluate your accomplishments	1	2	3	4	5
Recognition by administration for ideas	1	2	3	4	5
Responsibilities compared to those of co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
Involvement in making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
Procedures used to select staff for administrative positions	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate your response by putting an (X) in the appropriate box.

### Salary (Pay)

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
Method used to determine your salary	1	2	3	4	5
Range of salaries paid to institutional staff	1	2	3	4	5
Top salary available to academic professionals	1	2	3	4	5
Salary compared to academic professionals at other institutions	1	2	3	4	5
Amount of annual salary	1	2	3	4	5
Earning potential among academic professionals compared to administrative positions	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunity to earn additional income	1	2	3	4	5



Please indicate your response by putting an (X) in the appropriate box.

### Supervision support

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
Level of understanding between self and supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
Day-to-day supervision given by your supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
Competence of supervisor to give leadership	1	2	3	4	5
Personal encouragement given by supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
Willingness of supervisor to delegate authority	1	2	3	4	5
Mentoring counsel given by supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
Fairness exhibited by supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
Ability of supervisor to sense others' needs	1	2	3	4	5
Consistency of supervisory responses	1	2	3	4	5
Hands on training offered by your supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
Extent of information provided about issues that matter	1	2	3	4	5
Present job security	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate your response by putting an (X) in the appropriate box.

### Co-worker relations

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
Friendliness of co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
Cooperation shown by departmental staff	1	2	3	4	5
Cooperation of faculty from outside departments	1	2	3	4	5
Quality of faculty student interactions	1	2	3	4	5
Job-related professional relationships	1	2	3	4	5
Job-related personal relationships	1	2	3	4	5
Overall relationships within the institution	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.

## ANNEXURE F

### Reliability testing: Organisational Culture Profile

#### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.945	28

#### Item-Total Statistics

Dimension of Organisational Culture	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Innovation and risk taking (IRT)	132	1.25600	4.99500	3.1674015	0.06394240
Attention to details (ATD)	132	1.44200	5.00000	3.6002121	0.06101191
Outcome orientation (OCO)	135	1.00100	5.00500	3.6673111	0.06663519
People orientation (PO)	133	1.00000	5.00000	3.2877820	0.07927024
Team orientation (TMO)	135	1.51200	5.00000	3.4128148	0.06826748
Aggressiveness (AGR)	134	1.00100	5.00500	3.3422239	0.05705265
Stability (STAB)	134	1.00000	5.00000	3.3177164	0.07740821

## JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.962	48

### Item-Total Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std Error
Work itself (WRK)	128	1.78200	4.99000	3.6062344	0.05469959
Advancement opportunities (ADVOP)	126	1.68600	5.00000	3.4431429	0.05608071
Salary (SAL)	134	1.00000	5.00000	2.7590299	0.07939667
Supervision Support (SUPSUP)	131	1.00000	5.00000	3.6533664	0.07071744
Co-worker relations (COWRE)	133	2.43100	5.00500	3.7859699	0.05003133

## Inter correlation of Organisational Culture indices

Correlations		IRT	ATD	OCO	PO	TMO	AGR
Attention to details	Pearson Correlation	0.527**					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000					
	N	129					
Outcome Orientation	Pearson Correlation	0.579**	0.670**				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.00				
	N	132	132				
People Orientation	Pearson Correlation	0.507**	0.478**	0.410**			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000			
	N	130	130	133			
Team Orientation	Pearson Correlation	0.607**	0.549**	0.537**	0.599**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		
	N	132	132	135	133		
Aggressiveness	Pearson Correlation	0.502**	0.515**	0.666**	0.392**	0.603**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	131	131	134	132	134	
Stability	Pearson Correlation	0.552**	0.563**	0.532**	0.765**	0.593**	0.453**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	131	11	134	132	134	133

## Inter correlation of Job Satisfaction indices

Correlations		WRK	ADVOP	SAL	SUPSUP
ADVOP	Pearson Correlation	0.622**			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000			
	N	120			
SAL	Pearson Correlation	0.459**	0.543**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		
	N	128	126		
SUPSUP	Pearson Correlation	0.522**	0.620**	0.352**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	124	122	130	
COWRE	Pearson Correlation	0.517**	0.587**	0.405**	0.617**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	126	124	132	129

## Correlations for Organisational Culture Indices and Job Satisfaction Indices

Correlations		IRT	ATD	OCO	PO	TMO	AGR	STAB
WRK	Pearson Correlation	0.220*	0.166	0.279**	0.422**	0.423**	0.215*	0.443**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.014	0.064	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.015	0.000
	N	125	125	128	126	128	128	127
ADVOP	Pearson Correlation	0.362**	0.358**	0.421**	0.480**	0.562**	0.311**	0.502**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	123	123	126	124	126	125	125
SAL	Pearson Correlation	0.040	0.182*	0.276**	0.290**	0.316**	0.231**	0.163
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.648	0.037	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.008	0.061
	N	131	131	134	132	134	133	133
SUPSUP	Pearson Correlation	0.160	0.217*	0.216*	0.410**	0.404**	0.131	0.449**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.072	0.014	0.013	0.000	0.000	0.137	0.000
	N	128	128	131	129	131	130	130
COWRE	Pearson Correlation	0.189*	0.262**	0.280**	0.381**	0.509**	0.247**	0.456**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.030	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.000
	N	131	130	133	131	133	132	132

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).