



**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL  
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN A WESTERN CAPE GOVERNMENT OFFICE**

by

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## ABSTRACT

Modern human resource management suggests that organisations that have succeeded in the business arena have done so through good people management practices and employees who display productive behaviour above and beyond their formal job descriptions. General thought behind job satisfaction supports that happy employees are inclined to be more productive, creative and committed to their jobs, all of which are essential to achieving an organisation's bottom line.

Organisational citizenship behaviour is another factor that is regarded as important for achieving organisational effectiveness. There has been some disagreement regarding the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction (JS) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Some studies have shown that OCB is as a result of JS. Following these studies, this research paper focuses on the extent to which JS influences OCB among a sample of employees within a Western Cape government office.

Employees at the government office (N =105), selected through convenience sampling, were surveyed regarding their level of JS and their readiness to display OCB. Quantitative data was collected through a paper-based survey, using validated standardised questionnaires to measure both JS and OCB. The results show that respondents reported moderate levels of JS and OCB. Through the study it was established that there is a significant relationship between JS and OCB. Furthermore, the JS dimensions of 'internal work motivation' and 'growth satisfaction' explained 25% of the variance in OCB.

This research investigated the relationship between OCB and JS in a South African context, providing insight into their relationship in a public sector organisation. In terms of practical significance, exploring the relationship between JS and OCB can provide insight for management and guidance for human resource practices, which can assist in improving JS and therefore the success of a business.

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# CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Introduction

A challenge faced by organisations in today's competitive world is to retain employees and provide JS in the workplace. The success of South African (SA) organisations is currently determined by the active involvement and satisfaction of their employees (Mncwango & Winnaar, 2012). For an organisation, JS means a workforce that is motivated and committed to elevated quality performance. Within the organisation, JS is necessary to support functional employee behaviour (Patrick & Sonia, 2012). Organisational citizenship, absenteeism and staff turnover can each be an indicator of JS, or lack thereof, in the workplace (Bateman & Organ, 1983).

Since its origin, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has gained much academic interest. Working towards the organisation's goals and being helpful and compassionate towards colleagues in a way that profits the organisation is embodied in the definition of citizenship behaviour (Alotaibi, 2001).

OCB has been revealed to have a positive impact at organisational level. According to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach (2000), it has been shown to enhance organisational efficiency from 18% to 38% across different dimensions of measurement. Furthermore, OCB has been linked to higher productivity at an organisational level, as well as lower turnover (Quick & Nelson, 2009). However, OCB is not always properly recognised or rewarded. Concepts similar to 'helpfulness' or 'friendliness', which form part of OCB, are complicated to quantify (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

Organ and Konovsky (1989), Bateman and Organ (1983) and Brown (1993) state that there is substantial evidence that OCB and JS are related. The general hypothesis to explain this association is the expectation that only satisfied workers engage in OCB. This is because of a mutual exchange relationship (Mohammad, Habib & Alias, 2011). Various empirical studies have been conducted to establish the association between OCB and JS, with inconsistent findings. Therefore, it seems that the connection between JS and OCB occurs in different ways across various samples and contexts (Chiboiwa, Chispen & Samuel, 2011).

The key question, however, is: "What is the impact of OCB on organisational performance and success?" There are numerous reasons why citizenship behaviour might influence organisational effectiveness (George & Bettenhausen, 1990). Some of the reasons include that OCB may improve co-worker and managerial productivity; it may avail more helpful behaviours that can influence productivity; it may lessen resources allocated to purely maintenance functions; and it may enhance the stability of organisational performance and the organisation's ability to acclimatise to environmental changes. Furthermore, OCBs may serve as a useful means of co-ordinating activities among team members and across employment groups (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Therefore, it is clear that OCB is a desired characteristic of an organisational workforce when it comes to competing and performing in the fast-paced, dynamic organisational environment.

## **1.2 Job Satisfaction**

JS is an extensively researched topic in various fields, including social sciences, management and higher education (Kh Metle, 2005). According to Vroom (1967), JS is the response of workers to the work they do. Likewise, Blum and Naylor (1986) term JS as a general attitude of workers, constituted by their approach towards their working conditions, wages, promotion related with the job, control, social relations in the workplace, recognition of talent, group associations apart from work life, and personal characteristics.

Locke (1969) suggests that JS is the state of pleasure an employee experiences from the application of their values to a job. Oshagbemi (1999) builds on this, stating that JS refers to the positive emotions individuals experience toward a specific job. According to Friday and Friday (2003), JS is a very complex job-related variable relating to the attitude of the employee. Spector (1997) describes JS as the degree to which employees like their jobs. Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) add to this definition by stating that JS is an employee's reaction to their occupation or organisation. Similarly, Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992) are of the opinion that overall JS describes an individual's emotional reaction to work associated factors. They identify some key facets of JS as satisfaction with co-workers, supervisor, promotion and pay. Hence, JS is seen as a multidimensional construct (Poulin, 1995).

Extrinsic or hygiene factors are associated with the job context. Examples are supervision, relationship with supervisor, company policy, salary, and work environment, relationship with peers, status and personal life. For the present study, extrinsic factors include co-workers, pay, technology, supervision and work-family balance (Atchison, 1999). Intrinsic or motivator factors are associated with job content, achievement (for instance recognition), work itself, responsibility, growth and advancement. For the purposes of this study, the intrinsic factors include: promotion, recognition and work (Atchison, 1999).

### **1.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour**

To achieve effective organisational performance, employees need to perform their prearranged duties, and perform behaviours that go further than these formal job tasks (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Wright, Dunford and Snell (2001) suggest that employees have both cognition and emotions that influence them to apply free will with regards to the preference of behaviours they choose to exhibit in the workplace.

OCB has been widely studied because of its importance in the workplace (Becker and Vance, 1993; Moorman, 1993; Neihoff and Moorman, 1993; Organ, Podsakoff, and McKenzie, 2006; Organ and Ryan, 1995). Organ (1988) explains OCB as a person's behaviour that is optional, not directly acknowledged by the institutional reward system, and that promotes the successful functioning of the company. OCB refers to behaviours in the workplace such as helping others, working on weekends or staying late, performing at a higher level than the set standard, being actively involved in company matters and tolerating work annoyances (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, et al., 2000). These behaviours are seen as extra-role behaviour, namely behaviours that are not prescribed in the employee's job/role description (Organ, et al., 2006).

### **1.4 Problem Statement**

According to the Public Service Commission (PSC) report of 2010, the shortage of skills in the public sector may be constraining departments' efforts to successfully provide service delivery. This skills shortage is apparent in the high vacancy and turnover rates within public

service departments in South Africa. Although interventions are currently being implemented to address such skills shortages and vacancies, the challenges of being understaffed and under-resourced remain a reality.

Bearing these challenges in mind, it is imperative for organisational success that public sector employees go beyond merely completing their assigned duties. The employees need to help other colleagues, impart knowledge and skills to novice employees and, generally, lift the morale and cohesion of the department through extra-role behaviours. Such behaviours can be recognised as OCBs.

Werner (2007) states that employees who are satisfied in their work seemed more likely to display positive actions that contribute to organisational performance. Moreover, management in companies must be more aware of the degree to which their workers rate their intrinsic JS. In companies, management has been using strategies such as promotions and career development plans, as well as salary and benefits as some of their JS measures. In the public sector, government uses the senior management system (SMS) with the aim of avoiding the departure of highly skilled managers (Jaiya, 2001). This system focuses on the remuneration component of JS, which is a form of extrinsic satisfaction.

It appears that these measures have not consistently proven to be effective within the existing economic environment. Organ, et al. (2006) states that the ability of a company to innovate, effectively implement business policies and to achieve competitive gain largely depends on worker satisfaction and OCB. JS may therefore create a necessary condition for the employees to demonstrate OCBs. As it is imperative for successful service delivery organisations (including those in the public sector) to have high levels of OCBs, it is imperative to comprehend the relationship between JS and OCB. Therefore, the first problem encountered in the government office is that low levels of JS impact negatively on OCB levels (Walz & Niehoff, 2000).

Previous research has indicated that socio-demographic sources might explain why some employees are more likely to have higher levels of JS and OCB than others (Allen and Rush, 2001; Friday, Moss and Friday, 2004; Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt, 2003; Kh Metle, 2003). In the public sector, turnover rates are highest among professional and senior management

occupational categories (PSC, 2010). These individuals are usually older than entry-level workers. Previous research has found a link between age and JS (Drafke & Kossen, 2002), as well as age and OCB (Kark & Waismel-Manor, 2005). The study therefore also seeks to address the second question of whether age has any influence on JS and OCB levels in the government office.

## **1.5 Research Question and Propositions**

It is important to define clear research questions at the beginning of any research process. A key criterion for the success of any research is the ability to draw key conclusions from the collected data. The extent to which this is done is largely determined by the clearness with which research questions are posed (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). With this in mind, the researcher will test the following research question: “Is there a relationship between JS and OCB in a Western Cape government office?” Secondly, in order to understand the socio-demographic profile of employees with higher levels of JS and OCB, a second research question will be pursued, namely: “Does age explain any significant differences in the JS and OCB of employees in a Western Cape government office?”

In the present study, the following hypotheses are tested:

1. There is a statistically significant relationship between JS and OCB.
2. There are statistically significant relationships between the dimensions of JS (general satisfaction, growth satisfaction and internal work motivation) and the dimensions of OCB (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue).
3. The dimensions of JS (growth satisfaction, internal work motivation and general satisfaction) explain a significant proportion of the variance in OCB.
4. There are statistically significant differences between a respondent’s age and JS.
5. There are statistically significant differences between a respondent’s age and OCB.



## **1.6 Research Objectives**

The objectives of this research are:

- To determine the relationship between JS and OCB within the public sector organisation.
- To determine JS levels of employees within the organisation.
- To determine the extent to which employees in the organisation are engaging in OCB.
- To understand the influence of socio-demographic characteristics such as age on JS and OCB.

## **1.7 Potential Contribution of the Study**

Some studies support the positive correlation between JS and OCB, however other empirical findings have concluded that there is no correlation between the two. Empirical studies ascertaining the link between JS and OCB have produced inconsistent results. Not all researchers are convinced of the association between these two variables. Rather, they question the nature of JS measures. The present study proposes to examine the association between OCB and JS in a South African context. This will provide a contextual understanding of the relationship between the variables in a public sector setting in SA.

With regard to practical significance, exploring the relationship between JS and OCB can provide insights for management, and guidance for human resource practices that can assist in improving OCBs.

## **1.8 Framework for the Present Study**

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the constructs being researched in the current study, namely JS and OCB. It highlighted the aims and objectives of the study and finally the potential contribution of the study.

Chapter 2 presents an overview of the theoretical foundation that provides the premise of the study, substantiating the research hypotheses of this particular study.

Chapter 3 describes the research design used to examine the research problem in further detail with explicit reference to the data-collection methods and statistical analysis.

Chapter 4 unveils the research findings from the analysis of the data collected during the study.

Concluding the study, chapter 5 presents a discussion of the most salient results as well as the limitations of the study with recommendations for future research.

## **1.9 Conclusion**

Chapter 1 provided an indication of the research problem under examination. Furthermore, the chapter provided a description of the importance of research in this area and an outline of the study as a whole. The following chapter will present a review of the literature associated with the notion of JS and OCB.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The current chapter reviews literature linked to the concept of JS and OCB. To describe the variables under study, numerous authors' definitions of the constructs will be discussed. Furthermore, the background to, and consequences of, both JS and OCB will be explored. The chapter ends with a review of the relationship between the two constructs and their dimensions.

### **2.2 Job Satisfaction**

JS has been described as a person's attitude towards characteristics of their job and also their perception of their job in general (Gill, Sharma, Mathur & Bhutani, 2012). Locke (1969) defines JS as the gratifying emotional state that results from the evaluation of one's job as facilitating or achieving the success of one's values. Apparent JS creates positive belief among employees. This, in turn, represents a positive emotional reaction towards longing for empowerment.

Most scholars describe JS as a global concept that comprises of various influencing facets. Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller and Llies' (2001) classic categorisation considers five facets, namely pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers, and the work itself. Locke (1976) noted a few other facets, namely management, recognition, and working conditions. JS can be split into intrinsic and extrinsic elements. Intrinsic elements are those factors that a person puts into the work function, while extrinsic elements are factors that a person receives (Wernimont, 1966). Intrinsic factors include supervision, co-workers and the work itself. Promotions as well as pay are considered to be extrinsic factors.

## **2.2.1 Intrinsic job satisfaction**

Atchison (1999) suggests that intrinsic JS sources come from within a person and are usually more sustainable than extrinsic sources. Intrinsic sources are therefore mostly intangible, for instance workers feeling a sense of satisfaction with their work and how their work suits who they are as a person.

### ***2.2.1.1 Person-job fit***

Studies have attempted to examine the relations between job and person factors to ascertain whether certain types of people react differently to dissimilar types of jobs (Spector, 1997). Spector's (1997) approach suggests that JS will exist when features of the job are coordinated to the characteristics of the person. Mumford (1991) has explored this viewpoint in two ways:

- The match between what organisations need and what employees desire; and
- The match between the employee's desires and actual rewards received.

### ***2.2.1.2 Disposition/personality***

Personality can be described as the number of different ways in which a person reacts and interacts in relationships (Robbins, 2001). Studies indicate that an individual's personality or character could therefore influence whether they will be more or less satisfied with their job, regardless of changes to their working environment (Aamodt, 2004; Johns, 1996).

This thought originated from Hawthorne's studies on individuals who repeatedly complained about their jobs (Spector, 1997). The participants found a reason to fault their job no matter what the researcher did. This led to a belief that an individual's dissatisfaction could be an artefact of their character. Therefore, one way to raise the overall level of JS in a company could be to recruit workers who generally have high levels of life satisfaction (Aamodt, 2004).

The personality-JS association is, however, not without criticism. According to Spector (1997), empirical studies on personality-JS have not contributed a theoretical explanation of the relationship between an individual's personality and their JS. Aamodt (2004) therefore urges more researchers to study this association before definite conclusions can be drawn.

### **2.2.1.3 The work itself**

The concept of the work itself can be described as the degree to which the job provides the person with personal growth, chances for learning, stimulating tasks and the opportunity to be accountable and responsible for results (Robbins, et al., 2003). Robbins (2001) furthermore states that workers prefer jobs with opportunities and mentally stimulating challenges in which their competencies can be exercised. Lacey's statements (1994) support this with his findings that persons are more satisfied with the work itself when they take up responsibilities that are mentally and physically challenging. Furthermore, Robbins, et al. (2003) hypothesise that unchallenging jobs lead to dullness and annoyance. In opposition of this view, Johns (1996) argued that some individuals favour jobs that are straightforward and easy.

## **2.2.2 Extrinsic job satisfaction**

In opposition to intrinsic sources of motivation that stem from within a person, extrinsic sources are mostly determined by external circumstances that lie beyond the control of an employee (Atchison, 1999). The following factors will be discussed: the work itself, promotion opportunities, pay, supervision, working conditions, co-workers, and the matter of fairness.

### **2.2.2.1 Pay**

Robbins, et al. (2003) define pay as the amount of remuneration received for a specific job. Luthans (2002) observes that salaries and wages are known to be an important, but multifaceted, multidimensional forecaster of JS. Bassett (1994) states that employee satisfaction has not been proven to be improved by pay. He proposes that workers with high

remuneration could still be discontent if they dislike their working environment. Furthermore, Boggie (2005) states that discrimination in terms of lack of credit and poor pay contributes to worker retention problems. Atchison (1999) proposes that a raise in pay only acts as a short-term motivator and management consequently has to consider alternative ways to raise levels of JS.

#### **2.2.2.2 Promotion opportunities**

JS is powerfully associated with opportunities for promotion (Pergamit and Veum, 1999; Peterson, Puia and Suess, 2003; Sclafane, 1999). Kreitner and Kinicki (2001) state that the relationship between promotion and JS is reliant on the apparent equity perceived by employees. However, Cockcroft (2001) points out that factors other than the perceived equity of promotion may impact on JS. For instance, an employee could be satisfied with the company's promotion policy, but be dissatisfied with the perceived opportunities for promotion. Furthermore, it should be noted that not all employees are interested in being promoted. As a result individual standards for promotion depend primarily on the employee's personal and career aspirations (Cockcroft, 2001).

#### **2.2.2.3 Supervision**

Studies indicate that an employee's positive working relationship with his/her supervisor influences such an employee's contentment with their work (Aamodt, 2004). Furthermore, Ramsey (1997) suggests that supervisors add to the high or low self-esteem of employees in the workplace. Work-related complaints may also be minimised by a supervisor's positive interaction with employees (Sherman & Bohlander, 1992). This can be seen in the increase of JS of individuals who have supervisors with high levels of interactional and relationship-building skills (Graham & Messner, 1998). As a result, supervisory conduct strongly affects the growth of trust in relationships with workers (Wech, 2002). Wech (2002) states that trust may, in turn, have a significant association with JS.

#### **2.2.2.4 Co-workers**

Literature indicates that having sociable and compassionate colleagues' leads to improved JS (Aamodt, 2004; Robbins, 2001, 2003). This may be because a work group provides support, assistance, comfort and advice to members of such a group (Luthans, 2002). Kram and Isabella (1985) maintain that co-worker relationships are a valuable means of growth and support. This is confirmed by Oshagbemi (2001), who found that individuals who had friendships with colleagues and supervisors reported higher levels of JS.

#### **2.2.2.5 Working conditions**

Luthans (2002) comments that working circumstances, as an extrinsic factor of motivation, still have an effect on employee JS. Aspects such as ventilation, noise, temperature and lighting can be seen to affect working conditions (Luthans, 2002). Robbins (2003) confirms that workers prefer physical environments that are comfortable, clean and safe, and with a low degree of distractions. Nevertheless, Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) maintained that employees often take their working conditions for granted. House and Wigdor (2006) support this notion by saying that only extreme changes in operational conditions are likely to impact on JS.

#### **2.2.2.6 Fairness**

Perceived fairness has been shown to have an impact on JS (Aamodt, 2004). Robbins (2001) states that workers' JS will be influenced by the perceived fairness of organisational policies and systems. Johns (1996) differentiates between distributive equality and procedural equality. Robbins (2003) states that distributive equality is a superficial fairness of the real decisions made in a company. According to Johns (1996), procedural equality, on the other hand, occurs when the processes to establish work outcomes or decisions are alleged to be reasonable. Aamodt (2004) states that the association between perceptions of justice and JS is very strong; consequently employers should be transparent in their decision-making processes and offer feedback to workers on such decisions.

### **2.2.3 Theories of job satisfaction**

A number of theories exist relating to JS. These theories can be classified into categories, as described by Judge, et al. (2001:398):

- *Situational theories*, which theorise that JS, results from the nature of one's job or other aspects of the environment.
- *Interactive theories*, which suggest that JS, results from the interplay of the situation and personality.

#### **2.2.3.1 Situational theories**

Even though numerous situational theories of JS have been anticipated, three stand out as most influential. These are Herzberg's two-factor theory, social information processing, and the job characteristics model.

##### **2.2.3.1.1 Herzberg's two-factor theory**

Herzberg pioneered the thought of alternative factors leading to JS and job dissatisfaction. Thus, he argues that the factors that lead to satisfaction are different to those leading to dissatisfaction. Factors such as salary, working conditions, interpersonal relations, company policies and status are termed as dissatisfiers or hygiene factors. On the other hand the intrinsic motivators, such as opportunities for growth, achievements and the job itself, were termed as motivators (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). Based on these results, Herzberg argued that the elimination of hygiene factors from a job would only eradicate dissatisfaction, but not necessarily improve worker satisfaction (Tietjen & Myers, 1998).

Despite its discerning plea, researchers have criticised the two-factor theory. There are many logical problems with the theory as well as many flaws in Herzberg's technique (Locke, 1969). One of the mainstay problems is that most of the theory is supported by Herzberg's samples and methodology. Other researchers have also expressed concern that Herzberg's theory



oversimplifies work motivation (Koontz & Wehrich, 2007). Numerous practical studies have attempted to repeat and test Herzberg's results with independent data and methods, with limited success (Judge, 1990).

#### **2.2.3.1.2 Social information processing**

Social information processing theories dispute that JS is a socially constructed reality. Instead they propose that individuals only create perceptions of JS when they are prompted for a response (Judge, et al., 2001). When prompted, these individuals take shared sources of information, such as cues from their co-workers, interpretations of their own behaviours or even the manner in which survey questions are posed, into account. Substantively, the theory holds that persons are apt to supply the responses they are expected to, and then to try justify or rationalise their responses (Spector, 1997).

Critics of the social information processing approach state that the same job attributes appear to foresee JS in different cultures (Crede, Chernyshenko, Stark, Dalal & Bashshur, 2007). The values, social environments and customs in these cultures are often relatively different and this is likely to have an influence on an individual's social processing (Spector, 1997). However, the theory continues to be discussed even though it is rarely endorsed and interest in it appears to have declined.

#### **2.2.3.1.3 Job characteristics model**

The job characteristics model (JCM) states that enriched or multifaceted jobs are connected with increased motivation, JS and work performance (Fried & Ferris, 1987). The model was introduced by Hackman and Oldham (1976), but derived from previous work by Hackman and Lawler (1971). The Hackman and Oldham (1976:03) model focuses on five core job characteristics:

- *Task identity* – the degree to which one can see one's work from beginning to end.
- *Task significance* – the degree to which one's work is seen as important and significant.

- *Skill variety* – the extent to which the job allows employees to do different tasks.
- *Autonomy* – the degree to which employees have control and discretion in how to conduct their job.
- *Feedback* – the degree to which the work itself provides feedback on how the employee is performing the job.

Based on the hypothesis of the job characteristics model, jobs that are structured to provide these five core features will be more rewarding and motivating than jobs that do not provide them (Wall, Clegg & Jackson, 1978). More particularly, the core job characteristics lead to three crucial psychological states, namely responsibility for outcomes, experienced meaningfulness of the work and knowledge of results (Boonzaier, Ficker & Rust, 2001).

There are some restrictions to this theory. Firstly, the use of self-report instruments of job characteristics may not yield objective results (Roberts & Glick, 1981). It is accurate to say that subjective reports of job characteristics are linked more strongly with JS than objective reports. Nevertheless, objective reports, even with their measurement imperfections, still demonstrate consistently positive correlations with JS (Glick, Jenkins & Gupta, 1986). Secondly, the association between JS and perceptions of job characteristics does not indicate directionality between the variables (James and Jones, 1980; James and Tetrick, 1986). Thus, it cannot be confirmed that any association between JS and job characteristics demonstrates a causal effect of job characteristics on JS. Thirdly, there is little proof that the significant psychological states mediate the association between job characteristics and the outcomes as proposed. Finally, the prescribed combination of the five core characteristics has not been supported. Research indicates that merely adding the dimensions is more effective (Arnold & House, 1980). This restriction does not seem to be a serious problem with the theory, as a multiplicative or additive combination of job dimensions works best and does not undermine the possible usefulness of the theory.

### **2.2.3.3 Interactive theories**

Interactive theories of JS are theories that consider both situation and person variables. Although there are many theories, the two most important ones are Locke's value-percept theory and the Cornell integrative model.

#### **2.2.3.3.1 Cornell model**

According to the Cornell model, JS is a function of the equilibrium between role inputs. These inputs include what is received (pay, status and working conditions) and what the person puts into the work function (training, time, experience and effort) (Williams, 1999). Based on this theory, the more outcomes received relative to inputs invested, the higher the individual's work role satisfaction will be. According to the Cornell model, the person's opportunity costs influence the value they place on inputs. The model proposes that a person's frame of reference, which signifies past experience with outcomes, manipulates how people recognise current outcomes received (Hulin, Roznowski & Hachiya, 1985).

#### **2.2.3.3.2 Value-percept theory**

Locke (1976) argued that a person's values decide what pleases them in a job. Based on this theory, only the unfulfilled job values that were valued by the individual would be dissatisfying. Thus, value-percept theory predicts that discrepancies between what is wanted and received are dissatisfying only if the job facet is significant to the person.

A critique of the value-percept theory is the correlation that exists between individuals' desires and what he/she considers as vital. In theory these concepts are independent, however in practice many people will find it complicated to differentiate between the two (Judge, et al., 2001). Despite this restriction, research on Locke's theory has been supportive. Rice, Gentile and McFarlin (1991) found that facet importance moderated the association between facet amount and facet satisfaction. However, it did not moderate the association between facet satisfaction and overall JS (Judge, et al., 2001).

#### **2.2.4 Biographical factors' influence on job satisfaction**

Research done on JS has shown that personal factors such as gender, race, age, educational level, marital status and tenure have an effect on JS.

#### **2.2.4.1 Race**

Studies of the association between race and JS have revealed conflicting findings (Friday, et al., 2004). Henault's (2004) study of American healthcare executives revealed that black people had lower levels of JS than their white counterparts. Many studies have found that group homogeneity is a factor that influences differences in race relative to JS. The results of these studies indicate that as group homogeneity increases, members of the group will have increased levels of JS (Jones & Schaubroeck, 2004).

Research within a South African context regarding the association between race and JS is limited. A study by Erasmus (1998) found a differentiation in JS between white and African females within a human resources occupation.

The study reported that JS levels of white females were higher than their African female colleagues. The study highlighted factors such as benefits and pay causing dissatisfaction amongst African females. Conclusions of a study of readers of the *South African Business Times* showed that African respondents are more likely to feel less vulnerable in their positions than their white counterparts (Robbins, et al., 2003). Robbins, et al. (2003) found that the consequence of reorganisation, recoil of industry sectors and affirmative action were some of the reasons given for a feeling of job security.

#### **2.2.4.2 Gender**

Several studies based on gender with a view to explore differences in JS have yielded opposing results (Chiu, 1998). Furthermore, a study done by Murray and Atkinson (1981) that investigated gender differences as determinants of JS showed that females connect more significance to social factors, whilst males place larger worth on progression, other extrinsic aspects and pay. Tang and Talpade (1999) support that there is a noteworthy dissimilarity between males and females in job dimensions that impact on JS. The research establishes that men are inclined to have elevated JS relative to compensation when compared to females, whereas females are inclined to have elevated JS levels relating to co-workers.

Conclusions of a survey looking at issues troubling women in the South African labour force indicated similar findings. The bulk of the female respondents were content with their jobs. The main factors that contributed to their JS were the opportunity to learn new things, co-workers, and factors inherent in the job itself (Robbins, et al., 2003).

Oshagbemi (2000) was unsuccessful in finding a correlation between gender and JS. Likewise, Donohue and Heywood (2004) were unable to confirm gender-based JS differences in a research conducted between young American and British workers. Opposing the above findings, Robbins, et al. (2003) dispute that no proof exists suggesting that gender impacts on a worker's JS levels. Furthermore, these authors are of the opinion that gender differences can have an effect on the association involving job dimensions and JS, but gender differences do not have an undeviating impact on JS.

#### ***2.2.4.3 Educational level***

Studies conducted on the affiliation between JS and level of education showed no dependable pattern (Kh Metle, 2003; Oshagbemi, 1997). A study by Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003) in the Lebanese banking division found that, although a connection existed between education and JS, it was not statistically noteworthy. The study did, however, note that people in the sample in ownership of a school certificate had the lowest level of overall JS, while workers with a college certificate had the highest.

Related research by Kh Metle (2003) on Kuwaiti women working in a public government sector setting revealed that a high affiliation existed between the level of education and overall JS. Of the workforce surveyed, 90% had a post-graduate qualification. Workers who had a mid-level qualification reported higher levels of JS in relation to those workers who boasted higher levels of education. Furthermore, Kh Metle (2003) mentions that JS levels decrease in relation to an increase in the level of education, as employers regularly fail to meet workforce expectations. Johnson and Johnson (2000) agree with this finding, based on their obtained results from a study conducted in the American postal services whereby 288 employees were surveyed. They found that employees who professed over-qualification had a negative association with the dimensions of JS.

#### **2.2.4.4 Tenure**

The number of years a worker has spent working is referred to as tenure. JS has been found to have a U-shaped correlation with tenure (Oshagbemi, 2003). This means that worker JS decreases inside the first year of employment and remains low for a number of years, thereafter increasing. He also says that worker outlooks are high at the time when they are appointed but, when these expectations are not met, the consequential outcome leads to a slump in JS (Oshagbemi, 2003). As the worker matures and becomes more knowledgeable, the early outlook decreases to a reasonable level and, in doing so, makes their outlook more achievable, resulting in increased JS levels (Robbins, et al., 2003).

Studies by Mottaz (1988) on nurses in the United States of America found that there was an increase in JS relating to a worker's length of time at a job. Clarke, Oswald and Warr (1996) argue that longer service workers may experience higher levels of JS because their job matches their personal needs. Sarker, Crossman and Chinmeteepituck (2003) add that workers with long service are inclined to alter their job values to the conditions of their place of work, ensuring greater JS levels. Oshagbemi (2000) found that the rise in JS levels over the duration of time was due to factors such as opportunities for promotion and job stability.

Opposing the above statements, Sarker, et al. (2003) argue that long occupancy in a job may result in dullness and lesser levels of JS. Equally, Clarke, et al. (1996) state that increased levels of JS are not as a result of longer tenures. The authors cite external labour market circumstances and low job mobility as probable factors that contribute to lower JS levels.

#### **2.2.4.5 Age**

Mixed facts exist regarding the correlation between JS and age (Robbins, et al., 2003). Greenberg and Baron (1995) state that older workers are normally happier with their work than younger workers, while individuals that are veterans in their jobs are highly satisfied in comparison to those that are less experienced. Drafke and Kossen (2002) support this view, stating that JS usually increases with age as older employees have more work experience. Older employees generally have a more realistic view of work and life when compared to

their younger counterparts. Robbins, et al. (2003) state that, although most studies specify a positive association between JS and age, other research reflects a decrease in JS levels as workers move towards middle age that can last up to the age of 60. Typically, JS levels increase again from around the age of 40.

Oshagbemi (2003) states a number of reasons for the difference in JS among younger and older workers. Younger workers are usually more disgruntled than older workers because their jobs are not stimulating enough. The researcher says that older employees have more work experience and seniority. This enables them to move easily into more satisfying and rewarding jobs. Furthermore, older employees do not place as much importance on autonomy or promotion; consequently they require less from their work. This results in older workers being more satisfied than their younger counterparts. Employees tend to adapt to work ideals and the work environment the longer they work, resulting in greater levels of JS (Oshagbemi, 2003).

#### **2.2.4.6 Marital status**

Investigation into the consequences of marital status on JS has yielded unconvincing results (Robbins, et al., 2003). The results of research conducted by Kuo and Chen (2004), which investigated the intensity of JS amongst IT personnel working in Taiwan, found marital status to be highly related to intrinsic, general and overall satisfaction. They reported that the results of the research indicated that married workers experience higher levels of JS when compared to single employees. Research done by Cimete, Gencalp and Keskin (2003), which involved 501 nurses working at two university hospitals in Istanbul, established that the JS mean score of divorcees and widows was higher than that of single and married groups. The discrepancy between the mean scores was considerable.

#### **2.2.5 Criticism of job satisfaction**

Not many researchers have criticised the construct of JS as a whole. However, the two-factor theory is criticised for deducing conclusions. Tietjen and Myers (1998) conclude that the two-factor theory:

- i. Fails to test the main propositions; and
- ii. Is methodologically flawed.

Regarding the first disapproval, there is inadequate evidence to express how hygiene and motivator factors relate to JS (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Although the study established that workers tended to be reminded of motivator factors when recalling good times, and of hygiene factors when recalling bad times, there is no empirical proof for the suggestion that motivator factors can only contribute to JS and that hygiene factors can only contribute to job dissatisfaction (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). The research did not measure JS and there is no basis for concluding that the factors described in the incidents were even related to JS (Malik & Naeem, 2012).

Regarding the second criticism of Herzberg, et al. (1959), concerning the methodology of the study, several problems have been identified (Malik & Naeem, 2012). These include:

1. Some of the findings disagree with the theory;
2. The conclusion differs depending on the method of data collection; and
3. The hypotheses and criterion measures are vague.

### **2.2.6 Consequences of job satisfaction**

A general worry for management is what the result will be, should a worker be satisfied or dissatisfied, and what the overall effect of this will be on the company. There is adequate evidence to indicate that JS or dissatisfaction can have positive or negative consequences for workers. Care must be exercised not to create stereotypes since satisfaction/dissatisfaction is concerned with people (Locke, 1976). The following sections will briefly discuss factors that stress the consequences of JS, as stated by Arnold and Feldman (1996).



### **2.2.6.1 Productivity**

The saying “a happy worker is a productive worker”, is not really true. In reality, it is productivity that leads to satisfaction (Arnold & Feldman, 1996). Moreover, four decades of studies into this subject argue that a satisfied employee is not a productive employee for two reasons (Arnold & Feldman, 1996).

Firstly, there exists an association between job performance and JS. Empirical research findings have indicated that these two variables are not closely related to each other. For instance, the condition of the work equipment or the workers’ own abilities have a greater impact on how much one can produce than his or her JS does.

Secondly, there is adequate evidence to show that job performance results in JS. The above fact indicates that a worker will look forward to being remunerated accordingly and equitably acknowledged for his outstanding efforts and performance, both extrinsically and intrinsically. If he/she is not rightly rewarded, this will leave the worker dissatisfied. For example, an instructor is promised at his first job interview that a special increase in remuneration will be awarded to staff that achieve above expected standards. If this applicant meets all the requirements and does not receive his/her alleged reward, this could lead him/her to be dissatisfied.

### **2.2.6.2 Turnover**

McShane and Glinow (2003) assert that if the levels of JS are constantly low then workers are more likely to leave their jobs. Furthermore, institutions with insignificant satisfaction levels succumb to higher turnover rates (Newstrom & Davis, 1997). Turnover is of major concern for management because it can have an incredible impact on normal operations. Job dissatisfaction, which forces employees out of their current jobs, has a greater effect on turnover than incentives that attract them into new ones (McShane & Von Glinow, 2003). Newstrom and Davis (1997) have a difference of opinion, stating that there can be various positive outcomes ensuing from turnover. This could lead to in-house promotions and selection of new job incumbents. Together with retaining and attracting their workers,

organisations must guarantee that their entire workforce is regularly present at their jobs – this will be discussed in the subsequent section.

#### **2.2.6.3 Absenteeism**

According to Robbins (2001), a negative correlation exists between absenteeism and satisfaction. Employees who experience low JS are inclined to be absent more often. A high rate of absenteeism will result in a large financial load for management in terms of performance and productivity (Arnold & Feldman, 1996). On the other hand, absenteeism may be due to other justifiable causes such as personal or medical reasons (Robbins, 2001). Baron and Greenberg (2003) point out that other reasons for absenteeism need to be investigated by the human resource division. One cannot overlook that absenteeism may be due to the worker having poor superior or co-worker relationships, or a strong dislike of the job itself (Baron & Greenberg, 2003).

#### **2.2.6.4 Union activity**

Bender and Sloane (1998) indicate that membership numbers of different unions have shown a significant increase. According to Arnold and Feldman (1996), in a significant study of union organisations, researchers found that employees will join a union largely based on their dissatisfaction with working circumstances and their apparent lack of influence to adjust to those conditions. Bender and Sloane (1998) state that employees become troubled by arbitrary and impulsive discipline, poor pay, and poor and unsafe working conditions. This can lead to combined action or unionisation, which may be regarded as the best solution to their grievances.

#### **2.2.6.5 Deviant behaviours**

The employees feel dissatisfaction the question is then raised, how can staff convey these feelings? Some of the ways are as follows (Arnold & Feldman, 1996):

- Steal from, or act negligent towards, the companies' property or assets.
- Avoid or perform their duties in a disorganised manner.
- They may be rebellious.
- They may influence others negatively, thereby decreasing the general morale of the establishment.

It can be concluded that the consequences of JS can lead to personnel being dissatisfied with their jobs; which can be expressed in a variety of ways (Robbins, 2001).

#### ***2.2.6.6 Physical and psychological health***

Spector (1997) states that persons who detest their jobs can experience negative health effects that are either psychological or physical. On the other hand, Luthans (2002) mentions that workers with high levels of JS tend to display better mental and physical health.

#### **2.2.7 Increasing or improving job satisfaction**

An applied organisational investigation has shown that there are definite steps that managers can take to dramatically increase worker JS (Powell, 2012). Perceptions of a number of attributes of jobs and organisations are constantly correlated with affective commitment and JS, signifying that these attributes might be levers for organisations wishing to improve JS in the place of work (Fisher, 2010). Explicit, if idealistic, suggestions include the following:

- Create a respectful, healthy and supportive organisational culture.
- Supply capable leadership at all levels.
- Provide recognition, fair treatment and security.
- Design jobs to be autonomous, interesting, challenging and rich in feedback.
- Facilitate skill growth to improve competency and allow growth.
- Select for individual-organisation and individual-job fit.
- Develop the abovementioned fit through the use of realistic job previews and socialisation practices.
- Decrease minor hassles and increase every day uplifts.

- Persuade workers to reframe a current less-than-perfect work environment as acceptable.
- Take up high-performance work practices.

## 2.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

### 2.3.1 Organisational citizenship behaviour defined

OCB has undergone slight definitional revisions since the term was founded in the late 1980s, but the construct remains the same at its core. Organ (1988) defines OCB as a single behaviour that is discretionary, not explicitly or frankly recognised by the formal remuneration system and that generally promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. The behaviour is not an enforceable condition of the role or job description. In terms of the worker's employment contract with the company the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice (Organ, 1997). Hence its exclusion is not generally understood as punishable.

In trying to further define OCB, Organ (1988) highlights five precise dimensions of discretionary behaviour and explains how each helps to improve effectiveness in the organisation.

1. *Altruism* is typically directed toward other people but contributes to group efficiency by improving individuals' performance. It may include voluntary actions that aid others who are behind in their work or absent from the workplace.
2. *Conscientiousness* enhances the efficiency of an individual and the group. It includes promptness in attendance, utilisation of work time and obedience to rules.
3. *Sportsmanship* improves the amount of time spent on productive endeavours in the organisation. It includes putting up with slight hassles and not continuously finding fault with the organisation.
4. *Courtesy* helps thwart problems and facilitates constructive use of time. It involves consulting any parties that may be affected by a decision or notifying people in advance of such actions.
5. *Civic virtue* promotes the interests of the organisation. It incorporates being actively involved in the progression of the organisation.

OCB is conceptualised as equal with the notion of contextual performance; it is defined as the act that supports the social and psychological surroundings in which job performance takes place (Organ, 1997). The idiomatic understanding of OCB as going 'above and beyond' or 'going the extra mile' to help people at work is an idea that numerous people are familiar with. These are an accepted way of understanding OCB (Organ and Ryan, 1995). Classic examples of OCB consist of offering to help a novice become familiar with his/her role and the workplace, volunteering to change shifts, or helping a colleague who may be struggling with deadlines. Essentially, OCB also consists of organisational-related acts such as working overtime devoid of (expectation of) remuneration, or volunteering to arrange office-wide events (Organ & Konosky, 1989).

### ***2.3.1.1 Citizenship behaviours directed toward individuals (OCBI)***

OCBI refers to behaviours that immediately benefit specific persons within a company and in turn contribute indirectly to company efficiency (Lee and Allen, 2002; Williams and Anderson, 1991). Podsakoff, et al. (2000) categorise this aspect as a helping behaviour and define it as willingly helping others with work-related troubles. While other researchers have researched this class of behaviour in numerous ways, all definitions are similar to Williams and Anderson's.

### ***2.3.1.2 Citizenship behaviours directed towards the organisation (OCBO)***

The second measurement of OCB includes behaviours benefiting the company, without deeds being aimed toward any organisational employee or employees in particular (e.g. volunteering for committees, adhering to informal rules). Podsakoff, et al. (2000) characterise this as organisational conformity as it involves an internalisation of organisational rules and policies. In addition, Williams and Anderson (1991) define these actions as behaviours that are advantageous to the company in general. These behaviours comprise of giving prior notice concerning an absence from work or casually adhering to rules intended to maintain order.

### **2.3.2 Origin of organisational citizenship behaviour**

OCB as a notion is now almost three decades old. (Singh, 2007). According to Cohen and Kol (2004) the idea was started in the work of Katz and Kahn (1978) that recognised three types of behaviours necessary from workers for the efficient operation of an organisation. These were the choice to join and stay in the company; the performance of set roles in a reliable manner; and the responsibility of innovative and unprompted activities beyond the agreed role requirements.

The last of these was labelled as extra-role behaviour by Katz (1964) or OCB by Bateman and Organ (1983). The latter term was intended to signify company-helpful behaviours and gestures that can neither be imposed on the foundation of prescribed role obligations nor elicited by a contractual assurance of compensation. The phrase OCB was consequently first introduced by Bateman and Organ (1983) as behaviour that greases the social machinery of the company and that brands workers employing such behaviours as “good citizens”.

### **2.3.3 Organisational factors related to organisational citizenship behaviour**

Regardless of the increasing interest in citizenship-like behaviour, an examination of the literature on the topic reveals a lack of agreement about the dimensionality of the OCB construct. From the assessment of the literature, thirty potentially dissimilar forms of citizenship behaviour have been recognised (Podsakoff, et al., 2000). However, there is a large theoretical overlap among the constructs. Podsakoff, et al. (2000) structures these overlaps into seven general themes or dimensions, discussed below.

#### ***2.3.3.1 Helping behaviour***

Helping behaviour has been recognised as a vital form of citizenship behaviour by a number of researchers who have done studies in this area (Organ, 1988). Theoretically, helping behaviour embroils voluntarily helping others with, or preventing, work-associated problems. The first part of this classification (helping others with work-related problems) includes

Organ's cheerleading dimensions, altruism and peacemaking. The second element of the meaning captures Organ's (1988) concept of courtesy, which entails helping others by taking measures to avoid the formation of inconvenience for co-workers.

### **2.3.3.2 Sportsmanship**

Sportsmanship is a type of citizenship behaviour that has received less consideration in literature. Organ (1988) defines sportsmanship as a keenness to bear the unavoidable inconveniences and impositions of employment without complaining. Nevertheless, this definition seems narrower than generally understood. Good sportsmanship is characterised by a person not complaining when inconvenienced by others. It also comprises of maintaining a positive outlook even when situations do not go their way. These persons are not hurt when others do not pursue their suggestions, are prepared to forgo their individual interest for the good of the employment group and do not take the refusal of their ideas personally (Podsakoff, et al., 2009).

### **2.3.3.3 Organisational loyalty**

Organisational loyalty refers to the dispersal of goodwill, and shielding of the company. This includes defending, endorsing and supporting organisational objectives. Fundamentally, organisational loyalty entails protecting and defending the organisation against external threats, promoting the organisation to outsiders and remaining loyal to it even under difficult conditions (Graham, 1991).

### **2.3.3.4 Organisational compliance**

Organisational compliance refers to an individual's internalisation and approval of the company's procedures, rules and regulations. This results in a meticulous adherence to them, even when no one is observing or monitoring this conformity (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). The rationale behind regarding this behaviour as a form of citizenship behaviour is that, even if everyone is expected to obey business regulations, procedures and

rules at all times, numerous workers simply do not. Therefore, a worker who dutifully obeys all regulations and rules, even whilst no one is watching, is considered as a particularly “good citizen” (Graham, 1989:255).

#### **2.3.3.5 Individual initiative**

Individual initiative is an extra-role action in the sense that it involves voluntarily engagement in task-related behaviours at a level that is far beyond what is required or generally expected (Organ, 1998). Such behaviours comprise of voluntary acts of creativity and innovation intended to advance one’s task or the company’s performance, volunteering to take on additional responsibilities, persisting with added eagerness and effort to achieve one’s job and encouraging others in the company to do the same (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). All of these behaviours share the idea that the employee is going “above and beyond” the call of duty (Jahangir, Akbar & Haq, 2004).

#### **2.3.3.6 Civic virtue**

Civic virtue includes a universal level of interest or dedication to the corporation as a whole. This is shown by an enthusiasm to partake actively in the organisation’s governance by monitoring its surroundings for threats and opportunities and looking out for its best welfare, even at large personal cost (George & Brief, 1992). These behaviours mirror a person’s appreciation of being part of a larger whole in the same way that people are members of a country and acknowledge the tasks that entails (Graham, 1989).

#### **2.3.3.7 Self development**

Self-development includes chosen behaviours that workers engage in to advance their skills, knowledge and abilities. This may include looking for and benefiting from advanced training courses and keeping up to date with the newest developments in one’s area of work. It also includes learning a new set of skills in order to expand the range of the worker’s contributions to a company (George & Brief, 1992). Fascinatingly, self-development has not received any



empirical verification in the citizenship behaviour literature. However, it does emerge as a discretionary form of worker behaviour that is theoretically distinct from the other citizenship behaviour constructs. The worker might be expected to gain better organisational effectiveness through various mechanisms other than the dimensions of citizenship behaviour (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

### **2.3.4 Biographical factors related to OCB**

Insufficient research has been done on OCB and demographic variables. Research regarding demographic variables and OCB has mostly been fixed on gender and age with modest research being done on other factors such as job level and tenure.

#### **2.3.4.1 Gender**

Studies on gender and OCB have produced results that point out that females engage more in OCB than males (Kidder, 2002). Alternatively, it suggests that females and males engage in different types of OCB (Allen & Rush, 2001). In their research, Allen and Rush (2001) hypothesised that persons recognise women as participating in OCB in general more regularly than men. They assigned student participants to one of three job situations (gender-neutral, masculine and feminine) and one of two worker gender conditions. Participants rated ten task behaviours for their assigned job and ten OCBs with regard to the possibility that a female or male worker would participate in the given behaviour.

Results showed that, in general, women were seen as more likely to participate in OCB than men. The results of the research by Allen and Rush (2001) can also be explained in relation to the argument by Kark and Waismel-Manor (2005) who contend that women participate in OCB more than men because women are characteristically perceived as concerned with the wellbeing of others, as compassionate and considerate of others, and as holding an elevated level of sympathy and empathy. Such qualities are expected to aid in helping behaviours. From another point of analysis, studies on gender and OCB also indicate that males and females participate in dissimilar types of OCB (Kidder, 2002).

Kidder (2002) asserts that studies suggest that women are expected to participate in the helping aspect of OCB whereas men are expected to participate in the civic virtue aspect. According to Farrell and Finkelstein (2007), in three laboratory studies conducted to test the theories that observers expect workers to participate in gender congruent OCB and that, when exhibited, observers are more likely to attribute gender in coinciding OCB than gender coinciding OCB to impression management motives. Results showed that OCB was found more commonly in women than in men. Only under specific circumstances was OCB civic virtue behaviour expected more from men (Farrell & Finkelstein, 2007). The different results of these studies make the true nature of the correlation between gender and OCB unspecified. In this regard more studies can be done to determine the true nature of the association.

#### **2.3.4.2 Respondent age**

In their research, Kuehn and Al Busaidi (2002) establish age as being notably related to OCB. They established that older adults are inclined to conduct themselves on the foundation of meeting moral and mutual obligations or internal standards whilst younger adults have a more transactional focus. Likewise, Wagner and Rush (2000) established that OCB differs between younger and older adults. They found that fair treatment is a main concern for younger workers whereas older employees have a more inherent value for helping others and may provide assistance out of a norm of compassion. Thus, OCB is more common in older workers than younger ones.

On the contrary, Chattopadhyay (1999) contends that OCB is found more in young employees than in older ones. Chattopadhyay (1999) argues that younger workers may participate in OCB to find favour with more permanent older workers so as to be noticed. Alternatively, older workers would see no requirement to prove themselves to younger workers. These deeds would lead to the observed positive correlation between age variation and OCB for younger workers. Furthermore, Finkelstein, Burke and Raju (1995) dispute that younger workers view colleagues of a related age as more capable and skilful than older workers. The younger workers consequently feel that it will be more complicated for them to be rewarded and noticed by their supervisors if their colleagues are more alike in age, as they feel that they encounter greater competition. To be recognised by their supervisors, younger workers then participate in extra role behaviour.

The different results on the correlation between age and OCB make the correct nature of the relationship doubtful to scholars. For the benefit of company effectiveness and efficiency, managers must ensure that processes are established that allow for all employees in the company to participate in OCB.

### **2.3.5 Criticisms of, and controversies around, OCB**

There are three vital attributes to the OCB make-up: contribution to company effectiveness; discretionary; and no prescribed rewards associated. However, its optional and non-contractual incentive attributes have developed into the target of critics (e.g. Morrison, 1994; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter, 1991).

Morrison (1994) criticises Organ's (1988) OCB explanation on the basis of its stress on the discretionary attribute. According to Morrison, workers may hold dissimilar views about their work responsibilities and may be different from each other in defining the border between what is extra-role and in-role behaviour. Specifically, whereas coming to work early is extra-role behaviour for a worker, the other workers may perceive it as in-role behaviour. Thus, participating in OCB depends on how the worker defines his/her work. Morrison (1994) also reports that 18 out of 20 OCB items were viewed as in-role behaviours by the bulk of the respondents of her research. Consequently, from Morrison's viewpoint, OCB is "ill defined and varies from one worker to the next and between workers and supervisors". Organ (1997) evaluated Morrison's disapproval and concluded that, like roles, jobs are changing as a result of downsizing, flattening, team-based and flexform companies. For this reason, the definitions of work may be whatever is necessary in the place of work. Hence, Organ (1997) chose to avoid mentioning extra-role behaviours.

Another criticism focussed on the OCB construct is based on the subject of rewards. According to MacKenzie, et al. (1991), some OCBs might be financially compensated as if they are in-role performance elements. Organ (1997) admits the accuracy of these criticisms and concludes that, of the three important conditions for OCB, one is left – contribution to organisational effectiveness. Consequently, Organ (1997:85) redefined OCB as contributions to the enhancement and maintenance of the social and psychological context that supports

task performance without referring to the “unrewarded by the system”, “extra-role” and “beyond the job” characteristics of OCB.

### **2.3.6 Consequences of OCB**

OCB has been revealed to have a positive impact on worker wellbeing and performance, and this sequentially has positive effects for a company. The effects on worker performance are threefold (Podsakoff, et al., 2009). Firstly, employees who participate in OCB tend to obtain better performance ratings by their managers. This could be because workers who participate in OCB are basically liked more and perceived more favourably. It may also be due to other work-related reasons, for instance the manager’s belief that OCB plays a significant role in the company’s overall achievement. Secondly, an improved performance rating is linked to the attainment of rewards such as bonuses, pay increments, work-related benefits or promotions. Thirdly, because these workers have better performance ratings and receive greater compensation, they will have a lower chance of being laid off if the corporation downsizes, e.g. during an economic recession.

Jahangir, et al. (2004) offer the following reasons as to why OCB seems to contain such persuasive effects on the success of a company and the individual. OCB can:

- Improve productivity (helping peers meet deadlines; helping new employees).
- Free up resources (autonomous, cooperative workers give managers extra time to finalise their own work; helpful deeds facilitate cohesiveness).
- Retain and attract good workers (through maintaining and creating a pleasant, helpful working environment and a sense of belonging).
- Create communal capital (stronger networks and better communication networks assist precise information transfer and improve effectiveness).

In service organisations, service quality is the most important factor in order to maintain and acquire new customers. Yen and Niehoff (2004) have noted that OCBs might also influence external efficiency measures, such as customer satisfaction. They dispute that workers who display altruism should promote cooperation and teamwork among employees and that this improved assistance ought to allow the group to deliver their services or goods more

effectively, leading to increased customer satisfaction. Additionally, they note that more courteous and conscientious workers boost customer satisfaction as these workers will stay up-to-date and more informed regarding the services and products the business offers.

Yen and Niehoff (2004) argue that workers who display civic virtue or voice their behaviour by providing ideas on how to advance customer service should also enhance customer satisfaction. Workers who assist the team to deal efficiently with conflicts (peacekeeping) and shun making trivial complaints (sportsmanship) should help the team focus its energies on customer-service-related activities, as this leads to increased customer satisfaction. Consistent with these points of view, researchers have reported that OCBs are linked to customer satisfaction.

## **2.4 Relationship between Job Satisfaction and OCB**

### **2.4.1 Relationship between the consolidated constructs**

JS is one feature of workers' attitudes at the workplace that is supposed to be associated with OCB. According to Gadot and Cohen (2004), the common theory behind this correlation is that only extremely satisfied workers are likely to participate in OCB because of a give-and-take exchange correlation. Numerous studies have been conducted in an attempt to determine the association between JS and OCB (Murphy, Athanasou and Neville, 2002; Organ and Konovsky, 1989, Bateman and Organ, 1983). Nevertheless, findings obtained in these studies have fashioned different results. A large amount of the studies have determined a strong relationship between JS and OCB, while some have formed a relationship to some of the dimensions of OCB, and others present no relationship.

In their research, Organ and Konovsky (1989) established that JS is the strongest measure that relates to OCB. Likewise, Bateman and Organ (1983) also found a noteworthy association between JS and OCB. This is the same as Murphy, et al. (2002) who, after conducting their research in Australia, reported positive associations between JS and OCB. From their results, Murphy, et al. (2002) stressed that management has to focus on OCB to sustain a competitive advantage for the company. This is because OCB has been recognised as actions that lead to the efficient operation of a company.

Unal's (2013) examination of 55 studies shows a strong association between JS and OCB, at least between non-managerial and non-professional groups. Attitudinal measures, such as perceived organisational commitment, fairness and leader supportiveness connect with OCB at roughly a similar level as satisfaction (Organ & Ryan, 1995). In agreement with Organ and Ryan (1995), Podsakoff, et al. (1990) state that perceptions of fairness, JS and organisational commitment have a positive relationship with citizenship behaviours. Koys' (2001) research shows that there is a significant relationship between OCB and first and second year employees' levels of worker satisfaction (Koys, 2001). Research on Egyptian managers showed that OCB was positively related with overall JS. But noteworthy relationships with other proportions (growth, social, pay and security) of JS were not established (Parnell & Crandall, 2003).

From this dialogue it can be shown that the occurrence of JS is a significant factor in the achievement of OCB. Companies should consequently certify that they put processes in place that assist the occurrence of JS. This is owed to the fact that JS impacts positively on OCB either as a factor or a moderating consequence.

Although studies have indicated that JS has a positive impact on OCB, some researchers are unconvinced of the association involving the two. This is due to the fact that some research results have shown that JS is not associated with OCB. Alotaibi (2001) establishes that JS is not linked to OCB. In an effort to clarify why JS is not associated to OCB, Alotaibi (2001) argues that the different findings between the two variables could be due to the nature of the JS measures. Organ (1997) claims that when OCB, JS and perceptions of fairness are measured jointly, the perception of fairness explains a raise in variance in OCB. In their study, Scholl, Cooper & McKenna (1987) established that pay equity related  $r = 0.41$  with OCB, while the association of pay satisfaction with OCB was  $r = 0.19$ . The study therefore suggests that, according to Scholl, et al. (1987), equality is a predictor of OCB, whereas JS is not.

The findings of these studies, which propose that JS is not related to OCB, produces a viewpoint that contrasts the common hypothesis that JS impacts positively on OCB. Nevertheless, it is obvious that the common assumption that JS is associated with OCB still has value. Investigation has revealed that JS is associated with OCB in various ways, ranging from the connection to dimensions of OCB, to JS behaving as a moderating factor

that assists the achievement of OCB. Although there is overwhelming proof that JS impacts positively on OCB, more studies must be conducted on this association as investigations have also confirmed that an association between the two variables is elusive.

#### **2.4.2 Relationships between the dimensions of the constructs**

Williams and Anderson (1991) observed that two aspects of JS are differently correlated to OCB variable. The extrinsic element (which consists of pay cognitions) predicted OCB-organisational. But the intrinsic element predicted OCB-individual (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Research on teachers showed that JS was not a large predictor of OCB (Mogotsi, 2009). A different study on teachers observed that intrinsic and extrinsic JS was related to OCB. Intrinsic JS was a contributing variable, which manipulates OCB directly and indirectly through the partial mediating role of value devotion (Zeinabadi, 2010).

Fatimah, Amiraa and Halim, (2011) also did research on teachers that resulted in a significant positive association between OCB and JS. Four factors of OCB are related to JS, excluding courtesy. Findings also showed that civic virtue and altruism contributed to JS. The other three dimensions of OCB did not contribute considerably. Lee and Allen (2002) observed that intrinsic satisfaction is positively associated with OCBO but not OCBI. Schnake, Cochran, & Dumler (1995) observed that intrinsic JS was related to all five dimensions of OCB and extrinsic JS was related to four dimension of OCB excluding courtesy. JS exhibited an incremental effect further than the effects of leader behaviours and supposed equity on only two of the five OCB dimensions, namely conscientiousness and altruism (Schnake, et al., 1995).

Organ and Ryan (1995) investigated the association between JS and OCB and note that there is a meek association of JSs with that of altruism. They also found that sportsmanship; civic virtue and courtesy are adequate predictors of satisfaction. However, civic virtue is less associated with satisfaction than other OCB measures. Alternatively, Konovsky and Organ (1996) analysed dispositional factors and their association as to predict OCB. They observed a sufficient variance by conscientiousness in at least three dimensions of OCB (compliance, civic virtue and altruism). This result put forward an empirical report that dispositional factors, particularly conscientiousness, are strongly associated to the three dimensions of OCB.

## **2.5 Conclusion**

This chapter introduced the concept of JS and reviewed various relevant theories. The literature review reveals that JS is significant to both workers and managers. Finally, the concept of OCB was introduced and the researcher explored the importance of “extra role behaviour”. Furthermore, various definitions and factors that influence OCB, and the consequences of OCB, were reviewed and presented. In conclusion, a brief review of the relationship between the JS and OCB was provided.



## **CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter details the research methodology used in the research of the association involving JS and OCB. It focuses on sampling methods and measuring instruments. Issues pertaining to reliability and validity of the measuring instrument are discussed. The methodology used to collect the data in this study is also mentioned. The measuring instrument was in the form of a questionnaire, which consisted of three sections, namely a biographical questionnaire, the job diagnostic survey (JDS), and a questionnaire on OCB.

### **3.2 Population and Sample**

According to McClendon (2004), the respondents of a research study are the total number of potential units or elements that are incorporated into the study. It is the collective of all units that have a likelihood of being incorporated into the group to be studied. The population of this research consists of the approximately 180 workers at the government office in the Western Cape. The researcher attempted to get at least 120 responses, as suggested by Sekaran's (2003) table for determining sample sizes from a given population. However, due to challenges with staff reluctance to participate, only 105 completed questionnaires ( $n = 105$ ) were obtained.

A non-probability sampling plan was used, based on the technique of convenience. In convenience sampling, the choice of units from the sample is based on simple accessibility (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Sekaran (2003) notes that the elements in the sample had no probabilities attached to them being chosen as sample subjects. The population comprised of those sample elements that could be studied with ease.

### **3.3 Procedure for Data Gathering**

The researcher received permission from the CEO of a government office in the Western Cape to conduct the research. An information letter accompanied each research questionnaire explaining the purpose and nature of the research. Participants were encouraged to keep this letter. The contents of the letter focussed on the fact that participation was voluntary, anonymous and confidential as participants were not required to provide their names or identification numbers. Furthermore, respondents were asked to sign a consent form to partake in the study. The informed consent forms were gathered in a separate submission box in order to ensure employees' anonymity.

The questionnaires were given to each participant individually. The researcher explained the context and how the questionnaire should be completed to each participant in the respective departments. The questionnaire had a covering page explaining the nature of the study. It further promised absolute anonymity of each respondent. To obtain the required responses, the researcher spent three days at the government office. The completed responses were collected the same day. For the purpose of this research a sum of one hundred and fifty (150) questionnaires were handed out. A total of one hundred and five (105) questionnaires were returned, constituting a reply of 70%. This response rate is considered satisfactory for this research, as Sekaran (2003) argues that a reply of thirty percent (30%) is considered suitable for most study purposes.

### **3.4 Measuring Instruments**

Questionnaires were used for data-gathering purposes in this research. According to Weiers (1998), the benefits of using questionnaires include the cost per questionnaire being relatively low, and the analysing of questionnaires is relatively straightforward due to their structure. Questionnaires also provide respondents with sufficient time to formulate accurate answers. Some of the disadvantages of utilising questionnaires relate to the non-responsiveness to some items within the questionnaire. Added to this, respondents might fail to return the questionnaire, making generalisation from the sample to population a challenge.

The questionnaire utilised in the current research consisted of three sections:

- Section A: Biographical questionnaire
- Section B: Job diagnostic survey (JDS)
- Section C: OCB questionnaire

### **3.4.1 Biographical questionnaire**

The purpose of the biographical questionnaire was to obtain descriptive information about the demographic composition of the sample, e.g. gender, age, salary and so forth. Understanding the demographic characteristics is useful for understanding the sample of participants and these were used to describe differences in JS and OCB based on the demographic characteristics.

### **3.4.2 Job diagnostic survey (JDS)**

The job diagnostic survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1974) is an apparatus that was developed to quantify the effects of job characteristics on individuals (Spector, 1997). The instrument contains subscales to gauge the nature of motivation for the job and job tasks, personality, reaction to the job, and psychological states (cognitions and feelings about the tasks). According to Chelladurai (2006), participants in the JDS sample express their satisfaction with parts of their job by answering on a seven point Likert scale ranging from 1, representing 'strongly disagree', to 7, representing 'strongly agree'.

The overall JS is measured by three dimensions, which are general satisfaction (five items), internal work motivation (six items), and growth satisfaction (four items). These dimensions are frequently combined into a composite measure of JS. For example one of the general satisfaction items is, I'm generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job. And an example of one of the internal work motivation item is, I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.

### **3.4.2.1 Reliability of the Job Diagnostic Survey**

The JDS is a reliable measuring instrument (Spector 1997). Miner (2007) asserts that the instrument reported reliabilities of scales ranging from 0.56 to 0.88 with an average reliability of 0.72. Coefficient alpha for the measure consisting of general satisfaction, internal work motivation and growth satisfaction ranged from 0.55 - 0.92 (Mannheim, Baruch & Tal, 1997). General satisfaction had a coefficient alpha of 0.77, internal work motivation had an alpha of 0.67 and growth satisfaction had an alpha of 0.85 (Munz, Huelsman, Konold & McKinney, 1996).

Boonzaaier and Boonzaaier (1993) studied the JDS in a South African environment. They obtained results that reveal that the JDS is applicable to South African companies and that it satisfies the fundamental needs of validity and reliability for use. Nevertheless, they only researched the relationship between satisfaction, job characteristics and motivation on the job.

### **3.4.2.2 Validity of the job diagnostic survey**

Miner (2007) says that the instrument does not differentiate between different jobs when considering validity. Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek & Frings-Dresen. (2003) noted convergent validity of the JDS ranging from 0.32 to 0.71 and discriminant validity ranging from 0.12 to 0.28 when researching validity and reliability of instruments measuring JS. These results point out that the JDS has an excellent validity rate. Conversely, numerous inconsistencies have been acknowledged in the JDS's factor make-up. Lee and Klein (1982) reported that workers at dissimilar job levels know the complex layout of some of the JDS items in different ways. Lee and Klein (1982) methodically compared the factor structure between occupational categories and noted that the JDS structures were not proportional across occupational groups. Fried and Ferris (1986) also noted irregularities and proposed that the respondents' level of position, age and level of education can influence the factor make-up.

### **3.4.3 OCB questionnaire**

Podsakoff, et al (1990) developed a measure for OCB. The measure uses 24 items to describe five dimensions of OCB. These dimensions are altruism (five items), sportsmanship (five items), conscientiousness (five items), courtesy (five items), and civic virtue (four items). These dimensions were measured on a seven point Likert scale with a range of, 1 meaning 'strongly disagree', to 7 meaning 'strongly agree'. For example one of the altruism items is, always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her. And an example of one of the courtesy item is, takes steps to try to prevent problems with other employees.

#### ***3.4.3.1 Reliability of the OCB questionnaire***

Coefficient alpha figures range from 0.67 to 0.91 for altruism, 0.69 to 0.89 for courtesy, 0.76 to 0.89 for sportsmanship, 0.79 for conscientiousness and 0.66 to 0.90 for civic virtue. Altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy and sportsmanship correlate positively with one another. The coefficient alpha for the combined OCB instrument scale was 0.94 (Fields, 2002; Lam, Hui and Law, 1999).

#### ***3.4.3.2 Validity of the OCB scale***

Fields (2002) found that the five dimensions of OCB correlated positively with one another (Podsakoff, et al., 1990; Moorman, 1993). Klein and Verbeke (1999), as cited in Fields (2002), found that all of the OCB dimensions correlate positively with emotional exhaustion, role ambiguity, depersonalisation and reduced accomplishment. As soon as all of the items are joined into a single measure it correlates positively with organisational commitment, distributive justice, trust and procedural justice (Fields, 2002). It was further found that altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and courtesy correlate positively with in-role behaviours such as controlling expenses, providing information to others, keeping up with technical developments, JS and organisational commitment, whereas civic virtue correlated negatively with employee positive affect; and sportsmanship and courtesy correlated negatively with turnover intentions (Fields, 2002).

### **3.5 Statistical Techniques**

In the present study the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 was used to examine and present the statistics. Frequency tables and graphical illustrations were used to provide information on key demographic variables. The data analyses looked at descriptive and inferential statistics.

#### **3.5.1 Descriptive statistics**

Descriptive statistics depict raw data in an unambiguous way. This technique further enables the researcher to present numerical data in a summarised, structured and accurate way (Neuman, 2000). The descriptive statistics used in the current study to investigate the demographic variables included frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations. This study provides visual illustration of data in tabular and graphical format. According to Murphy and Davidshofer (1998), the mean refers to a compute of central tendency that offers a common depiction of the data, and what is commonly referred to as the average value of the distribution of scores. Measuring the square root of the variance is known as standard deviation. It is the standard calculation of inconsistency from the mean and a measure of dispersion (Sekaran, 2003).

#### **3.5.2 Inferential statistics**

Sekaran (2003) states that inferential statistics permit researchers to deduce, from the data through analysis, the association between two variables; differences in a variable among various subgroups; and how numerous independent variables may describe the discrepancy in a dependent variable. The subsequent inferential statistical methods were used to examine the research hypotheses.

### **3.5.2.1 The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient**

Correlation coefficient is an extensively used statistic for obtaining an index of the interaction between two variables when the interaction between the variables is linear and when the two variables related are continuous (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2002). The product-moment correlation coefficient was used to determine whether a statistically noteworthy relationship exists between:

- JS and OCB;
- The dimensions of OCB and JS;
- Age and OCB; and
- Age and JS.

The results of this analysis will show whether an association exists among variables and the direction (positive or negative) and strength of such an association.

### **3.5.2.2 Multiple regression analysis**

Multiple regressions are the most extensively used data analysis technique for calculating linear relationships between two or more factors (Hair, Babin, Money & Samuel, 2003). Ghiselli, Campbell and Zedeck (1981) note that this is able to predict differences in the dependent variables in reaction to changes in more than one independent variable. For this research, multiple regression analysis was used to determine whether the facets of JS explain a proportion of the variance in OCB.

## **3.6 Ethical Considerations**

Ethics refers to the aptness of a researcher's behaviour relative to the rights of those who become the subject of a study (Saunders, et al., 2009). The nature of, and the justification for, the study were explained to the participants. The respondents' identities and responses were kept secret. Involvement was voluntary and if participants wished to withdraw partially

or completely (at any time), the researcher respected their choice. The researcher's and the research supervisor's contact details were given to the participants, should they wish to discuss any aspect related to the research. The questionnaire consisted of reliable and valid instruments and data was gathered over three days. This ensured complete anonymity of the respondents. Thus, respondents could be assured that partaking in the research would have no negative effect on their employment.

### **3.7 Conclusion**

This chapter provided an explanation of the research plan, the sampling plan, the data-gathering method and the statistical methods that were employed to respond to the research questions of this particular research. Furthermore, explanations were given of the survey research methodology that was followed and the instrument that was used to collect data for the research. The subsequent chapter will centre on the findings obtained in the empirical examination with specific reference to the testing of the hypotheses of this research.



# CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

## 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the research. The presentation of results will start with biographical statistics that include age and tenure, gender of respondents, current position, home language and education level. The descriptive and inferential statistical results are presented thereafter, with a discussion of these results as a test of the hypothesis of the present study.

## 4.2 Biographical Statistics

Table 4.1: Age and tenure of respondents

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
<b>Age</b>	105	26	64	38.18	8.556
<b>Tenure</b>	105	1	39	9.80	8.705

In table 4.1 it is indicated that the respondents' ages ranged from 26 to 64, with the average age being 38.2. The years of service of the respondents ranged from one to 39 years, with the average being nine years with the organisation.

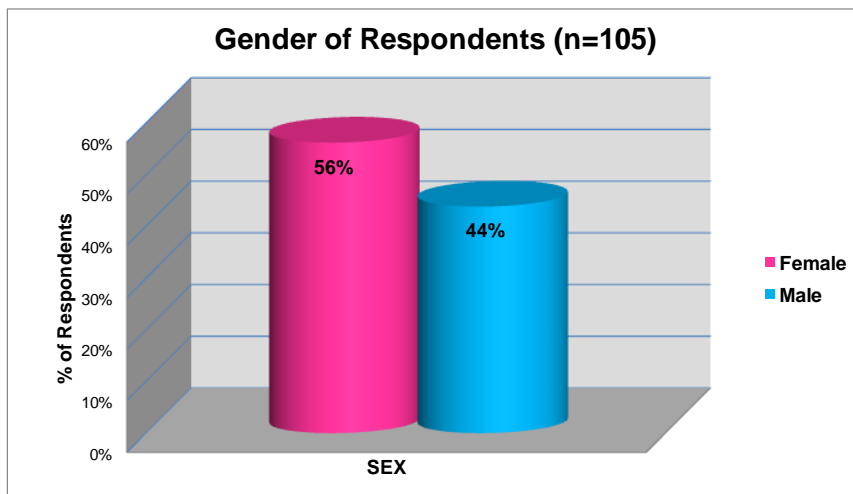


Figure 1: Gender of respondents

Figure 1 shows that 56% (n = 59) of the respondents were female and 44% (n = 46) were male.

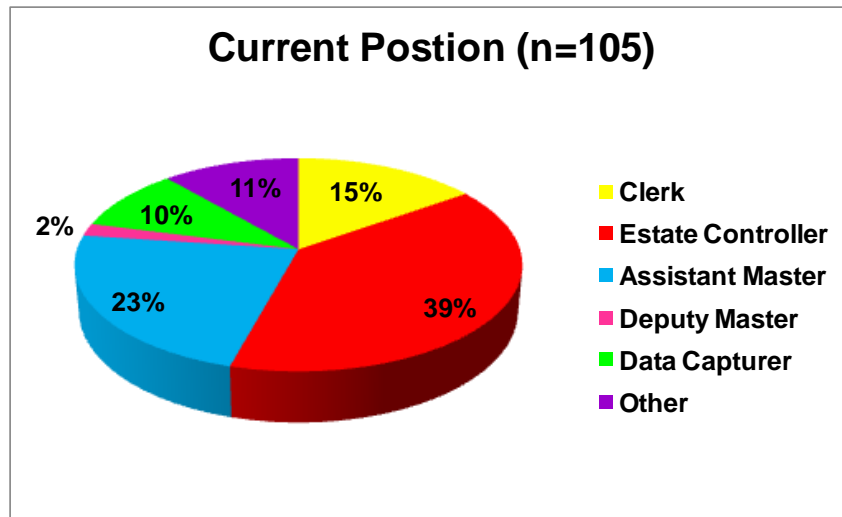


Figure 2: Current position of respondents

In figure 3 it is indicated that the majority of the respondents were estate controllers (39%, n = 41), followed by 23% (n = 24) of respondents who work as assistant masters. The rest of the sample included individuals who work as clerks (15%, n = 16), other departments (11%, n = 12) including human resources and accounts, data capturers (10%, n = 10) and deputy masters (2%, n = 2).

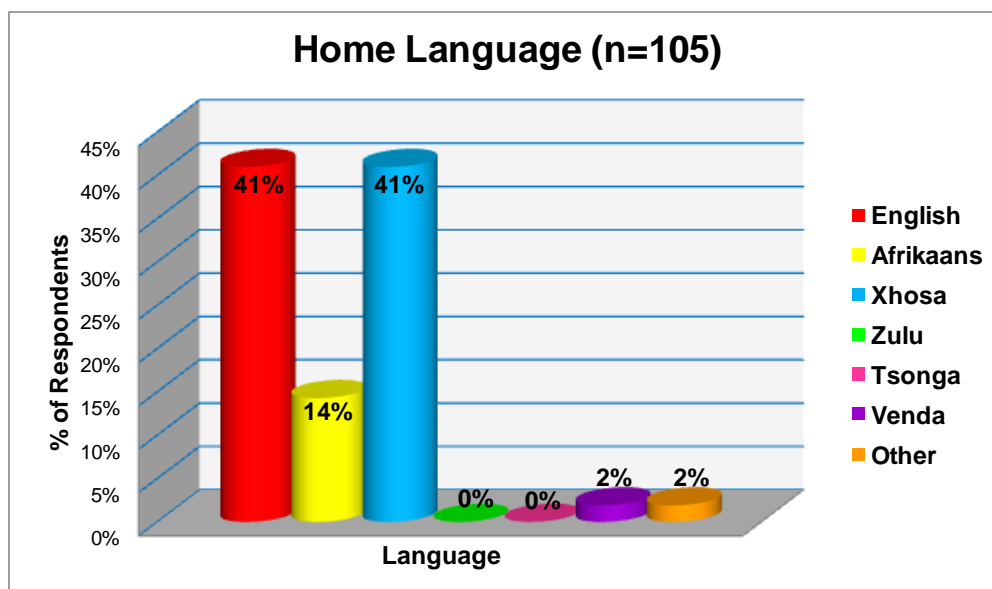


Figure 3: Home language of respondents

In figure 3 it is indicated that 41% (n = 43) of the sample spoke English and/or Xhosa. Only 14% (n = 15) spoke Afrikaans and 2% (n = 2) Venda and/or another language. Nobody spoke Zulu or Tsonga.

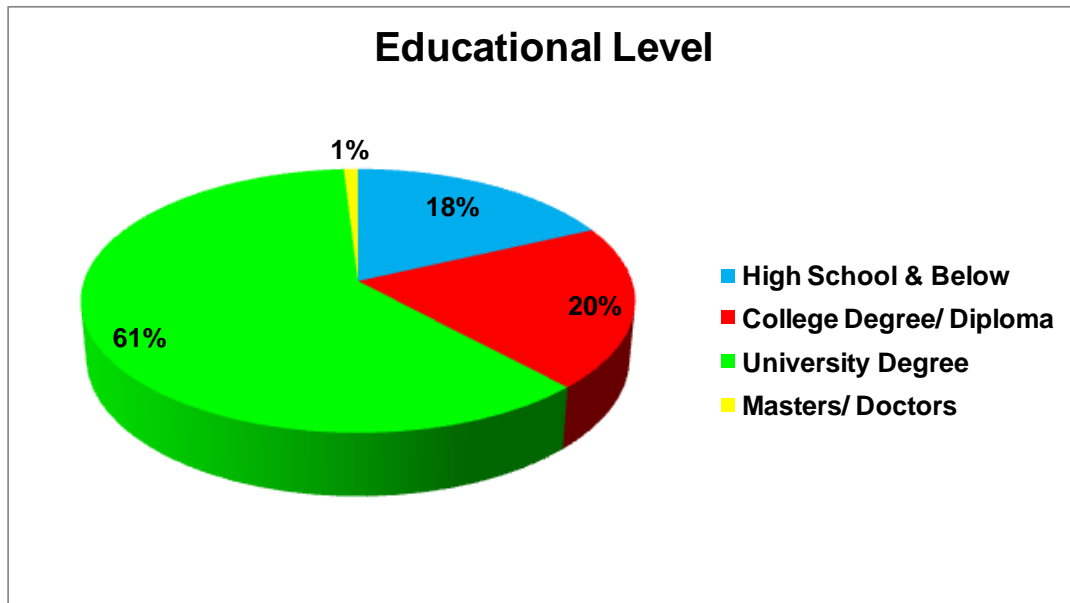


Figure 4: Education level of respondents

Figure 4 shows that 61% (n = 64) had a university degree, 20% (n = 21) had college degrees or diplomas, 18% (n = 19) of the respondents had a high school education level and 1% (n = 1) had a masters or doctoral degree.

### 4.3 Reliability Statistics

Reliability refers to how precisely a method actually measures the phenomenon being researched. Therefore, reliability means repeatability or consistency (Babbie, Mouton, Vorster & Prozesky, 2001). If the same result is obtained on repeated use, a measure is regarded as reliable, provided there is no alteration between what is being measured or between measurements (Babbie, et al., 2001). There are different interpretations of what is considered satisfactory reliability for the present study, but the categorisation by George and Mallery (2003), presented in table 4.2, will be utilised.

Table 4.2: Cronbach's Alpha Scale

Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent (High-Stakes testing)
$0.7 \leq \alpha < 0.9$	Good (Low-Stakes testing)
$0.6 \leq \alpha < 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.5 \leq \alpha < 0.6$	Poor
$\alpha < 0.5$	Unacceptable

Accordingly, a Cronbach's alpha reliability indicator of 0.7 and higher can be accepted as good. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients were calculated for the JS questionnaire and are illustrated in table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Reliability coefficients for the job satisfaction questionnaire (n = 105)

Item	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
General satisfaction	5	.692
Internal work motivation (A)	6	.474
Internal work motivation (B)	5	.631
Growth satisfaction	4	.909
Overall job satisfaction	14	.849

In table 4.3 it is indicated that all the Cronbach's alphas are of an acceptable to excellent level, except internal work motivation (A). To improve the reliability of this dimension, item 5 was excluded after examination of the total inter-item correlations. The Cronbach alpha for the internal work motivation dimension variable was recalculated with question 5 being left out. This improved the result of  $\alpha = .631$  as shown in table 4.3 as internal work motivation (B). The reliability coefficient for the overall JS scale was calculated as  $\alpha = .849$ .

Next, the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients were calculated for the OCB questionnaire.

Table 4.4: Cronbach's Alpha for organisational citizenship behaviour

Item	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Altruism	5	.890
Conscientiousness	5	.908
Sportsmanship	5	.840
Courtesy	5	.880
Civic virtue	4	.858
OCB Total	24	.942

In Table 4.4 the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the OCB questionnaire indicate good to excellent reliability. The reliability coefficients for the sub-dimensions range from .840 (sportsmanship) to .908 (conscientiousness). The reliability for the overall measure was calculated at  $\alpha = .942$ .

Based on the acceptable Cronbach reliability coefficients that were found for the JS questionnaire and the OCB questionnaire, it can be concluded that the measures are reliable for the sample of respondents from the government office.

#### 4.4 Test of Normality

Table 4.5: Results for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks Tests

Item	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
General satisfaction	.099	105	.014	.977	105	.068
Internal work motivation	.097	105	.016	.978	105	.082
Growth satisfaction	.131	105	.000	.940	105	.000
Overall job satisfaction	.078	105	.119	.973	105	.028
Altruism	.222	105	.000	.907	105	.000
Conscientiousness	.162	105	.000	.886	105	.000
Sportsmanship	.083	105	.070	.969	105	.016
Courtesy	.165	105	.000	.939	105	.000
Civic virtue	.090	105	.037	.958	105	.002
OCB total	.149	105	.000	.919	105	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The Shapiro-Wilks test was used to describe the normality of the data since the sample size is greater than 50 (Razali & Wah, 2011), i.e.  $n = 105$ . A significance value larger than 0.05 for the Shapiro-Wilks test would indicate that the data is normally distributed. In table 4.5, the significance values for growth satisfaction, altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue and total OCB are below .05. Whilst general satisfaction, internal work motivation and overall JS are over .05. This means that the data is not normally distributed for total OCB but is normally distributed for total JS. Therefore, the assumption of non-normally distributed data was utilised for the rest of the inferential data analyses.

#### 4.5 Descriptive Statistics for the Variables

Descriptive statistics were calculated to find the levels of JS and OCB for the sample. The Likert scale used in the present research offers guidelines to decide if JS or OCB levels are high, moderate or low. Items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from: 1 = Disagree strongly, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Disagree slightly, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Agree slightly, 6 = Agree, 7 = Agree strongly. The mean values for the organisation surveyed for JS and OCB are shown in table 4.5 and 4.6 below.

Table 4.6: Descriptive statistics for job satisfaction variables

##### Job Satisfaction (n=105)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
General satisfaction	1.60	7.00	4.1981	1.26810
Internal work motivation	2.20	7.00	4.6324	1.04371
Growth satisfaction	1.00	7.00	4.1667	1.74197
Overall job satisfaction	2.21	7.00	4.3442	1.06370

In table 4.6, the mean score for overall JS is 4.3 (SD = 1.06) which can be interpreted through the Likert scale rating to show that respondents mostly answered 'neutral' to 'agree slightly' for the questions relating to their experienced level of JS. Regarding the facets assessed for JS, the arithmetic means for general satisfaction, internal work motivation and growth satisfaction vary from a mean of 4.20 to 4.63. It is revealed that the participants in the

current study showed 'neutral' to 'agree slightly' levels of JS with the different facets assessed. Of these dimensions, internal work motivation had the highest mean with 4.63.

Table 4.7: Descriptive statistics for OCB variables

**Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (n=105)**

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Altruism	1.60	7.00	5.2819	1.38166
Conscientiousness	1.80	7.00	5.2133	1.36727
Sportsmanship	1.60	7.00	4.6038	1.42343
Courtesy	1.00	7.00	4.8286	1.61803
Civic virtue	1.75	7.00	4.6214	1.43619
OCB total	2.50	6.42	4.9218	1.14904

The mean for total OCB is 4.92 (SD = 1.15) as shown in table 4.7. This indicates that, based on the seven-point Likert rating scale, the respondents mostly answered 'agree slightly' to 'agree'. The arithmetic means that the facets courtesy, altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue range from 4.60 to 5.29. Thus, the participants indicated 'neutral' to 'agree slightly' levels of OCB with the different facets assessed. Altruism had the highest mean with 5.28 of the dimensions.

#### 4.6 Spearman Correlation Analysis

The following sections present the results of the inferential statistics used in the research. For the purposes of testing the known research hypotheses, non-parametric correlation analysis, namely Spearman correlation analysis, was used, as the data was not normally distributed. Table 4.8 below shows the interpretation for the Spearman analysis for the computed hypothesis results according to Rumsey (2007).

Table 4.8: Interpretation of the Spearman's Correlation Coefficient.

<b>r</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
.00 - .19	very weak
.20 - .39	weak
.40 - .59	moderate
.60 - .79	strong
.80 - 1.0	very strong

In the following section the hypotheses tested in this study will be discussed.

#### 4.6.1 Relationships between the variables

**Hypothesis 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB.**

Table 4.9: The Correlation results for the composite scores of JS and OCB (n = 105)

##### Spearman Correlation Analysis (n=105)

	<b>OCB total</b>
<b>Overall job satisfaction</b>	.447**

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

In terms of table 4.9, the results depict a moderate but positive correlation ( $r = .447$ ) between JS and OCB. Therefore, hypothesis 1 is accepted.



**Hypothesis 2: There is a statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of job satisfaction and the dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour.**

Table 4.10: The correlation results for the dimensions of job satisfaction and OCB

**Spearman Correlation Analysis (n=105)**

	<b>General satisfaction</b>	<b>Internal work motivation</b>	<b>Growth satisfaction</b>
<b>Altruism</b>	.326**	.453**	.434**
<b>Conscientiousness</b>	.270**	.335**	.374**
<b>Sportsmanship</b>	.259**	.267**	.281**
<b>Courtesy</b>	-.056	.273**	.332**
<b>Civic virtue</b>	.245*	.264**	.403**

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

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

Table 4.10 shows the Spearman correlation analysis for the dimensions of JS and OCB. The table reveals that, at a 0.01 level of significance, general satisfaction had a weak but significant positive correlation with altruism ( $r = .326$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = .270$ ), and sportsmanship ( $r = .259$ ). Internal work motivation had a moderate positive correlation with altruism ( $r = .453$ ) and a weak but positive correlation with conscientiousness ( $r = .335$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = .267$ ), courtesy ( $r = .273$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .264$ ). Growth satisfaction had a moderate positive correlation with altruism ( $r = .434$ ), courtesy ( $r = .403$ ) and civic virtue ( $r = .430$ ), and a weak but positive correlation with conscientiousness ( $r = .374$ ) and sportsmanship ( $r = .281$ ).

At a significant level of 0.05, general satisfaction had a weak but significant positive correlation with civic virtue ( $r = .245$ ). No significant correlation exists between general satisfaction and courtesy ( $r = -.056$ ).

Based on the majority of the dimensions that have a statistically significant relationship, hypothesis 2 is accepted.

**Hypothesis 3: The dimensions of job satisfaction (growth satisfaction, internal work motivation and general satisfaction) explain a significant proportion of the variance in OCB.**

To determine whether the JS facets explain a significant proportion of the variance in OCB, the JS dimensions (namely internal work motivation, growth satisfaction and general satisfaction) were entered as independent variables into a multiple regression analysis. The total score for OCB was entered as a dependent variable. The results of the analyses are displayed in table 4.11

Table 4.11: Results of multiple regression analyses with OCB as dependent variable

<b>Independent variables</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b><math>SE\beta</math></b>	<b><math>t</math></b>	<b><math>p</math></b>	<b><math>R</math></b>	<b><math>R^2</math></b>
(Constant)	59.859	11.526	5.193	.00	.515	.265
General satisfaction	.231	.442	.523	.602		
Internal work motivation	1.512	.520	2.909	.004		
Growth satisfaction	1.103	.423	2.608	.010		
$F(3, 101) = 12.144; p < 0.01; \text{Std Error of estimate: } 23.98946$						

From the results displayed in table 4.11 it can be interpreted that the dimensions of JS together explain 26.5% of the variance observed in OCB. The value of the beta coefficients suggest that internal work motivation ( $\beta = 1.512$ ) and growth satisfaction ( $\beta = 1.103$ ) make a significant contribution to explaining the variance in OCB.

The multiple regression results provided evidence that the dimension of JS, and specifically the dimensions of growth satisfaction and internal work motivation, explain a large and meaningful percentage of the variance in OCB. Therefore, hypothesis 3 is accepted.

**Hypothesis 4: There is a statistically significant relationships between a respondent's age and job satisfaction.**

In the present study, age was measured as a continuous variable rather than with age cohorts or categories. For this reason it was possible to determine whether there was an association between age and JS in the sample.

Table 4.12: The correlation results for the dimensions of job satisfaction and age

**Spearman Correlation Analysis (n=105)**

	Age
<b>General satisfaction</b>	.019
<b>Internal work motivation</b>	.227*
<b>Growth satisfaction</b>	.239*
<b>Overall job satisfaction</b>	.183

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

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

Table 4.12 shows the correlations between the respondent's age and the dimensions of JS. It can be seen that the variable age has very weak, non-significant correlations with general satisfaction ( $r = .019$ ) and overall JS ( $r = .183$ ). With statistical significance at the 0.05 level there were weak correlations between age and internal work motivation ( $r = .227$ ) and age and growth satisfaction ( $r = .239$ ).

Based on the result that age is not notably correlated with overall JS, but only with the sub-dimensions of internal work motivation and growth satisfaction, hypothesis 3 can only be partially accepted.

**Hypothesis 5: There is a statistically significant relationship between a respondent's age and OCB.**

Table 4.13: The correlation results for the dimensions of OCB and age

**Spearman Correlation Analysis (n=105)**

	<b>Age</b>
<b>Altruism</b>	.133
<b>Conscientiousness</b>	.419**
<b>Sportsmanship</b>	.046
<b>Courtesy</b>	.250*
<b>Civic virtue</b>	.239*
<b>OCB total</b>	.241*

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

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

In table 4.13 the correlation between the dimensions of OCB and the age of respondents are presented. Altruism ( $r = .133$ ) and sportsmanship ( $r = .046$ ) showed very weak correlations that were not statistically significant. Courtesy ( $r = .250$ ) and civic virtue ( $r = .239$ ) and the composite score for OCB ( $r = .241$ ) showed weak correlations that are statistically significant at the 0.05 level. Conscientiousness had the strongest positive relationship with a moderate correlation of  $r = .419$  ( $p < 0.01$ ) with age.

Hypothesis 5 is also partially accepted, as two of the OCB dimensions as well as the composite score for OCB are significantly related to age. However, the dimensions of altruism and sportsmanship were not significantly correlated with age.

#### **4.7 Conclusion**

The most important findings from the empirical analysis were reported in this chapter. The following chapter presents a discussion of the results observed and compares these results with those of other studies conducted in this field.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the results of the research as they relate to each of the research questions, which were presented in chapter one. Existing literature will be incorporated into the argument where suitable. Additionally, this chapter will explain some limitations of the research as well as discuss recommendations for future studies. The chapter concludes with recommendations on how perceptions of JS (JS) may be improved in an endeavour to maintain a willingness among employees to display OCB.

### **5.2 Reliability of the Instruments**

The measuring instruments utilised in the present study were found to be reliable with Cronbach alpha coefficients ranging from 0.55 to 0.92 for JS and its dimensions, and from 0.67 to 0.94 for OCB and its dimensions. This is in line with the reliability statistics reported in previous studies (Spector, 1997; Miner, 2007; Lam, et al., 1999; Moorman, 1993; Podsakoff, et al., 1990). Based on these findings, the instruments were deemed reliable for use for the government office sample.

### **5.3 Survey Results**

The sample comprised of 105 workers working in a government office situated in the Western Cape, with an average age of 38 years. The sample was more representative of females (n = 59, or 56%) than males (n = 46 or 44%). Most of the respondents were estate controllers (39%, n = 41) and 41% (n = 43) spoke English and/or Xhosa, whilst 61% (n = 64) had a university degree.

### **5.3.1 Job satisfaction levels**

Table 4.6 shows that the arithmetic means for general satisfaction, internal work motivation and growth satisfaction vary from a mean of 4.20 to 4.63. The results of this study further indicate that the respondents in the sample are most content with their co-workers, nature of the work that they execute, as well as with the supervision they receive. They are, however, the unsatisfied with the reward they receive and even less pleased with their opportunities for promotion. The mean value obtained for overall JS (4.34) showed that most workers experience average levels of fulfilment.

Scholars have found that between the ages of 30 and 49 there is a noticeable decrease in satisfaction levels (Drafke & Kossen, 2002). With the average age of the respondents being 38, this could be a reason for the findings of this research. Employees also showed low levels of satisfaction with promotional opportunities. It is the practice of the government department that all available posts, whether new or potentially available for the promotion of an employee, must be advertised externally. This can leave employees dissatisfied, as they do not see potential to build their career in the government office. Furthermore, employees have indicated a lack in their sense of accomplishment due to the heavy workload they receive as a result of a lack of staff.

### **5.3.2 OCB levels**

The results of this study show that respondents displayed high levels of OCB. Table 4.6 illustrates that the arithmetic means for the dimensions of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship range from 4.60 to 5.29. The mean value for overall OCB (4.92) obtained indicates that most employees experienced above-average levels of OCB. This suggests that, in their exchanges with colleagues and clients, employees go out of their way to meet the needs of their clients and assist fellow colleagues. One would expect that OCB would be moderate to high in a government office, where staff is employed with the primary purpose of serving the general public.

## 5.4 Relationship between the Variables

**Hypothesis 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB.**

The findings of the current research, as shown in table 4.9, exhibit a moderate but positive substantial association between overall JS and overall OCB ( $r = 0.447$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). This finding in the present research confirms what has been established in other studies on JS and OCB, for example Bateman and Organ (1983), as it finds a significant relationship between JS and OCB. Similarly, Murphy, et al. (2002), in their studies in Australia, found positive correlations between JS and OCB.

A study conducted by Murphy, Athanasou & King (2001) investigated the role of OCB as a factor of job performance. The research was conducted on a sample comprised of 41 human science workers. The findings indicated that a significant positive association exists between JS and OCB. Results were consistent with the opinion that satisfaction may not be reflected in productivity but is reflected in the discretionary participation in the place of work.

Organ and Ryan's (1995) findings verified that OCB dimensions, such as courtesy, civic virtue and sportsmanship correlated with JS. They also indicated that civic virtue is less correlated with JS than other OCB dimensions. This could be because employees may not actively participate in the company's governance. With regard to JS and OCB, Smith, Organ and Near (1983) reveal that leader-supportive behaviours have an important impact on altruism – one of the OCB dimensions. When workers perceive that their leader supports them, they are more likely to act in a selfless manner and serve others. Organ and Ryan (1995) note that when the OCB dimensions were treated as separate indicators and the dimensions aggregated into an overall OCB measure, the association between satisfaction and the composite OCB was .38.

According to Ladebo (2008), the act of OCB by workers contributes to overall company efficiency. When the job environment can be described as featuring unfulfilled personal goals, inequity and unfair treatment, a decrease of OCB has been reported. Ladebo (2008) conducted research with a sample of 270 respondents at two agricultural organisations. He

argues that a probable situational factor in the place of work that may foster worker satisfaction relates to the quality of the relationship between a worker and supervisor. He postulates that the supportive action of a supervisor towards their subordinates has a tendency to increase the workers' satisfaction with their job. This is based on the social exchange framework. Indeed, empirical evidence supports the argument that satisfied employees engage in cooperative behaviour such as citizenship behaviours (Vigoda-Gadot & Angert, 2007).

Researchers have acknowledged different factors that affect OCB of which leadership is an important one. Experimental support can be found in numerous studies for the association between supportive leadership style and OCB (Podsakoff, et al., 1990; Smith, et al., 1983). It appears that leader supportiveness, an environmental feature, influences OCB indirectly through its effect on JS; but leader supportiveness is also postulated to have an undeviating influence on OCB.

The moderate but positive significant relationship shown in the findings of this research between JS and OCB can also be explained from the viewpoint of scholars who dispute that JS and OCB show a relationship in the existence of a moderating effect. Moorman (1993) found that when the association between organisational justice and OCB is controlled, JS does not correlate to OCB. When perceptions of overall equality are controlled, JS correlates to only two out of five OCB facets. Likewise, Foote and Li-Ping Tang (2008) found that the relationship between JS and OCB was moderated by team commitment to such a degree that the relationship was stronger when team commitment was high. In this view it can also be assumed that, in this research, in the existence of a moderating effect JS may perhaps have had a stronger correlation with OCB.

**Hypothesis 2: There are statistically significant relationships between the dimensions of job satisfaction and the dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour.**

When people experience a positive mood state they tend to have high OCBs (Organ, 1988). This suggests that when workers perceive that they are well treated, such as by being given opportunities or resources by a company, they will be appreciative and, in return, exercise extra effort or execute non-required behaviours within organisational surroundings, such as



cooperative and helping behaviour, or supportiveness of supervisors (Organ, 1988, and Organ, et al., 2006). Various researchers found empirical support for this. Bateman and Organ (1983) establish that JS and all of its dimensions have a significant and positive relationship with citizenship behaviours. This confirms the findings of this research.

In George and Brief (1992), correlations were drawn between the facets of JS and OCB. It was observed that altruism; conscientiousness and civic virtue of the personnel were high. They manifested behaviours such as helping others who had high workloads or who had been absent; willingly taking time to help those who were busy, and assisting to orientate new people. Personnel were always punctual, didn't take long lunch breaks and followed company procedures, rules and regulations even though nobody was watching. Lee and Allen (2002) found that when workers feel that their company is considerate and caring in respect of their advancement in their work, personal growth and development, they feel happy and satisfied with the company. Furthermore, the workers find themselves compelled to give back by demonstrating and practicing positive behaviour and attitudes that will profit their company in general rather than any particular individual within the company.

Organ and Ryan (1995) researched the association between JS and OCB and noted that there is a modest correlation between JS factors and altruism. Konovsky and Organ (1996) analysed dispositional factors and the inconsistency these explain in OCB. They reported that a significant proportion of the inconsistency by conscientiousness is explained in at least three dimensions of OCB, namely compliance, civic virtue and altruism. This result provides empirical confirmation that dispositional factors, especially conscientiousness, are strongly connected to dimensions of OCB. Chibowa, et al., (2011) tested the relationship between JS and OCB dimensions among administrative workers of five chosen organisations in Zimbabwe where he noted that there is a weak but considerably positive association between JS and all facets of OCB.

**Hypothesis 3: The dimensions of job satisfaction (growth satisfaction, internal work motivation and general satisfaction) explain a significant proportion of the variance in OCB.**

According to Isen and Baron (1991), people are more prone to assist others when they are in a positive mood. Positive mood is also said to predict altruism. George and Brief (1992) recommend that positive moods can also lead to extra role behaviours in an organisation, such as developing oneself, helping others and making constructive suggestions, which are also part of OCB.

People doing intrinsic processes of motivation partake in activities that they enjoy. They create a satisfying work environment for themselves and other co-workers. Understandably, the assumption can be made that employees who enjoy their work are more expected to aid others and form a helping work environment and that these employees find OCB's enjoyable. However, studies by Organ (1997) and other researchers discussed the extent to which rewards encourage OCB and suggested that workers use indirect and informal beliefs about potential rewards in their decisions to act according to certain OCB's. OCB could be considered in larger contexts, such as future raises, performance reviews or other decisions in which rewards are made. In their assessment of the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation, other researchers (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 2001), reported that physical rewards undermine intrinsic motivation out of free choice. Barbuto, Brown, Wheeler and Wilhite, (2003) found a negative association between instrumental motivation and OCB.

Ackfeldt and Coote (2005) state that JS is considerably and positively related with OCB as reflected in the approach of helping (altruism) and selfishness, and public interest (civic virtue). Ariani (2008) states that the organisation's motives and character self-evaluation is a core factor that can encourage OCB member organisations independently. Spector (1997) suggests that happiness with quality of job life is a key determinant of OCB in an employee.

Organ and Ryan (1995) hypothesised that the character dimensions of conscientiousness and agreeableness explain a regularly shared difference among JS and OCB. A study involving 99 workers in the UK and US showed that these proportions undeniably accounted for a sizeable discrepancy in satisfaction. Conscientiousness was also the cause of exclusive

differences in one dimension of OCB. Satisfaction was the cause of a unique difference in OCB not explained by any of these personality proportions.

The association linking JS to OCB is derived from the idea that, because of a reciprocal exchange relationship, it is only extremely satisfied workers who are likely to engage in OCB. A sturdy social exchange association between managers and employees will help preserve positive working relationships. This will lead to positive outcomes, such as JS, organisational commitment and trust (Chiboiwa, et al, 2011).

Thus, in the government office when employees experience low levels of JS they may tend to display low levels of OCB and vice versa. The results of this study indicate that 26.5% of the variance in OCB is explained by JS dimensions. As this is a significant proportion of variance in OCB, it is clear that JS has an important effect on OCB and, as a result, JS needs to be managed in order to have higher levels of OCB in the organisation.

**Hypothesis 4: There is a statistically significant relationship between a respondent's age and job satisfaction.**

Work is not only a key source of income but also a significant part of an individual's life that contributes to his/her social position (Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). Age is possibly the most commonly researched demographic trait in respect of its relationship to JS. Numerous researchers have recommended that the significance of job attributes is age-related (Moyes, Williams & Koch, 2006), however the nature of the association between age and JS is unclear (De Nobile & McCormick, 2008). Studies have shown no significant differences in JS levels and age (Alavi and Askaripur, 2003; Carr and Human, 1988; Kacmar and Ferris, 1989; Siu, 2002). These findings are consistent with the findings of this study.

Many researchers have recommended a positive association between JS and age (Aldag and Brief, 1975; Ronen, 1978 and Rhodes, 1983), whereas others have recommended a U-shaped or non-significant association (Clarke, et al., 1996; Luthans and Thomas, 1989) that would imply that older employees are more satisfied than younger ones (Drafke and Kossen, 2002; Greenberg and Baron, 1995). The average age of the respondents in the current study

is 38. This could be the reason why age is not drastically correlated with overall JS. Siassi, Crocetti and Spiro (1975) reported higher levels of JS in employees above 40 than in those below 40. Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) examined the relationship between age, occupational level, and overall JS and found that the strongest predictors of JS were rank and age.

Mottaz (1987) in Oshagbemi (2003) gives a number of reasons for the difference in JS between younger and older employees. Younger employees are usually more dissatisfied than older workers, because they require more than their jobs can provide. The author says that older employees hold more seniority and work experience. This allows them to shift into more rewarding and satisfying jobs. As a result, they place less importance on promotion or autonomy, demanding less from their jobs and making them more satisfied than their younger counterparts. Lastly, workers are inclined to adjust to work values and work surroundings the longer they are employed, adding to greater JS.

There does not seem to be a significant relationship between age and JS in the sample. This means that actions that are taken to enhance satisfaction may be equally effective for individuals of all ages.

**Hypothesis 5: There is a statistically significant relationship between respondent's age and OCB.**

Over the years, an immense amount of research has been conducted on OCB, emphasising both antecedents and consequences (Podsakoff, et al., 2000), though many researchers have been unsuccessful in finding a significant association between age and OCB (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Kumar, Bakhshi and Rani, 2009; Singh and Singh, 2010). Jahangir, et al. (2004) say that diverse important motives in both younger and older employees may compel them to exhibit OCB.

The results of the present study demonstrate that age showed a positive, yet weak relationship with levels of OCB at the government office. These results are consistent with previous research results. For example, Li and Wan (2007) investigated how age influences a person's view of OCB as in-role or extra-role behaviour in a Chinese context. These researchers showed that OCB was related to age, and that older workers perceived OCB as in-role behaviour. Ng and Feldman (2008) conducted a meta-analysis of the correlation

between age and the dimensions of job performance together with OCB. They found that OCB was drastically and positively associated with age.

It is also suggested that older workers tend to have lower requirements for achievement and higher requirements for affiliation than do younger workers (Doering, Rhodes, & Schuster, 1983). Furthermore, Kanungo and Conger (1993) claim that people direct their behaviours in an interpersonal transactional way and further growth of these behaviours focuses on meeting moral and mutual obligations. In other words, the increase of age could change an individual's behaviour from competing to cooperating or helping. Thus, one can imagine that older employees will display higher levels of OCB than younger employees.

In the current sample the average age is 38. This means that employees tend to display high levels of OCB, as shown by the results.

## **5.5 Limitations of the Study**

The number of participants in this research, although sufficient for statistical testing, represents a fairly small sample. The external validity can be improved by the selection of a larger sample. There are very few published studies with the combination of JS and OCB in the South African context, although some dissertations have covered the topic with mostly small samples. Furthermore, the study was conducted in the public service sector. Although the findings may be valuable for similar organisations, related studies would have to be conducted for other service organisations in order to determine if the model can also be applied to them. The sample drawn from the government office was only conducted in the Western Cape and so generalisation to other government offices may be limited.

## **5.6 Recommendations**

### **5.6.1 Recommendations for future research**

The present study used a quantitative research technique. Future studies may also include a qualitative research method as it provides room for probing in instances where clarity may be needed.

Another future study could measure JS over time and see what impact this has on OCB. This will allow one to see whether JS is transient. Bearing in mind that the present study found that JS explains 26% of the variance in OCB, it would be important to maintain high levels of JS. Furthermore, 74% of the variance in OCB was unaccounted for by JS. Thus, it would be relevant for future research to study further antecedents of OCB.

### **5.6.2 Recommendations for the organisation**

The present study finds that an association does exist between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. However, the results of the study show that job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour levels in the government office are moderate. In view of these findings the following recommendations could be made:

To improve the levels of job satisfaction through supervision, the government office can use training and development to better the knowledge and skills of their supervisors. The government office can carry out surveys amongst their employees to determine the areas where they are not satisfied with their supervisors. Relevant training and development courses can then be provided to improve the skill levels of the supervisors.

Management can increase the levels of OCB dimensions in their employees by recognizing employees who engage themselves in such behaviour. The recognition can come in the form of verbal commendation and rewards such as employee of the month. This practice can be

very beneficial to government office, in that, it leads to employee satisfaction which would encourage them to perform better for the government office.

## **5.7 Conclusion**

Further studies on the topic of JS and OCB in a South African context are needed. This research gives new insights into the relationship between these two constructs. The results of this research contribute to the growing body of studies on JS and OCB in general and for South Africa in particular. Whilst the results point to interesting findings regarding the two variables and sub-dimensions, it is hoped that organisations and their human resource departments will take heed of this information. The finding that JS dimensions, specifically those that refer to more intrinsic forms of motivation, impact on OCB, informs management policy and practice with regard to managing staff motivation and satisfaction. This will aid management in improving the successful attainment of company goals and in providing a high level of service delivery through OCB's.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A: Information Letter

**Title of Study:** The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour in a Western Cape government office.

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**Background:**

You are invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether or not to participate in this study, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully. Please ask the researcher if there is anything that is not clear of if you need more information.

**The purpose of this study** is to describe the current level of job satisfaction and its relationship to organisation citizenship behaviour within a government office.

**Study Procedure:**

You will receive a questionnaire that will be written in English. Your expected time commitment for this study is ten minutes. The nature of the questionnaire is based on two components, namely the job diagnostic survey (JDS), developed by Hackman and Oldham (1974), and a measure for organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) that was developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). The overall job satisfaction is measured



in terms of three dimensions, including general satisfaction (five items), internal work motivation (six items), and growth satisfaction (four items). The OCB measure uses 24 items to describe five dimensions of OCB.

**Risks:**

The risks of this study are minimal. These risks are similar to those you experience when disclosing work-related information to others. You may decline to answer any or all questions and you may terminate your involvement at any time if you so choose.

**Benefits and Compensation:**

There will be no direct benefit to you for your participation in this study. There will also be no compensation for completing the questionnaire. Your contribution will help the management community to better understand factors that may improve job satisfaction and OCB in the workplace.

**Confidentiality:**

Your responses will be anonymous. You may request that all or part of your responses be kept anonymous at any time. Every effort will be made by the researcher to preserve your confidentiality by doing the actions detailed below.

The researcher and the members of the researcher's committee will review the researcher's collected data. Information from this research will be used solely for the purpose of this study and any publications that may result from it. All other participants involved in this study will not be identified and their anonymity will be maintained.

A summary report of the data will be made available to you and your organisation. However, no identifiable data with respect to biographical variables (i.e. age, gender, department, etc.) will be made available to your organisation.

Participant data will be kept confidential, except in cases where the researcher is legally obligated to report specific incidents. These incidents include, but may not be limited to, incidents of abuse and suicide risk.

**Voluntary Participation:**

Your participation in this study is voluntary. It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part in this study, you will be asked to sign a consent form. You will also be given a copy of the information letter. If you decide to take part in this study, you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. You are free to not answer any question or questions if you so choose. This will not affect the relationship you have with the researcher.

**Unforeseeable Risks:**

There may be risks that are not anticipated. However, every effort will be made to minimise any risks.

## **APPENDIX B: Informed Consent Form**

### **Consent:**

By signing this consent form, I confirm that I have read and understood the information and have had the opportunity to ask questions. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason and without cost. I understand that I will be given a copy of the information letter, and the consent form (should I want these). By signing below, I voluntarily agree to take part in this study.

Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX C: Questionnaire

### 1. Biographical Information

Please indicate the following with a cross in the column provided.

#### 1.1. Gender

Male	Female
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#### 1.2. Age

_____ years old
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#### 1.3. Salary per month (after tax)

Below R2 000	R2 001-R4 000	R4 001-R8 000	R8 001-R12 000	Above R12 000
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#### 1.4. Marital status

Never married	Married	Divorced	Widowed
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Please state your number of dependents: \_\_\_\_\_

#### 1.5. Department working for

Curatorship	Insolvency	Deceased estates	Trusts	Guardians fund
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Others, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

#### 1.6. Current position at the Master's Office

Clerk	Estate controller	Assistant master	Deputy master	Data capturer
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Others, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

**1.7. Years working for the Master's Office**

_____ years
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**1.8. Home language**

English	Afrikaans	Xhosa	Zulu	Tsonga	Venda
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Others, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

**1.9. Educational level**

High school and below	Degree/Diploma	First degree	Masters/Doctors
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**2. Job Satisfaction**

Each statement below is something that a person might say about his or her job. You are to indicate your own personal feelings about your job by marking how much you agree with each of the statements, where:

1 = Disagree strongly, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Disagree slightly, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Agree slightly, 6 = Agree, 7 = Agree strongly.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job.							
2. I'm generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in my job.							
3. I frequently think of quitting my job.							
4. My opinion of myself improves when I do my job well.							

Each statement below is something that a person might say about his or her job. You are to indicate your own personal feelings about your job by marking how much you agree with each of the statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well.							
6. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly at my job.							
7. My own feelings generally are not affected by how well I do my job.							

Please think of the other people in your organisation who hold the same job you do. If no one has exactly the same job as you, think of the job that is most similar to yours. Think about how accurately each of the statements describes the feelings of those people about their job. It is quite alright if your answers here are different from how you describe your own reactions to the job. Often different people feel quite differently about the same job. How much do you agree with the following statements?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Most people in this job are very satisfied with their job.							
9. People in this job often think of quitting.							
10. Most people in this job feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when they do the job well.							
11. Most people in this job feel bad or unhappy when they find that they have performed their work poorly.							

Now please indicate how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job listed below.

	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
12. The amount of personal growth and development I get from doing my job.							
13. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.							
14. The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in my job.							
15. The amount of challenge in my job.							

### 3. Organisation Citizenship Behaviour

For this questionnaire, please keep one of your fellow employees in mind. It does not matter who you choose, as long as you answer all of the questions in this section with this individual in mind. Based on your perception of your colleague, please respond how much you agree with each of the statements on a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Helps others who have heavy workloads.							
2. Is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.							
3. Helps others who have been absent.							
4. Willingly helps others who have work-related problems.							
5. Helps orient new people even though it is not required.							
6. Is one of the most conscientious employees.							
7. Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.							
8. Attendance at work is above the norm.							
9. Does not take extra breaks.							
10. Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.							
11. Is the classic 'squeaky wheel' that always needs greasing.							
12. Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.							



Please respond to how much you agree with each of the statements on a scale of 1 to 7. With 1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Tends to make 'mountains out of molehills'.							
14. Always focuses on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.							
15. Always finds fault with what the organisation is doing.							
16. Tries to avoid creating problems for co-workers.							
17. Considers the impact of his/her actions on co-workers.							
18. Does not abuse the rights of others.							
19. Takes steps to try to prevent problems with other employees.							
20. Is mindful of how his/her behaviour affects other people's jobs.							
21. Keeps abreast of changes in the organisation.							
22. Attends meetings that are not mandatory, but considered important.							
23. Attends functions that are not required, but help the company image.							
24. Reads and keeps up with organisation announcements, memos and so forth.							