

**A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND
PROCEDURAL JUSTICE EXPERIENCED BY EMPLOYEES IN A BRICK
MANUFACTURING COMPANY AND THEIR ORGANISATIONAL
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

By

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(i)

DECLARATION

“I declare that **A study of the relationships between procedural justice and job satisfaction experienced by employees in a brick manufacturing company and their organisational citizenship behaviour** is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references”.

N. Sha



(ii)

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ABSTRACT

Organ (1988) defines organisational citizenship behaviour as an individual's behaviour which is discretionary, not directly recognized by a formal reward system and it should lead to more effective running of the organisation. The purpose of this study is to investigate and review literature that examines whether job satisfaction and procedural justice have a positive relationship with the employees organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in a brick manufacturing industry. Literature suggests that the first research on the antecedents of OCB found that job satisfaction was to be the best predictor. Organ (1997) noted that after two decades of research, job satisfaction is still the leading predictor of OCB. Workers with high levels of job satisfaction are more likely to be engaged in OCB (Brown, 1993). It has also been found that the influence of procedural justice on OCB exists as well (Farh, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990). The sample consists of unskilled and semi-skilled employees, with approximately N = 767 employees and their supervisors or management. The researcher intends to provide management with a better understanding on employees perceptions' of the organisation and provide mechanisms to foster a better work environment.

KEYWORDS

Job Satisfaction, Promotion, Supervision, Working Conditions, Salary, Co-worker, Brick manufacturing, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Extra-Role behaviour, Altruism

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CHAPTER 1

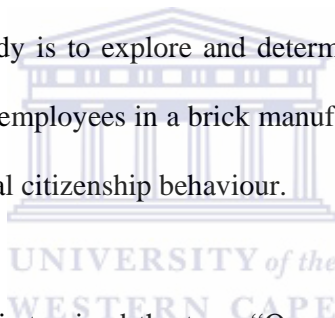
INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Robbins & Judge (2007) define organisational behaviour as a study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behaviour within an organisation. It focuses on how to improve productivity, reduce absenteeism, turnover and deviant workplace behaviour; and how to increase organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. Therefore, this study focuses on job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour of employees in a brick manufacturing company.

Shedroff (2000) as cited in Greenberg & Baron (2003) note that advances in technology have made globalization a reality. Computer technology has made it possible to eliminate vast amounts of boring, monotonous and physical labour which employees used to have to perform. It has made it even easier for people to communicate with one another regardless of where they are located. Modern technology also changed the way managers operate. Easy access to information in computer databases has made it possible for any employee to gather the facts needed to make his or her decisions. Thus, allowing managers to concentrate on the bigger picture rather than having to be involved in their subordinates work (Greenberg & Baron, 2003).

Kreitner & Kinicki (1998) notes further that organisations are finding that yesterday's competitive advantage is becoming the minimum requirement for staying in business. Thus, placing tremendous pressure on organisations to learn how to improve and stay ahead of its competitors. Robbins & Judge (2007) commented that there are a number of changes taking place in organisations. Such changes include, employees that are getting older, increased cultural diversity, restructuring of organisations and the substantial use of temporary employees, which are having a detrimental effect on the loyalty of historically tied employees to their employers. Global competition is requiring employees to become more flexible and to learn to cope with rapid change. Therefore, there are a lot of challenges confronting both managers and employees in organisations today. The aim of this study is to explore and determine the relationship between job satisfaction experienced by employees in a brick manufacturing company in the Western Cape and their organisational citizenship behaviour.



Bateman & Organ (1983) first coined the term “Organisational Citizenship Behaviour” to refer to those behaviours that could benefit an organisation and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor be elicited by contractual guarantee of recompense. According to Organ (1988), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) or “extra-role behaviour” refers to the discretionary actions of employees that promote organisational effectiveness (as cited in Zellars & Tepper, 2002). Organisational citizenship, according to Zeller & Tepper (2002), refers to employee behaviour such as helping co-workers, not complaining about trivial matters and speaking approvingly to outsiders about the organisation.

This kind of behaviour refers to work behaviour that goes beyond the boundaries of traditional job descriptions and measures of job performance and which has the potential of impacting positively on long term organisational success (Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994). It is because of this potential positive impact on organisational success that this construct, i.e. OCB, has received a great deal of attention in several empirical studies during the early 1980's (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1980).

Organ (1988) also proposed that organisational citizenship behaviour can have a positive influence on individual and organisational performance. Several research findings supported the notion that organisational citizenship behaviour could have a positive impact on enhancing the performance of the organisation (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Krillowicz & Lowery, 1996; Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997). These findings were further supported by Waltz & Niehoff, 1996; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1997; Hodson, 2002; Cardona, Lawrence & Bentler, 2004; Appelbaum, Asmar, Chehayeb, Konidas, Duszara & Duminica, 2003).

Another very important aspect of organisational life is the attitudes people hold toward their jobs. This is often referred to as job satisfaction and is, as such, one of the most widely studied work-related attitudes in organisations (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). One of the main reasons for this increased focus on job satisfaction has been that it relates to a work-related attitude. As such it refers to those lasting feelings in which the work is conducted and behavioural tendencies toward various aspects of the job itself, the feeling in which the work

is conducted, and the people that are involved in the process (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Formally, job satisfaction can be defined as “individuals’ cognitive affective and evaluative reactions towards their job” (Locke, 1976 as cited in M.D. Dunnette, pp. 1297 – 1350).

Despite the fact that researchers have referred to the importance of building employee satisfaction and the general consensus that job satisfaction does influence organisations, its effect / impact is not always as strong as one might expect (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). However, it is also important to note that job dissatisfaction could have serious consequences to overall organisational effectiveness and is worth investigating.

Research conducted on the antecedents of OCB, found job satisfaction to be the best predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; Bateman & Organ, 1983 & Organ 1997). According to Organ & Konovsky (1989), employees who are more satisfied with their jobs are less absent and are more likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour. They also seem to be more satisfied with their lives in general (Judge & Watanabe, 1993). Brown (1993) supports this statement by postulating that employees with higher levels of job satisfaction are more likely to be engaged in OCB.

Considering the above, Kumar (2004) notes that good organisational citizens are employees whose action contributes to the effective functioning of the organisation. According to him (Kumar, 2004), such employees do not expect to be explicitly required nor formally rewarded. It is therefore imperative that organisations understand what

causes this behaviour and how this behaviour can be encouraged and promoted in organisations (Kumar, 2004). Organ (1988) notes further that successful organisations need employees who will do more than their normal job duties and who will provide performance that is beyond expectations. The following section will provide brief definitions of job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.2 DEFINING THE CONSTRUCTS USED IN THIS RESEARCH

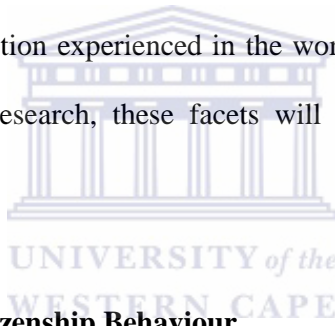
1.2.1 Job Satisfaction

If one were to ask people about their jobs, one would likely find that they have strong opinions about how they feel, what they believe and how they intend to behave (Greenberg & Baron, 1997). These attitudes that people hold towards their jobs are referred to as job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a popular topic for researchers in a wide area of fields including industrial psychology, public administration, business and higher education (Kh Metle, 2005). Locke (1976, p. 1300) defines job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences”. Knights & Kennedy (2005) suggest that job satisfaction is an attitude that reflects how people feel about their jobs.

Job satisfaction is a general attitude of an individual’s current job and organisation that encompasses the feelings, beliefs, and thought about that job (Cranny, Smith & Stone, 1992). Robbins (1998) defines job satisfaction as a general attitude towards one’s job; the difference between the amount workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive.

Spector (1997) corroborates that job satisfaction is how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. Gruneberg (1979) notes that there is no universally agreed upon definition of job satisfaction. The reason for this is due to the large number of definitions and the fact that it deals with various aspects of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is defined as a response towards various facets of one's job and that a person can be relatively satisfied with one aspect of his or her job and dissatisfied with other aspects (French, 1998; George & Jones, 2002; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001). Work-related issues such as the work itself, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision and the co-worker are facets that could have a very significant influence on an employee's general level of job satisfaction experienced in the work itself (George & Jones, 2002). For the purposes of this research, these facets will be elaborated on further in the literature review.



1.2.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The causes of employee job performance, referring specifically to assigned task-related activities have been one of the major focus areas in organisational research according to Fox & Spector (2000). Hence, these authors also observed that there has been a shift in emphasis in recent years to include voluntary behaviour that goes beyond task performance.

A reality is that organisations comprise of different types of individuals that display a wide range of behaviours. Some individuals will do the least possible to maintain

membership to an organisation. On the contrary, organisations also have individuals who will be prepared to go beyond all expectations and do more than what is expected or actually required of them (Tunipseed, 2001). The importance of such behaviour was realised by Katz (1964). He postulated that, for an organisation to be effective, it would require three ingredients, namely: (1) the organisation must recruit and retain excellent employees; (2) these employees must carry out the requirements of their jobs, and (3) they must engage in innovative, spontaneous activity that goes beyond formal job descriptions or role requirements. Barnard (Organ, 1990, p. 43) realised the importance of the type of behaviour in 1937 already when he stated that “it is clear that the willingness of persons to contribute efforts to the cooperative system is indispensable”. These observations are still very relevant and applicable today should one endeavour to define organisational excellence.



The most prominent definition of OCB is “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (Organ, 1988: p. 4). The term organisational citizenship behaviour was coined by Bateman and Organ (1983), to depict employees’ willingness to go above and beyond the prescribed duties which they have been assigned. Positive extra-role behaviours exhibited by employees are discretionary in nature. It is normally not recognised by the formal reward system of the organisation, but holds promise for long term organisational success as it promotes the effective functioning of the organisation (Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994). Van Dyne, Cummings and McLean Parks (1995, p. 218) defined the extra-role behaviour as

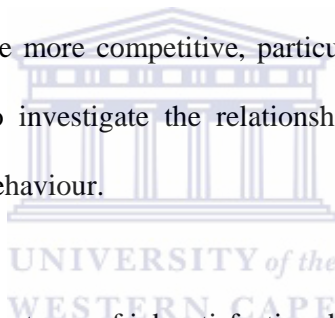
“behaviour which benefits the organisation and / or is intended to benefit the organisation, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations”. Chompookum & Derr (2004) define OCB as a set of discretionary workplace behaviours which exceeds one’s job requirements. According to Williams & Anderson (1991), OCB can be directed at the organisation and/or they may benefit specific individuals. Organ’s definition consists of two critical components which are: (a) behaviour which is not part of the employee’s job duties and is not rewarded explicitly, (b) the behaviour is not obvious but to a certain extent benefit the organisation (Van Dyne et al., 1995).

Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler & Purcell (2004) suggest that employees who believe they are treated fairly respond to change within the work environment by reflecting behaviours that go beyond the call of duty. They suggested further that the underlying premise of OCB is a form of reciprocation of fair treatment by employees.

According to Organ (1988a) there are five dimensions that are normally linked with organisational effectiveness which are altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue (Graham, 1986). There is a proliferation of research on OCB, but debate continues over the precise definition or operationalisation of OCB. The reason being, that most OCB research has focused on understanding the relationship between OCB and other constructs (Hannam & Jimmieson, 2003). This study will focus on organisational citizenship behaviour as defined by Organ (Van Dynne et al., 1995).

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

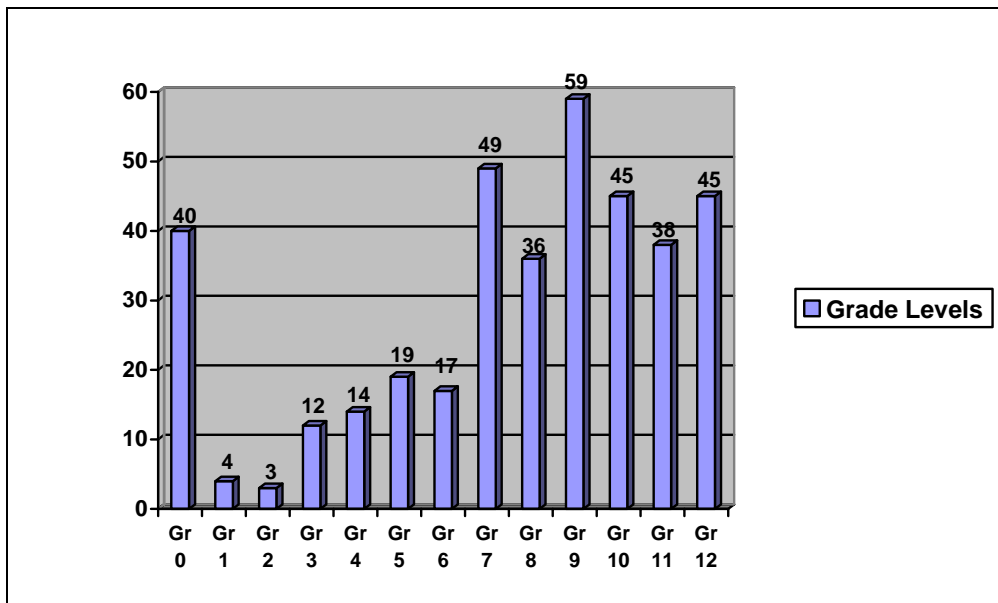
This study was conducted in one organisation only; an organisation involved in the brick manufacturing industry. Since the majority of the employees have relatively low levels of literacy and are unskilled, it was important to investigate whether these employees are satisfied with their jobs and how it impacts on their organisational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, a need was identified in the existing literature to explore the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour in a brick manufacturing company in South Africa. No previous research of this nature could be found in the existing management literature to date. In order for this organisation to realise its goals and become more competitive, particularly in the brick manufacturing industry, it is important to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour.



Turner (2004) notes the importance of job satisfaction does not only lie in its relationship with performance, but also with its stabilizing effects (such as reducing tardiness, absenteeism and turnover) and through its effect on cohesion by increasing organisational citizenship behaviour.

Table 1.1 below indicates the relatively low levels of literacy of the employees in the brick manufacturing organisation. Majority of the employees are unskilled workers. They furthermore, regard working in the mining industry as the only way and source to generate an income for themselves and their families. The reasons being, that the organisation is closest to the areas where the employees live and most brick manufacturing companies do not require highly skilled employees.

Figure 1.1 School Grade level of Employees:



Source: Needs Analysis executed in August 2006 at the organisation

The main purpose of this study will be to determine whether employees in a certain category only, of the respondent organisation are satisfied with their jobs with specific reference to their work content, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision received and their co-workers. A further aim will be to explore the relationship between employees' job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour in this organisation. In view of the problems experienced, the organisation is therefore challenged to identify creative ways to increase work motivation and the levels of employees' job satisfaction.

This study would assist management to implement appropriate interventions (such as empowering employees by means of training and development, employee assistance programs) to reach the organisation's goals.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

One can see from the above definitions that job satisfaction and OCB are very important constructs to organisations; the main reason being, that employees are faced with continual changes in the workplace, such as retrenchment, frequent organisational change and new technological developments (Chambers, Moore & Bachtel, 1998). It is under these circumstances and more that managers should concentrate on eliminating dissatisfaction from the workplace by keeping employees productive and satisfied (http://i3pharmaresourcing.com/en/engage/0805_job_satisfaction.html).

However, the questions being raised in this study are: “What is the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB of employees in this brick manufacturing organisation? Does job satisfaction have an impact on OCB? Based on which factors do employees exhibit OCB? Why do certain employees go beyond the call of duty in performing their job and others not? Can OCB be predicted? Can conditions be created in the organisation that would generate higher levels of job satisfaction and that would stimulate and / or encourage employees to exhibit OCB in the workplace? The main purpose of this study is therefore to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB and whether a relationship exists between these two constructs of employees in a brick manufacturing organisation.

1.5 THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Objectives of this study are to:

- determine whether employees experience satisfaction with their jobs;
- identify which work related factors such as remuneration, promotion, work content, supervision and co-workers lead to job satisfaction;
- determine whether a relationship exists between job satisfaction of employees and their OCB based on biographical variables (i.e. age, tenure, gender, race, department, qualification and mother tongue);
- establish whether employees' age or tenure with the organisation lead to higher levels of OCB;
- establish whether age does have any impact on the OCB of an employee;
- establish whether a relationship exist between the five dimensions of OCB and job satisfaction as measured by the OCB questionnaire, and
- identify whether employees exhibit OCB.

1.6 HYPOTHESIS

In the light of the aims articulated in the above section, the following hypotheses will be investigated:

H₁ : There is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB of employees.

H₂ : There is a statistically significant relationship between the JDI dimensions (i.e. pay, supervision, promotion, work content and co-worker) and the OCB of employees.

H₃ : The dimensions of the JDI will statistically significantly explain the variance in OCB.

H₄ : Groups differ significantly based on their (age, tenure and other biographical variables) in terms of the relationship between their levels of OCB.

H₅ : There is a statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of OCB (i.e. altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness and sportsmanship) and job satisfaction.



1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study examines the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB of employees in a brick manufacturing organisation. The results from this study would particularly be useful to managers to understand what causes employees behaviour and how it can be encouraged and promoted in the organisation. It will also assist them to identify areas for development such as human resources practices, training and development, management leading style and / or employee assistance programs. The Human Resources is a fairly new department within the organisation, since its existence ten years ago. Management is of the belief that Human Resources are not an asset to the

organisation. It is therefore important to obtain management's buy-in in order to further development not only in the human resources department but the development of employees. It will also allow managers to improve quality and employee productivity, possibly assist to design and implement change programs, improve customer service and help employees to balance work and life conflicts.

Finally, it is expected that this study may serve as a catalyst for further research in the brick manufacturing industry and to determine whether the results are context specific to this organisation or whether it may be common to other organisations in the same industry.

1.8 LIMITATIONS TO THE STUDY



The limitations to this study are as follows:

- The sample that was chosen was selected within a group of permanent employees with grade ten qualification and higher only;
- The study excluded majority of the employees who are illiterate;
- Due to the fact that a convenience sample was used, the finding cannot be generalised and compared to organisations in other industries, and
- It was found that very little research exists on organisational citizenship behaviour and its dimensions.

1.9 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the constructs researched in this study, i.e. job satisfaction and organisation citizenship behaviour. It further highlighted the aims and objectives of the study, the hypotheses of the study as well as the limitation and benefits of the study. It provides brief insight into the research study.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the theoretical foundation that provides the premise of the study. It will provide a brief of overview of attitudes, the definitions of attitudes, and its consistency, the components of attitudes and whether behaviour always follows from attitudes. Secondly, the chapter will provides definitions of job satisfaction, what causes and influences job, the impact of dissatisfied and satisfied employees in the organisation and various theories of job satisfaction. Thirdly, it will provide an overview of importance of extra-role behaviour, the definitions of OCB, the antecedents and the consequences of OCB. Lastly, the chapter will provide empirical research on these two constructs. Chapter 3 gives insight into the research design utilised to investigate research problems with specific reference to sampling, data collection methods and the statistical analyses employed.

Chapter 4 unveils the research findings from the analysis of data collected during the study. Chapter 5 provides an inspection of the most salient results and the discussion thereof. The chapter concludes by discussing the challenges and limitations of the study with recommendation for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

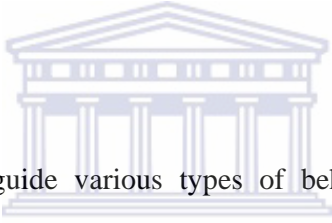
Researchers across disciplines have written countless articles concerning job satisfaction (Murray, 1999) and organisational citizenship behaviour (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Organ, 1997; George & Battenhausen, 1990). Engelbrecht & Chamberlain (2005) confirm that there is a growing awareness of in-role performance, extra-role performance and particularly organisation citizenship behaviour, which is increasingly required for an organisation to function optimally. Employees are faced with continual changes in the workplace such as retrenchment, frequent organisational change and new technological developments (Chambers, Moore & Bachtel, 1998). Under these circumstances, managers should concentrate on eliminating causes of dissatisfaction from the workplace by keeping employees productive and satisfied (http://i3pharmaresourcing.com/en/engage/0805_job_satisfaction.html).

A significant amount of research has been done on job satisfaction and OCB in many fields. It is noted that the majority of research on OCB is based on American culture and American-based behavioural theories (Liu, Huang & Chen, 2004). Most recent studies indicate a positive relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction (Organ & Lingl, 1995; Moorman, 1993; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Puffer, 1987; Motowidlo, 1984; Bateman & Organ, 1983). Schappe (1998), Moorman (1991) and Organ (1988) have of job satisfaction on organisational citizenship behaviour.

However in this study, procedural justice will not be included as one of the constructs under investigation.

No previous research of this nature could be found in the existing management literature to date. Therefore the main purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and the organisational citizenship behaviour of employees in a brick manufacturing company, focusing on which factors lead to job satisfaction and whether these factors have an impact on the employee's OCB. The discussion will review literature on attitudes, job satisfaction and OCB.

2.2 ATTITUDES



Attitudes have shown to guide various types of behaviour such as, environmental behaviour, consumer behaviour, work behaviour and many others (Holland, Verplanken & Knippenberg, 2002). Attitudes are evaluative statements, reflecting a positive or negative behaviour concerning objects, people or events (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Researchers have assumed that attitudes have three components namely; cognition, affect and behaviour (Breckler, 1984; Crites, Fabrigar & Petty, 1994). Reviewing these three components as part of attitudes, it would be helpful in understanding their complexity and the potential relationship between attitude and behaviour (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Greenberg & Baron, (2003) states that the various attitudes one hold towards ones job is referred to as job satisfaction, which is one of the most widely studied work-related attitudes. This section will provide definitions of attitudes, the consistency of attitudes, components of attitudes and whether behaviour always follows from attitudes.

2.2.1 DEFINITION

According to Robbins & Judge (2007, p. 136) an attitude is “a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object”. Greenberg & Baron (2003, p.147) define attitudes as “relatively stable clusters of feelings, beliefs and behavioural predispositions”.

Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly Jnr., (1997) suggest that attitudes are determinants of behaviour which is linked with perception, personality and motivation. They define an attitude as “a positive or negative feeling or mental state of readiness, learned and organized through experience, that exerts specific influence on a person’s response to people, objects, and situations” (Gibson, et al., 1997, p. 102).

It has been found that attitudes are important in organisations because of their behavioural component. Employers try to understand how these attitudes are formed and their actual relationship with job behaviour and how they might be changed (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

2.2.2 CONSISTENCY OF ATTITUDES

Research has found that people seek consistency among their attitudes and between their attitudes and their behaviour. This means that people try to reconcile their divergent attitudes and align their attitudes with their behaviour in order to appear more rational and consistent (Sleicher, Watt & Greguras, (2004) as cited in Robbins & Judge, 2007).

With respect to the consistency of attitudes Staw & Ross (1985) found that the job attitudes of 5 000 middle-aged male employees have been stable over a period of five years (as cited in Robbins & Judge, 2007). Employees with positive attitudes towards their job have the tendency to maintain their positive attitudes, whereas, negative attitude employees remain negative. They (Staw & Ross, 1985) further conferred that even though these employees change occupations they tend to maintain their prior job attitudes. Therefore, attitudes tend to be consistent over time and across related situations (Shaubroeck, Ganster & Kemmerer (1996) as cited in Robbins & Judge (2007).

Robert Kahn (1985) as cited in Porter, Bigley & Steers, (2003) recently observed that “although our standard of living and working conditions have improved dramatically since World War II, reports of satisfaction on national surveys have not changed dramatically. This implies that job satisfaction might be one that is not easily changed by outside influence”. Other research (Schneider & Dachler, 1978; Pulakos & Schmitt, 1983) on the consistency of job attitudes leads to the same conclusion (as cited in Porter et al., 2003).

Pulakos & Schmitt (1983) observed that job satisfaction is generally intertwined with both life satisfaction and mental health. This implies that there is an ongoing consistency in job attitudes and job satisfaction, which may be determined by dispositional properties of the individual when there are changes in the situation (as cited in Porter et al., 2003). Staw & Ross (1985) as cited in Porter et al., 2003 conducted a study by labour economists and used the survey to look at the stability of job attitudes over time and job

situations. Their survey found that job satisfaction was fairly consistent over time, with significant relationships among job attitudes over three and five year time intervals. The survey also showed that when people changed their place of work, which include change of supervisor, working conditions and procedure, there was still a significant consistency in attitudes (Staw & Ross, 1985 as cited in Porter et al., 2003). Staw & Ross (1985) as cited in Porter et al., 2003, noted further that the evidence of consistency implies that people may not be as malleable as we perceive them to be, and there may be some underlying tendency toward equilibrium in job attitudes.

2.2.3 COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDES



According to Greenberg & Baron (2003), attitudes consist of three components, namely:

1. **An evaluative component**

Evaluative components have to do with how one feels about something. This refers to one's liking or disliking of any particular person, item or situation. Greenberg & Baron (2003) call it an attitude object.

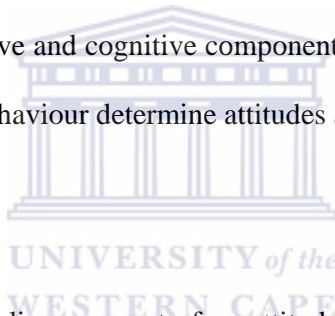
2. **A cognitive component**

Cognitive components are the things one "believes about the attitude object and whether it is true or false". For example an employee thinks that his / her co-workers are paid much more than the employee itself.

3. A behavioural component

Behavioural components are the “predisposition to behave in a way consistent with one’s beliefs and feeling about the attitude object”. For example, an employee’s belief about his / her boss embezzling money and the way the employee feels about it (Greenberg & Baron, 2003).

Donnelly, James, Gibson & Ivancevich, (1992) as cited in Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly (1997), proposes that people seek a similarity between their beliefs and feelings toward objects and suggests that the alteration of attitudes depend on changing either the feelings or the belief. The theory assumes further that people have structured attitudes composed of various affective and cognitive components. The theory therefore proposes that affect, cognition and behaviour determine attitudes and vice versa.



1. Affect

The emotional or feeling segment of an attitude is learned from parents, teacher or peer group members (Beamish, Killing LeCraw & Crookell, 1991).

2. Cognition

The cognitive segment of an attitude consists of one’s perceptions, opinions and beliefs. It is also referred to the thought processes with emphasis on rationality and logic (Gibson et al., 1997).

3. Behaviour

“The behavioural segment of an attitude refers to a person’s intention to act towards someone or something in a certain way” (Gibson et al., 1997).

2.2.4 DOES BEHAVIOUR ALWAYS FOLLOW FROM ATTITUDE

Becker & Connor (1985) notes that attitudes affect behaviour at different levels than values do. Values represent global beliefs which influence behaviour across all situations, while attitudes relate only to behaviour directed toward specific objects, persons or situations (as cited in Robbins & Judge, 2007). Gibson et al., (1997) suggests that attitudes are determinants of behaviour since it is linked to one's perception, personality and motivation.

More recent research indicates that attitudes significantly predict future behaviour, which confirms Festinger's, (1957) original belief that the relationship can be enhanced by taking moderating variables into account (Kraus, 1995 as cited in Robbins & Judge, 2007). The most powerful moderators of the attitude-behaviour relationship have been found to be the importance of the attitude in specificity, its accessibility, whether social pressures exist and whether a person has direct experience with the attitude (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Finally, the relationship between attitude and behaviour is likely to be stronger if an attitude refers to something with which the individual has direct personal experience (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

An individual can have thousands of attitudes, but organisational behaviour focuses on a limited number of work-related attitudes. These work-related attitudes look at the positive or negative evaluations that employees hold toward aspects of their work environment. Most research in organisational behaviour has been concerned with three attitudes, jobs satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment (Robbins & Judge, 2007). In this study, the researcher will focus on job satisfaction and OCB.

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

2.3.1 INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction has been extensively researched during the past two decades (Farber, 1983; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Holtzman & Glass, 1999; Jayaratne & Chess, 1984; Kim 2002; Maslach 1986, Balzer et al., 1997). Job satisfaction in a broad sense is an attitude. Since it is a predisposition, it has the same attributes as attitude. Attitude can be both positive and negative as employees can be both satisfied and / or dissatisfied with their jobs (Saiyadain, 2003). Knights & Kennedy (2005) contend - that while there are numerous dimensions associated with job satisfaction - five in particular have crucial characteristics, such as pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers and the work itself (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). “One of the major reasons for studying job satisfaction is to provide managers with interventions on how to improve employees’ attitudes” (DeBats, 1982).

Studies show that job satisfaction can also be linked to positive workplace outcomes such as increased organisational commitment (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Brown, 1993). Employees who experience high levels of satisfaction are more likely to commit to the organisation (Brown, 1993). Furthermore, employees with high levels of job satisfaction are less likely to search for another job (Sager, 1994), less likely to leave the organisation (Brown, 1993; Hackett & Guion, 1985 as cited in Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Mowday, Koberg & McArthur, 1984) and more likely to display organisational citizenship behaviour (Organ & Konovsky, 1989).

Job satisfaction is also found to have a significant influence on job performance, absenteeism, turnover and psychological distress. This implies that employees who are satisfied perform better, are less absent and not distressed (Andrisani, 1978; Davis, 1992). If an employee is dissatisfied they may engage in counter productive behaviours such as staying out of work or sabotaging equipment (Spector, 1997). Turnover, absenteeism and counter productive behaviour results in financial costs for an organisation. It is also found that dissatisfied employees report physical symptoms such as tension, anxiety and depression (Frese, 1985; O'Brien, Dowling & Kabanoff, 1978; Spector, 1997). The following section, reviews various definitions of job satisfaction, what influences job satisfaction, the impact of dissatisfied employees on organisation and theories of job satisfaction.

2.3.2 DEFINITIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Gibson et al. (1997, p. 106) defines “job satisfaction as an attitude that individuals have about their jobs. It results from their perception of their jobs, based on factors of the work environment”. This study has discussed attitudes and how it predicts behaviour such as job satisfaction. Further definitions of job satisfaction will be discussed.

Job satisfaction can be defined as an attitude that reflects how people feel about their jobs (Knights & Kennedy, 2005). Robbins (2005, p. 24) defines job satisfaction as “a collection of feelings that an individual holds towards his or her job”. This implies that a person with a high level of job satisfaction will hold positive feelings towards his / her job and a person who is dissatisfied with his / her job will hold negative feelings.

Job satisfaction can also be defined in terms of equity. Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt (2003, p. 16) defines job satisfaction as “the difference between the rewards employees receive and the reward they believe they should receive.” Another definition is “the feelings a worker has about his or her job experience in relation to previous experience, current expectations, or available alternatives (Balzer, Kihm, Smith, Irwin, Bachiochi, Robie, Sinar, & Parra, 1997, p.10).

Kreitner & Kinicki (1998, p. 206) defines job satisfaction is an “affective or emotional response toward various facets of one’s job”. This means that job satisfaction is not a unitary concept. A person can be relatively satisfied with one aspect of his / her job and dissatisfied with one or more aspects.

Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as a cluster of evaluative feelings about the job and identifies nine facets of job satisfaction, namely:

- Pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication.

Smith et al., (1969) define job satisfaction as the extent to which employees have a positive attitude towards particular dimensions of their jobs. Gibson et al., (1997) corroborates that the five dimensions were identified that represented the most important characteristics of a job about which people experience affective responses:

- *The work itself:* It refers to which extent the job provides the employee with opportunities for learning, challenging tasks and responsibility.
- *Pay:* Pay refers to the amount of financial compensation that the employee receives as well as the extent to which such compensation is perceived to be equitable.
- *Opportunities for promotion:* This refers to the employee's chances for advancement within the organisational.
- *Supervision:* Supervision is the ability of the employee's superior providing support and technical assistance within the workplace.
- *Co-worker:* This refers to the degree to which fellow employees are knowledgeable about the work, competent to perform their duties and socially supportive (Luthans, 1992; Smith et al., 1969).

2.3.3 WHAT CAUSES JOB SATISFACTION



According to Kreitner & Kinicki (1998), there are five predominant models of job satisfaction which specify its causes. These are need fulfillment, discrepancy, value attainment, equity and trait / genetic components, which will be briefly reviewed:

(i) Need Fulfillment

Kreitner & Kinicki (1998) suggests that satisfaction is determined by the extent to which the characteristics of a job allow an employee to fulfil his or her needs.

(ii) Discrepancies

This model suggests that satisfaction is a result of met expectations. Met expectation is the difference between what a person expects to receive from the job, such as pay and promotional opportunities and what he or she actually receives (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). It is noted further that when expectations are greater than what is received, an employee will be dissatisfied. Theories that focus on employees' needs and values include Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, ERG theory, Two-factor theory and McClelland's needs theory (Aamodt, 2004; Robbins, et al., 2003).

(iii) Value Attainment

“It is the extent to which a job allows fulfillment of one's work values” (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998, p. 207). Locke (1976) as quoted by Cooper & Locke (2000, p. 168) argued that “individual's values would determine what satisfied them on the job.” Employees in organisations hold different values systems, therefore based on this theory, their satisfaction levels will also differ. Furthermore, this theory predicts that “discrepancies between what is desired and received are dissatisfying only if the job facet is important to the individual” (Anderson, Ones, Sinangil, & Viswesvaran, 2001, p. 32).

According to Cooper & Locke (2000), the potential problem with this theory is that what people desire and what they consider important are likely to be highly correlated. “In theory these concepts are separable; however, in practice many people will find it difficult to distinguish the two. Despite this limitation, research

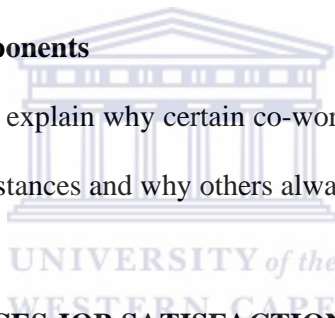
on this theory has been highly supportive” (Cooper & Locke, 2000, p. 169).

(iv) Equity

Equity theory was developed by Adams in 1965 (Cockroft, 2001). This theory proposes that the level of job satisfaction experienced by individuals is related to how fairly they perceive that they are being treated in comparison to others. Employees who find themselves in inequitable situations will experience dissatisfaction and emotional tension that they will be motivated to reduce (Spector, 2000).

(v) Trait / Genetic Components

In this model it tries to explain why certain co-workers appear to be satisfied across a variety of job circumstances and why others always seem dissatisfied.



2.3.4 WHAT INFLUENCES JOB SATISFACTION

Buitendach & De Witte (2005) job satisfaction is a complex construct and is influenced by factors of the job environment as well as dispositional characteristics of an individual. These factors have been arranged according to two dimensions, namely, extrinsic and intrinsic factors.

The extrinsic factors include aspects such as pay, promotion opportunities, co-workers, supervision and the work itself. Intrinsic factors include personality, education, intelligence and abilities, age and marital status (Mullins, 1999). It is noted that extrinsic and intrinsic factors often work together to influence job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

2.3.4.1 Extrinsic factors of job satisfaction

Extrinsic sources of job satisfaction are determined by conditions that are beyond the control of the employee (Atchison, 1999). The following factors will be discussed, namely, the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, co-workers, working conditions and the issue of fairness.

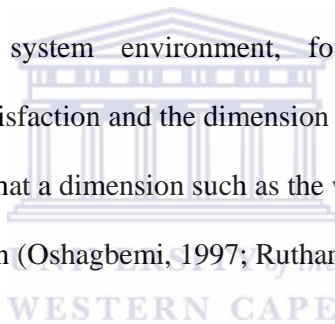
(i) The Work Itself

Robbins et al. (2003, p. 77) refer to the work itself as “the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning, personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results.” Locke (1995) postulates that employee job satisfaction is dependant on satisfaction with the job components, such as the work itself. According to Robbins (1993), employees prefer jobs that present them with opportunities to execute their competencies on a variety of tasks and that are mentally stimulating. This view is supported by Lacey (1994) who states that individuals are more satisfied with the work itself when they engage in tasks that are mentally and physically stimulating.

Robbins et al. (2003) speculate jobs that are unchallenging lead to boredom and frustration. Contrary to the above, Johns (1996) is of the opinion that some employees prefer jobs that are unchallenging and less demanding.

Furthermore, if a job is highly motivating, employees are likely to be satisfied with the job content and deliver higher quality work, which in turn could lead to lower rates of absenteeism (Friday & Friday, 2003). Fox (1994) as cited in Connolly & Myers (2003, p. 152) however, advances a contradictory view and maintain that “as workers become more removed from the ability to make meaning through work, the opportunity to experience job satisfaction becomes more difficult.” This stems from the fact that job satisfaction is related to a myriad of factors, including physical, psychological and demographic variables, which are unrelated to the workplace (Connolly & Myers, 2003).

Research conducted by Vitell & Davis (1990) which involved employees in a management information system environment, found a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the dimension of work itself. Results from other studies conducted indicate that a dimension such as the work itself can result in either job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1997; Ruthankoon & Ogunlana, 2003).



(ii) Pay

Robins et al. (2003) define pay as the amount of compensation received for a specific job. Luthans (1995, p. 127) comment that “wages and salaries are recognised to be a significant, but a complex, multidimensional predictor of job satisfaction.” According to Bassett (1994), a lack of empirical evidence exists to indicate that pay alone improves worker satisfaction or reduces dissatisfaction. He is of the opinion that highly paid employees may still be dissatisfied if they do not like the nature of their job and feel they cannot enter a more satisfying one.

The existence of both financial reward and recognition has been found to have a significant influence on knowledge workers (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Kinnear, 1999; Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000). Individuals view their remuneration as an indication of their value to the organisation. They compare their inputs to received outputs relevant to that of others (Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono, & Werner, 2004). This view is supported by Sweeney & McFarlin (2005) who concur that comparisons with similar others are important predictors of pay satisfaction. Their study, which was based on the social comparison theory, highlighted the fact that comparisons to similar others impacts on pay satisfaction.

According to Boggie (2005), inequity in terms of lack of recognition and poor pay often contribute to a problem with employee retention. Spector (1996) postulates, that when an employee's compensation is perceived to be equitable, when compared to another person in a similar position, satisfaction might be the likely result. Atchison (1999) however, proposes that an increase in pay only acts as a short-term motivator and management therefore has to look at other ways to increase the levels of job satisfaction.

Oshagbemi & Hickson (2003) maintain that satisfaction with pay deserves a closer study for two main reasons. Firstly, pay affects the overall level of an employee's job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction and it is one of the five indices incorporated in the original and revised Job Descriptive Index. Secondly, pay constitutes a substantial, often major cost of doing or managing business and is a common denominator in most organisational decision-making.

(iii) Promotion opportunities

Robbins (1998) hypothesise that if promotion decisions are perceived as being fair, employees are likely to obtain satisfaction from their jobs. A number of researchers are of the opinion that job satisfaction is strongly related to opportunities for promotion (Pergamit & Veum, 1999; Peterson, Puia & Suess, 2003; Sclafane, 1999).

Kreitner & Kinicki (2001) states that the positive relationship between promotion and job satisfaction is dependent on perceived equity by employees. However, Cockcroft (2001) points out that perceived equity of promotion is not the only factor to have a positive impact on job satisfaction. It is likely that the employee is satisfied with the company's promotion policy, but dissatisfied with the opportunities for promotion. Not all employees wish to be promoted. Therefore individual standards for promotion depend primarily on the employee's personal and career aspirations. It is also possible that individuals might perceive the promotion policy of an organisation to be unfair, but since they have no desire to be promoted, they might still be satisfied (Cockcroft, 2001).

(iv) Supervision

Research indicates that people who enjoy working with their supervisors will be more satisfied with their jobs (Aamodt, 2004). Furthermore, a study by Bishop & Scott (1997) as cited in Aamodt (2004) found that satisfaction with supervisors was related to organisational and team commitment, which in turn resulted in higher productivity, lower turnover and a greater willingness to help.

The supervisor's ability to provide emotional, technical support and guidance with work-related tasks forms a pivotal role relating to job satisfaction (Robbins et al., 2003). According to Ramsey (1997), supervisors contribute to high or low morale in the workplace. The supervisor's attitude and behaviour toward employees may also be a contributing factor to job-related complaints (Sherman & Bohlander, 1992). Supervisors with high relationship behaviour strongly impact on job satisfaction (Graham & Messner, 1998). Wech (2002) supports this view by adding that supervisory behaviour strongly affects the development of trust in relationships with employees. He postulates further that trust may, in turn, have a significant relationship with job satisfaction.

Luthans (1992) indicates that the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship has a significant, positive influence on the employee's overall level of job satisfaction. According to Aamodt (2004) people who enjoy working with their supervisors will be more satisfied with their jobs. Research demonstrates that a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and supervision (Koustelios, 2001; Peterson et al., 2003; Smucker, Whisenant, & Pederson, 2003). The positive relationship is confirmed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990); Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Broumer (1996) reporting that there are positive correlations between subordinates' OCB and transformational leadership behaviours. These behaviours included articulating a vision, role modelling, intellectually stimulating subordinates and communicating high performance expectations (as cited in Zellars et al., 2002). This research suggests that subordinates reciprocate supportive leadership behaviour by performing OCB and withhold OCB when subordinates are less supportive (Zellars et al., 2002).

(v) Co-workers

Literature indicates that having friendly and supportive colleagues lead to increased job satisfaction (Aamodt, 2004, Robbins, 1989; 2005). The main reason is because the work group serves as a source of support, comfort, advice and assistance to the individual worker (Luthans, 1995). Kram & Isabella (1985) maintain that co-worker relationships are a valuable means of growth and support. Individuals who perceive to have better interpersonal friendships with their co-workers and immediate supervisor report higher levels of job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 2001).

Riordan & Griffeth (1995) examined the impact of friendship on workplace outcomes. The results indicated that friendship opportunities were associated with increases in job satisfaction, job involvement, and organisational commitment and with significant decrease in turnover. Landy (1989) maintains that employees will be more satisfied with colleagues who are inclined to see matters in much the same way as they themselves do.

Salancik & Pfeffer (1997) further found that employees observe the levels of satisfaction of other employees and then follow the behaviours (as cited in Aamodt, 2004). Hence, in organizations where older employees work hard and talk positively about their jobs, new employees will reciprocate in the same behaviour and be both productive and satisfied. Luthans (1992) argues, however, that satisfactory co-worker relations are not essential to job satisfaction, but that in the presence of extremely strained relationships, job satisfaction is more likely to suffer.

(vi) Working conditions

Luthans (1995) comments that working conditions is an extrinsic factor that has a moderate impact on an employee's job satisfaction. Working conditions refer to such aspects as temperature, lighting, noise and ventilation (Luthans, 1995). Studies have demonstrated that employees prefer physical surroundings that are safe, clean, comfortable and with a minimum degree of distractions (Robbins, 2005).

However, according to Luthans (1992), employees seldom give much consideration to their working conditions, and often take them for granted. The author postulates further that working conditions are only likely to have a significant impact on job satisfaction when they are either extremely good or extremely poor. Additionally, employee complaints regarding working conditions in most cases are manifestations of other underlying problems. These complaints normally disappear when the underlying frustrations are identified and resolved (Luthans, 1992).

In contrast, Spector's (1997) research has shown that employees, who perceive high levels of constraints in terms of their work environment, tend to be dissatisfied with their jobs.

(vii) Fairness

One factor related to job satisfaction is the extent to which employees perceive that they are being treated fairly (Aamodt, 2004). According to Robbins (1989), employees seek

policies and systems that they perceive to be fair as this will likely result in an increase in job satisfaction. Johns (1996) distinguishes between distributive fairness and procedural fairness. Robbins (2005) states that distributive fairness is perceived fairness of the actual decisions made in an organisation. This implies that when employees perceive that decisions are made in a fair manner, they are likely to express satisfaction with their jobs.

According to Johns (1996), procedural fairness on the other hand, occurs when the processes to determine work outcomes or decisions are perceived to be reasonable. He notes further that it is particularly relevant to outcomes such as performance evaluations, pay raises, promotions, layoffs and work assignments. Hence, if the processes used to arrive at promotion decisions, for example, are perceived to be fair, it could lead to job satisfaction. Aamodt (2004) states that the relationship between perceptions of justice and job satisfaction is very strong, therefore employers should be open about how decisions are made and provide feedback to employees who might not be happy with certain important decisions.

2.3.4.2 Intrinsic factors of job satisfaction

Intrinsic sources of job satisfaction primarily come from within the individual and are essentially longer lasting than the extrinsic sources (Atchison, 1999). These sources are generally intangible, such as employees feeling a sense of pride in their work as well as individual differences such as personality. The intrinsic factors of job satisfaction which will be discussed include person-job fit and dispositional or personality factors.

(i) Person-Job fit

Research has attempted to investigate the interaction between job and person factors to ascertain whether certain types of people respond differently to different types of jobs (Spector, 1997). This approach suggests that job satisfaction will exist when characteristics of the job are matched to the characteristics of the person (Edwards, 1991 as cited in Spector, 1997). Mumford (1991) as cited in Mullin (1999) has examined this perspective in two ways: (1) the fit between what organisations require and what employees are seeking and (2) the fit between what employees are seeking and what they are actually receiving.

Johns (1996, p. 140) refers to this as the “discrepancy theory” of job satisfaction and maintains that “satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between the job outcomes people want and the outcomes they perceive they obtain.” Thus, the smaller the discrepancy, the higher the job satisfaction should be (Johns, 1996; Spector, 1997). For example, a person who desires a job that entails interaction with the public but who is office bound will be dissatisfied with this aspect of the job.

(ii) Disposition/Personality

Robbins (1989, p. 51) defines personality as “the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others.” Research indicates that some people are predisposed by virtue of their personality to be more or less satisfied despite the changes to their working environment and other factors (Aamodt, 2004; Johns, 1996).

This idea can apparently be traced back to the Hawthorne studies, which found that certain people were continually complaining about their jobs (Spector, 1996). No matter what the researchers did, the participants found a reason to complain. They concluded that their dissatisfaction is a product of their personality. Thus one way to increase the overall level of job satisfaction in an organisation is to recruit applicants who show high levels of overall job and life satisfaction (Aamodt, 2004).

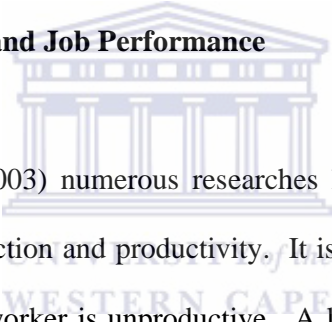
Schneider & Dachler (1978) as cited in Spector (1996) also found that job satisfaction seemed stable over time and that it might be the product of personality traits. This view holds some truth in that people with a negative tendency towards life would most likely respond negatively to their jobs even if their jobs changed (Atchison, 1999). The author further advances that many organisations spend much time trying to turn these “negative” people around. In these cases, the best organisations could do is to keep these individuals from affecting the rest of their employees. On the other hand, people with a positive inclination towards life, would most probably have a positive attitude towards their job as well (Atchison, 1999).

Aamodt (2004) however, notes that findings on the personality-job satisfaction relationship are controversial and have received some criticism; therefore more research is needed before firm conclusions can be drawn. Spector (1997) further indicates that most research on the personality-job satisfaction relationship has only demonstrated that a correlation exists, without offering much theoretical explanations.

2.3.5 IMPACT OF DISSASTISFIED AND SATISFIED EMPLOYEES ON THE ORGANISATION

As indicated earlier, many studies have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and other organizational variables. This has obvious implications for the process of management in organizations. The organizational variables include not only work variables such as performance or turnover, but also personal or non-work variables such as health and satisfaction with life. The next section briefly discusses the potential effect of job satisfaction on different variables.

2.3.5.1 Job Satisfaction and Job Performance



Porter, Bigley & Steers (2003) numerous researches have been done in search for a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. It is assumed that a happy worker is productive or an unhappy worker is unproductive. A large body of research postulates that job satisfaction has a positive effect on productivity; however, this correlation is rather modest (Cranny, Cain-Smith & Stone, 1992; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001; Robbins, 2005; Spector, 1997). Unfortunately, research has never supported such a clear relationship between individual satisfaction and productivity. Vroom's theory of satisfaction-job performance had to contend with the fact that happiness and productivity may not necessarily go together (Porter et al., 2003). Vroom's theory of expectancy deals with motivation and management. It assumes that behaviour results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose is to maximise pleasure and minimize pain.

Vroom further realised that an employee's performance is based on individual factors such as personality, skills, knowledge and experience (http://www.valuebasedmanagement.net./methods_vroom_expectancy_theory.html).

As a result, most organisational psychologists have acknowledged that satisfaction and performance are not closely linked (March & Simon (1958) as cited in Porter et al., 2003). Though organisational psychologists have acknowledged the fact that satisfaction and performance are not tightly linked, it has not stopped them from pursuing a happy / productive employee.

Over the past thirty years, an enormous variety of theories have attempted to reach a positive relationship between the two constructs. These theories all make either an indirect or direct assumption that it is possible to achieve a world where both satisfaction and performance exists (Porter et al., 2003). These theories focused on:

- increasing job satisfaction with the assumption that performance will follow; or
- increase performance with the assumption that satisfaction will result; or
- some theories believe that satisfaction and performance will be a joint product of implementing certain changes in the organization (Porter et al., 2003).

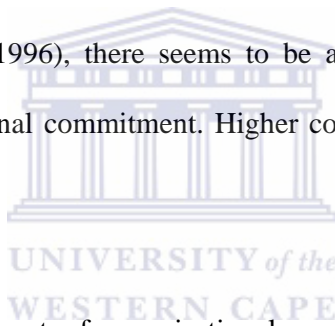
2.3.5.2 Job Satisfaction and OCB

Kreitner & Kinicki (2001, p. 208) organisational commitment “reflects the extent to which an individual identifies with an organisation and is committed to its goals.”

Armstrong (1996, p. 319) notes that “organisational commitment has three components:

- an identification with the goals and values of the organisation;
- a desire to belong to the organization, and
- a willingness to display effort on behalf of the organisation.

According to Armstrong (1996), there seems to be a strong correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Higher commitment can, in turn, facilitate higher productivity.



Closely linked to the concept of organisational commitment is the variable called organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Spector (1997, p. 57) defines OCB as a “behaviour by an employee intended to help co-workers or the organisation.” It is thus voluntary things employees do to help their fellow workers and their employers. Robbins (2005) states that job satisfaction is a major determinant of OCB in that satisfied employees would more likely talk positively about the organisation and go beyond their normal call of duty. According to Robbins et al. (2003), there is a modest overall relationship between these two variables.

Early discussion of organizational citizenship behaviour assumed that it was closely linked to job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983), whereas more recent evidence assume that satisfaction influences OCB, but through the perception of fairness (Fahr, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990). Fahr et al. (1990) note further that there is a modest overall relationship between job satisfaction and OCB but satisfaction is unrelated to OCB when fairness is controlled for. What this means is that job satisfaction is based on fair outcomes, treatment and procedures (Organ, 1994). However, when an employee perceives organisational processes and outcomes to be fair, trust is developed. And an employee who trusts his/her employer is willing to go beyond the call of his or her duty (Organ, 1994).



2.3.5.3 Job Satisfaction and Employee Behaviour (Absenteeism, Turnover)

Absence is a phenomenon that can reduce an organisation's effectiveness. Theories of absence hypothesise that job satisfaction plays a critical role in an employee's decision to be absent (Spector, 1997). Most research indicates a consistent negative relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism, even though the correlation is not very high (Robbins, 1989; Spector, 1997). Kreitner & Kinicki (1998) state that absenteeism can be costly and one recommendation to decrease absenteeism is to increase job satisfaction. Literature therefore suggests that as satisfaction increases, absenteeism decreases.

Turnover is important to managers as it disrupts organisational continuity and it is very costly. The different costs associated with turnover include separation costs (exit interviews, separation pay), replacement costs of new employee and training costs of the

new employee (Saal & Knight, 1988). According to Spector (1997), studies have been reasonably consistent in showing a correlation between job satisfaction and turnover. Employees with low satisfaction are therefore more likely to quit their jobs. According to Luthans (1995, p. 129), “high job satisfaction will not, in and of itself, keep turnover low, but it does seem to help. On the other hand, if there is considerable job dissatisfaction, there is likely to be high turnover.” It is therefore important to manage satisfaction levels as it might trigger decisions by employees to leave the organisation.

2.3.5.4 Job Satisfaction and Counterproductive behaviours

Counterproductive behaviours are the opposite of organisational citizenship behaviour. These behaviours include aggression against co-workers, aggression against the employer, sabotage and theft at work and they are associated with frustration and dissatisfaction at work (Spector, 1997). According to French (1998), sabotage which can be the deliberate damaging of equipment or products by employees, represents one of the more costly possible consequences of organisational frustrations. It is further noted by Spector (1997) that a limited number of studies have investigated the causes of counterproductive behaviours in organisations. It is, however, important for organisations to create workplaces that enhance job satisfaction, which could assist in reducing counterproductive behaviours.

2.3.6 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Researchers have devised a number of theoretical approaches to explaining job satisfaction, over the past few decades. Literature indicates that there is no general agreement on the definition or the determinant of job satisfaction (Manisera, Dusseldorp & van der Kooij, 2005). According to Calder (2000), motivational theories can be classified into two categories, namely, content theories and process theories. For the purposes of this study the researcher will focus on process theories only.

2.3.6.1 Process Theories

(i) *Vroom's expectancy theory*



Vroom's theory assumes that "behaviour is a result from conscious choices among alternatives". The purpose of these choices is to minimise pain and maximise pleasure (http://www.12manage.com/methods_vroom_expectancy_theory.html). He suggested further that the relationship between people's behaviour at work and their goals was not as simple. An employee's performance is based on individual factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities. The theory says that individuals have different sets of goals and can be motivated if they have certain expectations (http://www.12manage.com/methods_vroom_expectancy_theory.html).

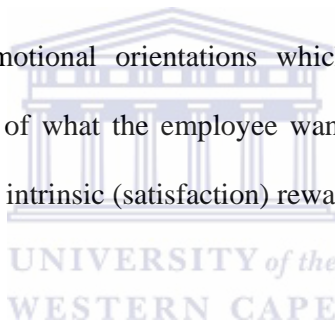
These expectations are as follows:

- “there is a positive correlation between efforts and performance;
- favourable performance will result in a desirable reward;
- the reward will satisfy an important need; and
- the desire to satisfy the need is strong enough to make the effort worthwhile”
(http://www.12manage.com/methods_vroom_expectancy_theory.html).

Vroom’s expectation theory is based upon the following three beliefs:

1. Valence

This refers to the emotional orientations which people hold with respect to outcomes. The depth of what the employee wants in terms of extrinsic (money, promotion, benefits) or intrinsic (satisfaction) rewards.



2. Expectancy

Employees have different expectations and levels of confidence about what they are capable of doing. Management need to look at resources, training and the type of supervision employees need.

3. Instrumentality

The employees’ perception of whether they will receive what they desire, even if it has been promised by a manager. Management must ensure that promises are fulfilled (http://www.12manage.com/methods_vroom_expectancy_theory.html).

Vroom suggests that these three beliefs interact psychologically. In this way, it creates a motivational force, whereby the employee will act in a way that brings pleasure and avoids pain (http://www.12manage.com/methods_vroom_expectancy_theory.html).

The formula for the expectancy theory is as follows:

$$\text{Motivation} = \text{Valence} \times \text{Expectancy (Instrumentality)}$$

This formula can be used to indicate and predicts factors such as; job satisfaction, career choices; the likelihood staying in a job and the effort one might apply at work (http://www.12manage.com/methods_vroom_expectancy_theory.html).

(ii) Value-percept Theory

Locke's (1976) value-percept theory as cited in Cooper & Locke (2000) suggests that an employee's values would determine the satisfying factor on the job. This theory predicts that discrepancies between what is desired and received are dissatisfying only if the job facet is important to the individual. As a general rule, individuals value work more than other job attributes (Locke, 2000). Therefore if, the intrinsic job characteristics were the most important job facet to most individuals, then Locke's theory would predict that increasing levels of intrinsic job characteristics would be the most effective means of increasing an employee's job satisfaction. However, it must be noted that when an employee does not value challenging work, then other values must be fulfilled to satisfy the employee (Locke, 2000).

Cooper & Locke (2000) found a potential problem with this theory. What people desire and what they consider important are likely to be highly correlated. “In theory these concepts are separable; however, in practice many people will find it difficult to distinguish the two. Despite this limitation, research on this theory has been highly supportive” (Cooper & Locke, 2000, p. 169).

(iii) Equity theory

The equity theory is based on the assumption that employees become de-motivated, both in relation to their job and their employer, if they perceive their inputs to be greater than the outputs. The Equity theory of motivation suggests that individuals attempt to balance what they put in to their jobs and what they get out and will unconsciously assign values to each of the various contributions (Cory, 2006).

Robbins (1993) states satisfaction is determined by an individual’s input-outcome balance. It is noted further that satisfaction occurs, when perceived equity exists, and dissatisfaction results when perceived inequity exists (Robbins, 1993).

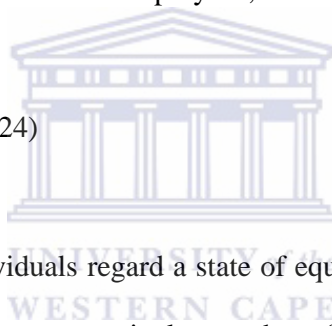
To illustrate the Equity theory, reference is made to figure 2.1 below.

FIGURE 2.1: EQUITY THEORY

Ratio Comparisons	Perception
$O / IA < O / IB$	Inequity due to being under – rewarded
$O / IA = O / IB$	Equity
$O / IA > O / IB$	Inequity due to being over – rewarded

*Where: O / IA represents the employees; and O / IB represents relevant others.

Source: Robbins (1993, p. 224)



In terms of the theory, individuals regard a state of equity to exist when their job inputs in relation to their job outputs are equivalent to that of relevant others. In this regard, a situation of fairness is said to exist (Robbins, 1993). Employees might assess their relation to friends, neighbours, co-workers, colleagues in other organisations or previous jobs they themselves have occupied (Robbins, 1993). Similarly, Robbins et al. (2003) concur that employees compare their job inputs (such as their contribution, experience, education and competence) to their job outputs (salary levels, salary increases and recognition) in relation to that of others.

According to Beugre (1998), several studies on the reaction to perceived inequity found that people lowered their performance when they were underpaid and raised it when they were overpaid. Walster, Walster & Bercheid's theory of equity as cited in Beugre (1998) found that when individuals found themselves in inequitable relationships, they become distressed. The more inequitable the more distressed the individual becomes.

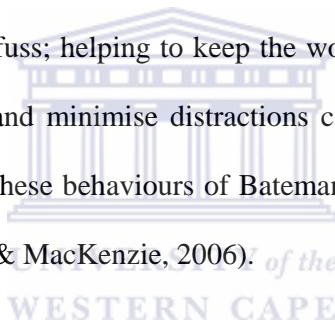
It is commonly accepted in management literature that organisations need employees who are willing to exceed their formal job requirements. A growing body of research results in management literature confirms this (Morrison, 1994; Cohen & Vigoda, 2000).



2.4 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

2.4.1 INTRODUCTION

The term “organisational citizenship behaviour” (OCB) was coined by Bateman & Organ (1983) to describe it “as the employee’s willingness to go above and beyond the prescribed roles which they have been assigned. These behaviours are considered as a contribution to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance in the organization” (Paré, Tremblay & Lalonde, 2000, p. 5). Examples of these may include: helping co-workers with job related problems; accepting orders without a fuss; helping to keep the work area clean; promoting a work culture which is tolerable and minimise distractions caused by conflict and protecting organisational resources. These behaviours of Bateman & Organ (1983) are referred to as OCB (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006).



In today’s competitive business environment “extra-role” behaviours are crucial for organizational effectiveness, because organisations cannot anticipate with perfect accuracy the activities needed for reaching the organisations objectives (Deluga, 1995). Since Organ (1988) proposed that OCB could influence individual and organisation performance, it has led to organisational behaviour researchers focussing their attention on OCB (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000; Organ & Ryan, 1995; George & Battenhausen, 1990).

Recent theory suggests that measures of OCB correlate significantly with measure of impression management (Bolino, 1999; Eastman, 1994), whereas others have portrayed OCB as socially desirable behaviours (Niehoff, 2000). Many researchers focused on the effects of OCB on individual and organisational performance and found OCB leads to positive organisational consequences (Cardona et al., 2004; Appelbaum, Asmar, Chehayeb, Konidas, Duszara & Duminica, 2003; Hodson, 2002; Barbuto, Brown, Wilhite & Wheeler, 2001). Since, OCB is positively associated with organisational performance and because of this it should be highly valued in organisations (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2000).

Niehoff (2000) notes that the most prominent motivational explanation for OCB has been Blau's (1964) exchange theory. This theory assumes that perceptions of organisational experiences force people to evaluate their relationship with the organisation as a social or economic exchange (Cardona et al., 2004). People who perceive the relationship as a fair social exchange tend to increase their attachment to the organisation and this increased attachment encourages OCB. People who perceive unfair social exchange reacts negatively (Cardona et al., 2004). It is further noted by Niehoff (2002) that when the employee senses additional support from the organisation, the employee's positive attitude may display enhanced job performance, but such performance may be limited to other factors.

While certain studies support that the social exchange relationships facilitates OCB (Farh, Organ & Podsakoff, 1990; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Blakely & Niehoff, 1998), other studies have different results. For instance, certain types of attachments such as

organisational commitment, predict OCB in some studies (Shore & Wayne, 1993 as cited in Cardona et al., 2003). Niehoff (2000) suggests that like most behaviours, there is no single cause of OCB.

According to Organ (as cited in Coetzee, 2005), organisational citizenship behaviour is vital for productivity since an organisation's success depends on employees' willingness to do more than what their job description outlines. The rapid growth of research on organisational citizenship behaviour has resulted in some theoretical confusion about the construct (Coetzee, 2005). It is therefore necessary to examine the literature on OCB in order to gain a thorough understanding of the construct in this research.

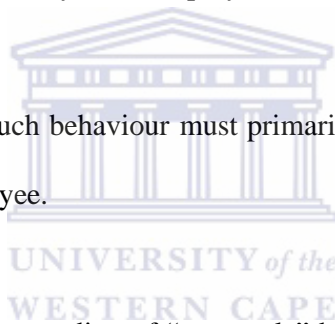
2.4.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIOUR

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour or “extra-role” behaviour, has received extensive attention from researchers over the last two decades (Alotaibi, 2001). It was in the early 1980s that several empirical studies first addressed the notion of OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Organisational citizenship behaviour, as “extra-role” behaviour, was first termed by Chester Barnard in the 1930's (Organ, 1988). Organ, 1983 (as cited in Alotaibi, 2001, p.1) defines OCB as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation.

Van Dyne, Cummings and McLean Parks (1995, p. 218) defines “extra-role” behaviour as “behaviour which benefits the organisation and/or is intended to benefit the

organisation, which is discretionary and which goes beyond exiting role expectations”. The “extra-role” behaviours include discretionary ethical behaviours, such as assisting new employees and co-workers on the job, not taking unnecessary breaks and volunteering to do things not pertaining to the normal job duties (Schnake, 1991). According to Van Dyne et al. (1995), “extra-role” behaviour implies that:

- the behaviour of the employee must be voluntary;
- the employee’s actions must be intentional;
- the behaviour of the employee must be positive, meaning it should either be perceived as positive by the employee himself / herself or positively by somebody else, and
- the engagement in such behaviour must primarily benefit someone or something other than the employee.



In order to gain a clear understanding of “extra-role” behaviours, it will be necessary to differentiate between “in-role” and “extra-role” behaviours at work. Deluga (1995) suggests that pro-social organisational behaviours including helping activities which is aimed at benefiting or assisting another person. These behaviours may be part of the employee’s formal job requirements, known as “in-role” behaviours. Whereas activities that exceed the stated job requirements or specifications is known as “extra-role” behaviours (Deluga, 1995).

According to Ortiz (1990), “in-role” behaviour refers to “behaviour that is acceptable to management” (cited in Bosman, 2003, p. 87). Whereas Organ & Bateman (1983) suggests that “extra-role” behaviour includes “in-role” behaviours such as organisational

efficiency, effectiveness, goodwill and helpfulness. Organ 1988a (as cited in Deluga, 1995) a subordinate spontaneously elects to go beyond “in-role” prescriptions and performs “extra-role” behaviours without expecting organisational compensation. According to Organ 1988a, there are five types of OCB linked with organisational effectiveness. These include altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue (as cited in Deluga, 1995). These five dimensions will be defined in detail in this chapter.

2.4.3 DEFINITIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organ (1988, p. 4) defines organisational citizenship behaviour as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation”. OCB further refers to behaviours that are not formally rewarded is too broad, as few “in-role” behaviours, actually guarantee a formal reward (Organ, 1997). He notes further that by defining OCB in socially desirable terms, it is important that the definition of OCB be independent of any presumed antecedents.

Podsakoff et al. (2000) noted that OCB have been categorised on the basis of common dimensions. Organ (1988) identified the five dimensions of OCB, namely:

(i) *Altruism*

It refers to the extent to which an employee helps another employee with work related problems (Coetzee, 2005). It is also behaviours which are voluntary (Ishak, 2005).

Deluga (1995) notes that altruism incorporates spontaneous behaviours that help a specific individual with an organisational task, difficulty or an issue. It also includes wilfully helping the organisation's customers and vendors (Organ, 1988a, as cited in Deluga, 1995).

(ii) *Conscientiousness*

The extent to which, an employee obeys organisational rules, regulations and procedures. In other words, attendance, punctuality and go beyond minimum required levels (Podsakoff et al., 1990). It describes the subordinate's discretionary role behaviour which goes beyond minimal job requirements. For example, conscientiousness is demonstrated when a subordinate attends work when there is a socially accepted excuse readily available (like a minor cold). According to Organ (as cited in Deluga, 1995) in contrast to altruism, where assistance is provided to an individual, the consequences of conscientiousness are more global.

(iii) *Sportsmanship*

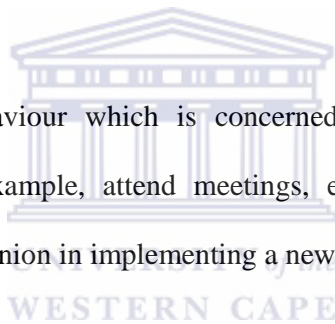
It refers to a willingness on the part of the employee to tolerate certain frustrations without complaining (Mester et al., 2003). It is also characterised by maintaining a positive attitude (Organ, 1988). Sportsmanship is exhibited when an employee refrains from petty griping about parking inconveniences (Deluga, 1995).

(iv) *Courtesy*

It refers to behaviours that are aimed at the prevention of future problems (Ishak, 2005). This includes keeping the immediate superiors and co-workers informed (Organ, 1988). Courtesy embodies the employee discretionary behaviour directed at avoiding work-related problems, particularly as the problems affect others (Deluga, 1995). Deluga (1995) notes further that courtesy is evident when the employee provides advance notice concerning decisions that affect the work of co-workers. In contrast to altruism, courtesy concentrates on the prevention of problems (Organ, 1988a).

(v) *Civic Virtue*

It refers to a behaviour which is concerned with the political life of the organisation, for example, attend meetings, engaging in policy debates and expressing one's opinion in implementing a new policy (Ishak, 2005).



According to Inkeles (1969), as cited in Coetzee (2005), OCB consists of three categories, namely:

(i) *Obedience*

It refers to respecting orderly structures, processes and procedures within the organisation. It reflects the employee's acceptance of the organisations' rules, regulations and procedures.

(ii) *Loyalty*

Serving the interests of the community as a whole and the values it represents. It is also the identification with and allegiance to the leaders of an organisation and the organisation as a whole.

(iii) *Participation*

It entails being active and responsible in the involvement of community self-governance and keeping oneself well informed about issues affecting the community as well as exchanging information and ideas with other people.

Schnake (1991) defines OCB as a functional, “extra-role”, pro-social behaviour, directed at individuals and / or the organisation. Other definitions such as, Spector (1997, p. 57) defines OCB as a “behaviour by an employee intended to help co-workers or the organisation.” It is thus voluntary things employees do to help their fellow workers and their employers. Msweli-Mbanga & Lin (2003) define organisational citizenship behaviour as the function of individual initiative, helping behaviour, organisational allegiance and loyalty.

From the above, it is obvious that a uniform definition of OCB is non-existent. Little evidence of consensus on what this construct is appears to exist. In this regard, Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that there is a proliferation of research on OCB and that there seems to be little consensus on a definition thereof.

2.4.4 ANTECEDENTS OF OCB

Starting in 1983, there has been extensive research on the construct of organisational citizenship behaviour (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; Bateman & Organ, 1983). Although interest in and studies of OCB has increased dramatically during the past few years, relatively little is known about the antecedents of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000, as cited in Cardonna et al., 2004). Van Dyne et al. (1995) noted that job satisfaction and affective commitment have sometimes been considered as antecedents to pro-social, “extra-role” in organisations, but this is not always the case.

Podsakoff et al., (2000) contends that empirical research has found that there are four major antecedents of OCB, namely: individual (employee) characteristics, task characteristics, organisational characteristics, and leadership behaviours. Podsakoff et al., (2000) pointed out further that among these antecedents, job attitudes, job satisfaction, perceptions of fairness, organisational commitment, task variables and various types of leader behaviours appear to be more strongly correlated to OCB than all the other antecedents. These findings correspond to what was found in Staufenbiel’s (2000) literature review on the antecedents and consequences of OCB (Lui, Huang & Chen, 2004).

Organ (1990), also proposed that while individual disposition is an important antecedent of OCB, perception of organisational experiences play a significant role. He suggests that individuals are more likely to engage in OCB when they perceive their relationship with the organisation as a fair social exchange than when they perceive it as a fair economic exchange.

Organ & Konovsky (1989) notes that subordinates, who are treated fairly throughout an organisation, will more likely feel the need for reciprocal social exchange behaviour with the organisation.

Podsakoff et al. (2000), considered the various individual and organisational variables commonly found to affect an employee's willingness to engage in OCB:

(i) ***Job Satisfaction and organisational commitment***

Together with job satisfaction affective organisational commitment is the most common affective dimensions cited as an antecedent of OCB (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Affective commitment maintains behavioural direction when there is little expectation of formal rewards (Allen & Meyer, 1996). It would also seem logical that affective commitment drives those behaviours that do not depend on reinforcement or formal rewards (Hannam & Jimmieson, 2006).

(ii) ***Leadership behaviours***

Leadership appears to have a strong influence on an employee's willingness to engage in OCBs. Irrespective of the leadership style, research found that it is the quality of the relationship between an employee and his or her leader that counts (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Hannam & Jimmieson (2006) suggest further that leadership behaviour could also influence OCB indirectly through the employee's perceptions of fairness or justice in the workplace.

(iii) ***Fairness of perceptions***

Fairness refers to whether or not employees feel that organisational decisions are made equitably, with employee input (usually called procedural justice) and whether the employee perceives that they are fairly rewarded (called distributive justice (Moorman, 1991).

(iv) ***Role perceptions***

Role perceptions include perceptions such as role conflict and role ambiguity, both found to be significant negatively related to OCB, whereas role clarity and role facilitation are positively related to OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

(v) ***Individual dispositions***

Personality variables including positive and negative affectivity, conscientiousness and agreeableness have all been found to predispose people to engage in OCBs (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

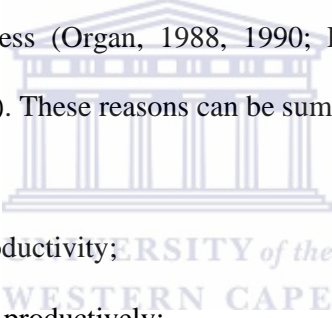
In order to further understand the OCB construct, Hodson (1999) as cited in Mester Visser & Roodt, (2003) hypothesised that it should not only be expected from an employee to go above and beyond the call of his or her duty. OCB researchers have investigated attitudes such as job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, trust in management and co-workers and organisational commitment as antecedents of OCB (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Organ, 1988; Puffer, 1987; Smith et al., 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Of these attitudes, job satisfaction is the most consistent factor correlated with

Organ & Ryan (1995) found that in their meta-analytic review of 55 studies, job satisfaction, fairness and organisational commitment were the only correlates to OCB in a number of studies. Although it has been found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment is strongly related to OCB, other empirical research also supports the relationship between perceptions of fairness and OCB (Fahr et al., 1990; Konovsky & Folger, 1991 & Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). As cited in Alotaibi (2001), some researchers argued that it would be beneficial to include “perception of fairness” when studying the impact of job satisfaction on OCB (Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky, 1989).

For the purposes of this study, the researcher intends to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB only. However, as cited in Lui, Hang & Chen (2004), it is worth noting that antecedents, such as job satisfaction, perception of equity, organisation commitment, trust, procedural justice and distributive justice all have positive relationships with OCB (Fork, Hartman, Villere, Maurice & Maurice, 1996; Fahr, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Hui et al., 1999; Paine & Organ, 2000; Alotaibi, 2001; Chen & Francesco, 2003).

2.4.5 CONSEQUENCES OF OCB

As cited in Liu et al., (2004) organisational citizenship behaviour has been regarded as an important construct as it is found to contribute to the effective functioning of an organisation and consequently its competitiveness (Krillowicz & Lowery, 1996; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997). OCB can have various consequences for the organization and its work units. Although the several definitions of OCB require that the behaviours over time produce benefits for the organization, some studies indicate that negative results may occur (Turnispeed & Murkinson, 2000). There are several reasons why citizenship behaviours would enhance organisational competitiveness (Organ, 1988, 1990; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 1997). These reasons can be summarised as follows:

- 
- OCBs can enhance productivity;
 - Utilise resources more productively;
 - Helping to coordinate activities;
 - Enabling the organisation's adaptation to changeable environment, and
 - By strengthening the organisation's ability to attract best employees (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

Moideenkutty (2005) noted that it is important for employees to understand the consequences of engaging or not engaging in OCB. Since OCB is often considered to be discretionary, a clear understanding of the consequences will help employees to make more informed choices about engaging in OCB. It is also important for employees to

know the circumstances under which supervisors value OCB. Turnispeed & Murkinson (2000) notes there are indications that OCB may result in alterations of managerial perceptions in areas such as performance appraisal, and judgements regarding pay and promotion.

Lui et al., (2004) based on the literature there is a lack of consistence on the consequences of OCB studied outside the American (United States of America) context. This phenomenon corresponds a great deal to the research which was executed in the American (United States of America) context. The conceptual plausibility that OCB will influence organisation effectiveness is only examined by a few studies outside the American context (Liu et al., 2004).



2.5 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS – RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND OCB

Todd & Kent (2006) observed that it has been accepted for many years that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of OCB. Bateman & Organ (1983) conceived the construct of OCB out of believe that job satisfaction influences an individual's work behaviours that were extra-role in nature. Since then, Organ (1988) suggested that job satisfaction and OCB were inextricably linked in a strong bond (as cited in Todd & Kent, 2006). In this section, the study will discuss various research findings looking at the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB.

Previous studies (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Graham, 1986; Kemery, Bedeian & Zacur, 1996; Moorman, 1993; Motowildo, 1984; Motowildo, Packard & Manning, 1986; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Puffer, 1987; Scholl, Cooper & McKenna, 1987; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; Wagner & Rush, 2000; Robbins, 2001; Appelbaum, Bartolomucci, Beaumier, Boulanger, Corrigan, Dore, Girard & Serroni, 2004; Murphy, Athanasou & King, 2002) and the theoretical rationale proposed by Organ (1988, 1990) provided support for a hypothesised positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Bateman & Organ (1983) conceived the construct of organisational citizenship behaviour out of a belief that job satisfaction influences the employee's work behaviours that were "extra-role" in nature.

Robbins (2005) states that job satisfaction is a major determinant of OCB in that employees' who are satisfied would more likely talk positively about the organisation

and go beyond their normal call of duty. Moreover, Organ & Ryan's (1995) meta-analysis showed that an individual's cognitive work attitudes can predict OCB better than an individual's dispositions. According to Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt (2003), there is a modest overall relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Organ & Konovsky (1989) suggest that job satisfaction is the strongest factor that correlates to OCB. It has been found in fifteen independent studies that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB (Organ & Ling, 1995). However, researchers quickly realised that the link between job satisfaction and OCB was more complex. It was found that various measures of job satisfaction shared differential relationships with OCB (Moorman, 1993, as cited in Todd & Kent, 2006). It has been generally accepted that the differential relationship of job satisfaction and OCB is primarily a function of the type of job satisfaction measure that is used in the analysis (Todd & Kent, 2006)



In contrast to previous studies, Schappe (1998) argues that job satisfaction is not related to OCB (as cited in Alotaibi, 2001). Other researchers are sceptical of the relationship between the two constructs and consider the relationship untrue. They believe further that any disparity may be due to the nature of job satisfaction measures, which includes perceptions of fairness (Organ, 1988; Path, Organ & Podsakoff, 1990; Moorman, 1991). Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler & Purcell (2004) found that the relationship an individual has with the employing organisation is critical to understanding the rationale for employees undertaking OCB.

Deluga (1995) notes certain studies suggest that fairness is a predictor of OCB (Organ (1998a, 1988b, 1990; Fahr et al., 1990; Moorman, 1991). These studies suggested

further that fairness perceptions may be the pivotal force behind OCB. In other words, when subordinates perceive fair treatment from supervisors, they feel a need to reciprocate by engaging in discretionary activity which characterises OCB (Deluga, 1995). Empirical research supports the relationship between overall fairness and OCB (Greenberg, 1993; Konovsky & Folger, 1991; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993 Organ & Konovsky, 1989) whereas Moorman (1991) found that procedural justice measures relate to four out of the five OCB dimensions, while job satisfaction does not. Fairness has been long considered one of the key predictors of OCB, starting with Organ's (1988) assertion that when employees feel that they are being treated fairly, they respond through the performance of OCB.

In light of the above literature, it can be concluded that the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB depends on the nature of the job satisfaction measures. As previous researchers, this study will only investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour.

2.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

Firstly, the chapter introduces the concept of job satisfaction and highlighted the different motivational theories, in particular, process theories relating to job satisfaction. Furthermore, it sought to provide an overview of the literature pertaining to job satisfaction antecedents, whereby personal determinants and organisational factors impacting on job satisfaction were discussed. In terms of the job satisfaction antecedents and job satisfaction consequences, various areas where research has been conducted have been referred to. From the literature review it is evident that job satisfaction is a phenomenon that has been extensively researched and is of significant importance to employees and managers alike.

Finally, the concept of OCB is introduced whereby the researcher clarifies the importance of “extra-role” behaviour. Furthermore, various definitions are provided and a review of literature on the antecedents and consequences of OCB. In conclusion a brief review on the relationships between the concepts and whether job satisfaction predict organisational citizenship behaviour.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter delineates the research methodology used in the investigation of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. This chapter further reflects on the sampling method, measuring instruments and the methodology used to gather data in this research. It also provides more information on the statistical techniques utilised during the analysis of the data.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN



3.2.1 Population

Neuman (2000) defines a research population as the specific pool of cases, individuals or group(s) of individuals which the researcher wishes to investigate. The population of this study comprised of all the permanent employees employed in various departments of a brick manufacturing company in South Africa. The company has three branches in the Western Cape region and one in Gauteng. The company employs approximately 937 employees (N= 937) in the Western Cape and Gauteng region, of whom 229 are females and 708 are males.

3.2.2 Selection of the Sample

According to Terre Blanche & Durrheim (1999, p. 274), sampling is “the process used to select cases for inclusion in a research study”. Sekaran (2003, p. 266) postulates that sampling is “the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that the study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible for us to generalise such properties or characteristics to the population elements”.

A non-probability sampling design was used, based on the method of convenience. In convenience sampling, the selection of units from the population is based on easy availability and / or accessibility (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Sekaran (2000) notes that the elements in the population had no probabilities attached to their being selected as sample subjects and the sample comprised those population elements that could be studied with the greatest convenience.

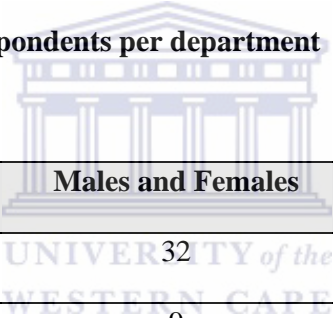
3.2.3 Sampling Size

Sekaran (2000) states that sample sizes of between thirty and five hundred subjects are appropriate for most research. The respondents were selected on the basis of their level of education, i.e. Grade 10 qualification and higher. The reason being was for the ease of participating. A total of one hundred and fifty (150) questionnaires were distributed and 104 respondents ($n = 104$) returned completed questionnaires. Thus a response rate of 69.3% was achieved. Cresswell (2003) states that a response rate of 30% is

considered acceptable for most research purposes as it provides the ability to a population. The sample (n = 104) comprised of (n = 66) males and (n = 38) females, who were all permanent employees from various departments.

The employees were selected within the group of permanent employees with a level of education which was from a Grade 10 qualification and higher. The reason being, that majority of the employees are illiterate and semi-literate and assuming that their level of understanding the English language would not allow them to complete the questionnaire. The employees' level of literacy would question the validity and reliability of the study.

Figure 3.1 Number of Respondents per department



Department	Males and Females
Administration	32
Maintenance	9
Extrusion	10
Clamp Pack	31
Clamp Off Pack	16
Milling	6
TOTAL	104

3.3 PROCEDURE FOR DATA GATHERING

The researcher had to obtain permission from the Chief Executive Officer to do the study at the organisation. The researcher is also an employee of the organisation, which made access to the participants easier. Firstly, rapport with the participants in this study was established by using training sessions to explain to the employees the reason and motivation of this study. Secondly, it was also explained that their participation is voluntary, anonymous, and that all information would be treated confidentially; thereby removing fears of respondents regarding traceability and possible victimisation.

Two approaches were used during the data gathering process. Due to the fact that majority of the administration and management departments comprises of employees with a grade 12 qualification and higher, the questionnaires were given to each participant individually. The researcher explained the context and how the questionnaire should be completed to each participant in these respective departments. The questionnaire had a covering page explaining the nature of the study. It further provided absolute anonymity of each respondent. Each questionnaire had detailed instructions and guaranteeing confidentiality. The researcher distributed the questionnaires to the participants at each branch manually.

With all the other participants, scheduled training sessions were organised to administer the questionnaires. With the assistance of an internal Training Officer, the participants were explained the reasons for the research and that, their participation would be voluntary. Once consent was obtained from the participants, the researcher briefed them

regarding the completion of the questionnaires and they were allowed fifteen minutes to complete the questionnaires. The questionnaires were collected immediately after completion by the researcher.

For the purpose of this research a total of one hundred and fifty (150) questionnaires were distributed. A total of one hundred and four (104) questionnaires were returned, constituting a response rate of 69,3%. This response rate is considered acceptable for this research, as Sekaran (2003) argues that a response rate of thirty percent (30%) is considered acceptable for most research purposes.

3.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENT

3.4.1 Gathering of Data



For the purpose of this research, a questionnaire was considered appropriate as a data gathering instrument. According to Denzin & Lincoln (2002), the following benefits can be derived in using questionnaires:

- The cost per questionnaire is relatively low;
- Structured information contained in the questionnaire render questionnaires relatively easy to analyse;
- The method of data collection produces quick results, and
- It is a stable, consistent and uniform method of collecting data.

For the purposes of this study, the data gathering instrument that was utilised was a composite questionnaire which included a biographical questionnaire, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), originally developed by Smith, Kendall & Hulin (1969), and the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale questionnaire, developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990).

The biographical questionnaire was a self-developed instrument and was structured in such a way to obtain the following personal information of individual respondents:

- Gender (sex);
- Age;
- Job level;
- Education;
- Years of service (tenure), and
- Department.



3.4.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

According to Fields (2002), the OCBS questionnaire uses twenty four items to describe the five dimensions of OCB, which are:

- **Altruism** (five items).

It is discretionary behaviour which is directed at helping other people with an organisationally relevant task or problem.

- **Conscientiousness** (five items).

It is discretionary behaviour which goes beyond the minimum requirements in performing the employee's role.

- **Sportsmanship** (five items).

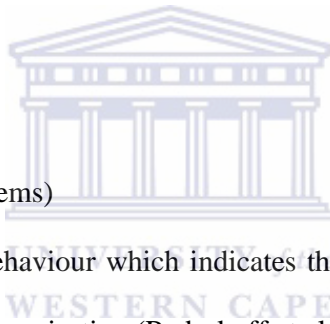
It is discretionary behaviour that indicates the willingness of an employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining.

- **Courtesy** (five items)

It is behaviour that is aimed at preventing the occurrence of work-related problems.

- **Civic virtue** (four items)

It is discretionary behaviour which indicates the employee's participation in the political life of the organisation (Podsakoff et al., 1990).



The participants responded to twenty items using a five-point response scales ranging from strongly disagree, 1, to strongly agree, 5.

(i) ***Reliability of the OCB***

According to Fields (2002) the following table indicates the coefficient alphas for the five dimensions:

Table 3.1 Coefficient alpha for the OCB questionnaire

Dimension	Coefficient Alpha
Altruism	0.67 to 0.91
Sportsmanship	0.76 to 0.89
Courtesy	0.69 to 0.86
Civic virtue	0.66 to 0.90
Conscientiousness	0.70

Source Fields (2002)

The coefficient alpha for the single organisational citizenship behaviour questionnaire scale was 0.94 (Fields, 2002).



(ii) Validity

Fields (2002) found that the five dimensions correlated positively with one another (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Moorman, 1993). Klein & Verbeke (1999) as cited in Fields (2002) found that all of the OCB dimensions correlated positively with role ambiguity, emotional exhaustion, reduced accomplishment and depersonalisation. When all the items are combined into a single measure is correlates positively with distributive justice, procedural justice, trust and organisational commitment (Fields, 2002). It was further found that altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and courtesy correlated positively with the “in-role” behaviours such as controlling expenses, providing information to others,

keeping up with technical developments, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, whereas civic virtue correlated negatively with employee positive affect, and sportsmanship and courtesy correlated negatively with turnover intentions (Fields, 2002).

3.4.3 Job Descriptive Index measuring instrument

Job satisfaction was measured using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), developed by Smith, Kendall & Hulin in 1969. The JDI is the most widely used instrument measuring employees' job satisfaction within organisations (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). The JDI questions deal with five distinct aspects of the job:

- Nature and content of the job.

The individual should think of his / her present work. What is it like most of the time and how well does the word describe his / her work?

- Pay.

The individual should think of the pay he / she is receiving now. How well does each of the words describe his / her present pay?

- Supervision.

The individual should think of the supervision he / she is receiving. How well does each word describe his / her present supervision?

- Promotion opportunities.

The individual should think of the opportunities for promotion that he / she has. How well does each word describe the present opportunities for promotion?

- Relationship with co-workers.

The individual should think of the majority of the people that he / she is working with at the moment. How well does each of the words describe these people?

The measuring instrument consists of seventy two (72) items. For each of the following dimensions of the work environment: promotion and pay has nine (9) items each, and eighteen (18) items each for work, supervision, and co-workers (Smucker & Kent, 2004). Either favourable or positively worded and unfavourable or negatively worded items are provided. Respondents were required to consider each of the items and decide whether it is applicable to them or not.

(i) ***Reliability of the JDI***



According to Foxcroft & Roodt (2002, p. 41), “the reliability of a measure refers to the consistency with which it measures whatever it measures.” In support, Anastasi (1990, p. 103) states that “reliability refers to the consistency of scores obtained by the same persons when re-examined with the same test on different occasions, or with different sets of equivalent items, or under variable conditions.”

The Cronbach-Alpha coefficient indicates the consistency of responses to items in a measure (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2002). Reliability assessments using Cronbach-Alpha coefficient has exceeded 0.80 for the JDI (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). The interim consistency of a measuring instrument is based on the consistency of responses to all

items in the measure. Richmond et al., (1982) notes that Cronbach-Alpha reliability coefficients for the subsections of the JDI are as follows, as cited in Cockcroft (2001):

Table 3.2 Cronbach-Alpha Reliability Coefficients for the different subscales of the JDI

JDI-SCALE	CRONBACH-ALPHA COEFFICEINTS
Nature of the job	0.80
Pay	0.86
Promotion	0.80
Supervision	0.92
Co-workers	0.85

It can thus be assumed that the JDI may be considered a reliable instrument for measuring job satisfaction.

Internal Consistency reliability

The split-half reliability method is used to measure the internal consistency. This is applied by splitting the test into two halves thereby obtaining the correlation between the two halves (Cohen & Swerdlick, 2002). The split-half coefficients for the sub-sections of the JDI are calculated by applying the Spearman-Brown formula. The results obtained ranged between 0.80 and 0.88 for the different facets of the JDI (Smith et al., 1969).

Test-retest reliability

The test-retest reliability is a measure of a test's stability based on the correlation between scores of a group of respondents on two separate occasions (Colman, 2003). The test-retest reliability established by Schreider & Dachler (1978), as cited in Cockcroft (2001), of the JDI is to be between 0.45 and 0.76.

(ii) Validity of the JDI

Joppe (2002) states validity determines whether the research actually measures what it was intended to measure and how truthful the research results are. According to Nagy (2002), the JDI was administered in over 400 studies and has documented proof of convergent and discriminant validity. Smith et al., (1969) as cited in Smucker et al., (2003), conducted a validation study on the JDI through factor and cluster analysis whereby the results obtained from the study reflected that the JDI possessed high levels of discriminant and convergent validity.

(iii) Rationale for inclusion of the JDI

The rationale for the inclusion of the JDI to measure the construct job satisfaction is founded by the following underlying factors:

- The JDI is a proven valid and reliable instrument for the assessment of job satisfaction (Smith, 1969; as cited in Spector 1997);

- JDI has been standardised and found to be suitable for South African conditions (Vorster 1992; cited in Cockcroft 2001);
- The JDI is regarded as the most carefully designed and developed instrument for measuring job satisfaction (Vroom, 1964 as cited in Schneider & Vaught, 1993). It is professed that over 50% of the articles published between 1970 and 1978 in seven leading management related journals that used non-ad hoc measures of job satisfaction employed the JDI (Yeager, 1981 cited in Schneider & Vaught, 1993); and
- The JDI is easy to administer and does not require a high level of reading ability to complete (Heneman, Schwab, Fossum & Dyer, 1983).

3.5 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES



The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 14 was utilised to analyse and present the data in this research with frequency tables and graphical illustrations to provide information on key demographic variables in this study. The data analyses involved both descriptive and inferential statistics.

3.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics describe the raw data in a clear manner. This method further enables the researcher to present numerical data in a structured, accurate and summarised manner (Neuman, 2000). The descriptive statistics utilised in the current research to analyse the demographic variables in this study included frequencies, percentages, means

and standard deviations. This study will provide visual representation of data in graphical and tabular format.

According to Murphy & Davidshofer (1998), the mean refers to a measure of central tendency that offers a general picture of the data, and what is commonly referred to as the average value of the distribution of scores. The standard deviation refers to measuring the square root of the variance. It is the standard measure of variability from the mean and a measure of dispersion (Sekaran, 2000).

3.5.2 Inferential Statistics

“Inferential statistics allow researchers to infer from the data through analysis the relationship between two variables; differences in a variable among different subgroups; and how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable” (Sekaran, 2000, p. 401). The following inferential statistical methods were used to test the research hypotheses.

3.5.2.1 The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient

Correlation coefficient is a widely used statistic for obtaining an index of the relationships between two variables when the relationships between the variables is linear and when the two variables correlated are continuous (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2002). The Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to ascertain whether a statistically significant relationship exists between:

- Pay and OCB; Supervision and OCB; Promotion and OCB; The work itself and OCB; Co-worker and OCB;
- The dimensions of OCB and job satisfaction;
- Tenure and OCB, and
- Job satisfaction and OCB.

The results of this analysis will indicate whether a relationship exists between variables and the direction (positive or negative) and strength of such relationship.

3.5.2.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regressions are the most widely applied data analysis technique for measuring linear relationships between two or more variables (Hair, 2003). Ghiselli et al., (1981) note that it is able to predict changes in the dependent variables in response to changes in more than one independent variable. For this study, multiple regression analysis was used to predict whether the dimensions of job satisfaction predict organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.5.2.3 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of variance can be applied to capture different groups based on biographical with each other. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) is concerned with possible differences between the means and indicates the likelihood that one or more mean differences can be ascribed to something other than chance (Payne, 1982). This

statistical method is used to establish whether statistically significant differences exist in organisational citizenship behaviour based on biographical variables, i.e. age, gender, race, department, qualifications and mother-tongue.

3.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter extensively outlined the research design, the nature of the sample, the procedure used to collect the data and addressed issues concerning confidentiality. The description of the measuring instruments adopted and statistical techniques employed to test the research hypotheses was discussed in detail.



CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the research study based on the empirical analysis of the data solicited from the research respondents. The presentation proceeds with an analysis of the descriptive statistics on the variables under consideration. To facilitate ease in conducting the empirical analyses, the results of the descriptive analyses are presented first, followed by the inferential statistical analysis.

The statistical programme used for the analyses and presentation of data in this research is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 14. The descriptive statistics utilized are based on frequency tables and graphical illustrations to provide information on key demographic variables in this study. This was achieved through summary statistics, which includes the means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values which were computed for each of the variables in the study.

This is followed by presentation of the inferential statistics based on examination of each hypothesis formulated for the research. The upper level of statistical significance for null hypothesis testing was set at 5%. All statistical test results were computed at the 2-tailed level of significance in accordance with the non-directional hypotheses presented (Sekaran, 2003).

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated as obtained by the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. The demographic variables that receive attention are:

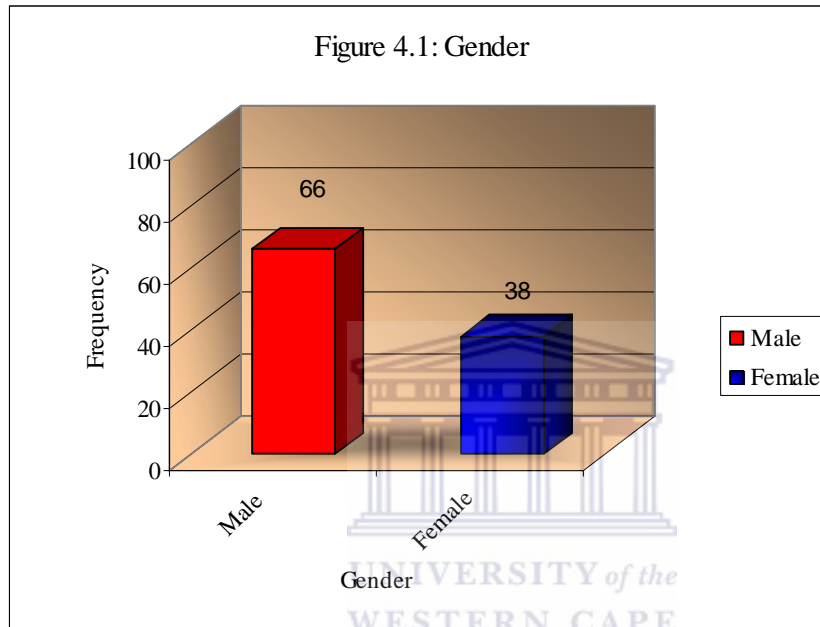
- Gender,
- Age,
- Department,
- Tenure,
- Qualification,
- Mother tongue, and
- Race.



Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages are subsequently graphically presented for each of the above-mentioned variables.

4.2.1 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

The respondents' gender is depicted in Figure 4.1.



In terms of Figure 4.1, the majority of the respondents (n=66) or 63% were male, while females represented 37% of the respondents (n=38).

The subjects' responses with regard to their ages are presented graphically in Figure 4.2.

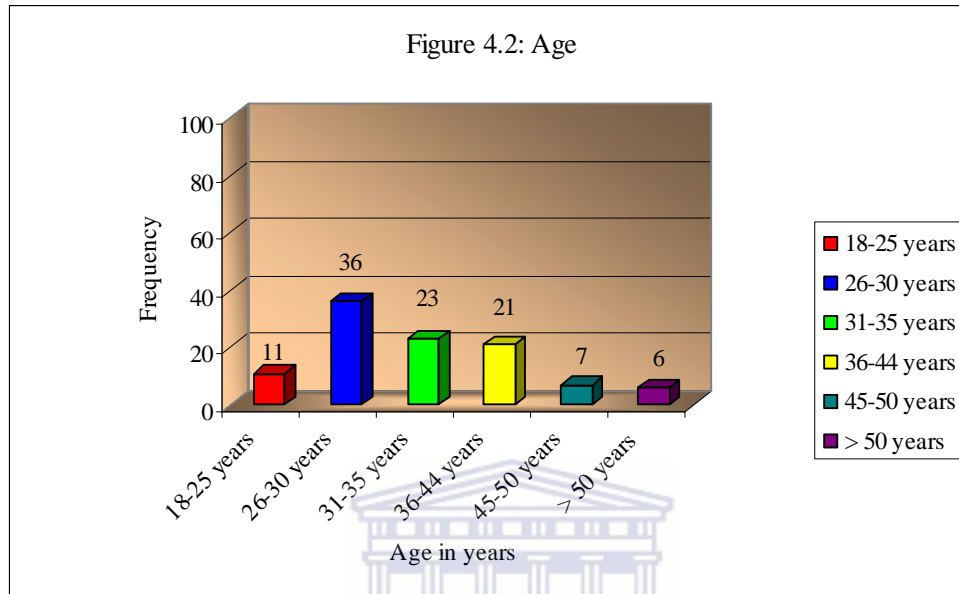


Figure 4.2 shows that the majority of respondents in the sample, (35%, n=36), are between the ages of 26-30 years old. This category is followed by the age group 31-35 years, into which 22% (n=23) of the respondents' fall. Only five (5) percent of the respondents were older than 50.

The department in which the respondents worked is represented in Figure 4.3.

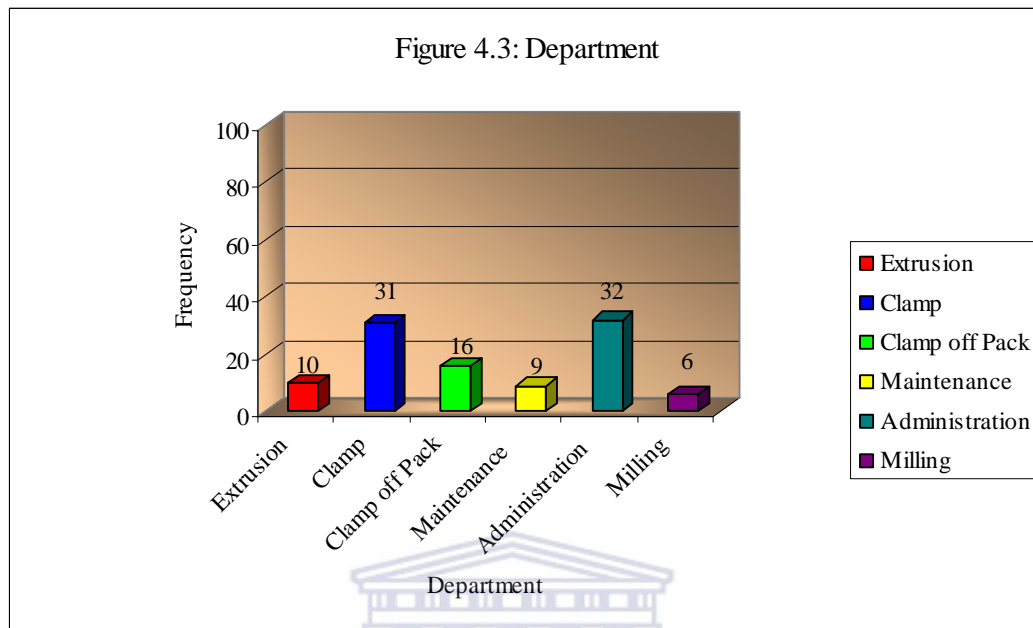
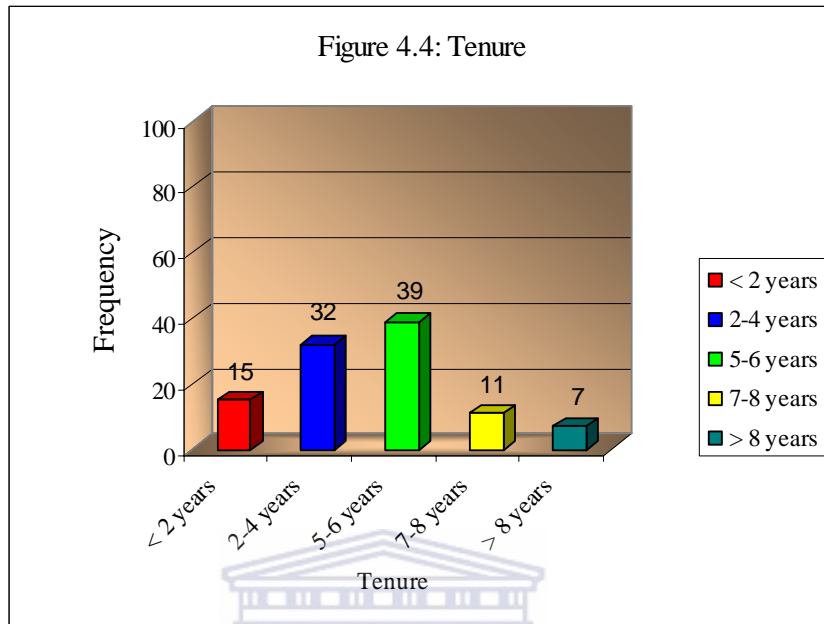
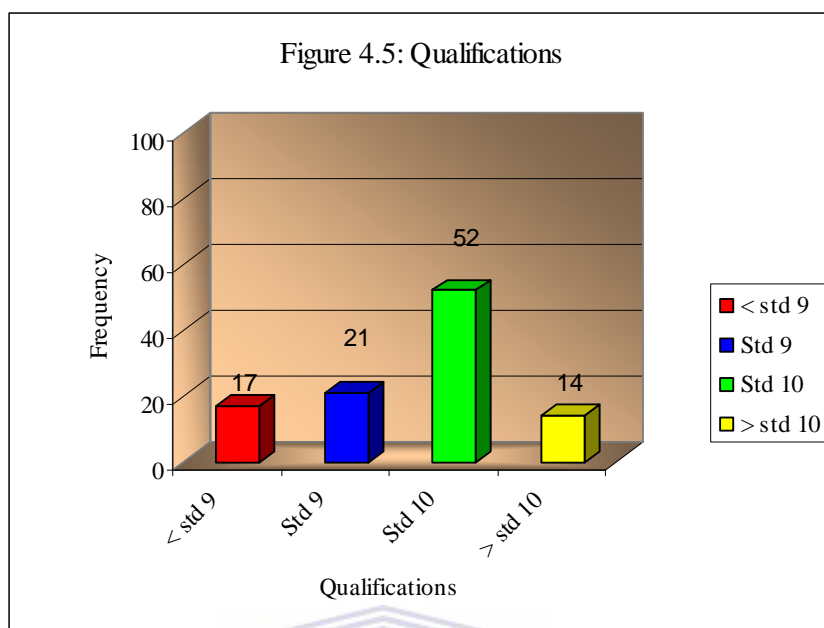


Figure 4.3 indicates that the majority of the respondents worked in Administration (n=32), representing 31% of the respondents. A further 30% (n=31) of the respondents were clamp employees. Respondents from Milling comprised the smallest proportion (n=6), representing only 5% of the respondents.



With respect to tenure, Figure 4.4 indicates that the majority of the respondents (n=39) or 38% of the respondents worked for between 5-6 years. A further 31% (n=32) worked at the organization for between 2-4 years. Only 7 employees or 6% had worked for the organisation for a period in excess of 8 years.



According to Figure 4.6, the majority of the respondents had completed a standard 10 qualification (n=52, 51%), while only 14 respondents (13%) had completed qualifications after grade 12.

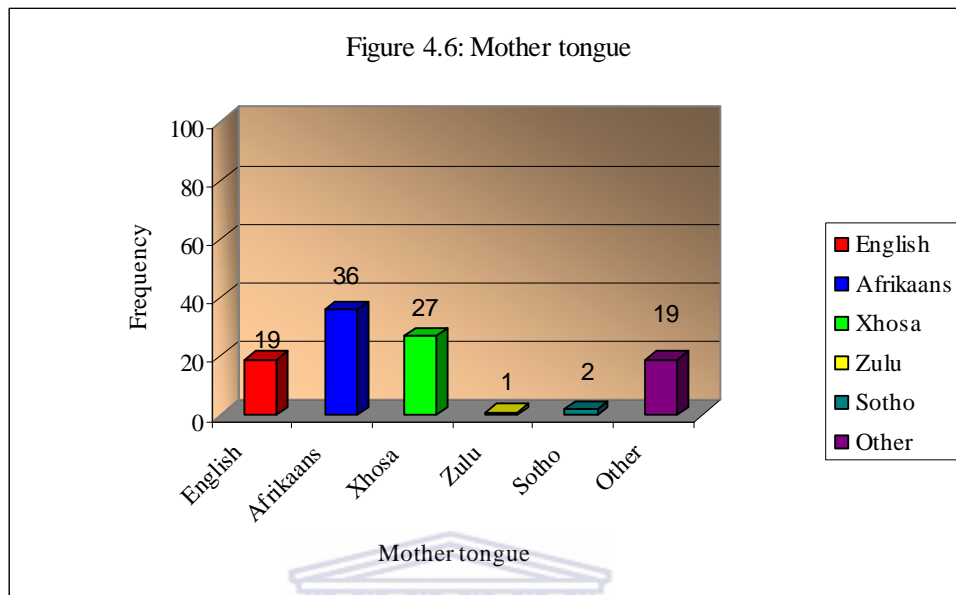
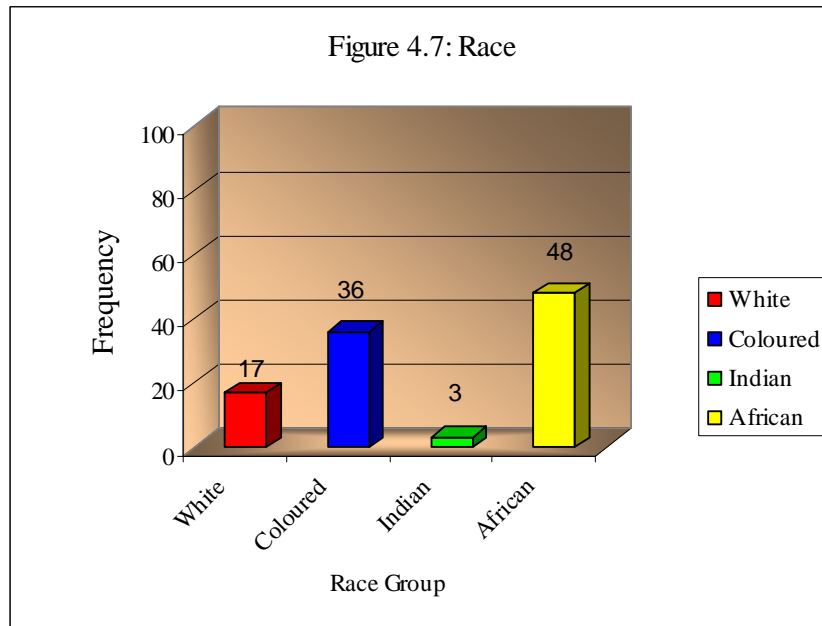


Figure 4.6 depicts the mother tongue of the respondents. Afrikaans was the mother tongue of the majority of the respondents (n=36) or 35% of the respondents. A further 26% spoke Xhosa as their mother tongue (n=27). Those who spoke Zulu and Sotho, respectively comprised the lowest proportion (n=1) and (n=2), respectively.



In terms of Figure 4.7, it can be seen that the majority of the respondents are African (n=48), representing 47% of the respondents. This was followed by Coloured respondents comprising a further 36% of the sample (n=37) and White respondents comprising 16% (n=17). Indians represented the lowest proportion of respondents, constituting 2% (n=3) of the sample.

4.2.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the three measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of graphic representation and the calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

4.2.3 MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the questionnaire. The measures of central tendency and dispersion for the dimensions of motivation and job satisfaction are shown in Table 4.1.

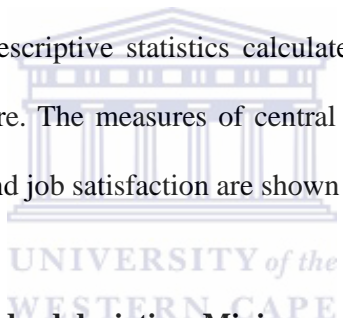


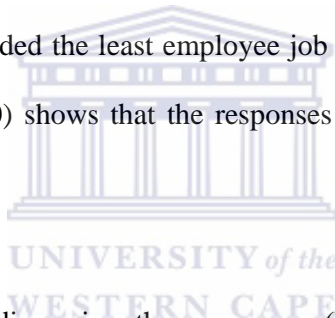
Table 4.1 Means, Standard deviation, Minimum and Maximum scores for the dimensions of the job satisfaction questionnaire

Variable	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. dev.
<i>Work Content</i>	73	1	5	3.28	.45
Payment	73	1	5	2.56	.32
Promotion	73	1	5	2.42	.30
Co-workers	73	1	5	3.19	.68
Leadership/supervision	73	1	5	2.78	.39

According to Table 4.1, Work Content was found to be the dimension which provided the highest job satisfaction to respondents in this study ($M = 3.28$; Standard deviation = .45). The standard deviation (.45) indicates a moderate variation in the responses that were obtained with respect to Work content.

Conversely, the Pay dimension was found to be one of the least satisfying dimensions with a mean score $M = 2.56$ and a standard deviation of .32. The standard deviation (.32) indicates that there was similarity in the responses obtained.

The research also found that the dimension of Promotion is also considered to be one of the dimensions which provided the least employee job satisfaction with a mean of 2.42. The standard deviation (.30) shows that the responses did not differ substantially with respect to promotion.



In terms of the Co-workers dimension, the mean score ($M=3.19$) reveals that respondents rated co-workers to be one of the most satisfying aspects of the work place. The standard deviation (.68) indicates that there were moderate variations in the responses obtained from the respondents on this dimension.

For the Leadership/supervision dimension, the mean score ($M=2.78$) indicated that respondents showed leadership/supervision to be one of the most motivating and satisfying aspects of the work situation. The standard deviation (.39) indicates that there was similarity in the responses obtained from the respondents.

4.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Inferential statistics in the form of Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was computed to determine the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction.

Table 4.2: Pearson's correlation matrix between the job satisfaction dimensions and OCB

Variable	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	
	Pearson correlation	Significance (2-tailed)
Work content	.128	.147
Payment	.387**	.005
Promotion	.412**	.001
Co-workers	.155	.243
Leader/supervisor	.472*	.047

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.2 indicates that there is a statistically significant and direct correlation between payment and OCB ($r=.387$, $p<0.01$). Similarly, there is a statistically significant positive relationship between promotion and OCB ($r=.412$, $p<0.01$). There is a statistically significant and direct relationship between leadership and OCB ($r=.472$, $p<0.01$).

The remaining variables (work content and co-workers, respectively) did not correlate significantly with OCB.

Table 4.3: Correlation between the dimensions of OCB and job satisfaction

OCB Dimensions	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Sportsmanship	Civic virtue	Courtesy	Job satisfaction
Altruism	1					
Conscientiousness	.592 .000**	1				
Sportsmanship	.379 .003**	.382 .002**	1			
Civic virtue	.493 .000**	.603 .000**	.559 .000**	1		
Courtesy	.113 .388	.100 .444	.464 .000**	.570 .003**	1	
Job satisfaction	.093 .475	.378 .002**	.521 .000**	.378 .000**	.654 .000**	1

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Table 4.3 indicates that there is a significant relationship between conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue respectively and altruism ($p < 0.01$). In addition, there is a statistically significant relationship between sportsmanship, civic virtue and job satisfaction, respectively and conscientiousness ($p < 0.01$).

There is a significant relationship between civic virtue, courtesy, sportsmanship and job satisfaction respectively ($p < 0.01$). There was also a statistically significant relationship

between civic virtue, courtesy and job satisfaction ($p < 0.01$). Similarly, there is a significant relationship between courtesy and job satisfaction ($p < 0.01$).

The remaining relationship was not statistically significant. Therefore the hypothesis that there is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the dimensions of OCB is partially accepted.

Table 4.4: Stepwise regressions for the job satisfaction dimensions and OCB

Multiple Regression	0.5422			
R squared (R^2)	0.2940			
R squared (Adjusted R^2)	0.2753			
Standard error	38.2852			
			F = 15.69	Significant F = 0.00**
Variables in the equation	B	Std Error for B	T	P
Work content	-2.7949	1.1857	-2.36	0.02*
Payment	-1.5232	0.2863	5.32	0.00**
Promotion	-0.6823	0.2903	3.65	0.06
Co-workers	-3.7542	0.1452	1.79	0.00**
Leader/supervisor	-2.4332	1.7683	-1.43	0.00**

The results shown in Table 4.4 suggest a moderate percentage of the variation in perceptions of OCB explained by the job satisfaction variables entered in the equation ($R^2 = 29.4\%$; R^2 (adjusted) = 27.53%). Thus 27.53% of the variance in OCB can be explained by the job satisfaction dimensions.

The F-ratio of 15.69 ($p = 0.00$) indicates the regression of these dimensions expressed through the adjusted squared multiple (R^2 (adj.) = 27.53%) is statistically significant. These variables account for 27.53% of the variance in OCB perceptions and suggest that other unexplored variables could potentially influence the results.

Table 4.5: Correlation: Tenure and OCB

	OCB
Tenure	.49**

** $p < 0.01$

In terms of Table 4.5, it can be inferred that there is a statistically significant relationship between tenure of the respondents and their OCB ($r = .49, p < 0.01$). This implies that the respondents tenure (years of service) with the organisation has an impact on their OCB.

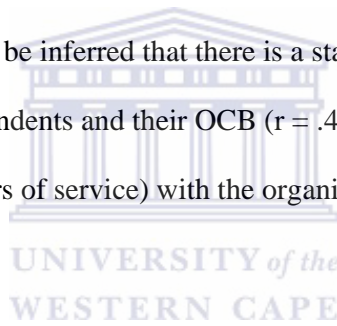


Table 4.6: Job Satisfaction and OCB

	OCB
Job Satisfaction	.68**

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.6 indicates the relationship job satisfaction and OCB. The results indicates a direct, positive and statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB ($r = 0.68, p < 0.01$).

Table 4.7: ANOVA: OCB by Age

	Sum of squares	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	18.7888	6,263	.581	0.001**
Within groups	614.458	10.780		
Total	633.246			

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.7 depicts the ANOVA with respect to OCB based on the age of respondents. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, $F(0.581; p < 0.01)$, in the OCB levels of respondents based on their ages.

Table 4.8: T-test: OCB by Gender

	Mean	S	Std error	T	P
Male	73.18	12.16	2.72	3.573	0.04*
Female	91.27	17.34	3.45		

* $p < 0.05$

Table 4.8 depicts the results of the t-test with respect to OCB based on the gender of respondents. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, $t = 5.573; p < 0.05$, with male respondents reporting significantly lower OCB (Mean = 73.18, $s = 12.16$) compared to females (Mean = 91.27, $s = 17.34$). Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected with respect to differences in OCB based on gender.

Table 4.9: ANOVA: OCB by Tenure

	Sum of squares	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	25.729	8.576	.954	0.421
Within groups	512.533	8.992		
Total	538.262			

* $p < 0.05$

The results with respect to OCB based on tenure are shown in Table 4.9. The results clearly indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in OCB based on respondents' tenure ($F = .954, p > 0.05$). Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted with respect to differences in OCB.

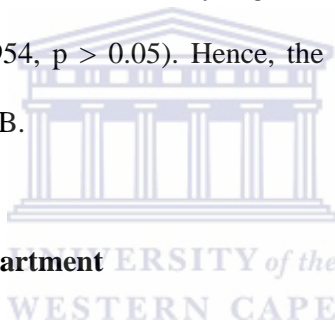


Table 4.10: OCB by department

Level taught	Sum of squares	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	15.977	5.326	.871	0.046*
Within groups	348.383	6.112		
Total	364.361			

* $p < 0.05$

Table 4.10 shows the ANOVA with respect to OCB based on the respondents' department. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, F (0.871; $p < 0.05$), in OCB based on the respondents' department.

Table 4.11: ANOVA: OCB by qualifications

	Sum of squares	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	109.826	36.609	4.389	0.008**
Within groups	475.420	8.341		
Total	585.246			

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.11 depicts the ANOVA with respect to OCB based on the qualifications that respondents have attained. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, ($F = 4.389$; $p < 0.01$), in the OCB of respondents based on their qualifications.



Table 4.12: ANOVA: OCB by race

	Sum of squares	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	78.857	26.286	5.248	0.003**
Within groups	285.504	5.009		
Total	364.361			

** $p < 0.01$

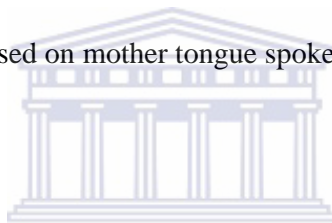
Table 4.12 depicts the ANOVA with respect to OCB based on race. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, ($F = 5.248$; $p < 0.01$), in the OCB of respondents based on their race.

Table 4.13: ANOVA: OCB by mother tongue

	Sum of squares	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	61.693	20.564	3.873	0.763
Within groups	302.668	5.310		
Total	364.361			

* $p < 0.05$

Table 4.13 depicts the ANOVA with respect to OCB based on the respondents' mother tongue. The results indicate that there are no statistically significant differences, ($F = 3.873$; $p > 0.05$), in OCB based on mother tongue spoken.



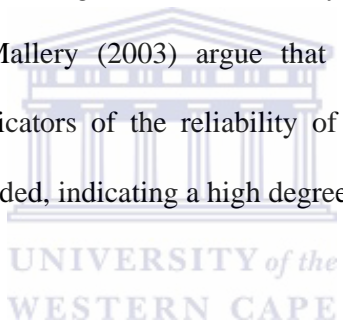
4.4 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

Cronbach's Alpha is viewed as an index of reliability associated with the variation accounted for by the true score of the underlying construct (Cronbach, 2004). It is argued that Alpha coefficients range in value from 0 to 1 and may be used to describe the reliability of factors extracted from dichotomous and or multi-point formatted questionnaires or scales. However, there is no lower limit to the coefficient; however, the closer Cronbach's coefficient alpha is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of the items of the scale (Cronbach, 2004).

Table 4.14: Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha for the OCB and Job satisfaction questionnaires

Reliability Coefficient			
	No. of cases	Alpha	No. of items
OCB	73	0.91	20
Job satisfaction	73	0.84	72

The scores obtained for the job satisfaction questionnaire and the OCB questionnaire which was administered can be regarded as satisfactory in terms of the reliability of the instrument. George and Mallery (2003) argue that coefficients above 0.8 can be considered to be good indicators of the reliability of an instrument. Hence with the current study this was exceeded, indicating a high degree or reliability.



4.5 CONCLUSION

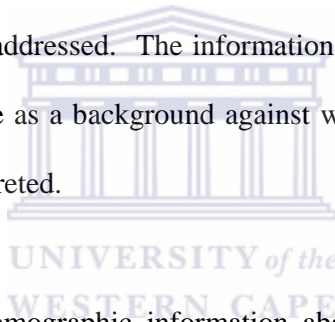
This chapter has provided an overview of the most salient findings obtained based on empirical analysis of the data. Chapter five presents a discussion of the findings obtained and contextualises the research findings based on previous research on organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the results described in Chapter 4 will be discussed in detail and – where appropriate – current literature will be incorporated into the discussion. Reference will be made to relevant research to support the findings of the current study. Furthermore, this chapter will also elucidate some of the limitations of the study and the suggestions for future research will be addressed. The information and discussions presented in the previous chapters will serve as a background against which the contents of this chapter will be presented and interpreted.



The discussion includes demographic information about the sample, results obtained from the descriptive statistics for the dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. It also provides correlations between the dimensions job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour and then presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. Conclusions are drawn based on the obtained results.

5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ABOUT THE SAMPLE

The sample consisted of 104 employees working in various departments at three branches of a brick manufacturing company in South Africa. One of the branches is situated in Gauteng and the other two in the Western Cape. Respondents from the administration department made up the greater number of respondents that participated in the study (n = 32 or 31%). A further 30% (n=31) of the respondents were general workers in the clamp pack department. Respondents from the Milling department comprised the smallest proportions (n=6), representing only 5% of the respondents.

The majority of respondents were African (n = 48), representing 47% of the respondents with the sample being more representative of males than females (n = 66 or 63%). Most of the respondents have a grade 10 educational level (n = 52 or 51%), are in the age group 26-30 years (n =35 or 36%) and are Afrikaans speaking (n =36 or 35%). All of the respondents are permanently employed and majority (n=39 or 38%) have 5-6 years service at the organisation.

5.3 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The discussion of results will be organised into sections as per the hypotheses in Chapter 1.

HYPOTHESIS 1:

There is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB of employees.

Results emanating from this research indicate that a statistically significant and direct correlation exists between job satisfaction and OCB ($r = 0.68, p < 0.01$). The results of this study further indicates, that the respondents in the sample are most satisfied with their co-workers, nature of the work that they perform, as well as with the supervision they receive. They however, are the least satisfied with the compensation they receive and less satisfied with their opportunities for promotion.

This finding is supported by Organ & Konovsky who found job satisfaction to be the strongest measure that correlates with OCB (Organ & Konovsky, 1983 as cited in Alotaibi, 2001). It was found in 15 independent studies that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB (Organ & Ling, 1995). In a further meta-analysis covering 6 747 people and 28 separate studies revealed a significant and positive correlation between job satisfaction and OCB (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Research conducted by Smith, Organ & Near (1983) also found job satisfaction to correlate ($r = 0.31$) with altruism. However, they also found not directly correlated to general

compliance (later known as conscientiousness by Organ, 1988) in either large or small organisation (as cited in Alotaibi, 2001). A study conducted by Schnake, Cochran & Dumler (1995) in a small manufacturing company found that job satisfaction explained the difference in only two of the five OCB dimensions.

More recently, Williams & Anderson (1991) provided further support of the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. They found that the cognitive component of job satisfaction significantly predict altruism and general compliance. In a study yielding similar results, Moorman (1993) investigated whether the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB could depend on the nature of the job satisfaction measures used.

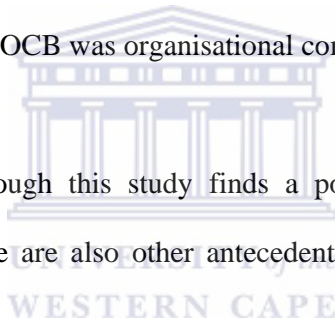
In Alotaibi's (2001) study, the results reported that job satisfaction is positively correlated to OCB, but when distributive and procedural justice is controlled for, the regression analysis shows that job satisfaction is no longer a significant predictor to OCB. Evidence suggests that satisfaction influences OCB, but through perceptions of fairness. There is a modest overall relationship between the two constructs, but satisfaction is unrelated to OCB when fairness is controlled for (Fahr et al., 1990). What this means is that job satisfaction is experienced because of fair outcomes, treatment and procedures (Organ, 1994 as cited in Robbins & Judge, 2007). There are several explanations for this.

Firstly, evidence from previous studies shows that job satisfaction is not strongly correlated with OCB (Smith et al., 1983; Fahr et al., 1990). A number of studies show that fairness

measures predict OCB better than job satisfaction measure (Fahr et al., 1990; Moorman, 1991). Secondly, other researchers have reported that job satisfaction is neither an antecedent nor a significant predictor of OCB (Schappe, 1998). Thirdly, other researchers argue that the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB may be caused by job satisfaction measures, which include fairness. Therefore, when fairness measures are controlled, job satisfaction no longer affects OCB (Schappe, 1998; Tank, 1993; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1990).

In contrast to all the above literature, a study conducted by Schappe, (1998), indicated that neither job satisfaction nor procedural justice was correlated to OCB. However, the only significant correlate to OCB was organisational commitment ($r = .21, p < .01$).

It is evident that even though this study finds a positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB, there are also other antecedents or measures to consider when studying OCB.



HYPOTHESIS 2:

There is a statistically significant relationship between the JDI dimensions (i.e. pay, supervision, promotion, work content and co-worker) and the OCB of employees.

This study found a statistically significant and direct correlation between payment and OCB ($r = .387, p < 0.01$). The research results further indicate a significantly positive relationship between promotion and OCB ($r = .412, p < 0.01$). In addition, a statistically significant and direct relationship between leadership and OCB ($r = .472, p < 0.01$) was also obtained. However, the remaining variables such as, work content and co-workers did not correlate significantly with OCB.

In contrast to this study, it was found by Organ (1990) that extrinsic rewards, such as salary and working conditions does not motivate an employee to display positive work behaviours (OCB). Schappe (1998) confers with Organ (1990) that managerial supervision and salary are all significantly negatively correlated with OCB.

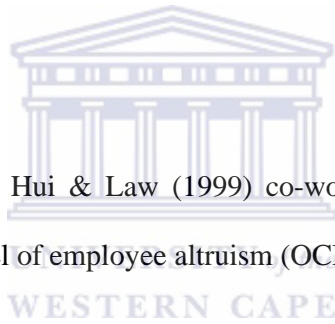
Konovsky & Organ (1996) demonstrated that employees' OCB were determined more by leadership and characteristics of the work environment than by an employee's personality (as cited in Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). They note further, that managerial behaviour significantly influences an employee's willingness to exhibit OCB. Studies by (Deluga, 1995; Farh et al., 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1996; Schnake et al., 1993) suggest that a high-quality relationship with the supervisor is related to extra-role behaviours, including OCB. If an employee's sense of support from the supervisor is violated, the employee will reduce or withhold OCB.

Podsakoff et al., (2000) found that leaders play a key role in influencing citizenship behaviour. Supportive behaviour on the part of the leader was strongly correlated to OCB. Transformational leadership also had consistent effects on every form of citizenship behaviour.

A study conducted in a manufacturing company and the data which was collected from semi-skilled employees revealed the following:

- Traditional leadership contributed more to predictive power on OCB than did the super leadership. It states further that super leadership was designed to increase an employee's autonomy. In this study, super leadership showed that it has no effect on OCB.

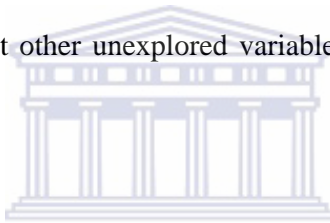
Lastly, in a study of Lam, Hui & Law (1999) co-worker relations were found to be positively related to the level of employee altruism (OCB).



HYPOTHESIS 3:

The dimensions of the JDI will statistically significantly explain the variance in OCB.

It was found in this study that a moderate percentage of the variation in perceptions of OCB explained by the job satisfaction variables entered in the equation ($R^2 = 29.4\%$; R^2 (adjusted) = 27.53%). Thus 27.53% of the variance in OCB can be explained by the job satisfaction dimensions. The F-ratio of 15.69 ($p = 0.00$) indicates the regression of these dimensions expressed through the adjusted squared multiple (R^2 (adj.) = 27.53%) is statistically significant. These variables account for 27.53% of the variance in OCB perceptions and suggest that other unexplored variables could potentially influence the results.



In Schappe's (1998) study, it was found that job satisfaction failed to yield a significant change in the hierarchical regression analyses, thus failing to support the hypothesis that job satisfaction accounts for unique variance in OCB.

HYPOTHESIS 4:

Groups differ significantly based on their (age, tenure and other biographical variables) in terms of the relationship between their levels of OCB.

In this study the group differences based on their age, tenure, gender, department, race, qualifications and mother tongue were tested. The following was found:

This study found that there are statistically significant differences in the OCB levels of respondents based on their ages ($F = 0.581$; $p < 0.01$), the respondents' department ($F = 0.871$; $p < 0.05$), qualifications that respondents have attained ($F = 4.389$; $p < 0.01$) and their race ($F = 5.248$; $p < 0.01$). The results further indicate that there are statistically significant differences, ($t = 5.573$; $p < 0.05$), with male respondents reporting significantly lower OCB (Mean = 73.18, $s = 12.16$) compared to females (Mean = 91.27, $s = 17.34$). Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected with respect to differences in OCB based on gender.

However, this study also found no statistically significant difference in OCB based on respondents' tenure ($F = .954$, $p > 0.05$). Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted with respect to differences in OCB. The results indicate further that there are no statistically significant differences, ($F = 3.873$; $p < 0.05$), in OCB based on their mother tongue spoken.

In recent literature, age was found to be significantly related to OCB (Keuehn & Al-Busaidi, (2002), as cited in Pettit, Donohue & De Cieri, 2004). Older adults tend to behave on the basis of meeting mutual and moral obligations or internal standards whilst younger adults have more transactional focus. Wagner & Rush (2000) found that altruistic OCB differs between younger and older adults. Fair treatment is a priority for younger employees whereas older employees had a more inherent value to help others and render assistance out of a norm of benevolence (as cited in Pettit et al., 2004). Pettit et al., (2004) found that older employees did score significantly higher in terms of their levels of OCB than younger employees. It therefore supported the research of OCB and age (Keuhn & Al-Busaidi, 2002; Wagner & Rush, 2000).

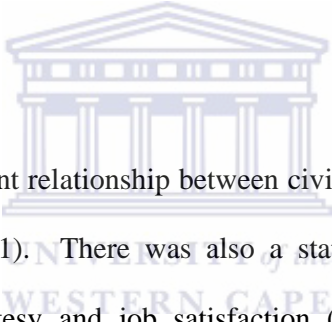
Contrary to the above literature, Wagner & Rush (2000) was in accord with previous research that age was unrelated to levels of altruism. Schappe (1998) found that neither age nor gender was significantly correlated with OCB. However, managerial supervision and salary were all significantly negatively correlated with OCB. Organ & Konovsky (1989) and Smith et al., (1983) found that age is completely unrelated to altruism. This perspective implies that there is little difference between younger and older employees in the frequency of altruistic OCB.

In support of this study's finding that there is no statistically significant difference in OCB based on respondents' tenure. Pettit et al., (2004) notes further that there has been little research found relating to tenure and OCB. Wagner & Rush (2000) found that tenure was unrelated to co-worker assessments of OCB. This study also found that the respondents' mother tongue is unrelated to OCB

It was also found in this study that there are statistically significant differences based on the respondents' levels of the respondents OCB based on their qualifications, the department they work in and their race. Further research should be conducted to investigate whether groups differ significantly based on their age, tenure, gender, race, qualifications, department and their mother tongue in terms of the relationship between their levels of OCB.

HYPOTHESIS 5:

There is a statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of OCB (i.e. altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness and sportsmanship) and job satisfaction.



This study found a significant relationship between civic virtue, courtesy, sportsmanship and job satisfaction ($p < 0.01$). There was also a statistically significant relationship between civic virtue, courtesy and job satisfaction ($p < 0.01$). Similarly, there is a significant relationship between courtesy and job satisfaction ($p < 0.01$).

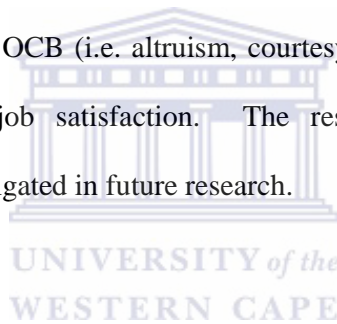
The remaining relationship was not statistically significant. Therefore the hypothesis that there is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the dimensions of OCB is partially accepted.

This finding is supported by Organ & Ryan (1995) who found the OCB dimensions, such as courtesy, civic virtue and sportsmanship correlated with job satisfaction. It also indicated that civic virtue is somewhat less related than other OCB measures.

Related to job satisfaction and OCB, Smith et al., (1983) found that leader supportive behaviours had a significant effect on the OCB dimension altruism.

It is however noted by Organ & Ryan (1995) that when one treats the OCB dimensions as separate indicators and aggregates them into an overall OCB measure, the correlation between satisfaction and the composite OCB is .38. Therefore, the evidence provides some support for the hypothesis that measures of OCB will be more related to satisfaction than would in-role performance.

The researcher has found a paucity of literature which investigates the relationship between the dimensions of OCB (i.e. altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness and sportsmanship) and job satisfaction. The researcher recommends that this hypothesis should be investigated in future research.



5.4 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion of the present investigation, some comments on the limitations of this study are appropriate, and where possible, recommendations are offered for future research.

Within the context of managing organisational behaviour, the results of this study present a number of implications. Management should try to diversify their view of desired job performance. Thereby trying to move away from traditional conceptualisations of job performance and begin to incorporate more innovative and spontaneous behaviour that is critical to the effective functioning of the organisation (Schappe, 1998). Since OCB exists outside the domain of traditional behaviour, citizenship behaviour is still an important element of the employee's overall contribution to an organisation (Organ, 1988). It is therefore an important issue for managers to better know how to promote the relationship between meaningful organisational attitudes such as commitment and beneficial organisational behaviour such as OCB.

The major finding of this study, however, is that job satisfaction emerged as a significant predictor of OCB.

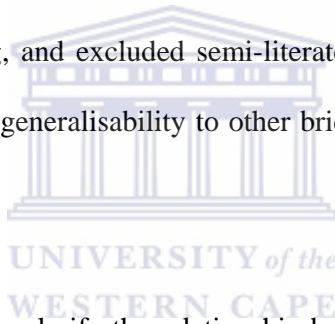
This study is not without limitations.

- Firstly, there are very few job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour studies carried out within the brick manufacturing industry. Furthermore, the study

focused on participants with Grade 10 and higher level of education only.

- Secondly, the data obtained from the OCB questionnaire were self-reports by the employees. The problem with the use of self-reports can be bias on the part of the participants.
- Thirdly, the number of participants in this study although, adequate for statistical testing, represent a relatively low response rate. The external validity can be enhanced by the selection of a larger sample.
- Finally, there are a paucity of literature focusing on OCB and its dimensions.

Furthermore, the sample was drawn from a brick manufacturing company in both the Western Cape and Gauteng, and excluded semi-literate and illiterate employees. This study may be limited in its generalisability to other brick manufacturing companies and those in other provinces.



The aim of this study was to clarify the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. The finding of the significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB is consistent with the result of many other studies. (Organ & Konovsky, 1983; Fahr, 1990; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Alotaibi, 2001) However, it would be beneficial for future research within the brick manufacturing industry to include procedural justice in the study. Certain studies (Organ, 1998a, Fahr et al., 1990, Moorman, 1991) suggests that fairness is a predictor of OCB and suggest further that fairness perceptions may be the pivotal force behind OCB (Deluga, 1995).

Organisational citizenship behaviours may contribute to organisational success by:

- enhancing co-worker and managerial productivity;
- freeing up resources so they can be used for productive purposes;
- reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions;
- helping to coordinate activities both within and across work groups;
- strengthening the organisation's ability to attract and retain the best employees;
- increasing the stability of the organisation's performance, and
- enabling the organisation to adapt more effectively to environmental changes.

In conclusion, the results from this study support interesting directions for future research for organisational researchers. Assuming that the current patterns of results persists when a larger and more representative samples of the brick manufacturing industry including semi and illiterate employees is used.



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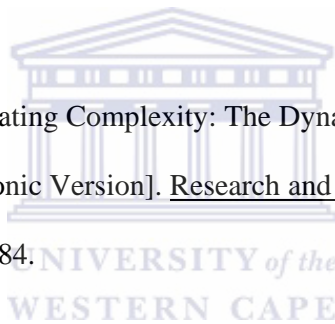
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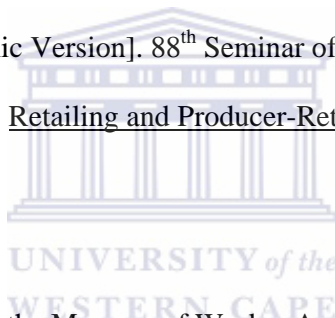
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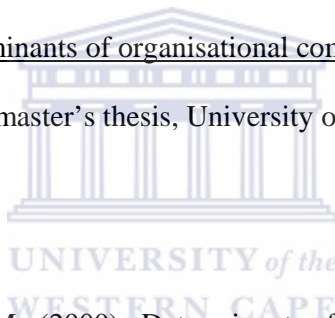
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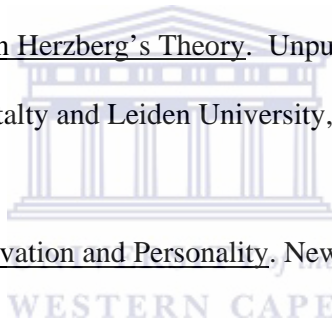
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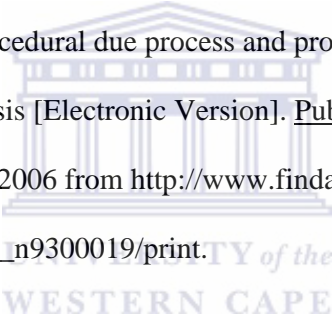
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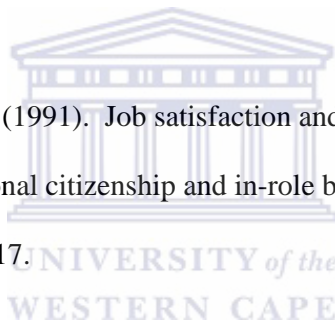
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